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CHILDREN IN NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Notes and Recommendations by the Executive Director

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INTRODUCTION

1. In the developing countries, the key to self-sustaining growth is improvement of the quality of the oncoming generations. This is obviously true in regard to social development, which it is the objective of UNICEF to promote in so far as it affects children. It is perhaps less obvious in regard to economic development, which, however, will be conditioned by the quality of the flow of young persons into the growth sectors of the developing countries in the course of the next few decades. Of particular importance is their capacity for productive work, their adaptability to the new forms of community life required by industrialization, and the number of leaders they will produce for the extension of the development process. This does not mean that the flow of capital into the developing countries is not needed; it does mean that the quality of the personnel who will be managing and using the resulting installations and equipment is fundamental.
2. From the ranks of today's children must be drawn the planners, the administrators, the industrial and commercial supervisors, and the other key personnel who will chart and direct the economic affairs of the coming decades; the new migrants to industrial areas whose success in acquiring job skills and in adapting to the disciplines of factory work will be of critical importance to the whole course of industrial development; and the cultivators whose willingness to adopt new agricultural techniques will, to a very large extent, govern the expansion of the food supply of deficit areas.
3. One year ago, the Executive Board of UNICEF considered a provisional assessment of the needs of children in developing countries, and decided that the Fund should consider requests for help relating to the main problems of children in the country concerned, whatever these problems were. The Fund thus put itself in readiness to give the maximum of assistance, within the limits of its resources, to the development of children and youth. Action in this direction can, however, be taken only by each individual country. It therefore follows that the Board must now consider how countries are planning for children, and what obstacles stand in the way of more attention to this aspect of national development.

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4. Planning began in many countries with a capital development budget. The establishment of the proper relation of investment to consumption and the balancing of immediate and long-term objectives remain fundamental tools of planning. More recently, planning has begun to embrace the social as well as the economic aspect of development, and the main tool is sectoral or functional planning. The various aspects of planning to develop the capacities of the oncoming generations are the concern of the functional ministries responsible for education, health, agriculture, social welfare, labour, and, where it exists, community development.

5. Before the plan is complete, the sector plans have to be looked at not only to see how they fit into the desired proportion of investment to consumption but also from several general points of view. Frequently, the general effect of the proposals is assessed as they apply to urban and rural areas. Their effect on certain groups of the population, e.g., manpower or the income-earning age-group may also be assessed.

6. The child population is always included in the demographic data on which the plan is based. However, it would appear essential for countries which have a system for economic and social planning also to review the provisions being made for the development of their total human resources. To concentrate on the needs of the current labour force and ignore those who will soon be part of this force would negate the intent of developing planning.

7. Many of the important problems of children and youth cannot be dealt with by functional ministries working separately. Thus, for example, the problem of nutrition in a country with a shortage of food supply requires the co-operation at least of the ministries of health and agriculture, and in many cases, the ministries of education and others besides. It is important also to bring into the planning process, through some method of participation and advice, representatives of agencies and competent experts outside the government.

8. Countries which do not have a general plan for their social development may nevertheless need to organize areas of co-operation in relation to specific problems that arise, such as that of nutrition just cited. Much of the following discussion applies to both cases.

PRESENT PRACTICE OF DEVELOPMENT PLANNING
IN REGARD TO CHILDREN AND YOUTH

9. Published development plans reveal very little about how countries are at present handling the problem of planning and programming in relation to meeting children's needs, and how they are augmenting the flow of qualified personnel into the modern sectors of the economy. Approximately fifty developing countries publish plans. An examination of a selection of such plans from different parts of the world shows that it is not usual to include any systematic review of the provisions of the plan as they affect children and youth.^{1/} However references to children are made in connexion with plans to be carried out by individual departments of government especially in the fields of education, health and social welfare. While the absence of a published reference does not necessarily mean that no overall review was made during the planning process, it appears significant that even countries now publishing their second or third "Five-Year Plan" do not discuss important problems that tend to fall between ministries, such as those of children in the intermediary age between school and work, and in the pre-school age.

10. All plans examined contain projects which constitute an investment in human resources. Sometimes the philosophy of investment is stated explicitly; for example, the "Second Five-Year Plan" of the Federation of Malaya states:-

"The considerable public investment in education, health and other social services does not directly produce a measurable economic output even though the benefit to the community and, in the long run, to the economy is very large."^{2/}

^{1/} India's "Third Five-Year Plan" states in connexion with child welfare programmes that it was "proposed to take up in each State and Union Territory at least one pilot project in child welfare on the basis of complete co-ordination in services provided by medical and public health, education, social welfare and other agencies." It expressed the hope that these pilot projects would suggest ways of securing the integrated functioning of different services, many of which already exist. Government of India, Planning Commission, Third Five-Year Plan, p. 719.

^{2/} Federation of Malaya, Second Five-Year Plan 1961-1965, Government Press, 1961, p. 24.

The "Western Region Development Plan" of the Western Region of Nigeria considers that:

" . . . [the Region's] most valuable resources lay in its people, their industry, enterprise, and skill and affirmed that the policy of the Government is to continue to make every effort to ensure that the people of the region are equipped in every way to make their full contribution to their own prosperity."^{3/}

Morocco's Five-Year Plan regards efforts to meet the shortage of trained personnel as mandatory even if that causes a burden on public resources because:

"this effort is an indispensable prerequisite if the next generation is to advance as far along the way of progress as Morocco intends."^{4/}

11. While recognizing the development of their human resources as an investment in economic terms, many plans express belief in the desirability of such development for its own sake.
12. Some planning commissions have a member responsible for the social aspects of development (e.g., the Philippines). A few plans discuss the inter-action between specific economic and social measures.
13. A few plans also touch upon the machinery of co-ordination in general, but not with specific reference to children's needs. Outside the work of the planning commissions, however, some countries have a National Council of the Child or similar body. This is frequently a combination of governmental and non-governmental agencies with the power to make recommendations on policy to the Government, but their effectiveness varies.
14. Various ministries of government are naturally concerned with children within their functional responsibilities. This applies particularly to education, followed in importance by health and social welfare. In few countries does there appear to be interdepartmental machinery for the planning of co-ordinated action to deal with programmes that require work by more than one ministry. In the experience of UNICEF, it appears to be more difficult for countries to bring forward programmes which

^{3/} Western Region of Nigeria, Western Region Development Plan 1960-65. (Sessional paper No. 17 of the Regional Legislature of 1959), p.8.

^{4/} Royaume du Maroc, Ministère de l'Economie Nationale, Division de la Coordination Economique et du Plan, Plan Quinquennal 1960-1964, p. 22.

require the collaboration of several departments than those which may be carried out within one ministry. This is a natural and universal problem that has its parallel at the international level also.

OBJECTIONS TO DEVELOPMENT PLANNING
FOR CHILDREN AND YOUTH

All resources needed for economic development

15. An obstacle to the inclusion of children and youth in development planning is the skepticism, not always expressed, about the wisdom of allocating resources to this purpose. What a country can do for its children is limited by its economic progress, and many of those responsible for policy believe that economic development must be given priority if any lasting gains, including those of a humanitarian nature, are to be achieved. These doubts appear to be intensified by the rapid increase in child population, commonly attributed to improved health services, and the fear that even food production will not be able to keep pace. In the following sections an attempt is made to analyse this problem more thoroughly to see whether the above-mentioned views require modification.

Population growth

16. Some objections are based on the assumption that programmes to benefit children will accelerate still more the current unprecedented growth in the world's population. This growth is certainly one of the major social problems of the present day. It aggravates many of the problems of children by placing demands on family resources and social facilities, for example, the demand for additional places in school.

17. In the developing countries the general decline in death rates which has taken place in the past twenty or thirty years has not been matched by a comparable decline in birth-rates. The average rate of population growth in the developing countries is higher than in the economically advanced countries, and is generally between 2 and 3 per cent per year. In a country where the rate of natural

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increase comes to 2.5 per cent per year, the equivalent of 7.5 per cent of the national income must go into capital formation each year just to keep the standard of living from declining.^{5/} A world population of at least 6,000 million is envisaged by the 2000 A.D.^{6/} and a tremendous investment will be required to meet the needs of these increased numbers.

18. Part of the economic and social mission of the organizations in the United Nations family, as set forth by the member states in their governing bodies, is to help raise the standards of living in the developing countries. This is part of the answer to the population problem, for if economic and social development can be accelerated so that they outstrip population growth in these countries, the eventual result--granted that past trends in the industrialized countries provide a reliable basis for prediction--should be a moderation in the rate of population increase, although it is difficult to foresee how long it would take for this to come about.

19. A reduction in the number of children born in the world would obviously depend on hundreds of millions of family decisions. One of the general effects of a rising standard of living is to help break the hold of fatalism. When people realize that it is in their power to improve the conditions under which they live and under which their children will live, much progress becomes possible. Social programmes that improve the chances of the child's surviving and growing up to realize his potentials encourage parents to appreciate the value of smaller, better-cared-for families. It is the view of the United Nations Population Commission that each country must decide for itself whether to supplement these anticipated effects of industrialization and social development with family planning information disseminated through government channels,^{7/} and several countries have adopted this course.

^{5/} Assuming the ratio of capital investment to the resulting increase of annual income is about 5:1. The "incremental capital-output ratio" for twenty-four developing countries is given in World Economic Survey, 1959, (United Nations publication, Sales No. 60.II.C1) p.75.

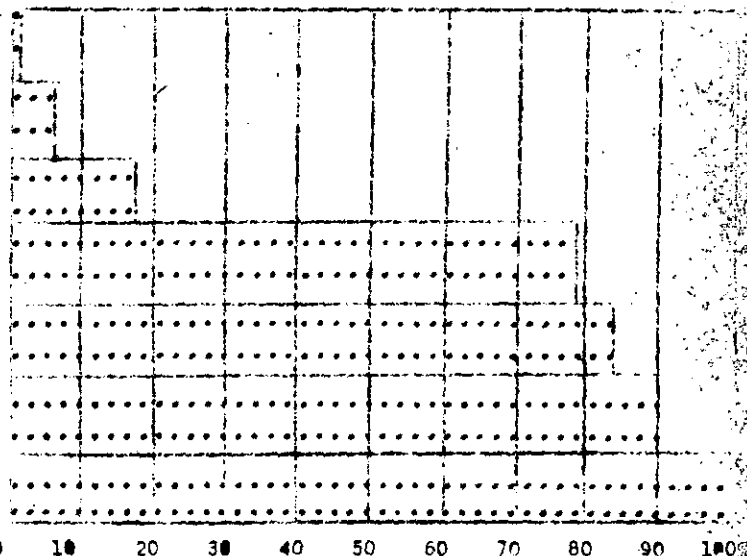
^{6/} The Future Growth of World Population (United Nations publication, Sales No.51.XIII.2).

^{7/} Official Records of the Economic and Social Council, Twenty-third session, Supplement No.4, para. 96.

The Main Stages of Attrition between Birth and Graduation from Secondary School in Three Low-income Countries

COLOMBIA

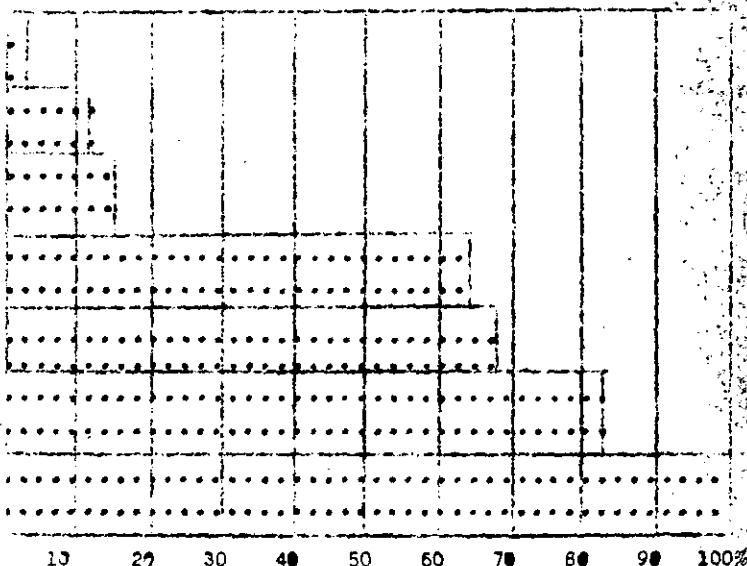
- 100% complete secondary school
- 83% enroll in secondary school
- 79% complete primary school
- 79% enroll in primary school
- 83% reach age seven
- 98% reach age one
- Number of Live Births equals 100%



SOURCE: enrollment and successful examinees in 1958 extracted from the "Anuario General de Estadística, 1958"

INDIA

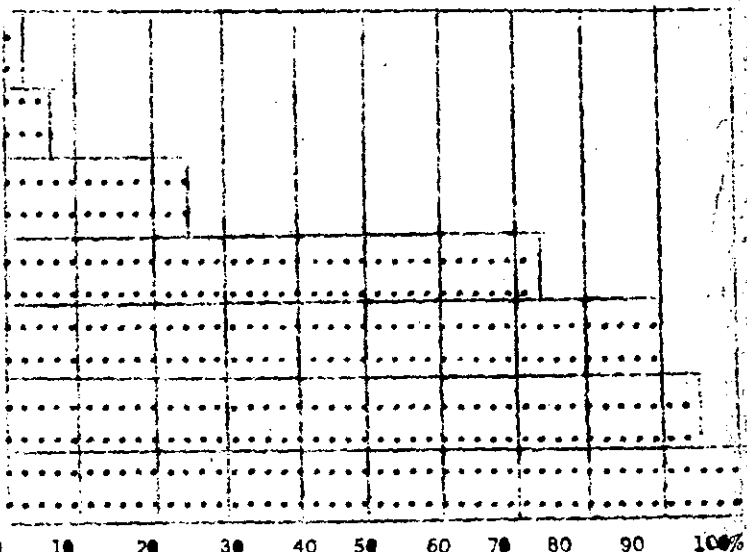
- 2.2% complete secondary school
- 11% enroll in secondary school
- 64% complete primary school
- 64% enroll in primary school
- 67% reach age seven
- 82% reach age one
- Number of live births equals 100%



SOURCE: enrollment and successful examinees in 1958 extracted from "Education in India 1956-57" Vol. II

The Philippines

- 2.8% complete secondary school
- 4% enter secondary school
- 23% complete grade six
- 72% enter primary school
- 96% reach age seven
- 93% reach age one
- Number of live births equals 100%



SOURCE: "Survey of Basic Child Needs in the Philippines," is taken from "Survey of Public Schools in the Philippines, 1960"

The Main Stages of Attrition in Two High-Income Countries

FRANCE

22% complete secondary school

33% enter secondary school*

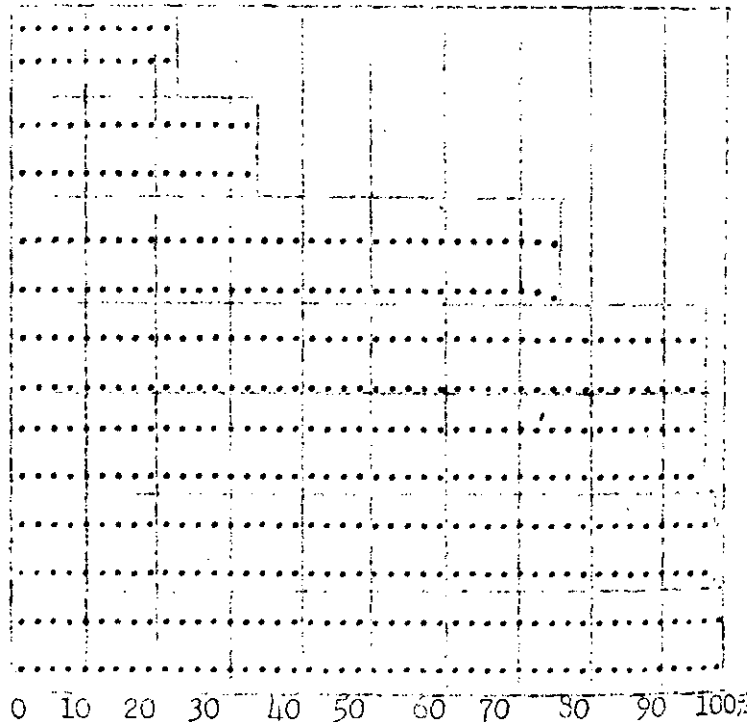
75% complete primary school

97% enroll in primary school

97% reach age seven

98% reach age one

Number of live births equals
 100%



SOURCE: Successful examinees in 1959 as reported by the French Embassy.

*Secondary school includes lycées, collèges techniques, and cours complémentaires

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

48.7% complete secondary school

63.2% enter secondary school

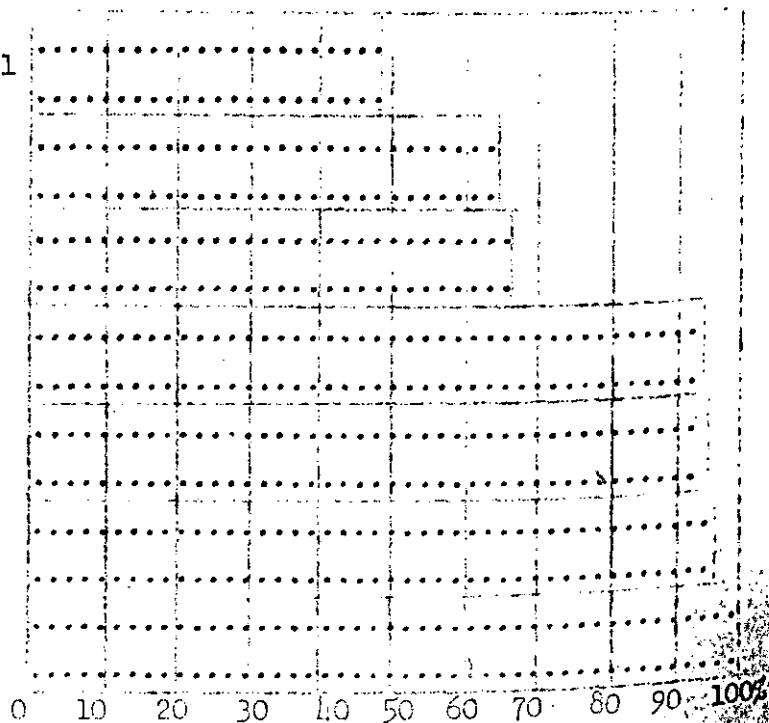
65.0% complete primary school

96.3% enter primary school

96.8% reach age seven

97.4% reach age one

Number of live births equals
 100%



SOURCE: Estimated school enrollment from 1952 to 1962, extracted from the
US Abstract of Statistics, 1950.

20. In any event, many programmes benefiting children, at this point in the history of the developing countries, serve to help those who would in any case survive to grow up to be healthier, more energetic, and better educated adults.^{8/} Thus the general effect of the efforts being made to improve the condition of children is to improve the quality of the next generation. Furthermore, the care a child receives during infancy and the pre-school years substantially affects not only his chances of immediate survival, but also his health and vigour in the productive period of his life.

SHORTAGE OF PERSONNEL

21. In the very countries commonly thought of as having too large a population for their economic good, there is usually an acute shortage of many types of trained personnel, this is of the technicians, supervisors, teachers, professional personnel and skilled workers necessary for the growth and development of a modern society. Such personnel need, at the very least, a primary education plus some further technical or vocational training; many of them need a secondary education plus further study or training. A country's "personnel potential" is therefore limited by the number of children who are able to complete their primary and secondary schooling. The above charts show the main stages of attrition between birth and graduation from secondary school in five countries. The contrast between the two high-income and the three low-income countries is striking and typical. In the low-income countries the large number of children born every year is reduced to a trickle of potential personnel by the time childhood is completed, and it is these countries that suffer from a tremendous waste of human resources.

22. The administrator or planner approaching this problem purely from the viewpoint of the needs of the economy would first of all try to expand the

^{8/} Much progress has already been made in reducing infant mortality, which is responsible for the greatest loss of life. Although there still remains the need to reduce infant mortality rates further in developing countries--typically 100 or more per thousand live births, compared with under 50 in the economically advanced countries--the current tendency, referred to in the following section, is to increase substantially the proportion of resources going to care in the later stages of life.

present trickle of graduates from secondary and technical schools into a more substantial flow. Along these lines, the Conference of African States on Education held in Addis Ababa in May 1961 adopted a plan to double secondary school enrolment in the period 1961-1966, whereas primary school enrolment was to be expanded by only 50 per cent.^{9/} The administrator would also concern himself with vocational guidance and training for older children and adolescents. He might very well come to the conclusion that urban social services should be strengthened to help migrants from the rural areas adapt themselves to ways of living in industrial and urban society. Later on he would be interested in broadening the lower levels of the personnel pyramid. He would then concern himself with the expansion of primary education. (The high proportion of children who start primary school but do not finish is a typical problem in the developing countries.) Finally, he would logically find himself concerned with health services and better nutrition for the pre-school child, for ill health and malnutrition not only cut the numbers of children entering the primary grades but also impair their later development.

23. In this manner the administrator would be likely to arrive at the same type of overall programme for children, involving both protection and preparation for life, that has logically evolved--although in an altogether different order--from a consideration of the rights of the child. Among these rights, the right to survival is naturally taken as the most basic, and this has led to extensive efforts to reduce infant mortality. At the end of the Second World War, a number of maternal and child health services in the developing countries were concentrating very much on midwifery. Since then, there has been a movement to extend health protection to the infant and to the vulnerable weanling and pre-school child, to improve the nutrition of young children, and to bring endemic diseases under control. Day-care centres for the children of working mothers and special programmes for other children who cannot receive the full care they

^{9/} Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa, 1961. UNESCO Final Report, (UNESCO/ED/181).

need in the home are measures that are being undertaken to fulfil the child's right to protection during his tender years. Although about half the children of primary school age in the developing countries still do not attend school, progress has been made towards the goal of universal primary education as a first step towards fulfilling the child's general right to an education which will enable him, on a basis of equal opportunity, to develop his abilities . . . and to become a useful member of society".^{10/}

24. Thus the approach of the economist concerned over shortages of trained personnel and that of the person concerned with the rights of the child as an individual tend, in the long run, to meet on a common ground of action. Philosophically, too, they are not so opposed as they might seem, for the rights of the child are very incompletely served by "saving a life" during infancy or early childhood but never developing its potentials, including the potential for satisfying work.

THE CONCEPT OF BALANCED ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT IN REGARD TO CHILDREN AND YOUTH

25. Programmes designed to improve the condition of children are considered to be social development programmes. The final object of economic development and of social development is the same: a better life. Economic development contributes to this indirectly by providing the means. Social programmes--health, education and social welfare services, among others--contribute to this end directly by helping people to make the best use of the means available to improve their lives, as well as by fitting them better for economic activity.

26. Planning for economic development alone will not ensure the development of a country. The development programme, and especially those aspects relating to children and youth, needs to have regard to their future role as parents, responsible citizens, and participants in the **cultural** life of society.

^{10/} Declaration of the Rights of the Child (General Assembly resolution 1386 (XIV), Principle 7).

27. The Economic and Social Council, and later the General Assembly, suggested that genuine progress, that is to say progress in human terms, could best be ensured by balanced and coordinated economic and social developments.^{11/} In any given country, it will be a delicate task to maintain a balance. There is no need to maintain it too precisely, for the tensions arising from a certain imbalance may serve as a spur to development efforts. But too great an imbalance will impede economic and social development alike.

28. The problem is simplified by the fact that there are many areas -- including a great many affecting the needs of children -- where action is required for both economic and social reasons. Education is a good example. A distinguished economist advised the Conference of African States on Education, referred to above, that, from the point of view of economic development alone, the first target of the countries south of the Sahara might well be, in terms of the respective age groups, 50 per cent enrolment in primary schools, 5 per cent in secondary schools, and 0.5 per cent in universities, with many other graduates of primary and secondary school going on to technical training. This first target would cost about 2 per cent of the national income of these countries. The next target proposed, to double these enrolments, would cost 4 per cent of the national income. Even this is considerably below the level suggested by social considerations -- but it is considerably above current average performance.^{12/}

29. Economic development and a rising standard of living are very often the best social medicine. It would, however, be erroneous to conclude from this proposition that there is no need to give special attention to social problems. It would be false, for example, to assume that if the income of the cultivator is raised by an increased production of cash crops, he will necessarily buy and know how to use better food for the nourishment of his family. As a matter of fact, people changing from a subsistence to a money economy tend to spend a large part of their income on "unproductive" items.

^{11/} General Assembly resolution 1675 (XVI).

^{12/} W.A. Lewis, "Education and Economic Development", "UNESCO Final Report, Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa", (UNESCO/ED/181) Annex IV, p.77. The percentages of national income are orders of magnitude for the region, not targets for individual countries, which would depend on their own circumstances.

30. On the other hand, economic development may exacerbate certain social problems. Thus industrialization, in its earlier stages at least, tends to encourage the growth of urban fringe areas if measures are not taken to prevent it; the slum environment in turn creates difficult problems of social adjustment and tends to depress the health and productivity of labour.

31. More important to emphasize, because it is the least recognized aspect of their mutual relations, is the fact that social programmes may, and frequently do, speed the process of economic development.

32. Industry is nourished by migrants from rural areas who flock to the cities looking for work. Industry will benefit from any social programmes that help these people adjust to urban life and that protect their health and nutrition. It will also benefit from any vocational training and guidance programmes that can be carried out on their behalf.

33. The task of agriculture is to increase food production so that in the first place the growing proportion of the population that is to be engaged in industry may be adequately nourished. Here again the social contribution to development is an essential one. Increased agricultural production depends on substantial technical innovations, such as irrigation, multiple cropping, the use of chemical fertilizers and pesticides. The spread of such improved agricultural techniques ultimately depends on the decisions and actions of millions of individual cultivators and can be greatly facilitated by the education of rural populations, as was strikingly illustrated by Denmark in the nineteenth century and Japan in the twentieth. In fact, a clear correlation has been noticed between the rate of literacy in different countries and their use of chemical fertilizers. Certain disease-control campaigns contribute directly to agricultural development - campaigns against malaria, for example, since the season when outbreaks of malaria are most widespread and severe is usually the season of peak agricultural work.

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34. Nutrition programmes also have far-reaching economic implications. Widespread nutrition education and the planned development of agricultural production along the lines necessary to fulfil the nutritional requirements of the population can help to keep the balance between supply and demand from being badly upset by the changing pattern of demand for various foods that usually accompanies a rising standard of living.

Investment in human resources^{13/}

35. The need for an intensive investment of long-term development capital in the present decade in order to prepare an adequate base for future economic development is generally recognized both by the developing countries and the countries that are giving them financial assistance. This agreement is frequently accompanied by an unspoken assumption that the only proper objects of such an investment effort are capital goods of a material nature: irrigation works, roads, railways and ports, factories and so forth. Little account is generally taken of the importance of investing in the rising generation itself, the generation that must acquire the skills, attitudes and knowledge to use these capital goods efficiently.

36. In many developing countries, children generally join the labour force around the age of twelve, some indeed at an earlier age. Up to that time they have to be considered as an economic liability. Yet within a few years they will become the basis of the economy of these countries. Hence has come the concept of investment in children, involving an input of resources up to about the age of twelve and returns from then on. This concept is elaborated here, not as a Machiavellian justification for programmes whose urgency on ethical grounds alone is unquestionable, but to provoke examination of an important practical question: whether children are entitled only to a share of those resources that the world budgets for "good works and charity", or whether the long-range interests of children and the cause of economic advancement will not both be better served by considering the needs of children in planning the use of the much greater resources that we must of necessity devote to general development.

^{13/} This concept is analyzed in Report on the World Social Situation, 1961 (United Nations publication, Sales No.:61.V.4) pp.31-35.

37. If all that must be done for a child before he is old enough to provide for himself is regarded purely in terms of its economic cost, it is obvious that the return on this investment will be nil if the child dies before he reaches working age. The return will be incomplete if the productive years of his life are short or are spent in poor health. The expectation of working life is now being lengthened rapidly in the developing countries, but in many of them it does not yet extend to the normal age of retirement. For example, a boy of fifteen in India or Brazil can expect, on the average, to live only into the fifties, whereas in the economically advanced countries he can expect to reach the age of sixty-five or over. ^{14/}

38. The expectation of life once adulthood is reached depends not only on what happens to the individual as an adult, but also on the care he has had as a child. Severe malnutrition in childhood leaves permanent injuries: protein deficiency can result in permanent damage to the liver; vitamin A deficiency, to the eyes. Diseases such as trachoma or yaws of the bone leave the child victim handicapped for the rest of his life. Some disabling infections that declare themselves later are acquired in childhood, tuberculosis, leprosy and bilharzia for example. The degree of energy and alertness an adult is able to bring to his tasks depends partly on his current food consumption and the current state of his health; the extent to which it also depends on factors associated with his early childhood has not yet been satisfactorily established, but from what we know it seems highly probable that the cost of lowered vitality having its origin in childhood sickness and malnutrition and their mutual inter-action, exceeds that of the overt diseases and handicaps originating in childhood.

^{14/} In Brazil, male expectation of life is thirty-nine years at birth and forty-one additional years at fifteen years of age; in India it is thirty-two years at birth and thirty-six additional years at fifteen years of age. Source: Demographic yearbook, 1960 (United Nations publication, Sales No.:61.XIII.1) table 23.

39. Because of high child mortality, the relatively short expectation of life once working age has been reached, and the low level of vitality at which much of the working population functions, the developing countries receive at present a very low rate of return on the investment that the care of their children represents. Programmes to improve the health and nutrition of children represent an additional immediate investment, but one that tends within a generation to raise the net rate of return on a country's investment in human resources.

40. It has been calculated that in the economically advanced countries a better education will bring a return to the individual and society many times greater than its cost. In the developing countries, where progress in almost all fields is being retarded by severe shortages of qualified personnel, the proportionate returns from investment in the right kind of education could be even higher. Unfortunately the developing countries are unable to exploit this investment opportunity sufficiently. Because of the age distribution of the population, the economic strain on the income-earning population is severe. In a typical developing country, there are about 70 children to every 100 productive adults as against 50 to every 100 productive adults in the economically advanced countries.^{15/} Thus the developing countries, which are short of capital, have a relatively large input; yet, because they cannot invest enough to meet the needs of their children at all adequately, they get a smaller return.

41. The economically advanced countries have shown an increased willingness in recent years to help the developing countries meet their needs for development capital. One area in which such assistance is badly needed -- and certainly one of the areas in which it might be most profitably employed -- is investment in human resources.

^{15/} Extracted from The Future Growth of World Population (United Nations publication, Sales No. 51.XIII.2), table 16.

FINANCIAL RESOURCES

42. This section reviews briefly the financial resources going into general development and those going specifically for children and youth. The review confirms that if real progress is to be made, the importance of the development of children and youth must be accepted as a long-term goal of general development by the newly developing countries, and by many sources of external assistance, as well as by the United Nations family of agencies.

Internal resources of the developing countries

43. The annual national incomes of the developing countries, exclusive of mainland China, total about \$125,000 million a year -- about one-eighth of the combined income of the economically advanced countries. ^{16/} While the situation varies greatly among the developing countries, current expenditures for education, health and other social services may total as much as \$8,000 or \$9,000 million annually, ^{17/} but they are still insufficient to provide schooling for more than half the children of these countries, or to bring health services to more than a small fraction of them.

44. Apart from these recurring expenditures, which will gradually increase and which, in some cases, may be spent more effectively in the future, the developing countries are also making capital or development expenditures, often under a separate budget. Total new investment, mostly for economic development, in these countries is now running to the equivalent of \$10,000 million per annum. According to unofficial estimates, about twice that amount is needed if self-sustaining economic growth is to be achieved. No analysis is available of how much of these capital or development expenditures have any relation to programmes improving the quality of future generations.

^{16/} Unofficial estimate.

^{17/} Based on data given in the Report on the World Social Situation, 1961 (United Nations publication, Sales No.: 61.V.4), chapter IV.

Resources from outside the developing countries

45. The annual flow of public economic assistance and private capital from the high-income to the low-income countries was approximately as follows according to the latest records available, for 1960 ^{18/}; it is probably somewhat higher now.

	<u>In millions of US dollars</u>
Government grants	2,500
Government loans	1,500
Private investment	<u>2,000</u>
	6,000

Included under "government grants" and "government loans" is about \$400 million worth of multilateral assistance canalized through the United Nations system. Not included is the flow of surplus foods from the high-income to the low-income ^{19/} countries, which now amounts to the equivalent of about \$1,500 million a year and is expected to increase. There appear to be good prospects that the total flow of aid will continue to increase -- and that it may be supplemented by efforts to stabilize the prices of the export commodities ^{20/} on which the developing countries depend for their own foreign exchange earnings. In 1960 the United Nations General Assembly expressed the hope that the flow of international assistance and capital should be increased substantially so as to reach as soon as possible approximately one per cent of the combined national incomes of the economically advanced countries ^{21/} -- a target that would come to at least \$12,000 million a year by the mid-1960's.

^{18/} The records are incomplete. The amounts indicated for government grants and loans are estimates based on documents A/4906 and E/3556. Those for private investment are taken from E/3513, para.4

^{19/} Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Development through Food (Rome, 1961), p.78.

^{20/} See General Assembly Resolution 1710 (XVI).

^{21/} See General Assembly Resolution 1522 (XV), operative paragraph 1.

46. There has been a significant increase in the funds available for social investment programmes. For example, by agreement with the United States of America, the Inter-American Development Bank is administering a Social Progress Trust Fund, for which it is at present entitled to make commitments for a total of \$394 million. ^{22/} The European Economic Community earmarks funds for social programmes. The International Development Association referred to below is also able to help social programmes. Some of the Government-to-Government grants go to strengthen education and health services, and some of the surplus foods shipped abroad are used in child-feeding projects. A somewhat greater proportion of these total resources is available for other programmes, and this could be of considerable benefit to children and youth if their special needs were taken into account and planned for. The resources that might figure in such wider programmes include not only the loans and grants extended by individual countries and groups of countries (the European Economic Community, the Colombo Plan, the Scandinavian group etc.), but some of the international flow of private capital - that invested in food processing plants, for example.

47. At present, there is no known assessment of the proportion of these resources going either directly or indirectly to investments in human resources rather than to investments in capital hardware, and a statistical break-down along these lines, even if it could be made, would not be very valuable in itself. It would be tremendously useful, however, to have the value of human investment regularly considered in the planning of development programmes, with perhaps some over-all review of the question of whether the proportion going into it was sufficient.

^{22/} Inter-American Development Bank, Social Progress Trust Fund, First Annual Report, 1961.

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United Nations assistance

48. A small part of the total flow of resources from the outside, about \$400 million a year, is canalized through the United Nations and the specialized agencies. About \$250 million of this consists of net loans after deducting repayments by the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development.

United Nations technical assistance expenditures and the training and pre-investment expenditures of the Special Fund account for most of the rest. Since 1960, to which the above statistics refer, the International Development Association has begun operations as an affiliate of the International Bank. IDA may finance, on lenient terms, projects that are not revenue-producing or directly productive, provided that they are of "high developmental priority". It has made loans to the amount of \$202 million, of which \$6 million is for a social purpose, viz. water supply.

49. Much of the aid is of substantial benefit to children, among others. But only the approximately \$30 million a year allocated by UNICEF is specifically earmarked for programmes designed to improve the condition of children. With this goes some of the technical assistance, referred to above, contributed by the United Nations agencies to projects assisted by UNICEF.

50. Various non-governmental agencies and foundations, many of them associated with the United Nations in a consultative status, assist projects for children in the developing countries; indeed their total expenditures for this purpose outstrip those of UNICEF.

51. The amount allocated by UNICEF is not very much in the present-day context of international assistance. Hence one of the main objectives of UNICEF is to use its resources to prepare the way for larger programmes under national or international auspices and to get the handling of children's needs into the main stream of development.

NATIONAL PLANNING AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF CHILDREN AND YOUTH

52. The changes from a subsistence to a monetary economy, from rural to urban settings and from a relatively static to a developing society, bring with them a permanent requirement for more organized social welfare services. These have to meet needs previously filled by tradition, the extended family, and personal relations in small communities. Superimposed on this long-term change is a need for special measures to ease the transition into the modern form of society.

53. Planning for the development of children and youth forms part of planning for social development, and the methods and machinery used will depend on those used in the country for social questions in the wide sense.

Functional Ministries

54. It is widely believed today that responsibility for meeting the various needs of children should be divided among the appropriate functional services of a given country -- the health ministry being responsible for maternal and child health services; the ministry of education for schooling; the ministry of social welfare for special social services for children, the operation of day-care and residential institutions; and so on. Apart from education, most children's needs can be met only through services for the whole community, and in carrying out such services a division of labour along functional lines helps to avoid duplication of effort in the field. Programmes such as the control of endemic diseases, the development of food production, and social services to keep the family unit intact, while essential to the well-being of the child, must of necessity be run as community-wide projects. Moreover, many of the child's needs are inseparable from those of his family and community, and in any event it would be philosophically unsound to regard the child as an isolated individual rather than as an integral part of his family and community.

Inter-disciplinary problems

55. However, where an analysis is made, it frequently reveals a multitude of independent services affecting the child, operating without sufficient joint planning to enable them to carry out a coherent child-development policy. There are, indeed, instances where children fail to benefit from certain existing services simply because they have not been reached by a service administered by another department. In some countries, for example, incomplete registration of births, associated perhaps with a high rate of illegitimacy, deprives a considerable number of children of important rights and social benefits to which they would otherwise be entitled under law.

56. Moreover, even a limited programme to meet one of the particular needs of a country's children frequently tends to cut across departmental lines and involve the work of several agencies. Thus, the nutrition of children in a given country cannot be improved without efforts on the part of the agriculture department to increase production of the required foodstuffs, and efforts on the part of the health department to teach the essentials of nutrition to pregnant women and to the mothers of young children. Sometimes the same field workers can carry out dual assignments: for example, agricultural extension agents can promote better nutrition among agricultural families while showing them how to raise their living standards in other respects through increased production of cash crops. The education department will be brought into the picture when it is desirable to include nutrition education in the school curriculum, and it must reach agreement with the health department, which is responsible for the nutrition education of the mother and pre-school child, on what is to be recommended.

57. Urbanization, inevitably associated with the effort to industrialize, brings with it a complex of social problems that require the contribution of services in the fields of health, nutrition, social welfare, education and vocational guidance and training. In the case of education, the expansion of the system is being increasingly guided by manpower requirements, and the collaboration of the ministries of education and labour becomes necessary.

Interrelation of needs

58. Another reason why common planning should be stressed to a greater degree is that the various ills of children -- those, for example, resulting from poverty, ignorance, sickness, malnutrition and (particularly in the urban fringe areas) the breakdown of family life -- are closely interrelated. Each is part cause and part effect of the others. Thus they are correctly described as a vicious circle. But this interrelationship also means that improving the condition of children in regard to any of these particulars will tend to strengthen efforts being carried out on their behalf in other areas as well. The greatest returns will be obtained from investment in children if there is a unified advance in all sectors pertaining to their needs.

59. It is easiest to demonstrate the force of this principle by showing what tends to happen otherwise. Thus, beyond a certain point, it will do little good to devote more resources to conventional health services if major nutritional problems remain unsolved. In turn, it may be impossible to advance very far in the field of nutrition without coming to grips with the problem of ignorance: many potential food sources in the developing countries are left untouched because of prejudice or lack of knowledge. Malnutrition, on the other hand, seems to be one of the principal reasons why so many children make little progress in school. And there is a limit to the progress that can be made in any of the fields where development is needed if the child is not provided with a better preparation for life through good schooling. There are, of course, many other "vicious circles": parasitic infections and diarrhoeal diseases aggravate malnutrition; malaria among teachers and pupils reduces the effectiveness of schooling, and so on.

Inter-ministerial planning

60. It is clear, therefore, that some kind of inter-ministerial machinery is needed, bringing together the departments and agencies charged with education, health, agriculture, social welfare, labour, finance, planning and community development -- to work out plans in areas where joint action is required to meet the needs of children, and to review the progress of these plans, in the framework of overall social policy. What is usually not needed at the present time is a new administrative hierarchy.

61. One of the greatest obstacles faced by the developing countries in carrying out new programmes or extending existing ones, an obstacle seeming to rank with the shortage of money, is the scarcity of trained administrative talent. Under a weak administrative system, every professional leader with any initiative is likely to believe that he can develop an efficient service only if it is separate and under his own control. Where administrative talent is in short supply, however, proliferation of services is wasteful -- especially when the creators of these services have handed them on to persons of less outstanding ability.

Polyvalent field services

62. There is an encouraging tendency already evident in the developing countries to use existing administrative machinery for a number of different but related functions. For example, India's community development and extension programme -- which was itself organized at the field level around an older administrative structure, that of the district administrators in charge of justice and tax collections -- serves to promote, not only community public works, but agricultural and home economics extension, adult literacy, health services, and health and nutrition education. In the organization of health services, there is a trend away from separate campaigns against individual diseases and towards integrated networks of district health offices and local health centres, both discharging multiple responsibilities. Primary schools are being used for health and nutrition education, to promote home gardening, and to teach adults to read and write. Thus each of these services reaching into local villages may be used as a channel for a number of related efforts to help rural people improve their standard of living and provide their children with a better start in life -- a possibility doubly valuable since so many villages are reached by only one of these services, if they are fortunate enough to be reached by any.

63. Given the possibility of this kind of administrative flexibility, much can be done to meet some of the most important needs of children, provided these needs are adequately taken into account in the broad economic and social development plans that are now being widely used to guide national efforts in the developing countries. For example, to gear agricultural development to the nutritional needs of a country's population, including the special needs of weanling and pre-school children, may require the collection and analysis of new data, and some of the personnel in the department of agriculture may have to receive additional training. Certainly, additional thought and planning will be needed. But will the execution of the programme in the field cost much more in money or manpower than the execution of a development programme aimed solely at increased agricultural production per se? Similarly, to use the school system to teach the elements of health, nutrition, and other practical matters, in addition to academic subjects, will require an important policy decision on the part of the Government; it may also add to the cost of training teachers. In terms of the money needed for the school system's actual day-to-day operations, it will cost relatively little, however.

Conclusion

64. In many countries the time appears to be ripe to assess the extent to which various programmes affecting children support and complement one another, and how more effective plans might be made, where they are needed. Sometimes new field surveys may be needed to fill in gaps in the information available on the needs of children and the resources available to meet them. However a great deal of the work of assessment and planning can be based on existing data and information.

65. The objective may be a comprehensive plan, when this fits in with the general practice of the country. More modestly it may be to deal with problems requiring action across departmental lines. Either approach should be related to practical needs and possibilities. Administrative and planning staff is at a premium in all the ministries concerned, and there is no point in loading it with an abstract and statistical assessment of future requirements.

RECOMMENDED ACTION BY UNICEF

66. The General Assembly in a resolution on the "United Nations Development Decade"^{23/} included the following provisions which have a bearing on UNICEF:-

"4. Requests the Secretary-General, taking account of the views of Governments and in consultation, as appropriate, with the heads of international agencies with responsibilities in the financial, economic and social fields, the Managing Director of the Special Fund, the Executive Chairman of the Technical Assistance Board and the regional economic commissions, to develop proposals for the intensification of action in the fields of economic and social development by the United Nations system of organizations, with particular reference, inter-alia, to the following approaches and measures designed to further the objectives of paragraph 1 above:

....
"(d) Measures to accelerate the elimination of illiteracy, hunger and disease, which seriously affect the productivity of the people of the less developed countries;

"(e) The need to adopt new measures, and to improve existing measures, for further promoting education in general and vocational and technical training in the developing countries with the cooperation, where appropriate, of the specialized agencies and States which can provide assistance in these fields, and for training competent national personnel in the fields of public administration, education, engineering, health and agronomy;

"(j) The ways in which the United Nations can stimulate and support realization of the objectives of the Decade through the combined efforts of national and international institutions, public and private".

67. In the planning for the United Nations Development Decade considerable importance is being placed on the development of human resources. As the development of children and youth constitutes a major part of this, UNICEF should make its contribution. While on the Secretariat level the necessary collaboration is going ahead, there are a number of more important aspects of UNICEF's contribution to social development that would require a decision by the Executive Board, as suggested below.

^{23/} General Assembly resolution 1710 (XVI).

(a) Help to countries in assessment and planning related to children's needs

68. The Board decided in June 1961 to be ready to help countries, in co-operation with the specialized agencies, "to survey the needs of their children and to plan programmes, within the framework of their economic and social development plans, designed to meet children's needs considered to be of high priority and for which effective action is possible." ^{24/}

69. Not many countries at any one time are likely to be ready for a comprehensive approach; in the short time since the above decision was made, no requests have yet been made for assistance from the allocation for this purpose. More frequently a need is seen as arising from particular problems, especially those requiring planning across functional lines, e.g., nutrition, urbanization, education and vocational training, as discussed above. Help with this type of planning is more often given as assistance for "project preparation". Since the two types of aid shade into each other, the Executive Director recommends that the Board combine the separate block allocations for help in assessment and planning for child needs and for aid to countries in project preparation.

(b) Relations with regional economic commissions

70. It appears appropriate for UNICEF to enter into closer relations with the regional economic commissions because of the growing influence they are having on national development planning. Closer relations would also be consistent with the General Assembly Resolution on "Decentralization of the economic and social activities of the United Nations and strengthening of the regional economic commissions". ^{25/} The social affairs field staff concerned with advising countries on the development of social welfare projects for children is already working out of the regional commissions. If the thesis of the present paper is correct, it would be appropriate for UNICEF to join with others concerned to try to have greater account taken of the development potential of children and youth in the assistance for economic planning given by the regional commissions.

^{24/} Official Records of the Economic and Social Council, Thirty-second Session, Supplement No. 13B, para. 56 (1) (E/3525 - E/ICEF/431).

^{25/} General Assembly resolution 1709 (XVI).

71. In the Americas the joint planning being pursued by the Economic Commission for Latin America, the Organization of American States, the Inter-American Development Bank and the specialized agencies of the United Nations concerned in the fields of education, agriculture and health, could be much more significant for the development of children than programmes for children undertaken separately. To realize this potential benefit, some more systematic consideration needs to be given to the aspects of development affecting children and youth, either as part of a wider consideration of social aspects or as a separate subject.

72. Many of the newly independent countries of Africa are embarking on the planning process, and here also it is important that systematic attention be given to the development potential and the needs of children and youth.

(c) Economic development institutes

73. The proposed establishment, with the help of the Special Fund, of economic development and planning institutes related to the regional economic commissions is relevant to UNICEF's interests because they will train personnel for development planning. ^{26/} An institute for Latin America is beginning operations in June 1962, and planning is now proceeding for a similar institute attached to the Economic Commission for Africa. The public administration institutes sponsored by the United Nations are being brought into relation with these institutes.

74. Planning bodies and ministries of finance will supply the bulk of the candidates for training. It is obviously highly important that young officials who will later be placed in responsible positions in these ministries should have an appreciation of the social problems of development, and the values and opportunities for investment in human resources.

^{26/} General Assembly resolution 1708 (XVI), Part 1.

75. The need for training is also foreseen for planners in departments servicing children directly, such as education, social welfare, and agriculture (in relation to human nutrition). It would appear to be a very appropriate contribution of training under United Nations auspices to send officials back to the functional ministries with an appreciation of the need for action across departmental boundaries where necessary. In the course of time, this would reduce the difficulties of interdepartmental co-operation, presently found in many developing countries.

76. Therefore, particular attention might be given in training programmes to the discussion of problems that require interdepartmental action for their solution. Among these are a number of problems affecting particularly the development and welfare of children. The examples of nutrition, urbanization, and education have already been cited.

77. The Board may wish to authorize the Executive Director to make an official approach to the economic development institutes to include aspects relating to the development of children and youth in their general training, and to include training programmes for officials in departments whose work has a particular bearing on the development and welfare of children, as mentioned above. The Board may consider offering fellowships, if required, to enable officials of such departments to take suitable training, and also assistance to the institutes to offer this training. (The creation by agencies or countries of other training institutions for planning may make it advisable for UNICEF assistance to be given elsewhere also for training administrators in planning for children).

78. As the institutes or the regional commissions will be sending out advisory teams to help Governments with economic and social planning, the Board may wish to express the view that these teams should be alerted to aspects of planning relating to the development and welfare of children. It may be necessary to arrange for participation of qualified personnel in the advisory teams for this purpose. Depending on circumstances, it may be handled together with other social aspects of development planning or separately. It appears to be necessary for UNICEF to be ready to offer the participation of a staff member or consultant in advisory teams during an appropriate stage of their work.

(d) The promotion by other United Nations agencies of planning for children's development

79. UNICEF already has successively developed close relations with WHO, FAO, and the United Nations Bureau of Social Affairs. Secretariat relations are growing with the ILO and UNESCO on the basis of the policy decisions taken by the Board at its June 1961 session.

80. The Special Fund, with its emphasis on pre-investment, regards the training of personnel as one of its main fields of assistance. Its grants to training and research institutions in the fields of food technology and agriculture sometimes have a direct bearing on programmes which UNICEF is assisting. Consultation is growing at the Secretariat level with regard to projects of mutual interest. In some cases, already under discussion, it appears likely that the Children's Fund would also be asked to grant assistance in order to include training in fields of benefit to children, which the Special Fund regards as outside its province.

81. The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, through its broad survey missions, gives some coverage of the social side of development planning. This is done in co-operation with the specialized agencies. Some greater attention to a systematic review of problems of children would be valuable, and the Board may wish to consider whether UNICEF should take some initiative in this regard.

(e) Relations with multinational and bilateral aid

82. The volume of aid to developing countries going through multinational or bilateral channels is probably about fifteen times that going through the United Nations, and this difference in proportion is likely to increase. Hence, the multinational and bilateral aid channels have far greater possibility than United Nations channels of helping countries develop their children and youth. There is, therefore, great value in UNICEF having discussions with the bilateral aid organizations. UNICEF may draw their attention to information available concerning the needs of children in the developing countries and the possibilities of action.

83. In some cases aid to the same national programme may come from both in and outside the United Nations. One of the most developed cases of collaboration in the latter sense is the malaria eradication campaign in which WHO, the United States Agency for International Development and UNICEF have been meeting for some years informally, and assistance has been dovetailed without any overlapping. A similar type of consultation is now proceeding in respect of the Alliance for Progress.

84. It appears advisable for UNICEF to expand its contacts with sources of multinational and bilateral aid that could appropriately include assistance for problems of children and youth. Some contacts at the Secretariat level have recently begun with the aid organization of the European Common Market and of the Scandinavian countries, which are now developing their own multinational aid organization. Many projects being assisted by UNICEF in Africa draw assistance from European sources.

85. The UNICEF National Committees in the developed countries may be invited to make themselves the friends of children in the developing countries, and to interest themselves in the consideration of children's needs in relation to all the forms of aid going from their country to the developing world. This would include relations with non-governmental agencies working out of their countries.

(f) Relations with Non-Governmental Agencies

86. UNICEF's relations with non-governmental agencies working in the developing countries are gradually falling into the pattern of mutual collaboration for the best use of their respective resources. The agencies are giving more attention to long-term development as well as immediate relief. The interest of non-governmental agencies in presenting studies on problems arising in the developing countries is growing particularly in the fields of child welfare, tuberculosis, nutrition and mental health. The Board might wish to ask the international non-governmental agencies having consultative status with UNICEF whether they have opportunities through their constituent societies in the economically advanced countries to do more than they are now doing to have children's needs considered in bilateral aid programmes.

(g) Orientation of UNICEF assistance policies

87. The decisions of the Board in June 1961 constitute a flexible framework for UNICEF assistance to countries for the development of their children and youth. The assistance of UNICEF and the appropriate specialized agencies is available to countries (a) for assessment of needs and planning of programmes, (b) for the training of national personnel for the implementation of plans, and (c) for the development of "field projects" or "service projects". The field or service projects absorb 80 per cent of the value of UNICEF programme assistance. Hence, in line with the general thesis of this paper, it would be appropriate to consider briefly how UNICEF assistance policies may be oriented to obtain the greatest long-term benefit for children and youth by getting their needs regularly considered as a part of national planning and departmental operations.

(a) A fundamental step towards this orientation was taken in June 1961 when the Board laid down the policy of helping forward the possibilities of action relating to the main problems of children in each country, even if some of the programmes concerned were not of a type formerly assisted by UNICEF.

(b) The wider use of the practice of making commitments for periods of years, to be implemented by annual allocations, also decided in June 1961, opens additional possibilities for furthering projects that form part of the country's development plan. It may be useful increasingly to make commitments for the country's planning period, usually five years.

(c) If assisted projects are to have the maximum long-term effect, they should contribute to the growth of services in the country that will develop and benefit children. To do this immediately they need to be important enough to command the attention of the policy-making or cabinet level. More projects assisted by UNICEF should be in this category. Of course, small projects with potential for growth also merit support, for example, training projects, pilot projects, and projects that should be encouraged to grow into national policy.

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(d) Each country needs some projects large enough to give scope to national personnel for planning and executive decision. The shortage of executive and administrative personnel is one of the main obstacles to future development. Practice is essential to form such people. Leaders for new endeavours - the people who will enable the country to solve its own problems - often come out of "growth sectors" in the country's national life. The creation of growth sectors in the social field, particularly those concerning children, should be one of UNICEF's main objectives. Pilot and demonstration projects are usually related to technical methods; larger projects are needed to give executive experience in operations. This is one of the reasons why stress is so often laid on the importance of getting programmes under way or, more broadly, the importance of beginning the process of social change.

(e) Since many countries UNICEF is helping are receiving multinational and bilateral aid on a scale far beyond the possibilities of international organizations, UNICEF should shape its strategy in relation to this situation. UNICEF may take a problem relating to children that is neglected by bilateral aid, and help it on a similar scale. Sometimes it appears appropriate to nurture the beginnings of a project until it becomes important enough for bilateral aid on a national scale. Sometimes UNICEF may help a country to extend the scope of a bilaterally-aided project by adding to it aspects dealing with children.

(f) Following some of the above orientation would mean an increase in the number of larger projects submitted to the Board^{27/}. This in turn would require an increase in the level of contributions to UNICEF within the next few years. On the administrative side, there are some advantages in handling larger projects. The delay required for careful preparation is more acceptable. Consultants can be made available to countries, if required, for help in their preparation and also in their execution without excessive overhead. Both the allocation made by the Board for project preparation and UNICEF's administrative and operational services budget would be drawn on, as appropriate, to make this possible.

^{27/} For the purposes of discussion, larger projects may be taken to mean those involving a commitment of over \$500,000. During 1961, approximately 10 per cent of the projects recommended involved commitments above \$500,000, and they accounted for half the total value of the commitments approved. At the other end of the scale, 60 per cent of the project recommendations were for commitments under \$75,000, and they accounted for 15 per cent of the total commitments approved.

SUMMARY

88. Effective action to improve the condition of children and youth in the developing countries can come only through a system whereby the necessary services and programmes are undertaken as part of national development planning in countries following this practice, and of the regular functional programmes of the relevant ministries.

89. On the ethical plane, the case for improving the condition of children is unanswerable, but one of the obstacles in the way of action seems to be the feeling on the part of policy-makers in many developing countries, and governments and organizations assisting them, that at the current stage all resources must be concentrated on economic development, even as a practical means of obtaining humanitarian objectives later on. However, several United Nations bodies have drawn attention to the relations between economic development and social development and have recommended that both should be pursued in appropriate balance. Some of the applications of social development planning to children and youth have been suggested. The attention of planners and policy-makers is drawn to the importance for economic, as well as social development, of certain types of investment in children and youth, and to the need for interministerial co-operation to deal with some of the most important of children's needs, as well as the desirability of appropriate participation of non-governmental agencies and experts.

90. Action can only be taken by each individual country. If the international community considers it advisable to further a policy for children in national development, this cannot be done through UNICEF alone. The help of all United Nations agencies concerned with various disciplines involved in children's problems is needed, as is the help of multinational and bilateral aid organizations, non-governmental agencies, and public opinion in both the developed and the developing countries.

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91. In June 1961 the Board took basic decisions that would allow UNICEF to orient its own modest assistance to the furthering of policies for children within the framework of a country's social development. The Board's guidance is now sought about other steps that might be taken to encourage appropriate consideration of children and youth in development programmes.

92. The needs of children and the responsibilities for which they should be prepared relate to their personal development, the development of their culture, and responsible citizenship fully as much as to their contribution to a productive labour force. The use of resources to benefit children does not require justification on the basis of its direct contribution to economic development. It is, nevertheless, important to take account of this contribution in allocating the resources available for economic and social development.