

CF/HST/1985-011/Add.01/Rev.01

CF/HST/1985/011/A01/R01

E/ICEF/559/Rev. 1

UNITED NATIONS PUBLICATION 67.IV.29  
Price: \$1.25 or equivalent in other currencies



# *strategy*

UNITED NATIONS CHILDREN'S FUND

(87p)

p.03

E/ICEF/559/REV.1

**STRATEGY FOR CHILDREN**

P.05

# STRATEGY FOR CHILDREN

A study of UNICEF  
assistance policies

Report of the Executive Director  
to the UNICEF Executive Board



UNITED NATIONS CHILDREN'S FUND

## CONTENTS

PREFACE . . . . .	9
NEEDS AND POSSIBILITIES OF ACTION . . . . .	11
Global Indicators of Needs . . . . .	11
Methods of Analysis of the Needs of Children . . . . .	14
The Financing of Services Benefiting Children . . . . .	20
Urgency of Needs . . . . .	21
EVOLUTION OF UNICEF ASSISTANCE . . . . .	27
ASSISTANCE POLICIES . . . . .	37
General Strategy for the Use of UNICEF Resources . . . . .	37
Country approach . . . . .	37
Matching principle . . . . .	38
Determination of needs . . . . .	39
Looking ahead . . . . .	40
Interrelationship of needs . . . . .	40
Direct aid to children versus combined services . . . . .	41
Multiplier effect . . . . .	42
Assistance to "growing points" . . . . .	44
Removing bottlenecks . . . . .	46
Supporting "starter" projects . . . . .	47
Drawing attention to neglected problems . . . . .	48
Country-wide coverage . . . . .	48
Concentration . . . . .	50
Emergencies . . . . .	52

Distribution of Aid among Countries . . . . .	54
Preparation and Administration of Projects . . . . .	56
Pattern of services in assisted projects . . . . .	56
Preparation of projects . . . . .	58
Administration of projects . . . . .	60
Types of supplies and services . . . . .	60
UNICEF'S RELATIONS WITH OTHER UNITED NATIONS	
AGENCIES AND BILATERAL AID . . . . .	63
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS . . . . .	67
ANNEX I	
Extracts from United Nations General Assembly Resolutions Bearing on UNICEF Assistance Policies . . . . .	76
ANNEX II	
Main UNICEF Executive Board Decisions on Assistance Policies . . . . .	80
ANNEX III	
Historical Pattern of Allocations . . . . .	87

## PREFACE

**T**HE EXECUTIVE BOARD of the United Nations Children's Fund asked me to prepare a report on "UNICEF Assistance Policies" in order to provide the basis for a review of the strategies, criteria and priorities in the use of UNICEF aid. This report was considered by the Board at its session in June 1967.

The main theme of the report is that the humanitarian aims of UNICEF can best be furthered by assistance policies which contribute not only to improved child care but also to long-term economic and social development of the countries in which they live. The report does not suggest large changes in assistance policies but proposes that those well-tried policies which have evolved over the years be adapted to new possibilities for both providing children with the protection they need as a vulnerable group and the preparation they need to contribute to the progress of their societies.

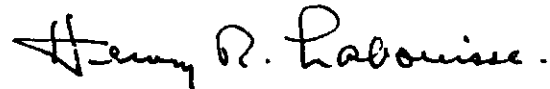
The debate in the Board revealed a broad satisfaction with the general scope and pattern of UNICEF aid and with the methods used to provide it, although in the Board discussions there were certain differences among the delegations in the points they emphasized.<sup>1</sup> At the conclusion of the discussion, the Board re-

---

<sup>1</sup>A summary of the Board discussion is contained in the report of its June 1967 session, E/ICEF/563, paras. 5-24.

quested that the report be reissued in an edited version, appropriate for wide circulation.

While I naturally take full responsibility for the report, I should like to take this occasion to express great appreciation for the work done in its preparation by my immediate associates in UNICEF and in particular by Mr. E. J. R. Heyward, Deputy Executive Director (Operations).



**HENRY R. LABOUISSÉ**  
*Executive Director, United Nations Children's Fund*

## NEEDS AND POSSIBILITIES OF ACTION

**C**HILDREN NEED to receive *preparation* for an active and useful life, as well as *protection* from various diseases, hazards and handicaps to which they are generally more vulnerable than adults. Investment in the preparation of children and youth is increasingly coming to be recognized as highly important for national development.

The responsibility for meeting the needs of children falls on the family, the community, the state, and the international community of nations, in that order. However, the low level of development in many non-industrialized countries, as indicated by national income *per capita*, is a major limitation on the ability of all three internal sources (family, community and state) to meet children's needs. Therefore, external assistance is required for humanitarian reasons and as a contribution to general development, to international understanding, and to the cause of peace.

### GLOBAL INDICATORS OF NEEDS

The child and youth population under 15<sup>1</sup> in the various regions in 1965, and estimates for 1980, are shown in Table 1. The world total is expected to grow from 1,204 million in 1965 to 1,550 million in 1980.

Table 2 shows the distribution of the child population according to the *per capita* income level of their countries. Excluding

---

<sup>1</sup>Footnotes at end of chapters



Table I  
Child population under 15 by continent or region, 1965 and 1980  
(millions)

	Population under 15	
	1965	1980
Africa	134	196
Asia (including mainland China)	712	930
Europe	111	110
North and South America	170	234
Oceania	6	7
USSR	71	73
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,204</b>	<b>1,550</b>
Less developed regions	915	1,244
More developed regions	289	306

Source: Tabulated from United Nations. *World Population Prospects as Assessed in 1963*, Population Studies No. 41 (United Nations publication, Sales No.: 66.XIII.2).

mainland China, there are 951 million children under 15 years of age, of whom approximately 690 million, or 72 per cent, live in countries with a national *per capita* income of less than \$500. Of these, approximately 450 million children, or 47 per cent of the total, live in countries with a *per capita* income of under \$100.

Since the distribution of income is uneven, not all of the children are in need, even in countries with an average income of under \$100, just as some are in need in higher-income countries. However, most children are living at a level that is below the average income recorded in national statistics, because in larger families the income per family member (*le quotient familial*) is lower, and a more than proportionate number of large families are found in low-income rural areas.

Children and youth up to 15 years of age constitute 40 per cent of the population in developing regions. For every 100 people in

the income-earning age bracket of 15 to 64, there are 80 in the dependent age brackets under 15 and over 64. This compares with 50 to 60 in the dependent age brackets in industrialized regions.<sup>2</sup> Over the next fifteen years, the ratio of dependency in developing countries will increase somewhat.

Although there is not sufficient statistical material for a global quantitative statement of children's needs, it is clear that, in present circumstances, hundreds of millions of children do not have the material basis for developing their natural capacities. A target annual rate of growth of Gross National Product (GNP) of 5 per

Table 2  
Distribution of Child population, 1965  
by national *per capita* income levels under \$500  
(millions of children under 15)

Continent or Region	Under \$100	\$100-299	\$300-499	Total under \$500	Total all Incomes
Asia <sup>a</sup>	355	78	1	434	459
Africa	88	38	8	134	134
Latin America	2	64	25	91	103
Europe	..	3	25	28	111
Oceania	1	1	..	2	6
Northern America	..	..	..	..	67
USSR	..	..	..	..	71
<b>Total</b>	<b>446</b>	<b>184</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>689</b>	<b>951</b>
World total including mainland China				942 <sup>b</sup>	1,204

<sup>a</sup>Excluding mainland China.

<sup>b</sup>This total differs from the 915 millions shown in Table 1 for "less developed regions" from which the definition used by the United Nations excludes some countries with an income under \$500 *per capita*.

Source: Extracted from paper prepared by Statistical Office of the United Nations, "Estimates of *per capita* national income in United States dollars," August 1966; and *World Population Prospects as Assessed in 1963* (United Nations publication, Sales No.: 66.XIII.2).

cent was set by the United Nations General Assembly in its resolution 1710 (XVI) on the Development Decade, in order to raise living standards at the best rate that could be expected. In fact, the rate of increase of GNP is under 5 per cent in many countries.<sup>3</sup> At the same time the natural increase of population is over 2 per cent for developing regions as a whole, and over 3 per cent for many countries. The investment in economic and social equipment required to provide facilities for the growing population greatly reduces the amount of investment available for raising the standard of living.<sup>4</sup>

#### METHODS OF ANALYSIS OF THE NEEDS OF CHILDREN

While the foregoing generalizations may be useful in describing orders of magnitude of children's needs, programmes of action naturally require a more detailed analysis. Unfortunately, there is not yet sufficient world-wide statistical data on the various types of children's needs, either for complete analysis now or for a benchmark against which to measure progress in the future. The best prospects for moving in that direction still lie in more country and regional studies and in sample collections of statistics.

The following paragraphs can give only an indication of approaches to analysis of needs. It has been customary to analyse the needs of children by categories of "basic" needs approximately as follows:

- water and food
- health protection
- welfare: shelter, clothing, social welfare services, legal protection, emotional and social development
- education, training
- employment or occupation

In this order, the preservation of physical life comes first, then the development of human capacities. It is a biological hierarchy of needs to which one naturally reverts in an emergency situation.

Conversely, when taking account of children and youth in a development programme, economic and financial considerations may suggest priority for employment, training and education, because these will bring the earliest return to the economy.

For action purposes, it is useful to analyse needs and possibilities from a number of different points of view: by sectors or instruments of action (ministries); by main problems causing concern (which are often inter-sectoral); by geographical zones—rural (cash-crop and subsistence) and urban (town and peri-urban zones); and by age groups (i.e. infant, young child, school-age child and adolescent). While it is not possible, within the compass of this report, to make a full analysis of children's needs from these different points of view, the discussion which follows illustrates the types of consideration which must be borne in mind in determining programmes of action.

#### *Analysis by sectors*

The following sketch illustrates some of the children's needs in developing countries when analysed according to the sectors served by national ministries.

**HEALTH.** Because of the lack of staff and finance for a rural network of health centres, only a small percentage of the children in rural areas receive health care. In urban areas the percentage is larger, but still insufficient. An infant death rate three or four times as high as in industrialized countries, and a young child death rate 30 or 40 times as high, have as their main causes respiratory and diarrhoeal diseases (the "pneumonia-diarrhoea complex"),<sup>5</sup> malnutrition, and vector-borne and parasitic diseases that have largely disappeared from the industrialized countries. Because of the vulnerability of children, the high proportion of children compared with other age groups in countries which have a high death rate and a high birth rate, the deaths of children under five account for 30 to 50 per cent of the deaths in developing countries, compared with 4 to 9 per cent in industrialized countries.<sup>6</sup> The

diseases and malnutrition that cause high death rates in the developing countries also seriously impair the health of large numbers of those who survive.

**EDUCATION.** Despite the fact that the school system has the widest network of any of the services benefiting children, only two-fifths of the children of school age in developing countries complete primary school. The proportion in secondary school is even less satisfactory. Girls are less well off than boys. There is a widespread demand for the reorientation of education in relation to development and modern life. Rural schools especially need up-grading.

**SOCIAL WELFARE SERVICES.** The changes associated with economic development often involve a weakening of the extended family (several generations living together or as an economic unit), which is the traditional form of social organization in the subsistence zones; while in the peri-urban zones the nuclear family (husband, wife and children) is not strengthened correspondingly. People do not know how to respond to the quick pace of social change. There is a growing volume of human problems and a growing need for social welfare services oriented to the family and the child. Such services have been developed in towns to a limited extent and, in some countries, in rural areas within the framework of community development or *animation rurale*. Children in the rapidly growing shanty-towns suffer dramatically from the absence of welfare services, as also do youth groups and the handicapped.

**VOCATIONAL ORIENTATION.** There is very little vocational training, and a great deal of unintentional vocational mis-orientation because the type of schooling offered does not correspond to employment opportunities. In many countries, a small enrolment in primary schools in the past has given rise to the expectation that schooling will usually lead to a white-collar job.

*Training mothers in proper child care  
is one of the best ways to help the young child.*

ILITIES

devel-  
umbers

widest  
>fifths  
te pri-  
s satis-  
spread  
velop-  
ling.

onomic  
family  
which  
istence  
shand,  
ple do  
There  
e or  
- such  
and, in  
nunity  
rowing  
e serv-

aining,  
because  
yment  
rimary  
ooling

uld care  
ig child.



*Analysis of problems*

If we try to analyse children's needs by main problems, we find that those causing particular concern to governments and the general public are:

- family size and high rate of population growth
- nutrition
- children out of school (uneducated children)
- youth problems and youth unemployment
- transmission of values to the rising generation

These problems are not well covered by a sectoral analysis. The first four require, in each country, the collaboration of two or more departments or services; the last is a problem on a different plane.

Family size and the related rate of population growth are discussed as important factors in the welfare and development of children in a separate report, which also contains recommendations for assistance by UNICEF in the field of family planning as an aspect of health services benefiting children.<sup>7</sup>

Nutrition has a high, and perhaps increasing order of importance. Eighty per cent of the children in developing countries live in rural areas and are almost entirely dependent on locally grown foodstuffs. The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) estimates that more than half of these children are malnourished or undernourished. The diet of children in low-income families in urban areas is often even more deficient. Protein-calorie insufficiency is a main factor and has its worst effect on the vulnerable groups who need nourishment for growth, that is, infants, weanlings and young children, and pregnant and nursing mothers. According to FAO, the gap between population growth and food supplies is increasing, so that "the most pressing single need of children for many years to come is food."<sup>8</sup>

Regarding children out of school (children who never go to school or who drop out too early to retain literacy), the problem arises from the present inability of countries to provide schooling for more than about half the children of school age. The remainder

constitute a "lost generation," and, as it typically includes a high proportion of the children in the rural subsistence area, certain parts of each country are in danger of falling relatively further behind. Moreover, the uneducated child is one of the causes of unemployment among youth, which is a permanently damaging experience. One possibility for recuperating the out-of-school population is a programme combining literacy and practical training, arranged for youth and adults. Existing school equipment can be used, and the cost is considerably less per pupil than for the minimum four-year primary school cycle. The co-operation of the ministries of education, agriculture and labour is required to adapt such practical training to employment opportunities.

The development of personality in the young child will affect his physical and emotional well-being, the efficiency of his work and his future contribution to society. It is now widely accepted that the development of the adult in respect of character and values is greatly influenced by his experience as a young child and adolescent, but much remains to be learned about how this experience may be improved.

#### *Analysis by zones*

Children's needs and the possibilities of action vary considerably, depending on the zone of the country in which they live — rural or urban and their subdivisions. Eighty per cent of the population — and probably a higher percentage of the children — of the less developed regions were in rural zones in 1960.<sup>9</sup> Hence there are about 550 million children living in rural zones of countries with under \$500 *per capita* annual income.

Within rural zones there are important differences between problems of children in subsistence and exchange economy (cash-crop or monetary). In Africa south of the Sahara, it has been estimated that more than half the population lives in subsistence zones.<sup>10</sup> Within urban zones there are important differences between towns and the peri-urban zones or shanty-towns in which problems of children are particularly acute.



The differences lie not only in the present situation, and in availability of staff and finances to provide services benefiting children, but also in the direction and pace of the evolution of each zone and sub-zone; and hence in the actions required to prepare children for adult life, which, it should be recognized, will not always be in the zone where they were born.

In some countries there are zones of different cultural traditions; of special problems (e.g. nomadic areas) or of accelerated development (e.g. a development zone such as the Aswan province in the United Arab Republic, the Guyana region in Venezuela, or the copper belt of Zambia). Effective action benefiting children in such a zone must be adapted to its special conditions and possibilities.

#### *Analysis by age groups*

Different needs predominate at each stage of a child's growth — from infant, young child (covering the weanling-toddler and then the pre-school child), school-age child and adolescent.<sup>11</sup> Accordingly, different types of programmes are required for these various age groups: but there should be a coherent relationship among the services provided so that what is gained at one stage of growth is not lost at the next. Moreover, there are particular difficulties in getting services to certain age groups, i.e. to young children and to adolescents, the two most critical periods for personality development. The problems of youth are now widely recognized at governmental levels. On the other hand, concern with the young child is only beginning to spread beyond specialist groups.

#### THE FINANCING OF SERVICES BENEFITING CHILDREN

There are many ways in which the needs of children and youth in the developing world can be met. However, because of the lack of national resources available within the developing countries, little progress can be made in most of them without some external assistance. It is estimated that expenditures on children and youth under 15, in those countries, account for over 20 per cent<sup>12</sup> of the

GNP, without counting demographic investment<sup>13</sup> which may absorb another 10 per cent, making a total of 30 per cent. These expenditures are mainly undertaken by families. The scope of government services available to supplement them is severely limited by the weak tax structure and governmental budgets of pre-industrial countries. Voluntary agencies also lack financial resources.

A rough order of magnitude of public expenditure of developing countries through national and local governments is 3.5 per cent of the GNP for education, 1.5 per cent for health, and approximately 1 per cent for welfare services.<sup>14</sup> If we take a GNP of \$100 *per capita* per year as typical for many developing countries, this gives a *per capita* of \$3.50 per annum for education, \$1.50 for health, and \$1.00 for welfare services. These figures relate to government budgets to serve the whole community, not only children. Moreover, they are not, and probably cannot be evenly distributed. More goes to the revenue-producing zones, to the city rather than the country, to the cash-crop rather than the subsistence zones. Although some expenditures for services, and particularly those for education, are increasing more rapidly than the GNP, it is nevertheless clear that many services benefiting children cannot attain country-wide coverage in the near future if they are financed solely by national governments. This is particularly true for subsistence zones, from which tax revenues may be minimal. Hence, progress depends on what the family, the community and the local government can be helped and stimulated to do by means of national grants and external assistance. Often the conventional pattern of services cannot be used at first; rather "self-help" programmes are needed to bring into play resources that would otherwise remain idle. This fact was stressed at the Asian Conference on Children and Youth by those with planning and financial responsibilities.<sup>15</sup>

#### URGENCY OF NEEDS

Child population is growing rapidly — at about the same rate as total population — and it will continue so to grow for the next

fifteen years. National programmes to spread knowledge of family planning could substantially affect the growth later on, but a population explosion is already taking place in a number of countries, and its effects must be recognized. To rear their children and youth, and provide them with the economic and social equipment they need to take their place in society at present levels of living, is a task on which families and governments are spending 20 to 30 per cent of the country's GNP. Yet there is a growing expectation within the developing world, based on comparison with the industrialized countries, that welfare and preparation for life will be improved. Hence, the great urgency of the situation.<sup>16</sup>

#### FOOTNOTES

<sup>1</sup>Statistics for the age group 0-14 are used for "children and youth" in this report because data on the next age group commonly available, 15-19, go beyond the concern of UNICEF. Youth problems typically begin at an early age in developing countries because most children are seeking to earn their living by the age of 15. On the other hand, where UNICEF is assisting youth projects, those over 15 are not excluded on grounds of age.

<sup>2</sup>United Nations, *Demographic Yearbook 1964* (United Nations publication, Sales No.: 65.XIII.1) and *World Population Prospects as Assessed in 1963* (United Nations publication, Sales No.: 66.XIII.2). In fact, many children under 15 in developing countries are not dependent because they are already working. Nevertheless, the comparison is interesting because it suggests the effort that is required for the preparation of the rising generation.

<sup>3</sup>United Nations, *World Economic Survey, Part I, "The Financing of Economic Development"* (United Nations publication, Sales No.: 66.II.C.1). Table I-1, p. 13, reports data for 37 developing countries of which 21 showed a rate of growth of 5 per cent or better over the 10 years, 1953-1954 to 1962-1963, and 16 less than 5 per cent.

<sup>4</sup>Professor A. Sauvy has called the investment needed to maintain a constant standard of living for a growing population "demographic" investment. With a favourable capital:output ratio of 3:1, 3 per cent of GNP has to be invested in one year to raise the future annual level of 1 per cent. A 2 per cent rate of population growth requires 6 per cent of GNP to be spent on demographic investment, before a start can be made with "economic" investment that will raise the GNP *per capita* available for consumption. If the

capital:output ratio is 4:1, the demographic investment required is correspondingly higher. A Sauvy, *Theorie Generale de la Population* (Paris, presses Universitaires de France, 1963), Vol. I, pp. 237-240. United Nations. *The Determinants and Consequences of Population Trends* (United Nations publication, Sales No.: 53.XIII.3, p. 278).

<sup>8</sup>Walsh McDermott, "Modern Medicine and the Demographic Disease Pattern of Overly-Traditional Societies: A Technologic Misfit." Address presented at the Institute on International Medical Education of the Association of American Medical Colleges, Washington, D.C., March 1966.

<sup>9</sup>United Nations, *Demographic Yearbook 1965* (United Nations publication, Sales No.: 63.XVII.3, 1966), table 43.

<sup>7</sup>United Nations Children's Fund, "Family Planning, Report of the Executive Director on the Possible Role of UNICEF" (E/ICEF/L/1259). At its June 1967 session, the Executive Board agreed that UNICEF could provide aid for family planning as an integral part of comprehensive health services for mothers and children. In making this decision, the Board approved the recommendations of UNICEF/WHO Joint Committee on Health Policies. So far as UNICEF is concerned, this means that, in practice, its assistance will be given in response to government requests, as part of a country's health services, and not as a separate category of assistance; that its assistance will be limited to the usual forms of aid that have been approved by the Board for many years, such as training of personnel, provision of vehicles and supplies and equipment for maternal and child health services; that UNICEF will not take any responsibility for the organization and administration of the governmental programme relating to family planning; and that it will request the technical advice of WHO in connexion with any such assistance.

<sup>8</sup>Communication from B. R. Sen, Director-General of FAO, March 1967.

<sup>9</sup>In the definition used by the United Nations of persons living in places of less than 20,000 inhabitants, mainland China excluded.

<sup>10</sup>Hla Myint, *The Economics of the Developing Countries* (New York, Praeger, 1965), pp. 43-50.

<sup>11</sup>The above functional description of age groups indicative of typical needs corresponds conventionally to the following statistical definitions:

- infant — under one year
- young child — 1 to 6 (weanling/toddler — 1 to 3, pre-school child — 4 to 6)
- school-age child — 7 to 12
- adolescent — 13 to 18

However, no chronological age grouping corresponds to the situation in all countries. In some, infancy is considered as extending to 2 years. Primary schooling may be offered for 4 years, more often for 6; and children often start later than at age 7. The primary-school-leaver should be entering adolescence, but many drop out before reaching that stage. Despite the individual variation in the age of puberty, and the fact that it usually comes 1 or 2 years earlier for girls than for boys, there is an adolescent age group presenting typical problems with which a policy for children and youth has to be concerned. In this group also there may be subdivisions; in some countries there are typical needs for a younger group of adolescents aged about 12 to 15.

<sup>12</sup>This percentage is calculated as follows:

- a) It is assumed that there are 6 "adults" over 15 for every 4 "children" under 15.
- b) Average consumption of children and youth under 15 is taken as one half the average consumption of "adults" over 15.
- c) Consumption is taken as three quarters of the GNP.  $6 \times 2 + 4 = 16$ .  $\therefore$  adults consume  $\frac{12}{16}$  and children  $\frac{4}{16}$  or  $\frac{1}{4}$  of the total consumption.  
 $\therefore \frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1}{4} \text{ GNP} = 19 \text{ per cent of the GNP.}$

To this must be added the cost of educational services for those under 15, and a share of health and welfare services (Compare Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East (ECAFE). "Planning for Children and Youth in Asia, an Economic Framework," a paper submitted to the Conference on Children and Youth in National Planning and Development in Asia, 8-15 March 1966, Bangkok).

<sup>13</sup>As defined in footnote 4.

<sup>14</sup>W. Arthur Lewis, *Development Planning* (New York, Harper and Row, 1966), chap. II.

<sup>15</sup>*Children and Youth in National Planning and Development in Asia* (New York, United Nations Children's Fund, 1966), p. 16.

<sup>16</sup>Fuller descriptions of the situation of children and youth are available as follows:

#### ASIA

*Regional* — *Children and Youth in National Planning and Development in Asia* (New York, United Nations Children's Fund, 1966), pp. 6-7, and 20-38. *Countries* — National case studies and reports available in conference documentation, to be published in 1967.

#### LATIN AMERICA

*Regional* — *Children and Youth in National Development in Latin America* (New York, United Nations Children's Fund, 1966), pp. 7-59. *Countries* —

*Selección de documentos presentados en la Conferencia Latinoamericana sobre la Infancia y la Juventud en el Desarrollo Nacional* (New York, United Nations Children's Fund, 1966).

**AFRICA**

*Regional*—Report of Special Meeting on the Needs of African Children, E/ICEF/549. *Les Carnets de l'Enfance No. 5*, United Nations Children's Fund, 1966, containing extracts from papers presented to a seminar organized by UNICEF, the International Children's Centre and the *Institut d'Etude du Développement économique et social. Countries*—Country reports prepared for special meeting (Ivory Coast, Kenya, Nigeria, Tunisia, United Arab Republic, United Republic of Tanzania). Country case studies prepared by *Société d'Etudes pour le développement économique et social* on behalf of the Governments of Dahomey, Niger, Togo and Upper Volta.

## EVOLUTION OF UNICEF ASSISTANCE

**T**HIS SECTION gives a brief outline of the evolution of UNICEF assistance over the years. Although the division into periods is somewhat arbitrary, it is reasonable for the purpose. A fuller treatment of assistance policies is found in the following section. Extracts from relevant General Assembly resolutions are contained in Annex I.

### PERIOD OF EMERGENCY RELIEF, 1946-1950

From its creation at the end of 1946-1950, the Fund's resources were devoted largely to meeting post-war emergency needs of children in Europe for food and clothing. However, in 1948 UNICEF began assisting BCG vaccination campaigns directed against the danger of tuberculosis epidemics among children, and the Fund's association with the World Health Organization (WHO) began at that time. Assistance to milk processing was also initiated in association with FAO, with the object of enabling war-devastated countries to continue supplementary feeding of children from their own resources. In 1948 also, UNICEF began to extend its aid outside of Europe to China and then to other Asian countries. BCG anti-tuberculosis vaccination was extended to several countries in the Eastern Mediterranean and in North Africa. In 1949, a WHO Expert Committee recommended extensive UNICEF assistance to maternal and child health (MCH), but it grew only slowly.

CHILD FEEDING AND LONG-TERM ASSISTANCE  
IN HEALTH AND MILK CONSERVATION, 1951-1955

In resolution 417 (V) adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in December 1950, UNICEF was directed to use its resources:

“ . . . for the purpose of meeting, through the provision of supplies, training and advice, emergency and long-range needs of children and their continuing needs particularly in underdeveloped countries, with a view to strengthening, wherever this may be appropriate, the permanent child health and child welfare programmes of the countries receiving assistance.”

The criteria for project assistance, adopted by the UNICEF Executive Board in 1951 to give effect to this mandate, are included in Annex II.

The Board decided that it would not consider aid for any project unless assistance in the general field in which the project fell had previously been approved in principle.

The Board expanded assistance to projects in Asia, and began assistance to projects in Latin America and Africa. It started with assistance to types of projects with which there had been previous experience in Europe — milk distribution (based on milk available at nominal cost after 1949 and free after 1954), milk conservation, and BCG campaigns. Then assistance was extended to disease control campaigns directed against yaws, leprosy, malaria and trachoma. Equipment was provided for the manufacture of vaccine, penicillin and DDT in a few centres located in different regions. Assistance to health services was first focused on midwifery (simple training of “traditional birth attendants,” rewarded by a midwifery kit) and later on aid was broadened to child care and MCH centres, but these proved more difficult to assist on a wide scale.

Each of these steps in assistance to projects for improving child health was taken with the prior agreement of the UNICEF/WHO Joint Health Policy Committee, which represented the Boards of



the two organizations. The campaigns assisted were against diseases that took a heavy toll of children, and they could be organized largely on the basis of auxiliary personnel, a point of great importance owing to the shortage of professional personnel. Impressive totals of "beneficiaries" were reached.

There was a tendency to favour rural areas, in contrast to the "show places" of capital cities. It was stressed that 80 per cent of the children of developing countries lived in rural areas. Only in recent years was attention drawn to the situation of the children of the in-migrants to cities and other slum dwellers.

Beginning in 1955, milk distribution began to be directed more to the infant and toddler who could be reached through health centres, than to the less vulnerable school child. Voluntary agencies working overseas were fortunately able to continue supplies for schools in many countries.

#### EXTENDING THE FIELDS OF ASSISTANCE: MALARIA, NUTRITION AND SOCIAL WELFARE SERVICES, 1956-1960

A world-wide malaria eradication campaign had been launched by WHO in 1955, and the UNICEF Board decided to participate on the grounds that the campaign would make a fundamental contribution to the welfare of children. UNICEF rapidly became the major international financial partner in the campaign (however, bilateral assistance was considerably greater). During the six-year period, 1955 to 1960, anti-malaria programmes came to absorb over one-third of UNICEF's allocations each year. Thus the campaign, extending to over 40 countries, became the major illustration of concentration of UNICEF resources on a restricted objective with national coverage and "impact."

Unfortunately, it generally proved necessary to continue the attack phase of extensive spraying for much longer than the four years foreseen when UNICEF entered into the eradication campaign, and for which it had accepted an unbalance in its assistance budget. Criticism began to be heard that UNICEF was using a disproportion-

ate share of its money for general health rather than specifically for children. It was also argued that developing countries should not be asked to put up the local personnel and finances for a series of separate mass campaigns against malaria, tuberculosis, leprosy, etc., but should be encouraged to develop basic health services, with maternal and child health services as a major component, especially as an "infra-structure" of such services was needed in any case to maintain the results of mass campaigns. This strengthened the opinion that basic health services should be a major field of UNICEF aid.

In 1957, the Executive Board, in an attempt to provide a longer-term type of aid to improve nutrition in rural areas, decided to extend assistance for what has come to be called "applied nutrition." The main idea was to use available channels of community development, of schools, of agricultural extension and of health services to stimulate and help the rural population to grow and use the types of foods most suitable for the adequate nutrition of their children. The technical aspects of these projects are a joint field of interest of FAO and WHO.

With regard to the needs of urban children, it became clear that milk would continue to be scarce and expensive in many of the tropical countries UNICEF was assisting. Therefore, other low-cost "weaning foods" should be developed for young children, using proteins from oilseeds or fish, and staple foods used for children should be enriched. The WHO/FAO/UNICEF Protein Advisory Group started its work in 1956, and the Rockefeller Foundation gave a grant for applied research in this field. UNICEF contributed engineering services for the technology of manufacture, and later began to help the launching of various protein-rich foods. The results are now helping to relieve the effects of the reduction in supplies of surplus skim milk powder that took place in 1965 and 1966 and seems likely to continue.

In 1959, the Board accepted the policy of assistance to social welfare services benefiting children, on which the United Nations Social Development Division gives technical advice. In rural areas,

such services are often carried by the women's section of the community development organization, and include the category called in UNICEF "mothercraft/homecraft."

#### RELATING ASSISTANCE TO COUNTRY PRIORITIES SINCE 1961

In 1961 the Board had before it a global review of the needs of children.<sup>17</sup> The Board put an end to the requirement that it must first approve in principle a field of assistance before considering a project in that field, and decided that it was ready to consider requests in whatever field there were priority problems of children in the country concerned. The situation of children should be studied in each country and priority given to the important problems for which action was possible. The Board specified, a year later, that UNICEF assistance should, wherever possible, fit into the main lines of national development programmes.

One of the immediately visible effects of these decisions was to allow assistance to education and vocational training, thus initiating UNICEF's relationship with the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the International Labour Organisation (ILO). This type of assistance proved to be particularly appreciated by African countries, many of which give education a very high priority in their development effort. UNICEF's aid is small in relation to the needs in this field. It has so far been given mainly for pre-service and in-service teacher training. It stresses "education as preparation for life," with a practical accent as a corrective to the pervading idea that education should always lead to a white-collar job. More recently the Fund's aid has included increased provision for science and health education and for teaching of home economics to girls.

The Board's decision in principle to help education widened UNICEF's concern beyond the physical needs of the child to his intellectual development. The decision to help social welfare services, and emphasis on the needs of the young child, discussed by the Board in June 1965, opened a door to helping the development

of the child's personality, though this field has so far proved too difficult for much effective action. Amongst the concerns expressed at the conferences on children and youth in national development, held during 1965 and 1966, was the need to ensure the transmission of values to the rising generation. Thus UNICEF has come, by steps, to extend its concern and assistance to "the whole child."

This approach brought a need for a fresh look at the selection of projects to be assisted in each country, and for more careful project preparation. The Board began to allocate several hundred thousand dollars annually for assistance to "country planning and project preparation." The evolving pattern of allocations in five-year periods, since 1950 when UNICEF was directed to give its aid to solutions of long-term problems of children, is given in a table in Annex III.

#### ASSESSMENT OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF PROGRAMMES

At its January 1964 session, the Board reviewed the problem of assessing UNICEF aid. It agreed that the basis should be the assessment of individual projects. This was primarily the responsibility of the assisted countries, and provision for it should be foreseen during project preparation. This built-in assessment should receive aid, when needed, from UNICEF and from the appropriate technical agencies of the United Nations family.

Parallel to this long-term plan of assessment, the Board decided that, at each session, it would consider reports reviewing one or two fields of aid; this was a systematization of previous practice. These reports are made by consultants jointly selected by UNICEF and the technical agency or agencies concerned, or by the technical agency alone, often with the help of consultants. Where appropri-

*Building the faculties and personality of  
the pre-school child in a developing country prepares him  
for a useful role in the country's future advancement.*



ate, the reports are considered in the first instance by the joint policy committee of UNICEF and WHO, or UNICEF and FAO. The Executive Director advises the Board on the recommendations resulting from this process.

There have already been two or more assessments of assistance for malaria, tuberculosis control, yaws, leprosy, trachoma, maternal and child health, milk distribution, development of high-protein foods, milk conservation, and one each of environmental sanitation and family and child welfare. A number of reviews of assistance to training have been made as part of these assessments, as well as in special reports.

The assessments of each field of aid have resulted in recommendations dealing with such matters as priority for zones or age groups, organizational arrangements, and other changes in programmes to take account of technical or cost considerations. There has been frequent emphasis on the value of aid for training, and on the need for more thorough project preparation.

In every instance the assessments concluded that the programmes had been valuable, and amply justified the continuation of international aid. The experts frequently argued that considerably greater aid could be effectively used.

The weighing of relative priorities as *between* fields of aid obviously cannot be done by such expert reviews. This has been undertaken by the Executive Director and the Board itself. There was an extended review of this subject at the June 1961 session, based on a report on the needs of children. The conclusions put primary emphasis on the priorities established by each country concerned (of course, within fields involving the welfare and development of children). This has a solid basis: among conflicting priority values, those established by the country have predominant weight; moreover, the primary responsibility for action lies with the country.

These conclusions also fit in with the changing relations between donors and receivers of aid, and improvement in the art of giving assistance effectively—a subject never explicitly reviewed by the Board, but which should continue to influence the evolution of

assistance policies. UNICEF has often described itself as a co-operative enterprise for the benefit of children. An increasingly frank and constructive dialogue with developing countries will help in realizing this ideal.

The main conclusions from the various reviews of assistance is that what has been done has been useful, but far from sufficient.

## FOOTNOTE

<sup>17</sup>Georges Sicault (ed), *The Needs of Children*, Free Press of Glencoe, 1963.

## ASSISTANCE POLICIES

### GENERAL STRATEGY FOR THE USE OF UNICEF RESOURCES

#### *Country approach*

Experience indicates that, over the long run, the most effective use of UNICEF's resources can be achieved if they are directed to the assistance of key programmes of benefit to children and youth which have recognized priorities within the context of the development effort of each country. To be sure, there are situations not related to national development efforts in which UNICEF assistance remains very important. Also, certain programmes still lend themselves to a global rather than a country approach in the sense that they can receive useful stimulation from being part of world-wide endeavours to eradicate or limit the destructive effects of the more serious mass diseases, or to expand schooling. By and large, however, it seems preferable to concentrate on determining with each government the priorities to be assigned among the various types of programmes of benefit to children in the light of available resources and of the country's total development effort. It follows that it is usually not advisable for UNICEF to decide on global priorities among various types of aid, nor is it possible to assign priorities among sectors — e.g. health, education, nutrition — nor to types of project within each sector.

The country approach as a basis for aid programmes, a UNICEF



policy since 1961, in no way involves a departure from UNICEF's traditional role as the United Nations body responsible for drawing attention to the needs of children and in taking a lead in finding ways to meet them; indeed, it implies a more rigorous and imaginative implementation of that role.

This role has two main aspects:

First, UNICEF should encourage governments to establish, within the framework of their development efforts, programmes and priorities directed towards the care and welfare of children and youth as well as their preparation for effective participation in society.

Second, UNICEF should encourage a steadily increasing volume of outside aid from government and private sources to programmes benefiting children in developing countries, whether provided through UNICEF or through other channels.

With regard to its own action, UNICEF can serve as a catalytic agent by aiding pilot or initial programmes which, through their demonstrated success, can then attract additional resources from within the assisted countries and from other external sources of aid. It can also, to the extent its resources permit, give substantial aid to larger priority projects.

The country approach is not, of course, limited to countries with formal development programmes, but, as a matter of fact, 79 of the countries being assisted by UNICEF now have such programmes and the list is likely to grow. In any case, it is essential that UNICEF programmes enjoy a sufficiently high priority in the eyes of those concerned with the allocation of resources in the country so that they receive sufficient local support in the form of personnel and money. This is usually best achieved by ensuring that the UNICEF-assisted programmes are included in the national development plans, where such plans exist.

#### *Matching principle*

Even in the absence of formal development plans, the objective mentioned above is also pursued through the "matching principle,"

i.e. the requirement that countries contribute local personnel and resources of at least equivalent value to the UNICEF contribution. This is based on the sound pragmatic realization, accepted by assisted countries, that, unless their governments attach sufficient importance to the project to contribute significantly to it from their own resources, the project is unlikely to take hold, grow, and become an integral part of the country's social and economic structure. On the average, matching contributions from countries have amounted to some two and one-half times the value of the UNICEF contribution.

#### *Determination of Needs*

Logically, the best means of ensuring effective assistance programmes is to help countries assess the needs and possibilities of the current situation of their children and youth. This provides the basis for selecting projects that can become key elements in a national programme. The Board approved the policy of aid to countries for such assessments in 1961. The offer of assistance for surveys of children's needs as separate exercises drew only a limited response from developing countries. Interest was much greater when the matter was approached in relation to the country's development effort. In preparation for the regional meetings on children and youth in national development, already referred to, 47 countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America prepared case studies or national reports which, in most instances, constituted their first fairly comprehensive attempt along these lines. Follow-up efforts to draw the necessary conclusions for action programmes is now in progress in a number of countries. UNICEF is extending its co-operation to these efforts in various ways, and the assessment of needs should now become a regular and systematic endeavour. From the above, as well as from various studies, two points are clear: enough is known at the present time to justify fully the type of programmes UNICEF is assisting, and hopes to continue assisting with increased resources; however, there is also an urgent need for more research on a variety of subjects, and suggestions in this respect are made below.

*Looking ahead*

An important condition for maximum efficiency of UNICEF assistance is that it should be planned in the light of development forecasts covering a considerable period of years. Fortunately, the UNICEF Board has developed the necessary procedures to support long-term plans. It can approve "commitments" for a number of years with the necessary funds "allocated" annually. Further, it can approve, in principle, the general outline of a project at a stage when costs and probable speed of execution are not sufficiently known to commit precise amounts of assistance. These practices may be used to give support for a project for the period of the next development plan, or for the remaining years of the current plan period.

There is, therefore, little problem about the procedures for future commitment of UNICEF's assistance. The difficult part of the task, which falls largely on our field staff, in co-operation with representatives of the United Nations Social Development Division and the specialized agencies, is to work out the substance of long-term commitments. Requirements have to be figured with reasonable accuracy, agreements have to be obtained on local budgeting and a time-table accepted that suits the possibilities of the ministry or ministries concerned.

*Interrelationship of needs*

The interrelationship of children's needs is an important factor to take account of in assistance policies. The needs are interrelated (a) among the different ministries (e.g. nutrition is related to health, agriculture and education); (b) among the successive age groups of infancy, pre-school age, school age and adolescence.

In their concern with youth problems, for example, governments will pay particular attention to secondary education, but action in this field must also be related to primary schooling, and even to problems of the pre-school age. Looked at from the other end of the age scale, it is wasteful to offer children a type of schooling which

is not adjusted to their real prospects and may therefore lead them to unemployment.

To take full account of the needs of children and youth in a country's development programme requires a comprehensive review, which responsible authorities are only beginning to make. Also, UNICEF's assistance should take into account the interrelationship of needs. The most effective aid will help the country to follow a good strategy for the development of services, with due consideration for their complementarity among fields and among age groups.

#### *Direct aid to children versus combined services*

UNICEF assistance should be specifically for the benefit of children and youth; yet their problems cannot be solved in isolation from their family and community, and long-term assistance requires training of adults to staff the services benefiting children. Direct hand-outs are practically the only forms of assistance to children that are not related in some way with services to the rest of the community.

Immunizations and other maternal and child health services are of direct benefit to children, but usually they are given through health centres with a community function. Some countries have tried to establish maternal and child health centres distinct from community health services. They have soon been obliged to deal with general medical care, and their personnel could not, in fact, concentrate solely on maternal and child health problems. Thus, UNICEF-assisted maternal and child health services have often become a growing point for general health services, but in such cases UNICEF assistance to general health centres for a district or a community development block became necessary to provide the required supervision and support.

For reasons of shortage of finance and personnel, developing countries have as yet very few specialized services for children that are not part of other services. Schools come the closest to being an exception, but even they are often advantageously used as centres

of adult education, parent education and sometimes community development ("fundamental," "mass" or "basic" education). In the Board discussion of how to reach the young child, in the June 1965 session, the conclusion was that help to the mother was by far the most effective way to accomplish this objective, and that this could best be done through the use and enlargement of existing channels and established programmes. For example, the education of future mothers (through special efforts to get girls to school) and of young mothers (through adult education based on the school) may, in some places, be practically the only means of helping the young child.

While most services for children have to be developed in co-operation with other services, UNICEF's assistance is in these cases a small part of the total cost. Developing countries may later on develop more specialized services, when their resources grow sufficiently. However, even in industrialized countries, there is now a good deal of interest in the greater use of combined services.

In any case, justification for UNICEF's assistance should always be solely the direct and indirect value of the benefits to children, without taking into account the benefits which may accrue to the rest of the community. For example, bringing clean water to some villages may be the best practicable contribution to child welfare, and this can justify UNICEF assistance. The further benefit to adults is not of prime concern to UNICEF, though it will undoubtedly help greatly to secure local interest and participation in the project.

#### *Multiplier effect*

UNICEF's resources are very small in relation both to the needs for external aid for the benefit of children, and to the volume of other external resources going into economic and social develop-

*No matter how simple the setting, primary education is a fundamental step in the economic and social development of a country.*



ment. UNICEF's resources should therefore be used, so far as possible, with maximum "multiplier effect" through stimulating further action by the country, community and family; and through preparing a base for the use of aid from other sources. Some of the ways of doing this, elaborated below, are assistance to "growing points," removal of bottlenecks, supporting "starter" projects, and drawing attention to neglected problems.

*Assistance to "growing points"*

A long-term task which would merit considerably more attention in the future is that of determining how UNICEF assistance, in any given country, can best help the national services benefiting children and youth to grow in the future. This would be greatly facilitated by some generally accepted ideas about various desirable paths of growth for such services. However, such growth paths have seldom been studied.

There are many studies of the order in which the different stages of general *economic* development should be tackled, e.g. roads and other communications, agriculture, import replacement, energy supply, heavy and light industry, etc. But services for the welfare and development of children and youth have tended to be recommended principally in terms of a fixed pattern or static standards, without comparative studies being available of the cost and effectiveness of reaching such standards along different paths over a period of time. Economic development is often planned to take advantage of the influence on its "surroundings" of a rapidly growing sector or industry ("leading sector"), or of a rapidly growing area ("pole of growth"). There are analogous effects in the field of services benefiting children. For example, education, applied nutrition or health improvement, in a particular area, may induce other favourable developments, and projects assisted by UNICEF for comprehensive "integrated services" are expected to radiate their influence into the surroundings. If more were known about these effects, more advantage could be taken of them.

Notable progress has been made in indicating appropriate stages and paths of growth in manpower studies, and in studies of "education for development."<sup>18</sup> Such studies are needed not only for each type of service or sector, but also for the strategy of over-all development of services, especially since the scarcity of qualified people and of resources requires government organization in rural areas to be polyvalent to some extent.

Meanwhile countries have to develop their services, and the immediately following paragraphs will illustrate some different approaches. The illustrations are taken from the problems of countries with lower levels of GNP and availability of trained personnel, because these are the more neglected.

Many countries at the present time evidently consider education as the children's service that will make the quickest contribution to their own development and the development of the community, and therefore to the future national financing of the extension of this and other services. Nevertheless, even though educational budgets are generally growing faster than the GNP, the average educational budget available for each child of primary school age is, in many countries, considerably less than the average cost per pupil. Hence, such countries are not yet able to extend primary education to all children. The problem is often "solved" at present by many children dropping out of school before they have even attained literacy. Alternatively, some countries have a first cycle of rural primary schooling lasting about four years which, they hope, is long enough to confer permanent literacy. The countries can then supplement this with literacy teaching and practical training for those youths and adults who have never attended school. Which, in each case, is the best choice? Which should be encouraged by external assistance?

What is under discussion here is more than just a strategy for educational services. To reach the population of rural areas, and particularly subsistence areas, the availability of administrative channels is a major consideration. The schools offer the most widespread network, even though it is often seriously incomplete. Schools



and teachers, therefore, are being used to reach parents and families generally, and as stimulators of community development. Thanks to them, local participation may be obtained to build village water supplies or to improve subsistence food production in the type of "applied nutrition" projects aided by UNICEF. The school system may be used to reach the pre-school child through the education of mothers in child care, and for still other tasks. But the schools would have to be staffed, and the staff trained, with these ends in view.

Some countries have a separate community development organization *not* based on the school, and their services benefiting children often have a great appeal. Applied nutrition projects within community development have aroused local interest in areas where people are conscious of the shortage of food, and have led, in turn, to community action in other fields. Community development may also emphasize women's education, which means substantially the education of mothers and older girls, and through them can play a key role in raising the socio-economic level of the coming generation.

In this instance again, we see that different developing countries adopt different paths in their reaching for higher standards. Inasmuch as the various methods and solutions have an impact on the future of children and youth and can, in turn, be affected by UNICEF's long-term assistance, UNICEF should make a contribution to their clarification and evaluation, in co-operation with the governments, technical agencies and non-governmental bodies concerned.

### *Removing bottlenecks*

Sometimes a large multiplier effect can be obtained by removing bottlenecks in national services, of which the most frequent is the lack of trained personnel. One-third of UNICEF resources is now going to training of personnel for services benefiting children. The percentage of allocations made for training in the period 1962 to 1965 was as follows in the respective programme fields:

	<i>Per cent</i>
Education	70
Family and child welfare	68
Applied nutrition	53
Health services	32
Vocational training	25
Milk conservation	7
Disease control	1
Total, all projects	291 <sup>9</sup>

Training assistance goes mostly to training within the country, and includes equipment for training centres, stipends for trainees and sometimes for instructors, and establishment of practice areas. Assistance may be given for regular training, refresher training, orientation and in-service training, and it may be for different levels of work, from organizing and directing through professional to auxiliary and volunteer. In the United Nations family, UNICEF assistance has had a particular role in the training of auxiliaries.

Another way for UNICEF to help remove bottlenecks is to help set up national production facilities so that the country can produce supplies for its services. This has included aid for the production of teaching manuals and textbooks, of health and nutrition education materials, of vaccines, of play materials, etc.

#### *Supporting "starter" projects*

"Starter" projects may have a very large multiplier effect if they are successful, because the results can then be applied widely. They may be directed to problem solving, including applied research, but the Board has taken the position that UNICEF resources should not be used for pure research. They may be pilot and demonstration projects, which are usually related to technical methods. In association with the United Nations technical agencies, UNICEF is in a better position to encourage new approaches than many national ministries whose budgets are committed to ongoing activities and have a very small margin for experimentation. Some need to be-

come large enough to command attention at the policy-making or cabinet level, and to give experience in operations to executive and administrative personnel in sectors concerning children and youth.<sup>20</sup>

Assistance to milk conservation was an example of a "starter" project. The objective was never to cover all the needs of a country, but to advance by example to a point where the utility and feasibility were sufficiently demonstrated to encourage other capital to extend the industry. This has happened in many countries. Moreover, milk handling offers, as a by-product, an excellent training in the exigencies of industrial operations. The support of processing of "weaning foods" for young children is now being developed along similar lines.

Inevitably, some "starter" projects do not expand or lead to further action. But UNICEF should not confine its assistance to "sure winners." The over-all returns will be greater by taking reasonable chances in helping innovation.

#### *Drawing attention to neglected problems*

Assistance may be given for neglected problems to show that progress is possible, and to help obtain greater national recognition and co-operation. One example is the special attention that the Board recommended should be given to the needs of the young child from age one to six. Another is assistance for family and child welfare services. A third concerns relating programmes to the aspirations of families for their children, and hence the liberation of important forces of local participation.

#### *Country-wide coverage*

In addition to projects falling under the multiplier strategy, there remain some with the objective of coverage of the country, or of an affected area. BCG vaccination was the first campaign with an objective of national coverage assisted by UNICEF. This objective proved to be too heavy a burden for most developing countries, and

the campaign was cut back in order to concentrate on the more heavily infected areas. At the same time the new tools of chemotherapy were added, mostly for the treatment of adult cases; the benefit to children then lies in rendering the family environment non-infectious. With the changing concepts in mind, UNICEF's contribution to tuberculosis control is now undergoing review. Since 1961, TB/BCG projects have received allocations of from \$1 to \$2 million annually.

Leprosy and trachoma campaigns, meant at first to cover the affected area of the country over a period of years, have also shrunk in size (at present they together require \$500,000 or less a year from UNICEF). The years of treatment required for each case of leprosy have made it particularly difficult for countries to keep teams going and to reach cases effectively. Yaws campaigns were easier because of the efficacy, in many cases, of one shot of penicillin, and many have been successfully completed, often leaving behind a stimulus to the local community to work for other health services or community development. Malaria eradication is the leading current example in UNICEF of the strategy of country-wide coverage, and its situation has been described earlier.

The production of polio and measles vaccines in recent years has opened new possibilities. We may expect that, with further technical development, their use will gradually come to cost less in terms of skilled personnel and money so that the health services in developing countries can use them more widely.

It is now generally accepted that disease-control campaigns, in addition to giving an immediate benefit, should serve to develop and extend the work of permanent national services, which are required to consolidate and maintain the results achieved. The degree to which such campaigns are supported should be governed, as a general rule, by the possibilities for extending supporting services in rural and peri-urban zones.

When assistance for MCH services began, it was hoped that these services would become part of general health services and that they would gradually achieve country-wide coverage. National coverage

has not yet proved possible because of the lack of personnel and finances. On the contrary, in developing countries as a whole, probably not more than one child in twenty is within reach of basic health services.<sup>21</sup> It is therefore most timely that the 1967 report of the UNICEF/WHO Joint Committee on Health Policy suggests ways to achieve wider coverage than at present by greater use of paramedical and auxiliary staff, and by enlisting the participation of leading members of rural communities.

Historically, UNICEF has considered country-wide coverage only for projects benefiting children's health. Other programmes would have a higher cost per beneficiary, and national coverage would be even further from realization. If, contrary to present practice, UNICEF's current goal of \$50 million were distributed to benefit 700 million children, it would produce an annual subsidy to children's services of approximately 7 cents per child. This makes it strikingly clear that country-wide coverage can never be applied by UNICEF to more than a few projects in a few countries.

#### *Concentration*

Fears have been expressed that the policy of relating assistance to the priority problems of children in each country, rather than to a small number of global programmes, could lead to a too-wide dispersion of UNICEF resources. This policy does lead to a considerable diversity of projects being assisted in the world, but it does not mean that a wide range is or should be assisted in each country.

As just indicated, effective assistance for a serious problem with country-wide coverage on a world scale would generally be beyond UNICEF's resources. In the case of malaria, UNICEF, even when spending over one-third of its total aid for six years on this one disease, was able to assist only some countries; other larger countries received assistance from bilateral aid. Moreover, a long-term response to the general needs of children has to include more than the promotion of a small number of world campaigns. Finally, the number of countries in which UNICEF is assisting children's projects

has greatly increased, from 58 in 1950 to 120 in 1966; with this has come a greater variety of situations and of needs of children.

The problem of dispersion has sometimes been described as UNICEF having too many small projects. One of the reasons for "small" projects is that there are a number of countries with a child population of 500,000 or under which have projects assisted by the Fund. Smallness is not bad in itself; what matters is the effectiveness of each step taken. Hence, it is probably better to think in terms of not having too many projects per country, rather than in terms of projects of a particular size. We believe that the best way to help a country poor in resources is by significant projects adapted to its needs and capacities of absorption (see below under "Special Assistance"). An essential element of success is the way in which the field representatives of UNICEF and other United Nations agencies concerned approach governments in regard to the planning of projects and the possibilities of assisting them.

The counting of projects partly depends on an administrative definition, namely, what is handled by a single plan of operations. What requires a single plan in one country may require several in another, depending on the administrative structure. Annual allocations to single projects range from \$20,000 to \$2 million. UNICEF is now aiding some 117 countries and 495 projects, or an average of four per country.

At present, UNICEF is helping the health services in nearly all developing countries, and this should be maintained as one of the few channels presently used to reach infants and young children. Most countries are also seeking help in education or vocational training as a contribution to the school-age child. One or more other projects may be directed to problems of distinctive environments—shanty-towns, subsistence zones, etc.; or to special problems, such as nutrition and social services. In many countries, this would be considered the minimum range of project assistance required if there was to be an over-all programme for the rising generation. As pointed out above, there is no basis for a determination that, in general, assistance to one category of aid has a priority

over another. This depends very much on the situation in each country.

The variety and number of projects are inevitably a reflection of government methods and administrative structure. UNICEF has made some progress in combining some separately assisted activities into more comprehensive programmes. For instance, it is possible for UNICEF to be assisting in the same country an applied nutrition project, a weaning-food project and a home economics project. Ideally, these should be different facets of a national policy on food and nutrition. They are more likely to be considered in that context if they are viewed together as different phases of one project. UNICEF may thus exert an influence for a more co-ordinated approach in the country.

While we favour a certain reduction in the number of projects, we cannot expect it to be large in the immediate future. The real point is to be selective; to support only projects that are significant, currently or potentially; and to give those projects enough vigorous support to ensure their success.

### *Emergencies*

Aid in emergencies can hardly be a matter of general strategy, although basic policies are important. The portion of UNICEF resources used in this way is small but highly variable. During 1964 to 1966, emergencies received 1 per cent of UNICEF's programme assistance; during 1967 they are receiving more than 4 per cent. There is reason to fear that food emergencies will recur with increasing frequency and be a source of new requests.

*Young street vendors earn what they can at a time in their lives when they should be in school. Unless these children are helped, their future is a dead-end street of poverty and despair.*





## DISTRIBUTION OF AID AMONG COUNTRIES

It seems clear that UNICEF provides too small an amount of material aid to be handled as an economic contribution to be distributed to countries in accordance with any formal scale of needs, or on the basis of country quotas. Moreover, there are substantial variations in the requirements of projects in a country from year to year. Therefore, the Board has held that the amount of assistance given to any project should be mainly related to its merits (needs and effective use).<sup>22</sup> This criterion of efficiency is sometimes in conflict with the criterion of equity of distribution.

It seems equitable to help countries or communities that are striving to improve the lot of their children — but not, however, to give more help to those who can do more because they have more personnel and finances. In view of the difficulty of measuring other factors, the child population and the level of GNP per inhabitant have been considered as useful guides in relation to equitable geographical distribution.

However, more populous countries receive less per child than smaller countries. This follows from UNICEF's lack of resources to support projects with country-wide coverage. In Africa south of the Sahara, UNICEF is assisting projects in 38 countries, whose combined child population is 89 million. One country in Asia has more than this total, and two others have more than one-half; one country in the Americas has more than one-third. In the circumstances, child population is not a good criterion for equitable distribution. This suggests that we should look rather for an "equitable distribution of projects" than at the sums of allocations. The number of projects is more closely related to the number of national or provincial departments responsible for services benefiting children (centres of decision) than to the number of children in the country. In large countries, however, many services benefiting children depend less on the central governments than on the administrations of states, provinces or even districts. This, for example, is the reason for subsidiary plans of operations, at the state level, for health and nutri-

tion projects in India. UNICEF's assistance should be available sufficiently far down the line to be able to stimulate local support for the projects. More attention should be given to this factor in large countries, as UNICEF resources grow.

**DIFFERENT LEVELS OF GNP.** At what stage in its development programme should a country cease to present requests for project assistance? This can be only an arbitrary decision. In practice it has been decided that nearly all the countries of Europe and Japan, have now passed this stage. However, it would not appear advisable to concentrate all assistance on projects in the poorest countries. Countries at different stages of their economic and social development have different problems, and old problems remain acute in the backward areas of the rapidly developing countries. Since UNICEF cannot hope to help more than a few countries solve any problems with country-wide coverage, but only to initiate appropriate measures, the large multiplier effect to be obtained is a valid justification for assistance to projects in countries further along in the process of development.<sup>23</sup> Of course, the level of income and administrative and manpower resources has an important bearing on the choice of projects and on the pattern of services to be started.

**"SPECIAL ASSISTANCE" TO LESS ECONOMICALLY DEVELOPED COUNTRIES.** There is, however, an inevitable tendency for more assistance to go to countries with more personnel and finances, and, within countries, there is a tendency for more assistance to go to the economically developed areas. As an example, more assistance from UNICEF, as well as from other agencies, has gone to West Pakistan than to East Pakistan, a situation which the Government of Pakistan has asked all agencies to correct. This problem probably cannot be solved by applying uniform criteria to all countries and all parts of countries. Through the discussion on "special assistance" in the Board session of June 1965, the Board has given general approval to special help to projects in zones still in the traditional or "pre-

development" stage. It was agreed that this might include contribution to local running costs of a "starter" project in a particular area of the country, to be given on a decreasing scale over a period of years. The Board asked for specific projects to be submitted, but none have reached the stage of presentation to the Board.

The concept of special assistance remains valid, however. Experience suggests that:

- "special assistance" should be broadened to mean more generous assistance to projects in countries or zones of countries with a GNP well under \$100 *per capita*, and a relatively poor endowment of trained personnel and training facilities;
- however generous the assistance, a project implies obligations for the country in future years; hence the projects need to be related to the country's development effort;
- priority will probably be given in these cases to projects having an early economic as well as a social return (for example, education).

**BETTER-OFF COUNTRIES.** At the other end of the scale, countries at the \$300 to \$500 *per capita* level need smaller amounts of assistance for more strictly pilot or "starter" projects. They may be chosen with the additional objective that the results should also be of value to other countries.

#### PREPARATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF PROJECTS

Within the general strategy outlined above, the most important factors in the successful use of assistance are the selection and thorough preparation of projects, and the most careful attention to their administration and implementation.

#### *Pattern of services in assisted projects*

The pattern of services for which assistance is offered should be well adapted to the zone of the country concerned (e.g. rural or urban), to the aspirations of the population, and to the personnel

and the finances available. This has always been agreed in principle, but is quite difficult to apply in practice. It merits more attention from both UNICEF and the technical agencies usually helping countries in the preparation of projects.

One-third of the countries having projects assisted by UNICEF have an annual income of under \$100 *per capita*. Often, most of the children are living in rural areas, and many in the traditional form of society. A great deal depends on the mobilization of local support for projects, as was emphasized at the Conference on Children and Youth in National Planning and Development in Asia. Moreover, countries at this level are well-nigh compelled to give priority to projects that will bring an economic as well as a "welfare" return. In another group of countries, near the \$200 *per capita* level, the government can provide significantly more elaborate services. At some place in the \$300 to \$500 range it becomes possible for the country to provide completely for its services from its own growing resources, but it may be very much helped by selective projects with multiplier potential. Similar problems in some degree are present at all levels. For example, even the countries with \$300 to \$500 *per capita* income may still have a sizable number of children in subsistence zones or shanty-towns.

Relating projects to local conditions often involves decisions that can have serious political implications. Such decisions are, of course, for the country to make, but UNICEF and others concerned with assistance should be sensitive to the realities of particular situations. For example, it does not really help a country to provide assistance for a demonstration project that simply illustrates a type and level of service to which that country cannot hope to aspire on a national or even zonal basis in the foreseeable future.

Great dilemmas arise in the field of education. Universal primary education is an obviously worthwhile goal, but many developing countries are finding that it is beyond their reach in the near future by the usual method of simply building more schools and training more teachers. Hence, the interest in other solutions now being explored by a number of countries, e.g. ensuring that a pro-

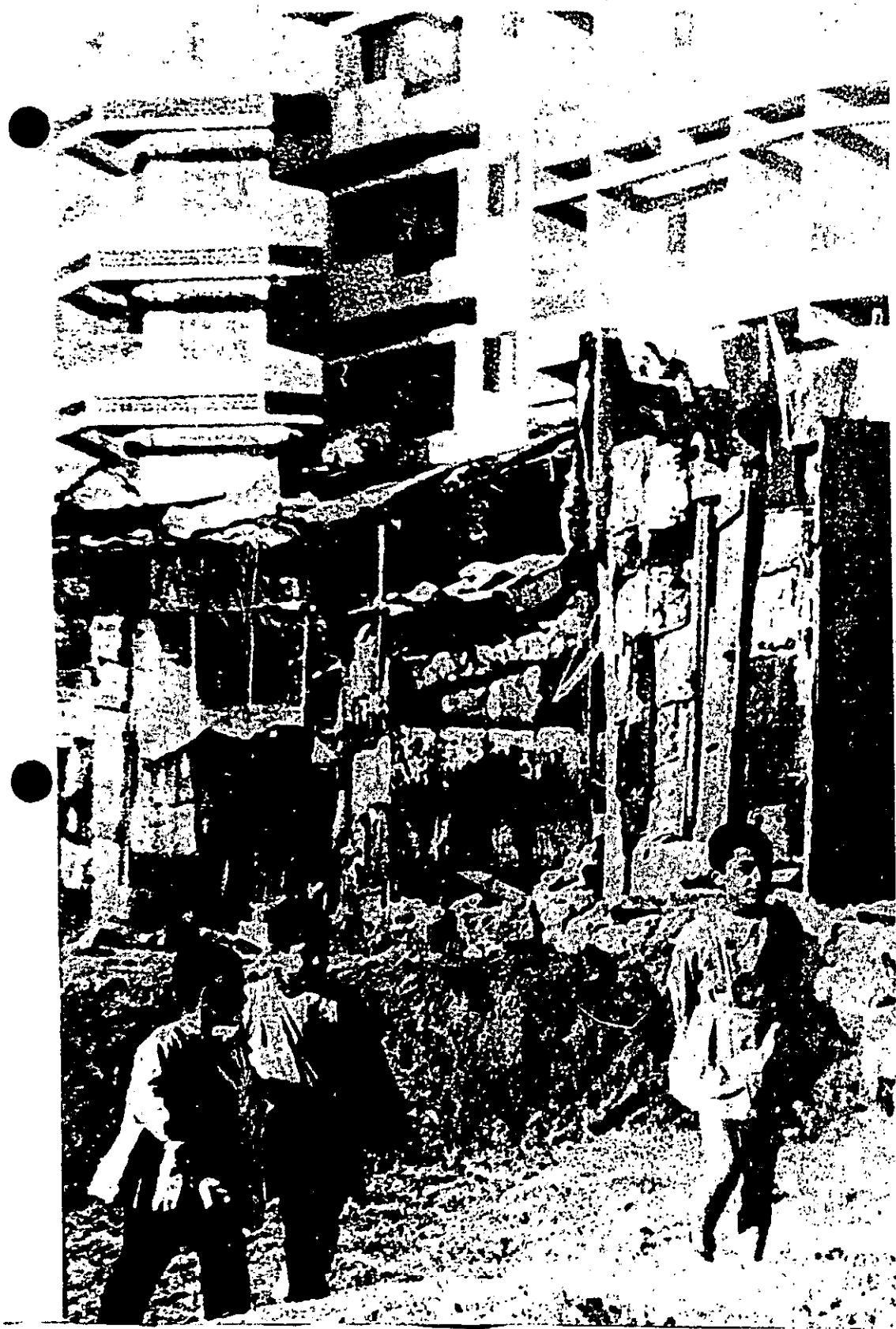
portion of children stay in school long enough to remain a permanent benefit, while providing literacy programmes and practical training to other youth and adults, at a much lower cost per pupil; use of the period of military service to carry education to the villages; and other unconventional measures.

It is also important to realize that only the support of the community will make a project successful. For this reason, the same project may be found flourishing in one place and dead in another. Projects need to be developed so that they fit well into the mentality of the people, e.g. by selecting rural people for training for work in rural areas. The sites of field activities should depend on the wishes and contribution of the local community, instead of the all too frequent practice of deciding on all locations from a central point. It is, of course, also necessary to include provision to "motivate" in advance the communities involved, otherwise all projects would tend to be concentrated in that part of the country that is advancing most rapidly. Non-governmental organizations may be able to help in this.

#### *Preparation of projects*

There has been a gradual increase in recent years in expenditure of UNICEF funds for the use of consultants, national or international,<sup>24</sup> to help ministries prepare projects. The tendency to make more use of scientific institutions and consultants may be encouraged, since thorough preparation of the project is the basis for all subsequent progress. Some reduction in the number of projects, while making them more comprehensive and flexible, as discussed above, would also favour more thorough preparation.

*Children live in the squalor and idleness of shanty-towns  
in the shadow of towering modern apartment houses.*



### *Administration of projects*

Administrative problems are inseparable from underdevelopment. Help for the administration of projects receiving allocations from UNICEF is often highly valued, and may facilitate the later extension of the project, as well as being a safeguard for UNICEF's investment. UNICEF has accumulated experience in this form of assistance, and it is one of the duties of field staff to be as alert and helpful as possible in this respect. However, field offices cannot be sufficiently staffed to meet all the needs.

Through the OPEX procedure (Operational and Executive Personnel for Developing Countries), countries may engage overseas personnel for administrative responsibilities for projects in which UNICEF is co-operating. The Board agreed in 1961 that UNICEF might finance such posts where the funds provided under the OPEX programme proved insufficient. However, not much use has been made of this arrangement. International project personnel, provided by agencies as part of their technical assistance, often contribute in a major way, but it is time taken from their attention to technical problems. Consequently, the increasing number of volunteers now available under various bilateral arrangements, or from voluntary agencies, can make a large contribution to a better solution of the problem. The creation of national volunteer corps is also an encouraging development. Past experience suggests that UNICEF would do well to recognize frankly that aid in administration can be a vital form of assistance to projects.

Administrative and bureaucratic difficulties may stifle local initiatives for improvement. It would therefore be an advantage if at least one field unit of the project could be placed under the control of an institute, university, voluntary agency, etc. to serve as an experimental area. This may be linked with the built-in evaluation system mentioned earlier.

### *Types of supplies and services*

UNICEF aid comprises a wide variety of supplies, equipment and services including: technical and other equipment for children's

health services; vehicles and advice on transport maintenance; equipment for milk processing and manufacture of weaning foods, and engineering and technical services in these fields; training of national personnel for services benefiting children in such fields as health, nutrition, social welfare and education; certain supplies for schools and vocational training; and sometimes procurement services, on a reimbursable basis, for projects benefiting children.

It is clear that assistance policy should be concerned with the results to be achieved by the projects rather than with the type of supplies or other assistance to be contributed. The objective is to secure maximum effectiveness of the project within suitable financial limits. In the inflationary period after the Second World War, assistance mainly consisted of imported supplies. Nowadays in some countries, assistance in meeting local expenses is also needed to achieve maximum effectiveness. This particularly applies to training, and sometimes to supervision.

The type of supplies should be selected with a view to quality and economy, and to the future ability of the country to continue and extend the programme after external co-operation ceases. Sometimes this extension will be best helped by assistance to begin the manufacture of certain equipment and supplies in the country.

With the help of the technical agencies, UNICEF has produced guide lists in the main fields of its assistance, suggesting ranges of equipment related to different patterns of staffing. These have helped to set basic standards. Most of the items are available for shipment from the UNICEF Assembly and Packing Centre at Copenhagen. It is, of course, necessary to go outside the lists at times in order to adjust UNICEF aid to the needs of individual projects.



## FOOTNOTES

<sup>18</sup>See for example Frederick Harbison and Charles A. Myers, *Education, Manpower and Economic Growth* (New York, McGraw-Hill, 1964) and publications of UNESCO's Institute of Educational Planning.

<sup>19</sup>United Nations Children's Fund, *General Progress Report of the Executive Director, 1967*, E/ICEF/558, para. 145. "Training" was defined as training adults to work in services benefiting children. Thus 70 per cent of the allocation for education went for the training of teachers, and the remaining 30 per cent for other assistance to the education of school children, e.g. teaching aids.

<sup>20</sup>See extract from report of the June 1962 Executive Board session, reproduced in Annex II.

<sup>21</sup>This is a guess made by observers, cited here only to give an idea of the magnitude of the needs. Unfortunately, no statistical basis exists to establish the coverage of health services.

<sup>22</sup>Before 1961, a review by the Executive Board of prospective UNICEF resources, before any new programme category was accepted for assistance, meant that the Board limited in this way the potential number of requests. The Board also limited the types of supplies UNICEF could contribute, with emphasis on providing imported supplies. In principle, all country requests which conformed to the restrictions decided on by the Board could be met, and in that sense all countries received equal treatment. However, this system also tended to channel the largest amount of assistance to the countries with the most local resources or "absorptive capacity."

<sup>23</sup>This question could be discussed in terms not of the country's income level but of the stage of its development, e.g. pre-development or traditional, in transition towards "take-off," or having achieved self-sustaining growth. It would be argued that it is not advisable to exclude any of these. The greatest return, through the multiplier strategy, can be obtained in countries with self-sustaining growth. The "stages" do not coincide with different levels of GNP, and are more difficult to use because of lack of general agreement about the classification of individual countries at the time when decisions about assistance have to be taken.

<sup>24</sup>Who finances all international personnel needed for the preparation of projects in the health field.

## UNICEF'S RELATIONS WITH OTHER UNITED NATIONS AGENCIES AND BILATERAL AID

UNICEF, AS THE ORGANIZATION of the United Nations devoted exclusively to the child, is able to make its assistance fit in well with that of other United Nations organizations. This would be desirable under any set of assistance policies; it becomes essential in the implementation of the country approach described in the preceding section. Such an approach requires the closest possible co-ordination of UNICEF's activities with those of other United Nations agencies so that there is fostered a kind of "inner-cohesion" in total assistance programmes and, more important, in the country's development effort. To this end, it is particularly important that the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) resident representatives have a clear understanding of the importance of programmes benefiting children and, reciprocally, that UNICEF staff receive advice from them on how UNICEF's assistance can best be fitted into the general programme of external assistance. The following paragraphs describe other means of ensuring appropriate co-ordination.

### *United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs and specialized agencies*

UNICEF's interest and special competence is not in the sectoral fields of the specialized agencies as such, but in the best action for

the welfare and development of children in a particular country or zone. This will normally involve several different sectors, concurrently or successively, and require the help of one or more of the following agencies: the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, ILO, FAO, UNESCO and WHO.

Accordingly, UNICEF seeks advice on technical standards and policies in the fields of the relevant agency or agencies. This is available to UNICEF for the preparation, execution and evaluation of projects, and includes formal approval by the agencies of the technical aspects of plans of operations. The advice is also available to governments receiving aid through the agencies' advisers and project personnel. The supplies, equipment and services that UNICEF provides help in the strengthening of technical standards. Much of the aid given by UNICEF would not be practicable without the preparatory work carried out by the agencies in their specialized fields.

Thus the assistance of UNICEF and of the technical agencies is complementary, and together they achieve what neither could do alone. If, for example, UNICEF assists an education project (usually with classroom equipment and funds for the training of teachers), the project preparation is done in conjunction with UNESCO and the national ministry of education; and the ministry often requests technical advice from UNESCO for the execution of the project.

There is a problem in the multiplicity of consultations and approvals needed for projects that concern a number of ministries and disciplines, and hence also a number of technical agencies. Yet, such many-sided projects are often the most economical and effective for the country. Various steps have been taken to simplify procedures. The problem is a difficult one and it will receive continuing attention.

#### *United Nations Regional Economic Commissions and Development Institutes*

Following a decision of the Executive Board in June 1962, UNICEF began to develop working relationships with the regional

economic commissions and development institutes about taking account of children and youth in development in their training, research and advisory services to governments.

These relations were strengthened when the Economic Commissions and Development Institutes in Latin America and Asia joined with UNICEF in sponsoring regional conferences on children and youth in development, in 1965 and 1966. The Economic Commission for Africa and the African Institute for Economic Development and Planning participated in a meeting on the needs of African children held on the occasion of the Executive Board's session at Addis Ababa in 1966. Collaboration with all these bodies continues for follow-up action.

#### *Agencies of the United Nations giving material assistance*

Through periodic inter-secretariat discussions, UNICEF is able to separate clearly its assistance from that which the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development and its related agencies, or the United Nations Development Programme are willing, with much greater resources, to provide for projects in the social field. For example, these organizations assist technical education and secondary schooling to some extent, but less often extend aid to projects concerning the primary school and school dropouts, which are typical objects of UNICEF assistance. It is not just a question of avoiding overlapping; there are sometimes opportunities for co-operative assistance that may broaden the scope of a project, for instance, by producing services for younger children or for more children than those originally included.

UNICEF and the World Food Programme have developed a regular inter-secretariat liaison, and have joined in assisting a number of projects benefiting children.

#### *Bilateral aid*

Bilateral, multinational<sup>25</sup> and some voluntary agencies are in a position to give much more substantial aid to projects benefiting

children than is UNICEF. So far as we know, global statistics for projects benefiting children have not been compiled; but the amount of bilateral and multinational aid is generally nine to ten times that of aid passing through specialized agencies and bodies of the United Nations.

UNICEF has followed the policy of stepping aside, with the agreement of the receiving country, whenever a bilateral or a non-governmental agency proved ready to give assistance, usually on a much larger scale. This does not mean that UNICEF assists projects that larger donors have rejected. Rather, it emphasizes the value of "starter" projects, and the success of positive steps taken to enlist the interest of larger sources of aid in children's problems.

The latter aspect was stressed by the Executive Board in 1962 when it asked for contacts to be expanded with multinational, bilateral and non-governmental sources of aid that would be available for projects benefiting children. It also invited UNICEF national committees to interest sources of aid in their own countries in such possibilities.<sup>26</sup>

Experience has shown the value of joint assistance with bilateral aid, of which there are a number of examples in education and disease control. There are also numerous instances in which non-governmental agencies have provided aid to projects of interest to UNICEF. They have given not only an increase in the amount of aid, but also types complementary to those given by UNICEF.

#### FOOTNOTES

<sup>25</sup>"Multinational" is used to describe aid programmes of groups of countries such as the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the European Economic Community, etc.

<sup>26</sup>See extract from report of the June 1962 Executive Board session, reproduced in Annex II.

## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

**T**HE BASIC HUMANITARIAN IMPULSE to help children live decent lives has been, and continues to be, an important motivation for UNICEF aid. It is probably the strongest reason for the voluntary support of UNICEF, especially by private individuals. However, a discussion of assistance policies limited to humanitarian objectives would fall short of the long-term possibilities inherent in UNICEF's assistance programmes. There is an important relationship between programmes to benefit children and the economic and social development of their societies. On the one hand, the level of development of a country determines fundamentally the conditions in which children are born, live and grow to maturity. On the other hand, development itself greatly depends on the suitable preparation of the younger generation, e.g. on its health, attitudes, education and training. The process starts with the child at his earliest stage of growth. This report, therefore, is focused on those assistance policies which, in our judgement, can have the most significant effect on the welfare of children by contributing not only to improved child care, but also to the long-term social and economic development of the countries in which the children live.

### THE NEEDS OF CHILDREN

Approximately 690 million children under 15 years of age live in countries with a national *per capita* income of less than \$500

per year (not including mainland China). Of these, some 450 million children live in countries with a national income *per capita* of under \$100 per year. Children under 15 constitute some 40 per cent of the total population in the developing countries, and the dependency ratio is substantially higher than in industrialized countries. Although there is not as yet sufficient statistical information for a global quantitative statement of children's needs, it is clear that hundreds of millions of children do not, in present circumstances, have the material basis for developing their natural capacities.

For the purposes of preparing action programmes, it is useful to analyse needs and possibilities from a number of different points of view: by sectors or instruments of action (ministries); by main problems causing concern, which are often inter-sectoral; by geographical zones—rural (cash crop and subsistence) and urban (town and peri-urban zones); and by age groups—infant, young child, school-age child and adolescent. Although the report makes no attempt at detailed analysis, some of the main facts that emerge are summarized in the following paragraphs.

Only a small percentage of children in rural areas of developing countries receive any health service at all; in urban areas the numbers are higher, but still insufficient. Respiratory and diarrhoeal diseases, malnutrition and vector-borne and parasitic diseases are the major causes of death and incapacity of children in the developing world.

In developing countries, only two-fifths of the children of school age complete primary school; a much smaller percentage goes to secondary school. Girls are worse off than boys. There is a widespread demand and need for the reorientation of education in relation to development and modern life. Rural schools particularly need up-grading.

There is as yet no satisfactory solution to the problems of school dropouts and of those children who never even begin school, although interesting experiments are going on in a number of countries. This is an example of the type of problem requiring

inter-sectoral treatment, i.e. collaboration among the ministries of education, labour and agriculture.

Migration to cities, which is taking place at a rate accelerating in advance of job opportunities, is not a solution to the problems of children in rural areas. It simply transfers the problem, with added complications. Shanty-towns blight nearly every city of the developing world. Children are easier to reach in these areas, but they need additional help since the migration usually involves a breakdown of the extended family without a corresponding strengthening of the nuclear family or the aid of community services. The problem here is a zonal one requiring special attention by a variety of services and agencies.

There are particular difficulties in getting services to certain age groups, especially young children and adolescents — the two most critical periods for personality development. Different types of programmes are needed for different age groups, but it is important for these programmes to be related, since the same children will pass successively through these age groups.

Generally speaking, governments of developing countries are devoting significant proportions of their budgets to programmes designed to help children and youth. But on the levels of GNP with which they must operate, the tax base is too small to produce sufficient revenues. Hence, progress depends largely on what the family, the community and the local governments can be helped and stimulated to do by bringing into play resources that are presently under-used. This often involves a variety of "unconventional" methods designed to mobilize resources in "self-help" programmes. In this situation, external assistance is often of crucial importance.

High rates of population growth, sometimes as much as 3 per cent annually, are a cause of concern to many countries because of the training and investment required to provide health, education and other services, and job opportunities, which together may absorb much or all of the annual growth of the GNP. Family planning may substantially affect population growth rates in the future, but it can provide no immediate solution since a population explosion



is already taking place in many countries.

Finally, there is an increasing and impatient expectation in the developing world of an improvement in opportunities for children — an expectation based on comparisons with the industrialized countries. Consequently, the situation of children should be viewed with a growing sense of urgency.

#### ASSISTANCE POLICIES

##### *Country approach*

Children need to receive preparation for active and useful lives, as well as to be protected from various diseases, hazards and handicaps to which they are more vulnerable than adults. The humanitarian aims of UNICEF can best be furthered by assistance policies which contribute not only to the immediate benefit of children, but also to the long-term social and economic development of their societies. Thus, the most effective use of UNICEF's resources is to assist key programmes of benefit to children and youth which have recognized priorities within the context of the development efforts of individual countries.

Although major emphasis should be placed on such programmes, there will continue to be situations, not related to national development efforts, in which UNICEF assistance can be very important. UNICEF policies should remain sufficiently flexible to permit assistance in meritorious cases not specifically related to development efforts, provided they are given high priority by the governments receiving the aid.

##### *UNICEF's role*

UNICEF should have two general goals. Firstly, it should encourage governments to establish — within the framework of their development efforts — programmes and priorities aimed at the care and welfare of children and youth as well as at their preparation for effective participation in their respective societies. Secondly, it

should encourage a steadily increasing volume of outside assistance from government and private sources, channelled either through its own assistance programmes or through others with the same purpose. With regard to its own assistance programmes, UNICEF can serve as a *catalytic agent* by carrying out pilot or "starter" projects which, through their demonstrated success, can attract additional resources from within the countries being assisted and from other external sources of aid. It can also serve, to the extent its resources permit, as an *active participant* by giving substantial aid to larger priority projects.

#### *Priorities*

It is not possible for UNICEF to decide on global priorities. Moreover the problem of priorities is not sectoral, i.e. it is not a question of choosing among health, education, nutrition or among types of projects within these sectors. Rather,

- priorities should be chosen in agreement with each country in relation to the local situation of children and youth, and on the basis of a strategy for the development of the necessary permanent national services;
- assistance should be adapted to the various socio-economic zones of the country, e.g. the subsistence zone, the cash-crop zone, the shanty-town and the town;
- among country priorities, the priority for UNICEF aid should lie where it has prospects of being of the greatest benefit to the largest number of children and youth.

#### *Matching principle*

It is essential that projects assisted by UNICEF enjoy a sufficiently high priority, in the eyes of those concerned with the allocation of resources in the country, to receive adequate national support in personnel and finances. This is usually best achieved by ensuring that the projects are included in the development programme where such a programme exists. The objective can also be sought, even

in the absence of development programmes, through the matching principle, which requires contributions in local resources to UNICEF-aided projects. On the average, receiving countries have contributed in their own resources more than two and one-half times the value of UNICEF aid.

### *Multiplier effect*

UNICEF's resources are small in relation both to the needs for international aid for the benefit of children, and to the other external resources going to economic and social development. UNICEF's resources should therefore be used with a view to their maximum effect.

The various ways to obtain this include: helping countries assess the needs and possibilities of the current situation of their children and youth as a basis for selecting projects that can form key elements in national programmes; planning UNICEF assistance in the light of development hoped for over a considerable period of years ahead; taking account of the interrelationship among needs of successive age groups, and among needs served by different ministries; taking advantage of combining children's services with services for the community, while justifying UNICEF assistance by the direct and indirect benefit to children and adolescents; directing assistance to "growing" points in services benefiting children; helping to remove bottlenecks, especially by training; providing assistance to "starter" projects; drawing attention to neglected problems and stimulating work on their solution.

### *Country-wide coverage*

On a highly selective basis as regards both the types of programme and the countries being helped, UNICEF may assist, on a larger scale, projects aimed at country-wide coverage.

*Clean water is fundamental to child health,  
and the villagers are glad to help improve the supply.*



*Concentration*

A limited reduction in the number of projects assisted by UNICEF is desirable. It can gradually be obtained in the respective countries by combining small projects into fewer large ones, and by preparing the project presentation to cover a longer period. The important thing is to be selective, to support only projects that are of recognized significance, and to give them enough support to ensure their success.

*Distribution of aid among projects and countries*

It follows, from both the country approach and from the fact that UNICEF's aid is small in relation to needs, that it is neither possible nor desirable to lay down in advance precise criteria for the allocation of assistance among types of projects and among countries. The policy of considering requests in whatever field priority problems of children exist, in the country concerned, has given invaluable flexibility to UNICEF assistance. It should be continued. Within this structure, the pragmatic approach of the past, which gives priority to projects having a low cost per beneficiary in order to meet the needs of as many children as possible, should also be continued, at least until it is possible to make more precise comparisons between cost and benefit. As regards countries, so long as other basic criteria are met, there is justification for assistance at all levels of GNP, up to a point at which the country no longer needs external assistance for its children and youth. At the same time, the need for "special assistance" for countries at the lowest end of the scale of development has already been recognized and should receive increasing attention.

*Project preparation*

It has always been agreed in principle that the pattern of services for which assistance is offered should be well adapted to the socio-economic zone of the country concerned, to the aspirations of the population, and to the personnel and finances available. In prac-

tice, this is difficult to apply, and should receive more attention. More attention should also be given to helping countries administer projects; one way should be to use an increasing number of volunteers, as and when they become available. UNICEF should also be alert to the potential value of mobilizing resources at the community level through "unconventional" means (literacy corps, etc.) and consider ways to co-operate with them.

*Relations with other agencies*

UNICEF should continue to make full use of the professional advice of the special agencies of the United Nations, to develop its collaboration with the regional economic commissions and development institutes, and to work closely with non-governmental organizations on activities of mutual interest. It should continue and enhance the close working relationships that already exist with the resident representatives of the United Nations Development Programme so that there will be a reciprocal understanding of the country's total development effort and of the importance of aid to children and youth in that context.

ANNEX I

EXTRACTS FROM  
UNITED NATIONS GENERAL ASSEMBLY RESOLUTIONS  
BEARING ON UNICEF ASSISTANCE POLICIES

1946: Resolution 57 (I)

...  
*Decides therefore:*

1. There is hereby created an International Children's Emergency Fund to be utilized and administered, to the extent of its available resources:

(a) For the benefit of children and adolescents of countries which were victims of aggression; and in order to assist in their rehabilitation;

(b) For the benefit of children and adolescents of countries at present receiving assistance from the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration;

(c) For child health purposes generally, giving high priority to the children of countries victims of aggression.

...

2. ...

(b) ... Provision shall be made for:

...

(ii) Equitable and efficient dispensation or distribution of all supplies or other assistance, on the basis of need, without discrimination because of race, creed, nationality status or political belief;

(c) The Fund shall not engage in activity in any country except in consultation with, and with the consent of, the Government concerned.

...

1950: Resolution 417 (V)

...

6. *Decides:*

...

(b) ... the Board ... shall ... allocate the resources of the Fund for the purpose of meeting, through the provision of supplies, training and advice, emergency and long-range needs of children and their continuing needs particularly in under-developed countries, with a view to strengthening, wherever this may be appropriate, the permanent child health and child welfare programmes of the countries receiving assistance;

*1961: Resolution 1678 (XVI)**The General Assembly,*

*Recognizing* the basic importance of child welfare programmes, not only to the future well-being of children but also to the role they will play as useful and productive members of society,

*Noting* the report of the Executive Director of the United Nations Children's Fund entitled "Survey of the needs of children," the decisions of the Executive Board of the Fund following from his report, and Economic and Social Council resolution 827 (XXXII) of 28 July 1961 by which the Council endorsed those decisions,

*Expressing its satisfaction* that the Fund has thus taken steps to translate still more effectively the provisions of the Declaration of the Rights of the Child into improved programmes of welfare for children,

1. *Endorses* the new emphasis and approach represented by those decisions in particular those aspects which will assist developing countries desiring to:

(a) Make intensive and integrated surveys of child needs for the purpose of identifying those priority needs which might most effectively be met by national and international action;

(b) Draw up long-term plans and programmes for child welfare on the basis of such surveys;

(c) Formulate projects which offer additional opportunities for the increasingly effective integration of such national programmes of external assistance;

*1962: Resolution 1773 (XVII)*

*Considering further* that the United Nations Development Decade offers an opportunity to promote the health, education and welfare of children and youth as part of the broader effort to accelerate economic and social progress in the developing countries,

1. *Takes note with approval* of the decisions of the Executive Board of the United Nations Children's Fund for orienting the work of the Fund towards the economic and social development efforts of the United Nations Development Decade;

2. *Recommends* that Member States, as appropriate, should:

(a) Take account of the needs of children and youth in the planning and administration of public health, education, social welfare, preparation for employment, housing, industry and agriculture, bearing in mind the need for the strengthening of family life, and make such plans part of over-all development programmes;



(b) Give due importance, in working towards the objectives of the United Nations Development Decade, to their own programmes for children and youth in allocating their available resources, and take account in their international aid programmes, of the needs of children and youth;

(c) Take full advantage of the services which the United Nations Children's Fund can offer, especially in planning for children and youth and in training appropriate personnel in collaboration with the Bureau of Social Affairs, the specialized agencies, other United Nations bodies and non-governmental organizations.

*1965: Resolution 2057 (XX)*

2. *Endorses* the policy of the United Nations Children's Fund in supporting the importance of viewing the needs of the child as a whole, and of making, in national programmes for economic and social development, adequate provision for children and young people and thereby preparing them for their future participation in their country's development;

3. *Notes with approval* the programmes of the United Nations Children's Fund, which now include assistance to Governments in the fields of maternal and child health, disease control, nutrition, social welfare, education and vocational training, and which are carried out in close co-operation with the technical agencies concerned in the United Nations family;

4. *Welcomes* the emphasis of the United Nations Children's Fund on assistance to young children of pre-school age, and on the improvement and extension of elementary education;

5. *Notes with satisfaction* the decision of the Executive Board of the United Nations Children's Fund that in seeking the most effective uses of Fund aid stress should continue to be placed on developing the basic services which benefit children, on priority programmes directed at their main problems and on the training of national personnel as an essential element of programmes, and the decision that full advantage should be taken of the relevant experience of all countries in seeking ways of meeting the problems of children and youth;

*1966: Resolution 2214 (XXI)*

*Noting with approval* that the United Nations Children's Fund is helping Governments, as part of their national development plans and programmes, not only to protect their children and youth but to ensure their preparation for contributing to the economic and social progress of their countries,

*Welcoming the fact* that the training of national personnel in services benefiting children is now one of the major features of aid from the United Nations Children's Fund,

1. *Endorses* the activities and objectives of the United Nations Children's Fund;

3. *Recommends* that Governments should include projects to meet the needs of children and youth in their over-all development plans.

## ANNEX II

### MAIN UNICEF EXECUTIVE BOARD DECISIONS ON ASSISTANCE POLICIES

1951

Early in 1951 in the light of the new terms of reference laid down by the General Assembly in December 1950, the Board decided that the following factors should be borne in mind in dealing with requests from countries:

(a) The extent to which there exist in the country serious problems of child or maternal health, malnutrition, or welfare;

(b) The capacity of a country to meet its needs out of its currently available resources;

(c) The extent to which international assistance is required by the country to carry out its plans for development;

(d) The extent to which a country can effectively make use of the assistance which has been sought and the extent to which such assistance complements plans within that country;

(e) The extent to which international assistance from other sources is available for the same or similar purposes;

(f) The extent to which children have suffered through war or other calamity. (E/ICEF/178/Rev. 1, para. 23)

As a guide to determining priority among competing project requests the following criteria were set down:

(a) The urgency of need for that project particularly if the denial of it would cause immediate and heavy loss of children's lives, or serious impairment of child health;

(b) The financial assistance required in the context of UNICEF's resources and its current and future obligations;

(c) The relative importance attached to the project by the requesting government;

(d) Projects which would help to complete or perfect work already undertaken or accomplished, in preference to wholly new projects; this, however, should not preclude aid to wholly new projects meeting urgent needs, particularly when UNICEF assistance would help initiate new government activity in a given field;

(e) Projects which would be of long-term value in preference to those of short-term benefits;

(f) Projects which through continuation by the country, or solution of a problem, would not require recurring assistance from the Fund;

(g) Projects which are well adapted to the financial, technical, and administrative possibilities of the country, due consideration being given to appropriate technical approaches;

(h) The possibility of benefits of a project also being made available to other countries. (E/ICEF/178/Rev. 1, para. 30)

#### 1957

In 1957 the Board considered an appraisal by the Executive Director of major programme trends (E/ICEF/336/Add. 1), and the Board report summarized a newly emerging point of view as follows:

"Its main premise is that the needs of children are not isolated and must be viewed within the context of their family and community environment. The best programmes with which UNICEF aid can be associated are those which act on as many of the complex factors in this environment as possible in a co-ordinated manner. Since it is often not possible to devise programmes which act simultaneously on all aspects of the environment, selection of UNICEF aid in a particular situation is based upon government priorities, and such considerations as the practical possibilities of government financing and organization; the availability of trained staff and possibilities for training in the future; the efficacy, from a technical point of view, of the methods to be adopted; and the extent of long-range impact including its educational effect on the population. Action in a country will often begin on a limited scale in order to observe the experience in actually carrying out the programme; in some cases pilot or demonstration sectors should be set up in order to establish the best method of approach. The beneficial effects of mass health campaigns can be retained only if there is a consolidation and integration of the work into permanent health and maternal and child welfare services. This is best done by including this concept in the original planning of the campaign and starting as early as possible to lay a solid base for permanent post-campaign activities. Any programme directed toward a specific problem should be regarded as the first phase of an action converging with, stimulating, and acting as a balanced part of broader activities affecting the health and welfare of the child and the family and social environment in which it lives. Priorities, in the first instance, should be directed to establishing the necessary pre-conditions for broad action (i.e., clearing away the major endemic diseases hampering the functioning of effective permanent services); the training of required staff; and the planning from the outset of a basic organizational structure capable of effectively carrying out broad action." (E/ICEF/344/Rev. 1, para. 22)

1961

After consideration of a "survey of the needs of children," the recommendations approved by the Board were as follows:

"56. . . .

(1) Receiving Governments should be advised that UNICEF is prepared to assist them, in co-operation with the technical 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.

(2) The technical agencies in the United Nations family, the multi-lateral and bilateral organizations, and the voluntary organizations should be requested to collaborate in such surveys.

(3) Where requested, assistance should be provided to enable countries to make such surveys of child needs as they may desire to undertake. An initial amount of \$100,000 was allocated by the Board to assist countries to undertake such studies either for the country as a whole or for sections of the country. The aid provided by UNICEF could take the form of supplies, transport, local expenses, and international personnel.

57. The Board also:

(1) Decided that the time had come to review the range of UNICEF aid that was being offered, with a view to broadening the fields in which it now operated and opening new fields. While all the Governments that replied recognized the importance to them of UNICEF aid for projects in nutrition, health (including basic health services and control of communicable diseases), and family and child welfare services, a number of them requested the broadening of the scope of such aid in relation to needs to which they assigned high priority in their own countries.<sup>a</sup>

(2) Deferred action, for the present, on any global survey of the priority needs of children. The Board believed it was more urgent to assist those Governments that lacked the necessary resources to survey the needs of their own children, establish priorities, and plan programmes of action. The resumption of a global survey of child needs, and of their financial aspects in relation to international aid, might be usefully considered at a later date, particularly if much larger amounts were placed at the disposition of the United Nations.

. . .

73. The examples of new or extended fields for UNICEF aid con-

<sup>a</sup>See paragraph 73.

sidered of high priority by Governments (see paragraphs 70-71) are as follows:

*(a) Broad social services*

- (i) Aid for the establishment or expansion of various types of social services within the framework of family services and directed towards the specific child needs within each community;  
Aid to programmes of rural and urban community development, with special reference to programmes of environmental sanitation and housing;
- (ii) Extension of training programmes for social services at three levels:  
Multi-purpose workers at the village level;  
Persons occupying key positions;  
Specialized personnel for training of social workers or for field operations;
- (iii) Aid to programmes for abandoned children;
- (iv) Aid in establishing a legal status for protection of the child, with special reference to the establishment or extension of a birth registration service that will give each child a legal identity at birth and permit it later to enjoy full rights at the family, city and national level;
- (v) Extension of aid for handicapped children.

*(b) Preparation of the child for adult life*

- (i) Certain aspects of elementary education;  
Training of normal school instructors;  
Teacher training;  
Training of home economics instructors;
- (ii) Certain aspects of agricultural education (nutrition, production at village level);  
Training of agricultural extension service agents;
- (iii) Certain aspects of vocational training for various occupations (handicrafts and industry);  
Preparation of pilot projects for vocational training programmes in rural areas for children of rural inhabitants where land and agricultural facilities may be in short supply;  
Training of extension service workers.

For these three types of operations, aid could be considered for:

Equipping centres for teacher training and for vocational schools;

Equipping field demonstration and training centres and areas;  
Production of school materials and teaching aids;  
Aid in the form of honoraria, stipends, teaching grants, etc.

- (iv) Aid to pilot youth centres, including:
  - A vocational guidance section;
  - A section to prepare youth for certain occupations, and to give refresher courses for young workers;
  - Labour protection of youth;
- (v) Multi-purpose demonstration programmes covering a number of practical activities." (E/ICEF/431).

1962

The Board adopted a "declaration on a long-term policy for children in relation to the Development Decade" which it requested the Secretary-General to bring to the attention of the Economic and Social Council. (E/ICEF/454/Rev. I, para. 12)

The Board took decisions with respect to: aid for country planning and programme development (para. 24); relations with regional economic commissions (para. 25) and economic development institutes (paras. 26-28); the promotion by other United Nations agencies of planning for children's development (para. 29); relations with multilateral and bilateral aid (para. 30); and relations with non-governmental organizations (para. 31). In connexion with the orientation of UNICEF assistance policies the Board report stated as follows:

"32. The Board endorsed the orientation of assistance policies set forth below in sub-paragraphs (a) to (e). This was designed to obtain the greatest long-term benefit for children and youth by encouraging a regular consideration of their needs as part of over-all national planning and of departmental operations. A fundamental step in this direction 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 a type formerly assisted by UNICEF.

(a) The practice of making commitments for a period of years, to be implemented by annual allocations, opens additional possibilities for furthering projects that form part of the country's development plan. It may therefore be useful increasingly to make commitments for the country's planning period, usually five years.

(b) If assisted projects are to have the maximum long-term effect, they should contribute to the growth of services within the country that will develop and benefit children. To do this immediately they

need to be important enough to command attention at the policy-making or cabinet level. More of the projects assisted by UNICEF should be in this category. Of course, small projects with a growth potential also merit support: for example, training projects, pilot projects and projects that should be encouraged to evolve into national policy.

(c) Each country needs to undertake some projects that are large enough to offer 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 an essential part of the training of such personnel. Leaders for new endeavours — people who will enable the country to solve its own problems — often come out of growth sectors of the country's national life. The creation of growth sectors in the social field, particularly those concerning children, should be one of the main objectives of UNICEF. 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, of initiating the process of social change.

(d) Since many of the countries which 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 may appear 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 relating to children.

(e) The policy outlined above would involve an increase in the number of larger projects submitted to the Board.<sup>a</sup> 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 time required for careful preparation is more acceptable. Consultants can be made available to countries, if required, for help in preparation of the projects and also in their execution without excessive overhead expenses. Both the allocation made by the Board for project preparation and the administrative and operational services budget of UNICEF would be drawn on, as appropriate, to make this possible.

<sup>a</sup>Larger projects may be taken to mean those involving a UNICEF commitment of over \$500,000.



33. While the emphasis on larger and more comprehensive projects as set forth in (c) and (d) above received general support, several representatives cautioned that the door should always be kept open for the smaller kind of project which frequently had a value out of all proportion to its size. The view was expressed that, since bilateral programmes tended to favour very large projects, a special effort was needed by such international organizations as UNICEF to ensure that assistance should be forthcoming to meet less spectacular but equally urgent needs. Moreover, there were some small countries which were seriously in need of outside assistance but which were not in a position to prepare and support large projects; their requirements were therefore best served by undertakings on a smaller scale. It was necessary to avoid a situation in which the larger developing countries, because of their greater administrative and financial resources, would come to absorb a disproportionate share of the help that UNICEF could provide." (E/ICEF/454/Rev.1)

### ANNEX III

#### Historical Pattern of Allocations Annual Averages of Programme Allocations by Types of Programme, 1951-1967\*

	1951 - 1955		1956 - 1960		1961 - 1965		1967	
	\$000	per cent	\$000	per cent	\$000	per cent	\$000	per cent
Health	6,760.9	49.9	15,536.0	63.1	17,591.5	57.5	20,010.6	47.7
Health services	(2,500.4)	(18.5)	(3,950.2)	(18.4)	(8,960.2)	(29.3)	(14,050.9)	(33.5)
Disease control	(4,260.5)	(31.4)	(9,585.8)	(44.7)	(8,631.3)	(28.2)	(5,950.7)	(14.2)
Child feeding	641.0	4.7	235.0	1.1	183.0	0.6	—	—
Nutrition (excluding child feeding)	1,209.6	8.9	2,406.2	11.2	4,929.9	16.1	4,979.5	11.9
Family and child welfare	—	—	125.9	0.6	963.6	3.1	2,080.2	4.9
Education	—	—	28.6	0.1	2,660.0	8.7	8,778.1	20.9
Vocational training	—	—	—	—	370.1	1.2	506.0	1.2
Other long-term projects <sup>b</sup>	306.0	2.3	298.6	1.4	658.5	2.1	808.0	1.9
Emergencies	2,864.1	21.1	947.3	4.4	583.5	1.9	2,018.0	4.8
Freight	1,773.3	13.1	3,872.8	18.1	2,686.3	8.8	2,800.0	6.7
For milk	( 681.7)	( 5.0)	(2,002.5)	( 9.4)	( 767.8)	( 2.5)	( 500.0)	( 1.2)
Other supplies	(1,091.6)	( 8.1)	(1,870.5)	( 8.7)	(1,918.5)	( 6.3)	( 2,300.0)	( 5.5)
Total programme allocations	15,554.9	100.0	21,450.4	100.0	30,626.4	100.0	41,980.4	100.0
Less: cancelled allocations	1,162.6		1,108.4		1,079.4		2,922.1	

\*1967 has been used as the best available indication of allocations in the current five-year period. The percentage distribution of allocations in this table includes freight as a separate item, because freight on milk, which is an additional contribution to nutrition, has required substantial allocations in past periods.

<sup>b</sup>Includes allocations for International Children's Centre (Paris); country planning and project preparation; Asian and Latin American Institutes; and conferences on children and youth in national development.