## Preserving American Jewish History

MS-603: Rabbi Marc H. Tanenbaum Collection, 1945-1992.

Series D: International Relations Activities. 1961-1992

Box 75, Folder 9, United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF), 1980.

#### PETER SMALL & ASSOCIATES, INC.

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June 12, 1980

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American Jewish Committee
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## AMERICAN JEWISH

Dear Rabbi Tannenbaum:

Many thanks for helping think through the question of how we might best approach the editorial staff of Commentary to interest them in an article on UNICEF.

I've enclosed some material which, taken together, provides a composite picture of UNICEF's activities. Enclosed you will find:

- o an excellent article "The Decade of Understanding" which gets to the heart and soul of UNICEF's work.
- o UNICEF's most recent annual report
- o presentation to the UNICEF board by Jim Grant, newly appointed director
- o a fact book about UNICEF -- with a specific section about Israel.

(I was hoping to include a photo taken this week of Ophira Navon who is Chairwoman of the Israel Committee for UNICEF, with Jim Grant and Lloyd Bailey; however, it has not yet been printed!)

As you are aware, we are seeking an article in <u>Commentary</u> for a very compelling reason: to re-capture the interest which has been lost in the Jewish community in UNICEF's ongoing humantarian efforts on behalf of needy children in the third world. To this end, we wish the article to bring to the attention of the American Jewish community the fact that UNICEF, although a U.N. agency, has not shared in the anti-Zionist activities which have so tainted U.N. agencies -- and to spell out UNICEF's particular strengths as an apolitical, efficient relief/humantarian/development organization.

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At my meeting last week with Norma Levitt, a number of possible approaches to such an article, and a number of possible authors — ranging from Saul Bellow to yourself — were discussed. However, rather than cast about in the dark for the right topic and right author, I would very much appreciate your guidance, which I'm sure would be immensely valuable.

Thanks again for taking the time to lend your support and assistance -- and best wishes for safe, good journey. I'll be in touch with you on the 24th.

AMERICAN JEW Cordially,

ARCHI

Ellen Freudenheim

EF/elr

Enc.

# 11. WHERE DOES UNICEF PURCHASE ITS SUPPLIES AND EQUIPMENT?

UNICEF's worldwide purchases of supplies and equipment include many thousands of different products. Purchases are made in over 100 countries and delivered to UNICEF-assisted nations. Much of the equipment is purchased in the United States, although increasingly the Children's Fund is procuring supplies in the developing countries. UNICEF also provides equipment necessary to assist countries in the local production of supplies. More than 173,000 health, nutrition, social welfare and educational centers and institutions around the world received supplies and equipment from UNICEF last year.

UNICEF maintains a packing and assembly center (UNIPAC) in Copenhagen. Approximately 5,000 standard items are kept in stock for use in UNICEF-aided projects. UNIPAC, established in 1962, has made possible considerable savings through bulk purchases and shipments and has helped speed delivery to projects.

Because of UNICEF's extensive supply capacity, the Children's Fund often procures supplies and equipment for governments, other United Nations agencies and aid organizations, and non-governmental organizations. UNICEF is reimbursed for those supplies.

## 12. DOES UNICEF ACCEPT CONTRIBUTIONS-IN-KIND?

UNICEF often accepts bulk quantities of specifically needed supplies from companies or governments, particularly for its emergency relief assistance. Medicines, blankets and sultable foods for children are among the items commonly provided.

UNICEF does not normally accept miscellaneous contributions-in-kind from individuals, however. Freight and handling costs for individual items are high, and complications can arise in delivery and administrative arrangements.

## 13. WHAT IS UNICEF'S RELATIONSHIP WITH ISRAEL?

From 1948 to 1966, Israel received more than \$1.5 million in UNICEF assistance—for emergency aid, child nutrition, maternal and child health services and rehabilitation of handicapped children. In 1966 Israel informed UNICEF that the country's services for children had reached a sufficiently high standard whereby Israel no longer needed to draw on UNICEF's limited resources. After the outbreak of the October 1973 war, UNICEF offered emergency assistance and helped to repair and rebuild health centers, schools and kindergartens in war-damaged areas.

UNICEF and the Government of Israel are now cooperating on an experimental project to develop low-cost day-care services for deprived communities. This project, which trains directors and supervisors for parent-child day-care programs, is tailored to local needs but also serves as a model for other regions.

The Government of Israel has been a regular contributor to UNICEF every year since 1949, and the Israel National Committee for UNICEF was established in 1969 to help promote and support UNICEF's work.

# 14. DOES UNICEF'S WORK OVERLAP OR DUPLICATE THAT OF OTHER UNITED NATIONS AGENCIES?

Not at all. For many years UNICEF and various agencies within the United Nations family have cooperated in the provision of ald.

The specialized agencies—particularly the World Health Organization (WHO), the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the International Labour Organisation (ILO), as well as the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs—have always shared with UNICEF a common interest in the well-being of children. These agencies provide technical assistance—principally the services of experts—to governments in their fields of competence.



### **FOREWORD**

by Henry R. Labouisse,

Executive Director of the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)

## AMERICAN JEWISH ARCHIVES

HE central fact about the situation of children in the developing world is that fully one half of them are living lives which crush their rights as children today and their potential as adults tomorrow. If, as I believe, the well-being of children is an indicator of the degree of civilization we have attained, then I am afraid that we are living in a kind of planetary Dark Ages.

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The statistics are staggering. It is estimated, for example, that out of 100 children born each minute in developing countries, some 15 will die within the year. Of the 85 who survive, 75 will have no access to modern medical care in childhood. About one quarter will suffer from malnutrition during the crucial weaning age. During this period, their chance of dying will be 30 to 40 times higher than if they had been born in Europe or North America. Of those who live to school age, only six out of ten will ever enter a classroom. Not even four of these will complete their elementary schooling.

I firmly believe that the day will come when all children will have enough to eat, clean water to drink, trained help in times of sickness, a home to shelter in, clothes to wear, a school to attend, a job to look forward to and the love and protection which should be their birthright.

But that day is not yet here. Nor will it come merely with the passing of time. Progress will demand an intense and committed effort by governments, international and bilateral agencies, national organisations, teachers, parents and a concerned public. And it will need to be sustained for many years to come.

During the International Year of the Child – and because of it – great efforts have been made in almost every country of the world to improve the lives of children and place them at the centre of our concern. The reports from over 100 National IYC Commissions show that a great deal has been achieved.

But the International Year of the Child was not intended to be a high point on the graph of our concern for children. It was meant to be a point of departure from which that graph would continue to rise. On behalf of UNICEF, the lead United Nations agency for the Year, I therefore appeal to every government, to every organisation and to every individual citizen to continue the work of the Year of the Child into the next decade. They should all re-commit themselves to knowing more, and caring more, and doing more to improve the existence of the young everywhere. The children of today are the world of tomorrow and they deserve the best that we have to give.

This report, prepared by Peter Adamson, a UNICEF consultant, is focused on the children of developing countries. It outlines some of the major problems and hopeful new approaches to the task of meeting their physical needs and their rights as human beings. I am convinced that, if we have the perseverance and the will, this urgent, indispensable and noble task can be achieved.

## The Faces behind the Facts

HE statistics about children used in this report are dangerous. They dehydrate day-to-day realities into emotionless and unimaginable numbers. Yet every single one of these numbing statistics is a child with dirt under the fingernails, with a name and a certain colour of hair and eyes, with a birthday and a best friend, with something to look forward to and something he or she is particularly good at. Above all they are all individual people, people like Kweku, a boy who lives in West Africa and who told UNICEF:

"A lot of people call me small boy, but I live alone. I am nine years old. My work is I sell chewing gum outside cinema. Plenty boys and girls come buy the PK before they see cinema. I don't go to school because I have no money. My mother died before they born me. My father nobody know. Some woman give me milk when I am little baby. Now I am old so I work. I have no sleeping house. I sleep at lorry petrol station. Don't take photo of me, I don't want people see me dirty".

Or they are statistics like Keshar, a nine yearold Indian girl who lives by sorting through rubbish for metal and paper and plastic sandals to sell, and who explains:

"I get water from tap. There is one hour queue every morning. We carry it home and bathe. When I finished work at night there is only water left for hands and face. So we stay dirty from rubbish at night. These are only clothes I wear. I would like to go to school, I like to see the small girls go to school with books. I don't know why. I want to go with them."

Or like Vinton Faulkner, a fourteen yearold from Jamaica who says:

"I have a friend. If I have something, he will beg me one. If he has something I will beg him one. Right now, I don't have no shoes and we go hungry. I still try to put out my best, to make people see me out clean. I feel better must come one day. I just have a mind that better will come one day."

And when we turn to the statistics on what can be done, then they too represent individual children: children like Faith Noni, a thirteen year-old Masai girl who is the first person in her family ever to have a school to go to and who comments:

"School tells me what to do in the future, how to keep my house comfortable and healthy. My mother did not go to school. I know how to cook very well and she doesn't. So I can show her. Also health. I show her how to wash the children, boil the milk. My mother likes it very much that I can show her so many things. She has not been able to tell me. So she is very happy that I am at school. I am happy too."

Behind the facts and figures with which any report must work, are the faces of Kweku, Keshar, Vinton and Faith.

\*The word billion in this report is used to denote one thousand million.

All statistics used in this report do not include figures from the People's Republic of China unless otherwise stated.

## The Decade of Understanding

N understanding of the problems which face the developing world's children is a precondition of their solution. And it could be argued that during the 1970's the world community has increased its understanding and awareness of global problems more than in any other decade of history.

In 1972, the first ever World Environment Conference met in Stockholm. In 1974, the first World Population Conference convened in Rome. 1975 witnessed the first International Women's Year Conference in Mexico City. 1976 saw the United Nations Conference on Human Settlements in Vancouver and the World Employment Conference in Geneva. 1977 brought the first World Conference on Water in Mar del Plata. In 1978, came the first World Conference on Primary Health Care in Alma-Ata. In August 1979 the second World Conference on Science and Technology for Development met in Vienna.

The experiences and perceptions of the world's governments, of national and international organisations, and of thousands of concerned individuals, have saturated these conferences. And what has been wrung out of them represents the

most intense process of global learning about global problems ever seen. Much of what this report will have to say about children in the developing world is a reflection of this decade of understanding.

In the future, the deepening of understanding of the complex and inter-related problems of development may help to avoid the simplistic approaches which have been partly responsible for failures in the past. As a result of the 1970's, the world community will never again blithely assume that the environment is a limitless resourcestore or an all-absorbing disposal mechanism; will not continue to see population growth as a crime committed by the poor and to which contraceptive technology is the only answer; will not be able to ignore the rights and the potential of the world's women; will not analyse world hunger only in terms of stock-piles or miracle seeds; will not so readily deal with the problem of slums and homelessness by bulldozing squatter settlements to make way for high-rise tenements; will not automatically interpret the promotion of health as a need solely for more hospitals and doctors; and will not complacently assume that the division of

the world into a rich minority and a poor majority of people and nations is an acceptable and sustainable state of affairs.

These are the beginnings of major changes and,

whilst being neither perfectly understood nor universally accepted, could nonetheless pave the way for practical improvements in the lives of the world's children in the remainder of this century.

## The Needs of Children

Food

T the global level, the single biggest enemy of the child is lack of the right food in the right quantities. At any given moment an estimated 10 million of the world's young children are in the grip of severe protein-energy malnutrition (PEM) and a further 200 million are inadequately fed. The result is that half of the 15 million underfives who die every year in the developing world are killed by malnutrition or by diseases which malnutrition makes worse. It has been estimated, for example, that a malnourished child in the Third World who contracts measles is four hundred times more likely to die from it than a child with the same illness in the industrialised world.

In physical terms, malnourishment is the result of a food intake which is insufficient in quantity or quality or the malabsorption of food as a result of disease or intestinal disorders. And the problem is not restricted to the lack of proteins and calories; the lack of vitamins and minerals also disrupts the healthy development of the child. The lack of Vitamin A, for example, causes eye disease; the lack of iodine can lead to goitre; the lack of iron and folate often means anaemia.

It is not at birth but in the womb that the feeding of a child begins. And the fight against malnutrition must therefore start with an adequate diet and a lightening of the work-load for the pregnant mother.\* If these needs are not met, then the likelihood of a baby being born under-weight (below 2500 grams) is increased and its chances of survival are diminished. A study in New York City has shown, for example, that babies with low birth-weights are sixteen times more likely to die in infancy than babies with average birth-weight. It is now estimated that a sixth of the babies born every year are under-weight, 95% of them in the developing world.

The next chapter in the nutrition story is the period from birth to sixth months, an age when the majority of babies are breast-fed and when the quality and quantity of food is again heavily influenced by the health and diet of the mother. If the mother is herself healthy and adequately fed, then only a tiny minority of very young babies need nourishment in addition to milk from the mother's breast.

But in thousands of poor communities many mothers are abandoning the nutritious, healthy and economical practice of breast-feeding in favour of the usually less nutritious, less hygienic and more expensive fashion for bottle-feeding. The promotion of commercial breast-milk substitutes is one force behind this trend. But there are other important causes: the increasing proportion of people living in cities, the increasing numbers of

\*The nutritional well-being of the young child is also influenced by how well the child's mother was nourished in her own childhood. women seeking employment outside the home and the lack of positive support for breast-feeding in the health services themselves and in society at large.

If a baby is not gaining weight normally in the first three months of life, then bottle-feeding may be a necessary supplement. After three months, if supplements are needed, then the need is for semisolid weaning foods. But scientific investigation has confirmed what many would accept as obvious - that breast milk is the best food for a baby. It has also discovered something less obvious - that breast milk contains anti-infective and bacteriafighting substances which help to protect the baby during the first months of its life. And in addition to these physical advantages, breast-feeding also brings important psychological benefits for both mother and child. Yet the drift away from breastfeeding in the poor world continues, despite the fact that many families cannot afford the artificial substitutes which they are being persuaded to buy. In some parts of the developing world, poor families would need to spend one-third or more of their weekly income to buy the necessary amounts of commercial infant formulas. In Tanzania, for example, it is reported that the feeding of a sixthmonth old infant on artificial baby milk would cost a family \$2.75 a week in a country where 40% of the people earn less than \$11 a week.

If the mother is unable to sustain this level of expenditure, unable to read the instructions on the tin, unable to depend on clean water and unable to sterilise the feeding bottle, then her baby is exposed to the inter-reacting dangers of malnutrition from the over-diluted milk formula and the increased risk of disease from unsterilised feeding bottles.

For all these reasons the World Health Organisation and UNICEF, at a recent joint meeting in Geneva, have stressed that breast-feeding is "the natural and ideal way of feeding the infant and a unique biological and emotional basis for child development" and recommended that breast-feeding be actively supported by the health services, by public education and by the regulation of the promotion and supply of breast-milk substitutes.

The protection which breast-feeding afford is clearly shown by the steep rise in the incidence of malnutrition which occurs in the next stage of life — the age between four months and two years during which babies begin to take their first solid foods or gruels in addition to breast-milk, and are later completely weaned. Now the child comes into contact with supplementary foods that are often unsuitable or inadequate, with water which is often unsafe, with an environment which is often unhygienic. And the death rate in these vulnerable months rises to between thirty and forty times higher than in the industrialised world.

For these children to survive they need above all more and better home-prepared foods and more protection from disease. And both of these priorities depend heavily on the mother having the knowledge and the time and the means and the health to prepare a good diet from the food that is available and to reduce the risk of disease in her children's environment.

Beyond the age of three, it becomes increasingly obvious that malnutrition is affecting the social and mental as well as the physical development of the child. An underfed boy or girl simply does not have the same energy to learn, to explore, to play, and to demand and receive the stimulation which is increasingly recognised as being crucial to the development of the child and the fulfilment of his or her potential. And it is at this age that the question of brain damage and mental development surfaces. It is a terrifying question. The possibility of a significant percentage of the world's children being prevented by malnutrition from fulfilling their physical and mental potential is a threat to every other aspect of development - to educational progress and employment opportunites, to economic performance and the success or failure of self-reliant development planning, and to the well-being of generations yet unborn.

Controversy surrounds this issue. The 'best that is known and thought' on this subject at the moment suggests that malnutrition irreversibly reduces the growth of the actual number of brain cells, but that this does not necessarily mean permanent mental retardation. The apparent contradiction stems from our inadequate knowledge of the precise relationship between malnutrition and environmental stimulation in the mental development of our children.

It is not known whether the major effect of malnutrition on mental development is a direct effect on the physical development of the brain or whether it is an indirect effect of the listlessness and placidity which malnutrition induces and which causes the child to demand and receive less environmental stimulation than the normal well-nourished child.

We do know that environmental stimulation, in conjunction with improved nutrition, can reverse mental under-development caused by previous malnutrition. Studies have shown, for example, that Korean children who suffered malnutrition at some time during their first two years of life, but who were later adopted into families which provided improved nutrition and a stimulating home environment, showed no signs of mental retardation throughout their subsequent school career.

But this example cannot be replicated for the millions of malnourished children in the developing world. It therefore seems obvious that for all practical purposes, the problem must be approached through the prevention of malnutrition itself.

"If you take a careful look at the way in which the mother behaves towards the infant," says Myron Winick, Professor of Human Nutrition at Columbia University, New York, "it is obvious that the nutritional state of the infant will in some way determine how that mother reacts to her child. Infants who are malnourished are placid and quiet, they don't kick up a fuss, and they

are often left in a corner apparently content, but in fact functionally isolated. On the other hand, infants who are well-nourished and healthy are active and mischievous, they make demands on their parents, they play, they explore, they inter-react with their environment and are involved in the outside world. Malnutrition and lack of environmental stimulation both have similar effects on brain structure. And there is an interrelationship between them. Whatever their relative importance, the cycle of malnutrition - lack of stimulation, poor learning ability, lower paid jobs, poverty, and another generation of malnourished children - has to be broken. And the place to break that cycle is in the nutrition of the very young child. The cycle may then be reversed because the well-nourished child is more likely to demand and receive the environmental stimulation which he or she needs."

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Special provision for the pregnant and lactating mother and the very young child is therefore crucial to any strategy against malnutrition. A second essential is education — knowing how to convert available food into a nutritious diet. The World Health Organisation estimates, for example, that half of Africa's nutritional problems could be solved if families knew more about how to use local foods to produce good diets for small children.

But the actual amount of food available to the poor remains the essential knot to be untied if more than 200 million young children are to be released from hunger. And in that context some unpleasant facts about the world food situation have been learnt in the last decade.

The problem is not simply one of too many people being born and too little food being grown. Even in the worst famine years of the 1970's, the world as a whole was growing more food than is necessary to provide an adequate diet for every man, woman and child on the earth. In 1974 for example, one tenth of the amount of grain fed to cattle in the Northern hemisphere would have made up the Third World's entire shortfall of grain in that hungry year.

These examples point to one inescapable conclusion, a conclusion which was bluntly put by the economist Barbara Ward at a United Nations symposium in Cocoyoc, Mexico, in 1974:

"The failure of world society to provide "a safe and happy life" for all is not caused by any present lack of physical resources. The problem today is not one of absolute physical shortage but of economic and social mal-distribution and misuse; mankind's predicament is rooted primarily in economic and social structures and behaviour within and between countries."

Examples of that maldistribution and misuse, and of the complexity of economic relations, are legion. During the Sahelian drought of the midseventies, in which thousands of men, women and children died of starvation, the export of certain cash-crops such as peanuts to be used as cattle fodder in Europe actually went up whilst production of food for local consumption went down. In Central America and the Caribbean, where significantly more than half of the young children are malnourished, half the agricultural land is being used to feed beef cattle and to grow fruit and other crops for export. In parts of Colombia,

there has been a shift from growing wheat to growing carnations, and in Mexico, from maize to tomatoes, because the financial return can be

up to eighty times greater per acre. \*

The fact of the matter is that only the poor starve. And they starve because they are poor, because they do not have the land or the means to grow food or the purchasing power to buy the food that is grown or to create the demand for the even greater quantities of food that could be grown. In other words, market demand is more important than human demand. "If the market remains the sole arbiter of how available food is distributed," writes the Indian economist Radha Sinha, "then the lack of purchasing power will always remain the main obstacle in the way of feeding the poor adequately".

It is a conclusion concisely summed up by the former Director General of the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organisation, Adeke Boerma, who told the 1974 World Food Conference that "the market, playing freely, will

always feed the rich".

Since 1974 the idea has gained ground that market demand should not be the only arbiter when it comes to the allocation of resources to meet the basic needs of human life. A leading proponent of that view has been the economist Mahbub ul Haq who has argued that "market demand, which is so largely influenced by existing income distribution, should be rejected explicitly in favour of fixing a national consumption and production target on the basis of minimum human needs".

The answer to meeting this minimum need does not lie in giving away food to the poor through either foreign food-aid or national feeding programmes, however necessary these may be in the short-term or in the most intransigent cases. Ultimately, if the poor are not to see their children stunted and dying from malnutrition then they must have the means to buy or to grow more food and the knowledge to make that food into a nutritious diet. That is and will remain the crux of the hunger problem. And its solution therefore lies in the area of income earning opportunities; land-reform; security of tenure; access to credit; training in the use of better seeds, fertilisers, pesticides and irrigation techniques; and the production and improved storage of more and better food in the home and in the community. If these conditions are met, as has been dramatically demonstrated by the People's Republic of China, then food production by the poor for the poor can be increased and malnutrition can be defeated. No one has more incentive to grow food than the hungry. What they need is the means. And after what has been learned in the 1970's, the key question to be asked in analysing the world food situation is not only how much food is available for what numbers of people, but whose land is growing what food for what purpose and for whose benefit.

Water . .

ALNUTRITION opens wide the door to disease. And a major source of that disease is the lack of adequate quantities of water and the use of unsafe water for drinking, washing, cooking and sanitation. Without water — nature's own disinfectant — dirt accumulates, germs breed, flies spread diarrhoeal diseases which, when linked with malnutrition, are the single most common specific source of sickness and death among the children of the developing world. It is now estimated, for example, that 500 million bouts of diarrhoeal disease occur every year among children under five years old in the continents of Africa, Asia and Latin America.

The supply of clean drinking water is a necessary but not sufficient condition for the prevention of this tragedy. Personal and home hygiene; education in food storage and handling; and safe sanitation and waste disposal are all key elements in re-

placing mass-illness by mass-health.

In sum, the World Health Organisation now estimates that the world-wide burden of infectious diseases could be reduced by 80% if every family on earth were to have dependable access to safe water supplies and sanitation. At present, more than 1200 million people in the developing world have no safe water supply and more than 1400 million have no sanitary waste disposal facilities.

The United Nations Water Conference, held at Mar del Plata, Argentina, in 1977, estimated that to provide community water supplies and sanitation for all by the year 1990 would require an investment of just under \$9 billion a year at 1977 prices (the industrialised world spends over \$100 billion a year on alcholic drinks). Such would be the health benefits of this investment — a possible reduction of up to 80% in the incidence of disease — that the government of Venezuela has estimated that it would pay for itself five times over within a decade.

Progress has been made. The percentage of people in the rural areas of the developing world who do have safe water has increased from 14% in 1970 to 22% by 1975. UNICEF itself has almost doubled its expenditure on improved drinking water and sanitation between 1978 and 1979. But the fact remains that safe water, a source of life and health for those who have access to it, is a source of sickness and death for those who don't. Four-fifths of the children living in the developing world's rural areas and more than one-fifth of the children in towns and cities are deprived of this most basic right and the result is that millions of children die from intestinal and water-related diseases before reaching their first birthday and millions more live on in permanent ill-health.

#### Health

rightly dominates any overview of child health. Taken together, inadequate nutrition, unsafe water, poor sanitation, lack of parental information and the absence of immunisation probably account for some 90% of all deaths of very young children in the developing world.

The obvious conclusion is that the task of improving the health of the world's children is

<sup>\*</sup>Increasing the financial returns from a tract of land by switching to a more profitable crop can be a step towards development and higher nutritional levels providing that the increased profitability enables the low-income families who live and work on that land to grow or buy more food.

far more a task of prevention than cure. Yet this fact is by no means reflected in the present allocation of resources for health. A survey in five Latin American countries, for example, has shown that expenditure on medical care and cure is ten times greater than on the provision of water and sanitation systems. In the developing world as a whole, it has been estimated that 80% of the resources available for health budgets are currently devoted to urban-based curative medicine serving only 20% of the population. According to Dr. David Morley, of the Institute of Child Health in London, "Three-quarters of the deaths (in the developing world) are due to conditions that can be prevented at low-cost, but three-quarters of the medical budget is spent on curative services, many of them provided at high cost."

This emphasis on advanced curative techniques has been imported from the industrialised world under the supervision of a medical profession in the developing countries which was itself trained in this tradition. But it ignores the fact that it was the 'big three' - nutrition, water supply, and sanitation - which drastically curtailed infectious diseases, reduced infant mortality, increased lifeexpectancy and brought about mass public-health in the industrialised world. Widespread curative health care, and the availability of important drugs like streptomycin, BCG vaccine, sulphonamides and antibiotics did not become available until the 1930's and 1940's by which time the major infectious diseases were already on the wane.

In the developing world today, to emphasize medical technology as opposed to environmental improvement is to put the curative cart before the preventative horse. For the fact is that the money presently available in the health budgets of the developing world per head of population is only about one hundredth of the amount available for health-care in the industrialised world. The question of priorities in health spending is therefore unavoidable.

The Primary Health Care Conference, held at Alma-Ata in the Soviet Union in 1978 and jointly sponsored by WHO and UNICEF, was about those priorites. And in the field of health, it was another example of the process of global learning about global problems which has characterised this decade and could benefit the next. The experiences, mistakes and new perceptions of governments, international agencies, national organisations, doctors and development workers from around the globe had contributed towards a growing concensus which culminated in that meeting in Alma-Ata.

Primary Health Care depends on a community's involvement and responds to a community's needs at a cost which the community can afford. It is based on proper nutrition, accessible safe water, basic sanitation, special emphasis on maternal and child care, advice on family planning, treatment for common illnesses and injuries, immunisation against infectious diseases and education in preventative health and hygiene. By such strategies, drastic improvements in community health can be and have been achieved at a cost of as little as \$2 per head.

Another key characteristic of the Primary Health Care strategy is that it can largely be implemented within and by most communities using their own physical, financial and human resources - if it is also backed up by referral,

training and hospital services provided by governments. Primary Health Care workers, chosen by and responsible to the communities which they serve and backed by a referral service, can be trained and assisted in the everyday tasks of meeting their community's health priorites. Medical staff simply do not need seven years' training and advanced medical technology to be able to prevent or cure 80% of the most common health problems in the developing world. But in the training process, and in the back-up and referral services needed for continuing advice and for coping with more specialised health problems, the conventional health services, far from being made redundant by the emphasis on Primary Health Care, can find a new and vital medium through which their skills and knowledge can become relevant to the health needs of the majority.

of 'health promoters' The experience in Guatemala and in India, of 'bare-foot doctors' in China, of 'rural medical aids' in Tanzania, and other similar ventures has shown that the ratio between money invested and health achieved can be drastically improved. And as children are now the main victims of skewed health - care priorities, so it is the children who would be the main beneficiaries of the Primary Health Care approach.

#### Housing

N the Third World's towns and cities, which are now growing twice as fast as the population at large, the problems of children are particularly acute.

The number of under fifteen year-olds living in poverty in the urban areas of the developing world is now estimated at 156 million, of whom 60 million are under five years old. For these children, meals are often irregular, accidents are frequent, arrests of older children for delinquency are commonplace. Their environment is often dangerous: cuts go untreated; refuse piles up; untended colds turn into pneumonia. Their mothers usually have to earn or supplement the family income by going out to find work as laundresses, seamstresses, hawkers, rag-pickers or milk-collectors - usually for very little reward. Many lack the basic physical protection of shoes on their feet, a change of clothes to wear, clean warm blankets to sleep in and above all, a decent home to sleep and shelter

Often the sleeping area is no more than a small shack where a piece of clothing hung from the ceiling provides the only privacy. Other families are crowded into the hastily partitioned rooms of decaying mansions where sagging ceilings, rotten beams and the ever present threat of a knockedover kerosene lamp make the home a place of danger rather than of security for the child. Often the squatter family has no security of tenure and therefore little incentive to improve and renovate. In the worst circumstances, tired and frustrated fathers lose their self-esteem, sometimes turning to drinking and gambling, and family life deteriorates still further, transmitting a sense of powerlessness and resignation to their children.

Here in the city there are no times of surplus from an especially good harvest; here the poor have to buy their food and other necessities and are almost completely at the mercy of the market

place in which they have so little power. Sometimes the bonds of the rural community, of extended families and complex networks of reciprocal obligations which provide some protection for the child, have also been broken in the migration to the cities.

It has been estimated that those who live in such conditions — in slums and squatter settlements in and around the big cities of the Third World — number 30% of the total population of Guatemala City, 90% of Addis Ababa, 25% of Santiago, 33% of Calcutta and Nairobi, 46% of Mexico City, and 38% of Lusaka. And if we take three people per room as being 'overcrowded', then the proportion of over-crowded homes in Iran is 45%, in Pakistan 60%, in the Philippines 35%, in Chile 25%, and in Mexico 55%. In Calcutta, four-fifths of the population live in one-room houses.

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Under such circumstances it would be surprising if disease rates were not high. Today in a city like Manila, the rate of T.B. per 100,000 of the population is 7,000 in the urban squatter settlements as opposed to 800 per 100,000 among those who have decent homes to live in.

Again, vital lessons about cities have been learnt in the 1970's. At the UN Conference on Human Settlements in Vancouver in 1976, developing countries came together to share their experiences and knowledge in coping with these problems.

One of the messages which they brought was that the mass building of cheap housing to resettle the urban poor was a concept with very little future. Most families in the squatter settlements spend three-quarters of their meagre incomes on food. Then they have to buy fuel, clothing, education, medical care and household necessities. What is left, if anything, is not enough to save the deposit or repay the mortgage on even the cheapest government subsidised house.

A cheap house, built for the urban poor in a developing country, will typically cost about \$2,000 or \$2,500. Yet even with credit on the easiest of terms — say over twenty years at 5% interest per annum — this would involve a monthly payment of about \$12. To be able to afford that, the family income has to be in the \$80 to \$90 a month bracket and that excludes all but the richest 10% or 20% of the people in most developing nations.

Such examples force us to look again at the squatter settlements themselves — to begin with what is rather than what might be.

From the outside, squatter settlements may seem to be nothing but disaster areas, breeding grounds for disease, eye-sores to be bulldozed. From the inside, despite all the problems, they can also be seen as a triumph of human ingenuity, self-help, mutual aid, and capacity for improvement and survival. Architects like John Turner and planners like Bain D'Souza have long argued that the only way forward is to learn from and build on these positive elements rather than razing them to the ground. Turner argues that mass public-housing schemes crash clumsily across delicate personal and social patterns and alienate those for whom they are intended by undermining their own participation in the meeting of their own needs. "True solutions," writes D'Souza, "will begin not in the architectural or engineering schools, but in the very squatter

colonies that we so piously deplore. For it is in the study of the people's way of living, their use of covered space and open space, their ingenuity in choosing and using materials to build cheaply, and their almost continuous effort at maintenance and improvement, that the keys to the problem lie."

These new realisations are already beginning to be translated into practical strategies. 'Site and Service' schemes for new communities — laying down roads; marking out housing sites; laying on water supply, sewage systems and electric power; arranging for refuse collection; providing social services, health-care, education and recreation — are now in action in the Philippines, in El Salvador, in Botswana, in the Sudan, in Papua New Guinea, in Zambia, in Jamaica, in Colombia, and in Pakistan.

Housing is therefore another area of unmet human need in which the 1970's have given birth to new understanding of the problem and new strategies for its solution. The knowledge now exists to bring nearer the day when all children will have a house which they and their parents can make into a home.

#### Education

HE education of the world's children is, like their health, fundamental to their own and their societies' future. In the industrialised world, enrolment of children in schools has been running close to 100% for many years. In many developing countries, on the other hand, illiteracy has long been a brake binding against almost every aspect of social and economic development. Not to be able to read a newspaper, the manufacturer's instructions on a tin, the advice on a nutrition leastlet or the manifesto of a local candidate, not to be able to check prices, measure land, or calculate interest rates, severely restricts a people's access to the means of improving their lives and participating in the decisions which affect them.

But in recent times, strenuous efforts on behalf of most developing nations have brought about significant improvements in the education of their children. Enrolment in primary schools in the developing world has doubled between 1960 and 1975 and there are now, for the first time, more school-age children in school than out of school. The latest available figures show that 62% of the children between the ages of six and eleven in the developing world are now enrolled in school (excluding the People's Republics of China, Korea and Vietnam for which statistics are not available).

Despite worries about regional discrepancies, drop-out rates, class-sizes and the disparities in educational opportunity between boys and girls, these figures represent a substantial gain.

Yet even greater efforts will be needed in the years to come if the current rates of school enrolment are to be maintained. And even on the most optimistic projections, the absolute number of children not going to school, and of adults without the ability to read and write, is due to rise by the end of this century.

Rapid population growth has left the developing world with 40% of its population under the age of fifteen. And the constraints on resources available to meet the demand for education makes the question of priorities unavoidable. The world cannot afford, at present, to provide Harvard-style education for the majority of its people any more than it can afford to provide them with Harley Street medical care. "It is evident," concludes the South East Asian Ministers of Education Organisation, "that the formal school system cannot meet the demands of the rising school population for general education, let alone cover the wide range of skills required for social and economic advancement,"

In many developing countries, more than 50% of the total resources available for education are now used as if their sole purpose were to provide a small intensively-trained elite for the modern administrative and economic sector. School examinations, and thereby school curricula, are often designed to introduce pupils to the skills required to be civil servants and administrators, teachers and doctors, scientists and engineers - and to select those who are capable of acquiring and developing these skills. The net result is that the estimated 80% of primary school leavers who do not qualify for the restricted number of places in secondary schools are left with a sense of failure and frustration and with the beginnings of an education largely irrelevant to the mainly rural and agricultural jobs which are the only opportunities available to almost three-quarters of the developing world's people.

Many school leavers, having failed to obtain an examination certificate, which is commonly seen as both a train ticket to the city and a passport to the modern world, are then stranded without either the knowledge or incentive to work for the improvement of an impoverished countryside. Every year millions of these young people set off for the nearest town or city to see if they can squeeze into

the 20th century by the back door.

In his essay "Education for Self-Reliance", Tanzanian President Julius Nyerere makes an eloquent case against this pattern of education priorities:— "Although only about 13% of our primary school children will get a place in secondary school, the basis of our primary school education is the preparation of pupils for secondary schools. Thus 87% of the children who finished primary school last year do so with a sense of failure, of a legitimate aspiration having been denied them. On the other hand, the other 13% have a feeling of having deserved a prize—and the prizes they and their parents expect are high wages, comfortable employment in towns and personal status in the society.

"The education given in our primary schools must be a complete education in itself. It must not continue to be simply a preparation for secondary school. Instead of the primary school activities being geared to the competitive examination which will select the few who will go on to secondary school, there must be a preparation for the life which the majority of the children will live. Similarly, secondary schools must not simply be a selection process for the university, teachers' colleges, and so on. They must prepare people for life and service in the villages and rural areas of this country. For in Tanzania the only true justification for secondary education is that it is needed by the few for service to the many."

All children should have the opportunity to acquire information and understanding relevant to the control and improvement of their own lives. The

particular components of such an education must, by definition, be decided by each country or region for itself. Pioneering efforts in the Third World to gear education to the needs of the majority - the Brigade Schools of Botswana, the Village Polytechnics of Kenya, the Mobile Training Schools of Thailand, the Village Schools of Afghanistan, the 'Modulo System' in Guatemala, the Los Valles experiment in Panama, and the farm-schools in the Ujamaa Villages of Tanzania - have tended to opt for basic literacy and numeracy; knowledge of preventative health measures (including nutrition, hygiene and family planning); house improvement and constructional skills; techniques of increasing agricultural production; knowledge of the skills required for earning a living; child care and home management; education for participation community and political life; understanding of the natural world; and the encouragement of positive attitudes towards the work of community and national development.

These ventures, seeking to involve the majority of children in schools which fulfill the true purpose of education by equipping them to improve the quality of their lives, are surely a glimpse of the future. But it does them no service to ignore the

problems inherent in this approach.

Many parents and pupils do not agree with the advocates of 'Basic Education'. One of the many reasons why poor parents try to send and keep their children at school — often at great cost in terms of money, other needs unmet, and help foregone in homes and fields — is that school offers a chance of escape to a wage-earning job in the town or city. For millions of poor families, the dream of a son returning home to tell of his new job and open his wage-packet is the equivalent of the man from the state-lottery knocking on the door.

Doubleday's research in Tanzania and Anderson's work in Kenya has shown that it is the enormous and compelling contrast, material and cultural, between urban and rural life that is the main reason for parents and pupils investing in education. "Primary school," they concluded, "was viewed only as the means to secure entrance to secondary school which in turn gave access to urban employ-

school which in turn gave access to urban employment opportunities." School children themselves often shared this attitude, taking little interest in lessons relevant to the rural jobs they hope to escape from and devoting their energies to gaining the qualification for the city jobs they aspire to.

Yet as the number of places in schools increases many parents are beginning to feel that education should not be a winner-take-all lottery but a sound investment for both individual and community. And the expansion of Basic Education, like the expansion of Primary Health Care, must be given priority if the needs of all are to be met. "If we are to root out once and for all the causes of illiteracy," says the Director General of UNESCO, Mr. Amadou-Mahtar M'Bow, "it is essential that all children of school age should have access to basic elementary education."

Yet today primary education claims only 50% of the educational budgets of the developing nations and only 6% of the official aid provided for education by the industrialised nations.

Unlike the system of academic education for the fortunate 10%, Basic Education does not divorce children from their community. At its best it is sensitive to, and builds upon, traditional

values and perceptions. And it prepares the learner not only for survival in a fixed environment but creates the capacity to adapt and improve that environment.

Nor does the concept of Basic Education mean that the door to further education is closed to the children of the poor. Equal, if restricted, opportunity for further education, in the service of the community and the nation is the goal. And to achieve that, great efforts will be necessary to maintain and improve the availability and quality of education in rural and poor urban areas. Such an effort would, of course, go against the grain of education systems which reflect the divisions between rich and poor.

Finally the very definition of education as a building into which pupils enter at a certain age and leave at a certain age needs to be re-examined. Non-formal education - women's and youth organisations, cooperatives, political parties, folk music, the media - is an important force whose potential is not fully developed. Generating moral and material support for this wider concept of education is necessary in order to serve both those who never attended school in their childhood and those who dropped out at an early age.

#### SPECIAL PROBLEMS

#### **Blindness**

HIS year an estimated 250,000 children will go blind. In almost all cases, their sight will be taken away either by malnutrition or by preventable eye diseases. Indeed some experts say that 250,000 children are blinded every year "for the lack of a daily handful of green vegetables".

Without the special care available for the blind which exists in most industrialised countries, and with the additional health and nutritional problems already touched upon, the plight of these children can hardly be imagined.

The major causes of blindness are xerophthalmia and trachoma, onchocerciasis and cataract. And the fact that there are now 32 million blind people in the developing world is testimony to N.R. Fendall's famous epitaph on twentieth century medicine:- "Brilliant in its discoveries, superb in its technological breakthrough, but woefully inept in its application to those most in need."

Modern mass treatment of trachoma, for example, can cost as little as one dollar per unit that is per person whose sight is restored.

Xeropthalmia and trachoma primarily affect children. But, as Sir John Wilson, President of the International Agency for the Prevention of Blindness, has told the UNICEF Executive Board; - "In the real world people do not go blind in neat compartments; they go blind in families, not in millions but individually, each in his own predicament. And in a community on the knifeedge of poverty, the disabled family goes hungry."

Recalling his own experience in the Indian sub-continent, Sir John cites the example of "a blind man who used to be a factory worker. Cataract took first his eyesight and then his job. He and his family drifted down through the layers of poverty in that city, finishing as homeless street people supported by their two children with their begging bowls. At the eye-camp (in Madras) that man regained his sight through a cataract operation performed in a few minutes at a cost of \$5.00. He walked away from that camp hopefully to a happier life but not yet used to sight, with a child holding each hand."

#### Refugee Children

HE problem of refugees is occasionally headlined by sudden and dramatic examples, yet the problem is persistent to the point of permanency. There are estimated 10 million refugees in the world today and half of them are children. Their situation is particularly acute because many of them are deprived not only of physical needs but also of home, family, community and nationality - the very elements of personal identity and minimal security.

Many of these children have been traumatised by seeing their parents brutally attacked, or taken away never to return, or separated from them in the confusion of flight. Psychologists have noted that a child torn from his or her roots with such violence will, in all likelihood, never be freed from the horror and insecurity and that the symptoms of that trauma - withdrawal and submission, a sense of powerlessness in relation to the outside world - tend to recur if further changes are threatened in future life. Such children also face special problems in relation to their parents who are often visibly demeaned and demoralised and filled with a sense of failure towards their children.

"Sometimes we have had to face a situation when a child cannot be resettled for two, three or four years," says Poul Hartling, United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees. "Adults may be able to adjust to that. But the child cannot. These are the years when they should be growing, learning, forming their own identity, personality and relationships. If instead they are wasting in camps for their growing years they often never recover from that setback."

## UNICEF: The Strategy of Basic Services

NICEF itself has participated fully in the learning process of the 1970's and brought to it more than 30 years of direct experience in working to meet the nutritional, health, and educational needs of children.

In 1978 alone, for example, UNICEF provided grants for training and refresher courses for 72,800

health personnel in 100 countries; provided supplies and equipment for 32,900 health centres; assisted in the building of 90,000 water-supply projects benefitting approximately 17 million people; helped to expand applied nutrition programmes to 91,800 villages, provided stipends to train over 17,700 village level nutrition workers

and 62,000 teachers (44,000 in primary schools); helped to equip more than 49,000 schools and teacher-training colleges; supplied equipment to more than 19,000 child welfare and day-care centres, women's institutions, youth centres and child-care training courses; and provided stipends to train 7,700 child welfare workers and 44,000 local leaders to help organise basic community services.

Putting together its own experience and the learning process of the 1970's of which it has been a part, UNICEF has now formulated the outline of a new approach to its work in the 1980's and beyond.

The most important lesson to be learnt from the successes and failures of the past is that development is not a process which can take place above the heads of the poor and whose benefits will automatically seep down to meet their needs. The positive side of this lesson is that future efforts must involve the poor in the process of defining, planning and implementing their own development to meet their own needs. This is not to say that outside help is not needed or that poverty is the responsibility only of the poor; it is rather to say that those who wish to assist in the development effort must start doing things with people, not for them.

It is a lesson which was well understood by the late Senator Hubert Humphrey who spoke of "the veritable intellectual revolt amongst scholars of development who are turning against the long held view that growth alone is the answer that will trickle benefits to the poor majority. These scholars start from the proposition that the poorest majority must share in the work of building a nation and must share equitably in the fruits of development at the outset. Greater equity and greater participation instead of taking a toll on growth, support and reinforce it."

For all the dangers involved, UNICEF has taken these new perceptions off the shelf of theory and built them into a plan of practical action. The strategy is not the invention of UNICEF alone nor can it be implemented by UNICEF alone. It is rather a reflection of what has been learnt in the 1970's by the many participants in the development process and a framework within which UNICEF will co-operate with those participants in the future. Above all, it is not a fixed policy but a flexible strategy by which UNICEF believes it is best able to assist governments in working with poor communities to meet their children's needs.

The essential element of the strategy is that communities in the developing world should choose their own development workers from among their own people - in consultation with the government services which can offer training and technical support. A community might choose, for example, the individual whom they regard as the best farmer; or the person they most trust for health care; or the one they naturally turn to for advice about raising their children. The chosen workers can then be given training at a nearby centre, with others similarly chosen from nearby villages or neighbourhoods, before returning to their own communities to work with their own people and help their neighbours to learn new ways of doing things; how to grow more and better food; which local foods

would be most nutritious to children; how to dig a well and construct a pit-latrine; why it is important that water is safe; and simple measures for preventing and treating diseases common in the areas.

After a few months' training, for example, primary health workers could be expected to advise on nutrition and hygiene; perform vaccinations; treat common local illnesses; distribute vitamin pills and anti-malarial tablets; assist with pregnancy and child care; work on preventative health measures; provide family planning services and advice; and recognise and refer more difficult cases, requiring more specialised treatment, to the nearest health centre or hospital. Usually, this work-load would require perhaps a male health-care worker and a village midwife who has received extra training.

The 'good farmer' can work with his or her neighbours on improving nutritional levels; managing new seeds, fertilisers, pesticides and irrigation schemes; helping improve storage and preservation of food; and developing community vegetable gardens.

UNICEF estimates that perhaps five such part-time development workers would be needed for each community or neighbourhood of approximately 1,000 people. In theory this would mean that to serve the 900 million who now lack basic services it would be necessary to train approximately 5 million community workers and to strengthen the back-up and referral services.

Each one of these 5 million would need initial training plus support and advice for a 'launching period' of perhaps five years. After that time, their part-time income plus the recurring costs of such essentials as medicines, books, and the maintenance of water and sanitation systems might be affordable by the village or neighbourhood. In this way basic services schemes could eventually become self-supporting and the development workers would be employed by, and responsible to, the community itself.

Within this framework lie many practical problems. It is not by accident, for example, that health and education budgets in many countries are being spent on all for the few rather than some for the many. It is a reflection of the prevailing structures of power and wealth both within and between nations. Basic Services offers a way to move towards a society whose guiding force is serving the needs of the many rather than the wants of the few. And a litmus-paper test for success might be the status given to Primary Health Care and Community Development workers. A Primary Health Care worker in a village community needs to be accorded respect in the same way as a fully trained doctor working with sophisticated equipment in a modern hospital. And that perhaps is a measure of how distant and complex a change is implied by a strategy of basic services.

UNICEF's philosophy is that the main reason for channelling resources to development workers who are 'of the people, by the people, for the people' is that they are more likely to be responsive to local needs and priorities, sensitive to local traditions and feelings, knowledgeable about local skills and resources, and more acceptable to local people as agents for involving a community in working for its own development.

This theory stems from what has been learnt in practice. In four villages of the Machakos area of Kenya, for example, the rate of child malnutrition has been reduced from 55% to 39% in eighteen months by an approach which was both suggested and implemented by the villagers themselves. At a community meeting, held out in the open, one of the elders, a well-known local farmer, launched the objection that child malnutrition was only ever discussed at the Maternal and Child Health Clinics. "Why hasn't it been brought to the attention of the elders?" he asked. "When any other calamity threatens, a meeting of the elders is called. Certainly we should be consulted on a matter that involves the lives of our children."

After a long discussion, the villagers proposed that nutritional education should be moved out of the clinics and into the community, pointing out that there were plenty of intelligent young men in the community who had finished secondary school and that almost every village had a strong women's group. It was suggested that one young man and one young woman from each village should be trained as nutrition educators.

"The results surprised us," says UNICEF's R.R.N. Tuluhungwa. "We took a young man and a women's group leader from each village and trained them to give simple demonstrations based on locally available foods brought to the demonstrations by the people themselves. We monitored the programme carefully in the four villages for eighteen months. At the end of that time we did a survey and discovered that the rate of young child malnutrition in these villages had dropped from 55% to 39%. In other parts of the district the rate had risen."

In many different forms and under many different names, such new approaches are beginning to demonstrate their effectiveness in meeting people's real needs. In Panama, for example,

the one hundred and twelve 'ciclo basico' or 'basic education' schools are involving whole communities in the relevant education of themselves and their children. In Afghanistan, village health workers are being trained to provide basic health care in their own communities. In Bangladesh, traditional midwives are learning how to treat malnutrition and common illnesses. In Botswana, village women are being given eleven weeks' training in identifying and coping with malnutrition and prevalent diseases. As these examples show, the strategy for basic services can be implemented flexibly and gradually, often from small and partial beginnings, and built through community participation into a strategy for raising standards of nutrition, health care, water supply, sanitation, education, child care and housing. In India, Sri Lanka, Mali, Mexico, Niger, Pakistan and the Sudan, different examples of the same principle are demonstrating the enormous potential for effective assistance. To realise that potential, development must be based on the peoples' own involvement and initiative, with help from the outside, rather than on the imposition of a programme.

All of these emergent strategies for meeting basic needs run the risk of legitimising the division between the haves and the have-nots. It is too easy to imagine a world in which "basic education", "barefoot doctors", "intermediate technology" and "site and service housing schemes" would be accepted as the lot of the poor — instead of being a stage in development which gives first priority in the allocation of resources to those in greatest need. Therefore the strategy of Basic Services must be developed with the participation of the communities served and used by the nation as a means of reducing both poverty and inequity and as a first step towards a continuing improvement in standards of living and quality of life.

**The Wider Context** 

Women

the task of improving the lives of today's children depends also on broader changes in the world of which those children are a part. Of those longer-term changes, one of the most important concerns the role and the rights of women. An improvement in the lives of women is necessary in itself — but it is also necessary for the wellbeing of children. After all, to the extent that the needs of children are met, they are mostly met by their mothers. As Dr. Halfdan Mahler, Director General of the World Health Organisation, has said: "The quality of life for the child begins with the quality of life of the mother."

World-wide, women work twice as many hours as men. Rural women in the developing world are responsible for at least 50% of family food production in addition to the tasks of preparing and cooking food, washing clothes, cleaning, fetching wood and water (which can take up to six hours a day — every day), carrying meals to the field, cutting and collecting fodder, watering, feeding

and milking animals, cleaning cattle sheds, making compost, sewing clothes, and looking after the sick and the old . . . and the children.

The true heroines of development are these millions of women who labour so hard and so long under such difficult conditions and with so little recognition to meet the needs of their families.

But the fact is that many women in the Third World are simply suffering from unacceptable strain and chronic exhaustion. In the interests of women's health, and in the interests of the development and well-being of future generations, women should be relieved of hard manual labour as far as possible and also from unnecessarily time-consuming tasks.

#### Population

N this wider context of meeting the needs of children, the issue of population growth also looms large. Latest figures from the United Nations Fund for Population Activities indicate

that the rapid rate of world population growth peaked towards the middle of the 1970's and has since stalled. Yet the rapid population growth of the past has created severe problems for the present. Forty per cent of the population of the developing world is under the age of fifteen and by the beginning of 1980 there will be over 1,000 million children living in the developing world (not including the People's Republic of China).

These numbers are important not only because they indicate the magnitude of the task of meeting their present needs but also because they are the basis of future population growth itself. It is these children who will decide the future rate of population growth by deciding how many children they themselves are going to have. And for these children to have the option of planning their families is a clear priority not only for their own health and well-being but for the health and well-being of the next generation.

The 1970's have also brought about a great change in our knowledge of and attitudes towards the question of population growth. It is now widely accepted that to understand the dynamics of population growth, of how many children a family decides to have, it is necessary to focus not only on the problems of population but also on the problems of people.

For the poor, children often bring the advantages of help in fields and homes: fetching fuel and water; cooking and cleaning; looking after younger children and tending animals—jobs which children can and do perform. In many parts of the Third World, children become net producers to the family income, rather than dependents, by the age of eight or nine. By the time that they are adults, they are often the most important source of their parents' livelihood. And among the poor, children also bring joy and movement and hope into lives that are often stagnant with poverty.

Given these practical commonsense reasons to have children, and given the high rates of infant mortality which can claim up to half of all children born before they reach their fifth birthday, it is hardly surprising that the poor peoples of the world have, on average, twice as many children per family than the rich, or that the 29 poorest nations of the world have the highest birth-rates.

In this context, lowering of birth rates has come to be seen not only as a function of education for responsible parenthood, but of lowering infant mortality; improving health, nutrition and education; increasing economic well-being, equity and security; and widening the rights and opportunities of women.

The connection between the strategy of working with poor communities to create basic services and the task of lowering population growth is therefore tangible and direct. By improving nutrition, water supply, sanitation and health so that fewer children die in infancy; by increasing education to raise standards of living and bring the knowledge and means of family planning within the sphere of peoples' choice; by meeting essential needs so that poor people do not have large numbers of children for their very security and survival, the basic services strategy helps not only to improve the lives of children today, but also to reduce birth rates

which will in turn improve the lives of the children of tomorrow.

#### A New International Economic Order

third global issue which has a direct bearing on the well-being of the world's children is Athe quest of the developing nations for a New International Economic Order. The issues raised in the NIEO debate: - participation of the developing countries in setting fairer and more stable prices for the raw materials on which the Third World is dependent for 80% of its export earnings; an increase in the Third World's share of world industrial output from its present 7% to 25% by the end of the century through trade negotiations and the lowering of tariff barriers against manufactured goods from the developing countries; changes in the international monetary system over which they have little control; increased aid on more favourable terms and the meeting of the agreed official aid target of 0.7% of G.N.P.; new measures to ease the burden of the Third World's debt on which repayments of capital and interest now consume up to 20% of the Third World's annual export earnings; new codes of conduct for multinational corporations and for the transfer of technology; and an increase in economic and technical cooperation between developing countries themselves affect the employment and income opportunities of millions of families throughout the developing world and are therefore crucial to both the present well-being and future prospects for the world's

Indeed, if there is one thing above all that will decide whether the basic needs of the world's people will be met it is whether or not they have jobs. Without productive and remunerative work to do, adults can neither meet their families needs nor contribute to or benefit from their nation's development. That is why nothing is more important to today's children – and tomorrow's – than the question of employment which lies at the heart of the New Economic Order debate.

All of these global issues — the rights and opportunities of women, rising living standards, falling population growth and the emergence of fairer economic relationships between and within nations — are fundamentally important to improving the lives of the world's children. But there are two reasons why the question of a better life for children cannot simply be submerged under these broad problems or left to await their resolution. First, it cannot be assumed that economic and political changes will automatically sweep away the special problems and meet the special needs of the very young.

Second, these broad global issues are all long term problems. And the children of today cannot wait. If the future is to witness a civilised world society then it is necessary to take all possible action here and now on behalf of the children who represent that future. The work of UNICEF and of many other organisations and individuals in recent years, and particularly the thousands of initiatives taken in almost every nation during

the International Year of the Child, have both clarified the needs and demonstrated the scope for action to meet them.

To follow through this work into the next decade is not only possible and necessary in the short term, it is also one of the most important contributions which can be made to the long term changes discussed in these pages. To do all that we can to make sure that children are growing up well-nourished, healthy and educated – able to develop to their potential in both mind and body – is in itself an essential contribution towards the emergence of a more civilised world society and an improved quality of life for all.



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### Department of Public Information Press Section United Nations, New York

UNICEF Executive Board 534th Mecting (AM)



ICEF/1458 19 May 1980

UNICEF EXECUTIVE BOARD BEGINS 1980 SESSION, HEARS STATEMENTS BY CHAIRMAN OF BOARD AND EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR, BEGINS GENERAL DEBATE

The Executive Board of the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) opened its 1980 session this morning. The Board is meeting from 19 to 30 May in New York to review programmes, determine policies and decide on the commitment of funds to help improve the situation of hundreds of millions of children in developing countries.

At this morning's meeting, Zaki Hasan, Chairman of the Executive Board, and James P. Gramt, Executive Director of UNICEF, spoke on questions of programmes and priorities within a context of world crises and a worsening international economic situation.

In his statement, Mr. Hasan said that this was a time not only of confrontation and crises, but a time when tensions between "the islands of affluence and the vast ocean of poverty" were increasing.

While income in the richest nations averaged \$10,000 per year, people in the poorest countries eved out an existence on \$100 per year.

By the year 2000, Mr. Hasan said, the number of people living in absolute poverty would have risen to 3 billion. The moral, social, economic and political implications of the present trends were clear. "The drift towards greater human deprivations, and an ultimate global disaster, must be reversed." He exhorted donors who had had to reduce contributions due to financial stringency to appreciate that the unfavourable economic situation affected the children of the poor even more adversely.

In his statement, Mr. Grant, Executive Director, said that recent years of international political turmoil had not been favourable for accelerating progress in the condition of children. Last year had been "a year of increased war and civil strife, of perilous journeys on open seas, of the mass uprooting of peoples, of widespread hunger and malnutrition." Children, as always, had suffered the most.

In addition to its regular programmes, Mr. Grant stated, UNICEF had assumed greater respons bility in providing emergency relief in some areas, including respons bility for raising most of the more than \$250 million needed to support the second phase of Kampuchean assistance.

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Meeting these and other emergencies had some adverse impact on fundraising for UNICEF programmes to alleviate the "silent emergencies" children lacking food, health and education services in the developing and least developed countries.

Addressing the issue of financing for UNICEF's programmes, he stated that if projected increases were not realized, it was possible that general resources income would be reduced by 5 per cent for 1980.

On the proposal of the Chairman, the Board tentatively approved an agenda, pending further discussion of the organization of work of the current session.

The 30-member Board also began its general debate this morning, hearing statements by the representatives of the Federal Republic of Germany and Normay.



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#### Statement by Chairman of UNICEF Executive Board

At the beginning of this morning's meeting of the United Nations Children's Func (UNICEF) Executive Board, ZAKI HASAN, Chairman of the Board, said that this year's session assumed exceptional importance. UNICEF had been confronted with several emergency situations and now problems affecting programmes' finances and priorities.

This was a moment, he said, when there were "grave portents of global confrontation and crises". It was a time when the contrasts and tensions between "the islands of affluence and the vast ocean of poverty" were increasing. While per capita income in the richest nations was almost \$10,000 per year, people in the poorest countries even out in existence on \$100 per year. Only 45 cents per day were spent on health and education in the world, while \$92 per day were wasted on the development and manufacture of armaments. By the year 2000, the number of people living in absolute poverty will have risen to 3 billion.

The moral, social, economic and political implications of the present trends were clear, he stated. "The drift towards greater human deprivations, and an ultimate global disaster, must be reversed." UNICEF was the only international organization which was directed towards the welfare and development of the world's children, he noted. That imposed an onerous respons be ility on UNICEF to lead the way in the struggle for a more rational and equitable international order.

All possible efforts should be made within and among nations to redress the malaise of poverty and underdevelopment, he continued. Special efforts should be made to advance economic and social development in the poorest countries and for the poorest people in those countries.

The children of the developing world faced a dark tomorrow in which future emergency situations were almost inevitable, he went on. The growing tensions between rich and poor, fueled by diminishing world recourses were likely to lead to ever more catastrophic tragedies in which UNICEF could at best play only a curative role. If the world was serious in wishing to avoid such tragedies it must be much bolder in promoting global self-reliance and a less wasteful use of remaining world resources through the development and encouragement of an international order that accepted the idea of global community.

He recalled that the General Assembly had exhorted that increased attention be given to the "basic services to the children and adolescents in disadvantaged socio-economic groups and in the more backward regions".

It was encouraging to so that there was an increasing acceptance that conomic development needed a more human focus, based on a recognition that economic growth alone could solve only part of the problems of the human condition, that economic growth must be accompanied by social justice; that development was an integrated process encompassing such widely raised activities as education and health as also industrial growth and productive employment, he said.

One of the basic problems in most countries in prace time or during emergencies was the shortage of food or food crises, he continued. An increase in agricultural production was by itself not sufficient; a better distribution of food among and with in nations should be ensured, inter alia, through the establishment of an effective system of world food security.

Continuing, he pointed out that although the developed countries provided \$20 billion a year to the third world, its aid still stood at only half of the 0.7 per cent of the gross national product (GNP) aimed at by the United Nations. Conversely, the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) provided 2.14 per cent of their GNP towards aid in the form of soft loans and grants.

The rate of increase in the contributions by the majority of developed countries had just about kept pace with the increase in costs of supplies and the rise in cost of living, he added. He exhorted conors who had had to reduce their contributions due to very understandable financial stringency to appreciate that unfavourable economic situation affected the children of poor even more adversely.

One of the major issues on the agenca this year was the report of the International Year of the Child (IYC), he said. One of the many compelling lessons that emerged from IYC was that UNICEF had to move to development to a greater degree. The situation of children across the world was that their needs covered the whole spectrum which could only be attended to through a multisectoral developmental approach.

Concluding, he said he was confident that UNICEF would continue to work with dedication in the tasks which lay ahead. He appealed to Governments and peoples all over the world to assist UNICEF in meeting those challenges through their consistent and growing support to its activities and programmes.

#### Statement by Executive Director

JAMES P. GRANT, Executive Director of UNICEF, noted that the Executive Board was assembled to review UNICEF's work of the past year; to decide on its programme for the coming year; and to provide a perspective for UNICEF through its medium-term work plan extending through 1983.

The recent years of international political and economic turmoil had not been favourable for accelerating progress in the condition of children, he said. 1979 had been "a year of increased war and civil strife, of perilous journeys on open seas, of the mass uprooting of peoples, of widespread hunger and malnutrition". The world had consumed, once again, more food than it had grown. Children, as always, had suffered the most.

There were changing demands on UNICEF as an organization, Mr. Grant stated, particularly illustrated by three recent developments. One has been IYC and the lead-agency reponsibilities which UNICEF had been assigned both for the progress of the Year itself and for following up on the development aspects flowing from IYC in the 1980s and beyond.

UNICEF had begun as an emergency agency, he recalled, working primarily in industrialized countries, concerned with the relief and rehabilitation requirements of children in the aftermath of the Second World War. Its responsibility for children who suffered from "headline" emergencies had continued, exemplified not only by UNICEF's operation for Kampuchea but also in Africa and elsewhere in Asia. However, UNICEF had increasingly focused its attention on the "silent" "quiet" emergencies afflicting hundreds of millions of children as a consequence of abject poverty and gross underdevelopment.

The second recent development affecting UNICEF's mission, he said, was that the world commulity was becoming more insistent on rapid improvement in the condition of people, particularly children, as part of the development process. To meet these new goals, for example, over the next 20 years infant mortal ity rates would have to decline at two to three times the rate that they had in the past 20. Fortunately, from the recent experience of some low-income countries under widely differing economic and political systems, it was known that these rates of improvement were possible, but only with greatly increased community and people participation and with far greater use of paraprofessionals — and a stronger political will — than had been historically the case.

A third major development affecting UNICEF's role was the international community's commitment to goals for accelerated progress in certain fields that particularly affected the condition of children, he said. These fields included drinking water and sanitation, the elimination of mass hunger and health for all by the year 2000. To realize those goals would require a much greater flow of exernal resources than UNICEF could hope to supply. Fortunately, there were signs of larger flows. The World Bank was committing about \$1 billion annually in the field of water supply, and \$250 million annually in education. In 1980 it would start to directly provide major financing for health programmes. Regional development banks were increasing their financing in these fields, and flows of bilateral aid were also increasing. This should not mean that UNICEF's role in these fields would be lessence, he said, but it did imply the need for some change in its role and working methods.

Many of the proposals now before this Executive Board session reflected the need for the Children's Fund to increase its capacity to work effectively with Governments seeking to accelerate progress in the well-being of their children, to work with other public and private bodies and to influence the marketplace of ideas. The reports on education, women and on the disabled all reflected new means for accelerating progress in the well-being of children through greater and more effective mobilization of local resources, he said.

New means had to be brought to bear on the problems of children. Thus the report on wemen properly focused on the need both for their greater involvement and for enhancement of their status and goals of development, if UNICEF's objectives for children were to be achieved. Education, particularly basic and non-formal education, also needed to be increased and made more effective.

UNICEF would also have to cohence its programming processes. Without proper data bases it was impossible to determine benefits achieved, he said. It was difficult to synthesize experience or to determine the replicability of the experience on a larger scale. UNICEF would also have to increase its staff capacity by more systematic in-service training and field service, and by acquiring more staff with first-hand knowledge of local values and ways -- including more staff from developing countries, more women and more young people. Other programmatic and structural changes would also be necessary to improve UNICEF's capacity for accelerating progress in the well-being of children.

Turning to the question of Kampuchea and other emergencies, ir. Grant recalled that the Executive Board had held a special session on Kampuchean relief on 14 February shortly after his first visit to kampuchea and Thailand. At that time he reported that the disaster the world community had feared had been temporarily averted and that the crisis could return later this year in the absence of large-scale external assistance, and effective distribution with in the country.

There had been a marked improvement in the level of nutrition in Kampuchea in December and January following the decision of the Phnom Penh authorities to leave virtually all of the seriously short wet season rice crop in the hands of the villagers, where the need had been the greatest. They were shortages how as the limited harvest was consumed and internal distribution of food assistance had not yet reached required levels. The next major harvest would not be until November and December. Meanwhile, there had been major shipments into Kampuchea by sea and some 300,000 Kampucheans were fed in temporary camps on or near the Thai/Kampuchean border. Another 700,000 Kampuchean residents in Kampuchea came to the border with their exearts and bicycles for food and food rations each months, he added.

The Joint Mission of UNICEF and the International Committee of the Red Cross, in association with the World Food Programme and the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) had just completed an assessment of the situation, which had been discussed with the authorities of Phnom Penh, he said. According to this assessment, although there was reasonable assurance that the necessary amounts of assistance could get into Kampuchea, there was far less assurance of adequate distribution inside Kampuchea, both because of inadequate transport and of relatively low efficiency in using that transport which was understandable in view of the limited experience of the authorities in the country. Adequate financial assistance would be available until mid-summer, but the availability of sufficient amounts of finance was thereafter heavily dependent on the satisfaction of donors with performance inside Kampuchea in the weeks and months ahead.

UNICEF had expressed concern and recommendations for possible remedial measures with respect to internal distribution both to the Phnom Penh authorities and to the Governments which might be in a position to be of particular assistance, including Viet Nam, Soviet Union and Theiland. The issue of humanitarian concerns with respect to Kampuchea will be discussed at the United Nations Conference in Geneva on 26 and 27 May, he noted. The

therefore proposed that discussions on Kampuchea by the Executive Board be delayed until after those meetings.

"The impact of greatly expanded emergency operations in support of UNICEF's original mission of responding to the needs of children flowing from these 'loud' emergencies has placed a severe strain on several parts of the UNICEF structure", he said.

UNICEF had undertaken primary responsibility for raising most of the more than \$250 million -- an amount in excess of the normal UNICEF programme -- required to support the second phase -- from 1 April to 31 December -- of the Kampuchean operation. That fund-rasing had been not only time-consuming but had had some adverse impact on fund-raising for UNICEF's developmental programmes to alleviate the "silent" emergency.

More and more children, and mothers of young children, in many parts of the world were having their lives disrupted by emergency situations, he stated. Countries turned to UNICEF, among other organizations, for help for the large population of children and mothers who were not refugees but were affected by violent conflict, by natural disasters such as drought, or by movements of refugees into their localities.

The North West Frontier Province of Pavistan was an example of an area where there were not only refugee camps, but where the whole population was affected by water shortage and overloading of health services and facilities. UNICEF was presenting a project to the session mainly concerned with increasing the water supply for both the resident population and the refugee camps.

In western Asia UNICEF had been concerned for some years with assistance to children and women in Lebanon and had a particular function in South Lebanon, where the support given by UNIFIL had enabled important progress to be made with restoration of water supply. A substantial project would be presented to this session of the Board for the extension of this work. There were also recommendations for some greater assistance to Palestinian mothers and children in Lebanon, Syria, Jordan, the West Bank and Gaza.

Turning to the situation in Africa, he said that there had been a severe drought in Somalia and Ethiopia. Somalia was the most affected, having approximately one and one-quarter million people in camps, compared with a national population of three million. Another substantial project presented to the board was mainly concerned with water supply both for the affected population and for refugee camps. Regarding Ethiopia, where there was a substantial resettlement project to reduce the pressure of population on the drought-affected previnces of Wollo and Tigre, a substantial project was being presented.

For a number of years UNICEF was among those contributing to the services for mothers and children of refugees from Rhodesia. Now, fortunately, that population of some 250,000 was expected to return to Zimbabwe, and another 750,000 who were displaced inside the country could now go back to their

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villages. UNICEF had discussed needs and pess bilities with the ministers of the new Government and a substantial regular project was before the Board.

There were also some 100,000 refugees in Cameroon coming from Chad, and UNICEF was meeting a request to contribute to the relief effort. For some time UNICEF's programme of co-operation in Angola had included help to refugees in that country, especially refugees from Namibia.

Regarding UNICEF's general policy on emergencies, Mr. Grant stated that the magnitute of UNICEF's involvement in emergency situations had increased.

Events had forced this upon UNICEF: it could not turn away from grave situations affecting the survival of children. UNICEF's involvement in Kampuchea had been greater because the Secretary-General had asked it to be the lead agency for the United Nations system.

Unfortunately there was no reason to suppose that in the near future there would be a reduction in disturbed situations. At present such situations ranged from acute financial and exchange difficulties, through severe drought, to violenct conflict. These situations reduced the possibilities for co-operation in normal, long-term policies and services. It seemed natural to expect UNICEF co-operation to increase at a time of particular difficulty for the children of a country.

He hoped that the coming wet season harvest would make it possible for UNICEF's involvement in Kampuchea to decline after this year, but there was no real prospect for decline in the volume of other emergencies. There were several types of action UNICEF could take. It would be useful to increase the opportunities for the exchange of experience among affected countries. UNICEF could strengthen measures to reduce the adverse impact on long-term programmes elswhere, improve mechanisms for calling on people outside and inside the organization to work in emergency situations and replace the staff members who did move over temporarily to emergency work. UNICEF could also review methods of operation in emergencies and give staff fuller orientation in dealing with emergency programmes.

Regarding long-term financial prospects, Mr. Grant said that because of the higher level of inflation, provious projections now meant less real increase in UNICEF's programme assistance than when they were approved in 1978 and 1979. In fact, the financial plan showed no real increase before 1982 and 1983. Because of the spreading recession, there was a question of whether it was wise to maintain those projections. In 1980, for the first time in UNICEF's history, a major Government had reduced its contribution. Another increase, of which UNICEF was advised that there were good prospects, might now be postponed from 1980 until 1981. If both adverse events happened, they would in themselves be quivalent to a reduction of 5 per cent in general resources income for 1980.

However, he recommended that the Board maintain those projections. There were prospects for increased contributions from a number of countries and funding sources that had not in the past been large conors. Some countries

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with larger oil revenues were willing to explore ways in which they could assist more projects benefiting children.

The 34 years since the founding of UNICEF had witnessed more improvement in human well-being than in any comparable period of world history, he said.

But the benefits of the rapid progress had largely bypassed one quarter of humanity and benefited another quarter only modestly. Due to population growth, there were probably in absolute numbers more people hungry and malnourished today than when UNICEF was founded.

opportunity to help countries and peoples everywhere become more aware of the need, the potential and the means for accelerating progress in the basic well-being of children. It was in these tasks that UNICEF would find its essential mission in the years immediately ahead.

#### Views of Delegations

HILDEGARD HAMN-BRUCHER (Federal Republic of Germany) said that it was of great concern to all that the economic and social problems of the developing countries were still far from being solved. Despite considerable progress in the economic field, there was "an appalling infant mortality rate", especially in the poorest countries. Approximately one billion people — mainly mothers and children — were suffering from hunger or other acute deficiencies. Only recently the international community confronted was confronted with the unending tragedy of the Kampuchean people. Equally tragic was the fate of millions of refugees and displaced persons in other parts of the world.

Her Government was conscious of its obligation, she said, in this respect. It was now exactly 35 years since a devastating war had come to an end which had inflicted untold suffering on many millions of people in Europe. The devoted support of UNICEF and other relief organizations ouring the first pest-war years was not forgotten in her country. But at the same time human tragedies could not be solved by material means alone; in addition to financial aid, active human support was needed.

Regarding the international emergency relief programme for refugees in Kampuchea, her Government agreed that mass starvation had been temporarily averted, but was very likely to become reality if countries failed to muster sufficient funds, manpower and technical resources. Since the inception of the international programme of assistance to Kampuchea in 1979, her Government had provided funds totalling more than 42 million Deutschmarks (\$23 million) to United Nations organizations, to the International Committee of the Red Cross and to church and private institutions. Her Government was currently examining the possibility of mobilizing additional funds for this purpose. She hoped that UNICEF's role in providing assistance would not lead to a slackening of UNICEF's support for mothers and children in other parts of the world. She trusted that UNICEF would be relieved of its co-ordinating responsibility as soon as the second phase of that programme had come to a successful conclusion.

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In her view UNICEF's activities should focus increasingly on the basic services strategy. "Growth from below" was indispensable for sustained improvement in the situation of developing countries. It was becoming increasingly obvious that economic growth alone did not necessarily lead to satisfactory developments in the socio-cultural environment. This meant that the success of the third development decade could not be ensured only by higher financial inputs from industrial ized countries. Self-help and self-confidence were required for rapid progress.

She did not deny the need of developing countries for further economic growth. On the contrary, a more adequate fulfilment of basic needs and activation of self-help would indirectly create greater ability and willingness to work which, in turn, would lead to higher productivity as the basis for sustained and independent growth. Yet this growth process had to be accompanied and stabilized by carefully devised action or iented to socio-cultural aspects. This issue had not yet been accorded sufficient international recognition, she believed. It should be a distinct focal point of future co-operation. In 1978, she pointed out, the proportion of her Government's capital and technical assistance to socio-cultural assistance to countries in Africa south of the Sahera was roughly 970 million to 94 million Deutschmarks, a ratio of 10 to 1.

Regarding contributions to the regular budget of UNICEF, she said that since 1952, the Federal Republic of Germany had increased its voluntary contributions to UNICEF — to 11 million Deutschmarks in 1980. Her Government would try to increase this amount further. An additional 3 million Deutschmarks were made available to UNICEF annually under funds-in-trust projects.

Regarding follow-up to the International Year of the Child, she said the Board would have to consider ways in which such momentum would be preserved and utilized. The German Committee for UNICEF had raised a record income of more than 22 million Doutschmarks, she said, or roughly \$12.5 million.

PAAL BOG (Norway), referring to projects he had visited in Africa and Asia, said that when the Executive Board two years ago discussed UNICEF's first involvement in the promotion of appropriate technology, his delegation expressed the view that this was a field somewhat outside UNICEF's usual activities and warned against cuplication of work in an area in which many organizations and agencies had engaged themselves. Today, in the light of experience, he did not hesitate to urge that UNICEF increase its efforts to promote the use of village technologies which would better serve the vulnerable groups and facilitate their integration into the development process.

Also, he said, in line with the policies and principles for Norway's bilateral development co-operation, his delegation held the view that UNICEF should concentrate its attention on the rural areas. Today, he was convinced that some of the worst problems affecting children were to be found in the low-income areas of the big cities, and that UNICEF should strengthen its efforts in that field.

Regarding the pattern of relative priorities given to the major categories of UNICEF co-operation, he said that efforts to improve the quality of performance should be concentrated in two fields: the substance of UNICEF co-operation, and the aemic istration of UNICEF's work programme.

Regarding the substance, special attention should be devoted to the allocation of resources between sectors. The distribution of resources should reflect first and foremost the national policies affecting children pursued by the developing countries where UNICEF co-operated in programmes. As far as pessible, it should also reflect the goals and objectives of the development co-operation policies pursued by the member Governments.

His Government, he said, was in broad agreement with the present pattern of resource allocation between different programme fields and with the future trands indicated by the Executive Director in the medium-term work plan for 1979-1983. Norway had noted with regret the decline over the last five years in the peremtage of programme expenditure going to child nutrition. That trand was "somewhat alarming", and he hoped that it die not reflect a decreasing interest in child nutrition. He would welcome an expansion of UNICEF's activities in the field of nutrition, in continued co-operation with other United Nations bodies.

Noting that emergency relief had absorbed 10 per cent of programme expensiture in 1979 compared with 1 per cent in the years 1975-1977, mainly due to the Kampuchea operation, he reiterated his Government's views that UMICEF's general resources should be devoted to the expansion of services berefiting children on a long-term basis, to the fullest extent possible.

Regarding the projected share of programme expenditure going to the least developed countries, he noted with some surprise that the projected figures for 1983 indicated qual amounts of expenditure for the least developed countries of Group I and for the middle income countries of Group II. This distribution went further than the decision taken by the Executive Board in 1978 "to increase somewhat" the assistance to countries at the bottom of Group II.

The Executive Director had expressed the hope that in the 1980s UNICEF would be able to obtain an increasing share of the resources available for official development assistance, Mr. Bog noted. Income estimates were based on an annual rate of increase considerably above that which could be expected in the years to come. Was that a realistic assumption? he asked. He was inclined to take a fairly optimistic view of UNICEF's prospects of obtaining increased funds, considering the increased international awareness of the situation of children, and UNICEF's preparedness to respond to the new opportunities.

It was unquestionable that the International Year of the Child had led to a remarkable broadening of interest in the situation of children in both industrialized and developing countries, he continued. However, the picture of increased interest was not entirely bright.

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At the 1979 Board session, he recalled delegations discussed the importance of including in the new international development strategy a set of recommendations relating to children in national development. It seemed likely that many problems would not be solved before the special session. Given the present divergence of views, there was a real canger that such compromise solutions would take the form of vague and general statements and and not the action-oriented strategy that had been hoped for. In this "rather disheartening situation" it could perhaps be seen as an encouraging element that draft texts recently presented by the Group of 77 on the social aspects of the strategy had been on the whole well received in the relevant Preparatory Committee.

In conclusion, he pointed out that contributions so far pleaged for 1980 were not particularly encouraging and it would seem rather unlikely that the target figure for 1980 could be reached. The very modest contributions to UNICEF from a number of countries "in a position to co considerably better" continued to be of great concern. His Government was prepared to join in an effort to ensure that UNICEF be entrusted with a larger share of the flow of official development assistance, but UNICEF's need for more revenue was unlikely to be met as long as the responsibility for providing resources was not more equitably shared.

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