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ON

DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES AND THE NEEDS OF CHILDREN

IN CELEBRATION OF

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CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

Our conferences have been concerned with various aspects of development: the New International Economic Order in 1977, the Law of the Sea in 1978. This year, the International Year of the Child, we are concerned with children in developing countries. It can be argued that all development strategies that improve the wealth, security and independence of a country improve the lives of children. In the long run - yes. But there is no such long run for the children who are living with poverty, disease and illiteracy now.

Our Working Paper is a little different this year, as we found it difficult to unify the theme of children and development. The development strategy that seems to come closest to children is the one that aims to fulfill people's basic needs. We have written several articles on the various aspects of the Basic Needs strategy, but have added a few on alternative strategies also. We became interested in the political implications of the conflict between some of these strategies. Next year we intend to devote more time to examining the ideas and plans for the new international development strategies of the 1980s.

This has been a particularly difficult year at school with added pressures on students' and teachers' time. We are grateful to all who have helped us: Marion Weinert and the UNIS Library for the bibliography, Hannah Wassermann for editing, Elizabeth Kahn for her strength and understanding, Anne Astorino and Ellen Lewis for typing at all hours. We are also grateful for the unfailing patience and kindness of the printing staff at the Department of Public Information. A warm thank you to Elisabeth Fox, our new Academic Dean, whose unquestioning support made this conference possible.

DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES AND THE NEEDS OF CHILDREN

It is entirely appropriate that the year before the official opening of the United Nations Third Development Decade should be designated the Year of the Child. Children are the future, and measures instituted now have a double benefit: for the present and the future.

In preparing new international development strategies for the 1980s, there will be much discussion on why the strategies of the 1960s and the 1970s were not entirely successful. The dissatisfaction of the 1970s produced a call for a New International Order, but already at the end of the decade economists in both the developed and developing worlds are admitting failure in implementing many of its proposals. These proposals call for building up developing countries' industries and trade, access to loans and aid, control over local resources. All this is heavy stuff, centered on the growth of technology, of cities, and of an urban middle class of skilled workers and managers. The benefits of this growth will eventually "trickle down" to the poorer segments of society. In this theory what is important is not the distribution of the pie, but its size. "Distribution" has political significance. It requires political will on the part of people to put policies into effect that will make them unpopular with their constituents, as would be the case with middle class representatives voting to distribute the wealth among the poor.

If "distribution" is unpopular with the "haves", the only alternative is to increase the size of the pie so that the portion of the "have nots" increases also. But we are back in square one. This has not worked. Rates of growth have slowed. The developed world has been suffering a prolonged recession and is less willing to share an increasingly competitive world market with growing industries in the developing world. The amount of capital available for aid has decreased, and inflation is a worldwide problem. Some developing countries have improved their economies in the last ten years and reached a middle level between the developed and less developed countries (LDCs). However, in some of them, like Brazil, the gap between rich and poor internally has increased (others, like South Korea, Taiwan, and Singapore, seem to have avoided that problem).

Any attempt to change the emphasis on development is looked upon with some suspicion by developing countries. The Basic Needs approach involves such a change in emphasis and has created much controversy. The argument for Basic Needs goes something like this: The resources for development assistance are shrinking rather than expanding, so let us make the smaller amount go further by spending it on inexpensive projects that bring the greatest benefits to the largest number of people. As the benefits of previous development projects seem to have gone to the elites of the developing countries, let us bypass them and go straight to the poor. Projects that bring better food, water, housing, health, education, and employment to the poor, especially the 80 percent of the Third World's population that lives in the villages, will develop the one resource that most developing countries have in abundance—people. Healthier and more productive people will generate their own wealth, which will then "bubble up" and affect the wealth of the nation as a whole. In this view, the fulfilling of people's basic needs becomes a means as well as an end of development.

Many Third World countries find this argument dangerous. First of all, it lets the developed world off the hook of facing squarely the problem of its over consumption of resources and the inequity in their allocation. It does not increase the independence of the developing countries —at least in the short run. Independence is both economic and political, and only independent nations can be equal nations. It interferes in the sovereign rights of Third World governments to determine their own priorities and decide themselves how best to help their people.

Few economists would advocate a concentration of a country's resources on the Basic Needs strategy alone. Supporters of this strategy argue that it generates its own productive wealth in jobs, services, and manufacturing of consumer goods, and that it is not a pouring of national wealth into the bottomless pit of people's needs. But the problem still remains how to create the additional wealth that can be invested into this strategy. Very possibly the best development strategy will be a combination of trickles and bubbles. However, to avoid exercises in futility, highly technical plans should not be made in glass and steel offices, remote from the lives of actual people.

And that is why it is so important to center development thinking on the Child. The plight of children in developing countries is critical and the improvement of their condition must be a priority, both on humane and on practical grounds. Childhood is short and fragile, and many children cannot wait long for the benefits of development. They either die or are scarred for life with physical and mental damage. Yet benefits for children radiate outward and are eventually felt by whole communities.

> The more a country is willing and able to spare resources for child development, sufficient to give each individual child a better preparation for life, the higher its chances of achieving a decisive break-away from the vicious circle of poverty and economic stagnation.
>
> Hans Singer, Children in the Strategy of Development

The International Year of the Child of 1979 has put the emphasis on the needs of children in planning development strategies for the 1980s. Children's needs cannot be met outside development as a whole; thus the central question becomes which type of development is most effective for children.

THE BASIC NEEDS STRATEGY

The Basic Needs Strategy has not been clearly defined and there are many interpretations of it. The International Labor Office (ILO) considers that basic needs

> ...include certain minimum requirements of a family for private consumption; adequate food, shelter, and clothing are obviously included, as would be certain household equipment and furniture

> ...include essential services provided for the community at large, such as safe drinking water, sanitation, public transportation, and health and educational facilities...
> ...implies the participation of the people in making the decisions which affect them. Participation interacts with the two main elements of a basic-needs strategy. For example, education and good health will facilitate participation, and participation in turn will strengthen the claim for the material basic needs.
>
> Employment, Growth and Basic Needs, ILO, Geneva, 1976

Concern for basic needs, and the services to fulfill them, originated with the World Bank, the ILO and UNICEF. It was already obvious in the late 1960s that the very poor in the developing countries were the hardest to reach, but techniques for measuring the extent of the problem and strategies designed to solve it took time to formulate. The Overseas Development Council, a private Washington-based organization, designed a method to measure the degree to which national growth did not reach the poor. The Gross National Product (GNP) or Per Capita Income (PCI) figures do not indicate the distribution of wealth within a country. However, a Physical Quality of Life Index (PQLI), based on life expectancy, infant mortality, and literacy, does. And the results are quite astonishing: Sri Lanka with a PCI of US$130 has a PQLI of 83. Iran with a PCI of US$1250 has a PQLI of 38 (1974 figures).

The World Bank and the ILO have collected impressive statistics to explain their concern with basic needs.

> Nor are we talking here about an insignificant minority. We are talking about hundreds of millions of people. They are what I have termed the absolute poor: those trapped in conditions so limited by illiteracy, malnutrition, disease, high infant mortality, and low life expectancy as to be denied the very potential of the genes with which they were born. Their basic human needs are simply not met.
>
> 1.2 billion do not have access to safe drinking water or to a public health facility. 700 million are seriously malnourished. 550 million are unable to read or write. 250 million living in urban areas do not have adequate shelter. Hundreds of millions are without sufficient employment...
>
> Most tragic of all, many of them are children. For of the total of two billion people in the developing countries, some 860 million are under the age of 15.
>
> They are the chief hope of their societies' future. And yet almost half of them suffer from some debilitating disease likely to have long-lasting effects. Well over a third of them are undernourished. 290 million of them are not in school.
>
> Robert McNamara, President of the World Bank to the Board of Governors, September 26, 1977, p. 11.

> In most developing countries the richest 10 per cent of households typically receive about 40 per cent of personal income, whereas the poorest 40 per cent of households receive 15 per cent or less.
>
> Report of the Director General of the International Labour Organisation, "Economic Growth and Basic Needs" (pp 3-4), ILO, Geneva, 1976.

The problem today is to determine how much of a country's total income should be diverted from growth and "modernization," and invested in providing basic services instead. What allotments in each individual country allow both aspects of development to benefit, rather than emphasizing one and detracting from the success of the other? A balance must be found between building hydro-electric dams, mines, steel mills and port facilities, and providing bricks, furniture, water pipes, food and clothing. The one requires investment and sophisticated capital intensive technology; the other provides jobs for people, products for their daily use, and services to improve the quality of their lives. Both types of development are necessary, but the time has come for greater emphasis on Basic Needs. It will take too long for the poor to benefit from development by the trickle down theory. Methods of reaching them more directly must be put into effect.

UNICEF has been working quietly and effectively for some years to provide basic services to rural and urban communities. In the UNICEF basic services strategy the emphasis is on involvement and cooperation by the community. In each village the most trusted available individual is chosen by the local people to spend a short training period in a local health care center or other training facility. He or she then returns to the village to provide some basic service, whether sanitary, educational, agricultural or medical. Community workers are preferred over trained professionals because they are more likely to be aware of specific problems that outsiders might have trouble detecting and dealing with. One of the problems of development is the superiority of the trained personnel who think they know better. A little more humility in our recognition of the other's skills and values is called for.

UNICEF works for the success of its strategy not only in respecting the community and developing its self-reliance, but—even before that—by winning support of the national government by not going into an area unless and until it is requested to do so. At that point, and when the needs of a total region are coordinated, the government is usually ready to pursue an integrated plan of development. Governments are more willing to support the Basic Needs strategy if the community can provide most of the labor and reduce capital costs. The cost to governments of these basic services still remains great, as they must provide the support of an infrastructure, administration, and continued regional coordination for the strategy to remain successful.

There are more extreme interpretations of what is called the Basic Human Needs strategy that challenges the continued predominance of central governments, whether capitalist or socialist, dedicated to ideas of growth and modernization. This strategy, sometimes abbreviated to BHN, questions the materialistic values of development and emphasises the

consciousness raising of the poor so that they can gain an understanding of their ability to control their lives. They can plan their own development and cooperate in the process of decision making. The ideas are revolutionary both in their insistence on achieving greater equity through means such as land distribution or the communal ownership of land and on changing people's perceptions of their own worth and the purpose of their lives. Countries that have tried this approach—China during the Cultural Revolution, Tanzania, Sri Lanka, to name a few—have found it difficult, but rewarding in many ways. The emphasis on people's participation in identifying and fulfilling their needs has political significance, and some government officials feel threatened as their power may be diminished. However, advocates of the Basic Human Needs strategy urge cooperation between governments and communities who will support those governments even more strongly when they fulfill their needs.

THE RIGHTS OF CHILDREN

There shall be peace on earth, but not until
Each child shall daily eat his fill;
Go warmly clad against the winter wind
And learn his lessons with a tranquil mind.
And thus released from hunger, fear and need,
Regardless of his color, race or creed
Look upwards, smiling to the skies,
His faith in man reflected in his eyes.

The Children's Charter

The United Nations Declaration of the Rights of the Child, adopted on November 20, 1959, states that all children are entitled to:

Affection, love and understanding.
Adequate nutrition and medical care.
Free education.
Full opportunity for play and recreation.
A name and nationality.
Special care if handicapped.
Be among the first to receive relief in times of disaster.
Learn to be a useful member of society and develop individual abilities.
Be brought up in a spirit of peace and universal brotherhood.
Enjoy these rights, regardless of race, color, religion, national or social origin.

Twenty years after the adoption of this declaration, do children enjoy these rights? Some of them may, but the majority of the world's children are far from approaching anything close to a decent life. The reason for this is that the implementation of the rights mentioned in the United Nations declaration require both financial and legislative resources beyond the reach of the developed world. Despite the special attention given to the rights of children during the International Year of the Child, the needs of children are always an integral part of the needs of society. All efforts sparked by the plight of children will benefit society as a whole. To meet children's rights, we must consider the following needs.

1. Nutritional Needs

Malnutrition is not only the chief cause of childhood deaths but also causes life long damage. Studies in Chile, Colombia, Indonesia, and Mexico suggest that malnutrition may retard the development of the brain and interfere with learning capacity and behavior in later years. Only some of the effects of malnutrition are thought to be irreversible, but most, in practice, are never reversed because of the costs involved. Among the irreversible effects of malnutrition are keratomalia (a condition caused by a lack of vitamin A which leads to blindness), and rickets (a crippling disease of the skeletal system). Most of these diseases are caused by severe protein/calorie deprivation. One long term effect of these problems is that the malnourished children, marginally surviving to adulthood, are likely to burden rather than contribute productively to their community, and through no fault of their own.

2. Health Needs

Needless to say, children are entitled to as much if not more health care than grownups. First they are dependent on their families, and second they are part of their families, and any disease affecting them can affect their families as well. Investment in child health care is economically wise as protecting future adults saves a community resources in the long run. But, indeed, recognizing the problem doesn't solve it, and the lack of health services is still a dominant problem in the developing countries.

A child's health needs begin before birth, since the food that the mother eats and her state of health are vitally important to the child's future welfare. Only 3 out of 10 babies born in the developing world get the help of a trained midwife or doctor. After birth every baby faces the threat of disease. Polluted water, overcrowded living conditions, inadequate sanitation, and lack of health services cause epidemics that weaken and kill many babies and young children. In many countries 25 to 30 per cent of the children die before the age of five, and in some areas the mortality rate is as high as 50 to 70 per cent.

3. Educational Needs

Just as millions of children in the developing world are deprived of other basic services, they are also disadvantaged in respect to education. Millions of children emerge from school ill adapted to their environment and lacking the skills required to meet the needs of their countries. Levels of literacy and per cent of first-year school enrollment in a number of developing countries indicate some measure of the "educational gap" that needs to be filled.

Country	Literacy	School Enrollment
Bangladesh	23%	50%
Ethiopia	7%	17%
Mali	10%	18%
Sudan	15%	38%

Only 201 million of the 435 million children in the 1 to 12 year old age group were enrolled in the primary schools of the less developed countries in the period between 1970 and 1976; in other words less than 50 per cent ever got the chance to go to school. However, the problem is made even worse by the number of drop-outs in the first year of school. This phenomenon is variously attributed to the family's inability to clothe and equip the child for school, or circumstances requiring the child's help at home or in the fields.

The situation of children in developing countries need not continue to deteriorate. The human and financial resources required for making essential services available to children are small in relation to any other development activities, and certainly small in relation to the world's capacity to help.

FOOD

Famine is doubtless the most visible form of hunger, "horrible and photogenic," the topic of a great deal of dramatic newspaper coverage. People probably think of famine first when asked about "The World Food Crisis." In the period April-May 1978, 13 emergency operations were approved by the United Nations and the Food and Agricultural Organization to be enacted through the World Food Program in Africa, Bangladesh, the Philippines, and Southeast Asia. Such emergency aid is supplied when a series of events, such as crop failures, natural disasters, or a sudden influx of refugees, has created a crisis situation that cannot be handled by a country internally. Developing countries are susceptible to sudden food shortages because (a) the farmers in these countries are living at subsistence level and cannot afford to store surpluses from a good year to meet the deficits of crop failures in bad years, as is done in richer countries; (b) rich producers and traders frequently hoard for speculative reasons or export in return for goods mainly for the use of the upper classes (something the country can ill afford at any time; (c) poor communications, inefficient and sometimes corrupt administrations, and poor transportation may hamper the recognition and relief of crisis conditions. Such circumstances coincide with distressing frequency.

Not quite so visible is the majority of the close to 500 million people that the FAO estimates has a "food intake level below the critical minimum limits." Why are so many malnourished? One answer is that "Whether one gets enough to eat throughout his lifetime usually depends a great deal more upon where he sits in local, national and international power structures than upon our planet's total supply." This fact is supported by the knowledge that famine is mostly confined to the developing countries and that 30 per cent of the world's population eats two-thirds of the world's food supply. The need for better distribution, put forward by Susan George, author of How the Other Half Dies, and Joseph Collins, co-author of Food First. The inequity in available food is one of the causes of the demand for a new international economic order.

Malnutrition, a form of slow starvation, most severely affects children. More than a quarter of all the world's deaths occurs among children under five. Although malnutrition is not the prime cause, it so

seriously weakens children that they cannot recover from the routine childhood diseases that do not cause death in the developed world. One of the major killers of children, brought on not necessarily by poor nutrition but by poor sanitation, is diarrhea, a disease from which few young children escape. Another nutrition-related disease involving protein deficiency is kwashiorkor. Children suffer from it, although it is not fatal if treated in time. The symptoms are a distended stomach; soft, red, and scanty hair; and in severe cases wasted limbs, mental apathy and a rash.

The effect of malnutrition is almost as tragic as mortality. Severe malnutrition in early childhood can stunt physical and mental growth, as shown by impaired reasoning powers, language and motor skills, and social behavior. Children are not only cheated of their full potential but nations are deprived of the full potential of their labor force. Clearly, it is to everyone's benefit to eliminate malnutrition, on both humanitarian and economic grounds.

So many people around the globe are undernourished that the problem has become known as the "World Food Crisis." There is controversy over the causes. Certain economists consider the reasons to be technical—population growth, inadequate farming methods, the high price of fertilizers, lack of regional planning. Other economists see the problem more in social terms: the lack of people's control over their own food supply, inequity in land distribution, and markets geared to the needs of the larger farmers. They claim if the consumption patterns of the developed countries changed and people were given the help they need to produce more on adequate sized plots of land, the food would go around. For example, farm land used to grow ground nuts for cattle feed in the developed world could be better used to feed African children.

What efforts are being made to alleviate both the short and the long term problems of food supply and distribution? Two of the several agencies involved in this problem are the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO). The former is concerned with maternal and child health, welfare and emergency relief, and rehabilitation, whereas FAO is concerned with the world's farm lands, forests, and fisheries as used to meet man's most basic need, food. Both agencies often work together on projects such as milk conservation, home economics, and high protein foods. The work of the FAO seems to use more traditional methods of eliminating food shortages by attacking the technical hindrances to greater production. Their aims, published in FAO, What It Is, What It Does, How It Works, are:

1. Raising levels of nutrition and standard of living of the people.
2. Securing improvements of the production and distribution of all food and agricultural products.
3. Bettering the conditions of rural populations, and thus contributing to an expanding world economy and assuring humanity's freedom from hunger.

These aims are accomplished through field projects of various types and by acting as an international source of information, a warning system,

and an international forum. Mr. Laurent, Special Liaison Officer to the United Nations from the FAO, classifies the FAO efforts in the following ways:

1. Short term—food aid; grants of fertilizer and seed;
2. Medium term—planning assistance; investment in agricultural planning;
3. Long term—global food security.

The question remains: Is this enough? "Guarded optimism" is expressed by some, yet the conditions still exist and in some areas grow worse. Do we need to seek other, perhaps more radical solutions?

WATER

> One hospital bed out of four in the world is occupies by a patient who is ill because of polluted water.... Provision of a safe and convenient water supply is the single most important activity that could be undertaken to improve the health of people living in rural areas of the developing world.
>
> World Health Organization

The two things that man needs to survive are food and water. Without food a man can survive two weeks, but without water he can live only about two days. Although clean water has been placed high on the priority list of needs of rural communities, millions of children still die each year of water related diseases. Contaminated water causes diarrhea and other intestinal disorders that disrupt the body's intake of nutrients from the digestive tract as well as result in dehydration. Recently, UNICEF and WHO developed a cheap oral rehydrate formula called Oralyte. Given to children on the verge of death, it can restore them to life within a span of 24 hours. Children under the age of two are the most vulnerable to the intestinal diseases caused by drinking contaminated water. It is estimated that five million infants die every year of intestinal diseases before they reach their first birthday.

If the children survive their first years of life, they may be hounded by the problem of securing water. Many assume the responsibility of getting the family's water supply. Millions of women and children trudge many miles to get the water that is needed for washing, cooking, and drinking. Fetching water each day may prevent youngsters from attending school. In some parts of Bolivia, the schools are officially closed in the morning so that village school children are free to get water for their families. In some villages, however, there are no schools to close, and children spend a good part of their day doing chores.

In the last several years, UNICEF has embarked upon a campaign to bring water to waterless communities in the rural areas of the developing world. Wells are dug and pumps built. The people are well aware of

the benefits to health and labor a supply of clean water brings. There are other benefits. Gardens can be grown because of the irrigation systems made possible by the new water supply; these gardens put more and better food on the family table.

In some areas of the world the death rate from water related diseases have been reduced. In Uttar Pradesh, India, the death rates from cholera, diarrhea, dysentery, and typhoid decreased 74.1 per cent, 42.7 per cent, 23.1 per cent, and 63.6 per cent, respectively. The installation of safe and convenient water supplies throughout the world is critical, for without water we can go nowhere with all of the elaborate development strategies that have been proposed.

HEALTH SERVICES

Public health was established by governments of developed countries in the nineteenth century to cope with health problems caused by urbanization. Public health works to prevent disease and maintain healthy environments. Proper sanitation, good water, air, food, and housing are all part of a public health program. Organized community participation is sought. A healthy individual requires immunization, periodic physical examinations, and health education. Public health also conducts social surveys and provides specialized care for those most vulnerable in the community.

Although public health practice flourished in developed nations, it advanced significantly in developing countries only after World War II. The problems that it faced were enormous: a high mortality rate during childbirth, a shortage of medical personnel, an an inadequate social framework. The last was the result of both a lack of knowledge about local disease and adherence to traditional modes of life.

Advanced scientific research and technology may have little to do with the improvement of health in Third World countries. The result of "revolutionary" advances in the field of pediatrics, for example, has decreased the child mortality rate in developed countries rather than developing ones. Advanced technology has also influenced the type of health care that the elites in the developing countries receive, but has not affected the health care of the poor. Enormous funds have gone into research of heart disease and cancer, illnesses of the developed world. Too little has gone into research of parasitic diseases, more prevalent in the developing world. WHO is justly proud of the massive cooperative efforts which succeeded in the eradication of smallpox. Equally massive efforts and funding are needed to combat other diseases.

Advanced health technology is expensive and often inappropriate for poorer communities. That is why WHO and UNICEF are advocating a program of primary health care for the villages and urban slums of the Third World.

PRIMARY HEALTH CARE

> Health is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely an absence of disease and illness.
>
> The World Health Organization

Ten to fifteen percent of the total world population receive 80 to 90 percent of the available health services. Eighty percent of the total rural population of the Third World have little or no access to health programs. What can Third World countries do to improve their present health situations? For many nations, the answer is primary health care.

Primary health care involves community and individual participation in solving local health problems. People can learn to help themselves and each other. The word primary has double meaning here: the first stages of minor illnesses, and the first people to deal with the sick. The women are usually the first to treat the illnesses of their children, so training them in simple health practices protects the children and brings greater awareness of good health to the whole village. In the Third World at present primary health care is more useful than specialized medical personnel and modern hospitals.

Most Third World countries were once colonies. The introduction of Western technology and culture often disrupted the people's former way of life, instigated the breakdown of indigenous health practices, and created adverse environmental conditions. The masses became poorer and their lives worsened. After independence many developing countries imported guidance and materials and based their health systems on those already in use in industrialized nations. Doctors were trained in modern medicine, and hospitals with sophisticated equipment were built, in hope of improving national health. The efforts of the medical profession were directed toward the curing of individual patients, and disregarded the social and environmental causes for those illnesses. These sophisticated techniques had little effect on the health of people living in the rural areas.

In India, political leaders have considered these factors in developing methods for a new rural program. Listed below are a few of these methods, some of which have already been put into effect.

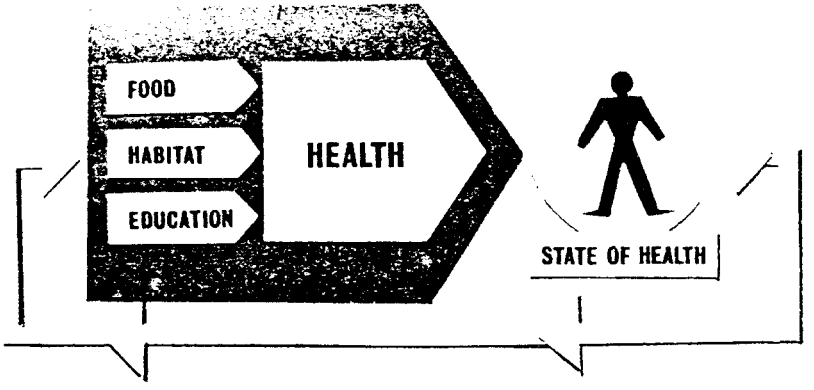
> Training of villagers as health workers - villagers acquire the skills needed to cope with the community's particular health problems. The more complicated cases are referred to fulltime doctors, who are frequently available for consultation.
>
> Research on the cultural, historical, and technical aspects of health problems - studies are made to gain better understanding of the people's way of life, the prevailing health practices, the community's resources, organization, and social structure, and the various technological needs.
>
> Control of diseases - programs include the surveillance of communicable diseases such as malaria, cholera and smallpox, the use of insecticides, and the management of water supplies.

Fertility regulation programs - women are given opportunities for education, employment, and participation in community affairs; information on contraceptives is made available, and methods for decreasing infant mortality, increasing age in marriage, and encouraging small families are applied.

In 1972 a successful rural health program was launched in the village of Savar in Bangladesh. The clinic now has an active staff of 44 paramedics who show a special understanding when treating their own people and those from nearby villages. They suggest simple, homemade remedies such as green vegetables in a diet instead of capsules to cure a particular illness. The services of the clinic include basic child care, family planning, livestock immunization, food processing and storage, and vocational training for women. The clinic hopes to create a carpentry shop which will use local resources and develop technology appropriate for the village. This clinic is an example not only of primary health care, but of the integration of the villagers in many new activities which improve their standard of living.

Primary health care, although successful in many areas, still has its problems. The concept of self-reliance, with its dependence on local materials and traditional health methods, cannot alone solve the problems of the Third World. Many governments of developing countries will not accept what they consider to be second-rate technology in rural programs which may keep them behind in full-scale development. Other problems lie in the community itself. The separation of people into classes may prevent health treatment from being equally administered to all members of a community. The lack of clubs or councils may make it difficult to arrange community meetings in which people discuss the village's health problems and potential solutions. The superior attitude of health professionals may prevent cooperation with the paraprofessionals. Sometimes strong traditional or religious beliefs dissuade people from taking particular medicines or receiving certain treatments.

Other problems include government oppositions to the community's power to make local decisions. How should poor and ignorant villagers know what good health is and what it is not? Villages are scattered over large areas; thus coverage is a problem. Once clinics are established in remote villages, there is difficulty keeping track of them, evaluating their performance and improving their methods. Primary health care depends on the maintenance of the health infrastructure, on other basic services supplying food, water and education. Vaccinations, for example, are useless when administered to the malnourished.



In September 1978 the International Conference on Primary Health Care, organized by WHO and UNICEF, was held at Alma Ata, USSR. Government representatives agreed to set aside resources for primary health care and to share experiences and expertise. Good health is a basic need, and primary health care is one of the ways of meeting that need.

POPULATION

The population of the world is about 4 billion. Fresh statistics suggest that the rapid increase is slowing. However, it is believed that world population will continue to grow until it stabilizes at about 12 to 15 billion, near the end of the twenty-first century. This is good news; not long ago some world population predictions exceeded the 80 billion mark. However, we still must ask how we can support four times our current population.

> The first thing that has to be said is that the world does not adequately support today's 4 billion population. 500 million people are today malnourished. 1000 million do not have clean water. 800 million are illiterate. 350 million are unemployed or earn less than $50 a year. 250 million live in slums. 1600 million do not have basic health care.
>
> United Nations Fund for Population Activities: A home for 12 Billion, Peter Adamson, 1978.

The solution is not just birth control or family planning, as so many believe. Birth control can help the problem from getting worse, but it cannot cure it. We must examine the basic causes of large families. Children are seen as security - as aid in the future. It has been shown that parents in developing countries must have seven children to insure a 95 percent chance of one surviving male.

As the standard of living and health care improves, the necessity for children as an economic resource decreases, and birth rates are likely to go down. Hence we see the link between development and population policies.

Lately we have also seen in certain countries a link between population and improvement of social welfare - improved health care, education and social and economic conditions of women. Thus these welfare measures which lower infant mortality might possibly cause a decline in birth rates. Such is the speculation of today's population experts.

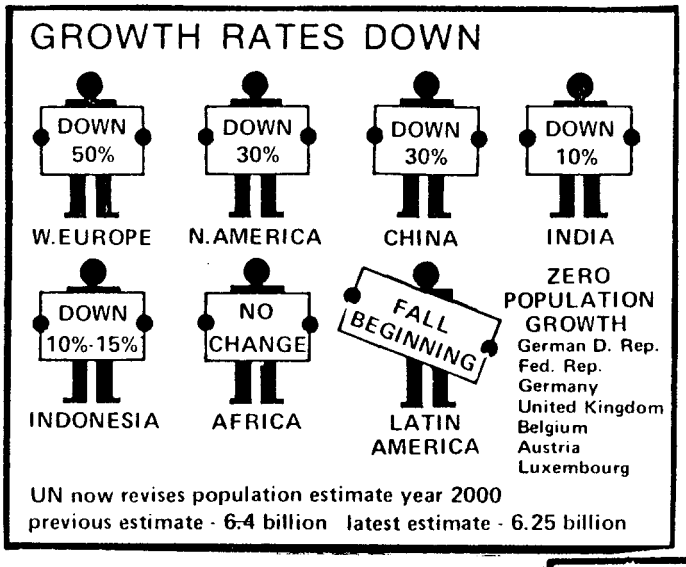
General recognition of a population problem is growing, but there is little agreement on solutions or even the exact nature of the problem. To many, the problem seems to be just 'overpopulation.' Rather it is overpopulation in relation to available resources and the inequity in their distribution. A child born in an industrialized country will consume 20 to 40 times as much as a child in the developing world. In India, the annual consumption of the richest 25 million is greater

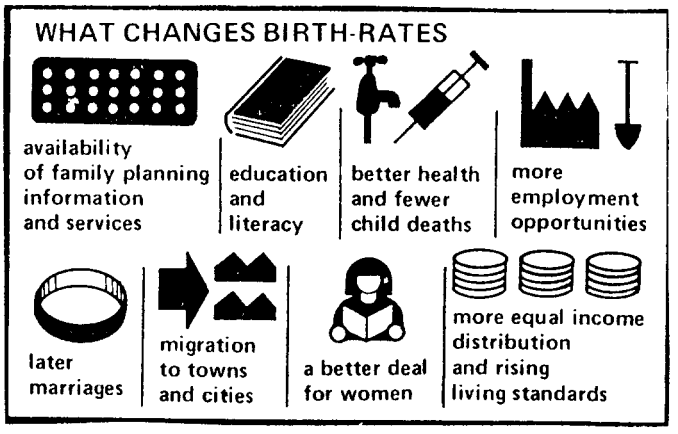
than that of the poorest 150 million. Thus the problem of population is directly related to food distribution. A more equitable allocation of resources is demanded to meet the needs of the 12 billion people with whom we will live. Although scientists are working on new agricultural methods to increase the yield of agriculture, quantity of production will not ensure adequate diets for all without fairer distribution.

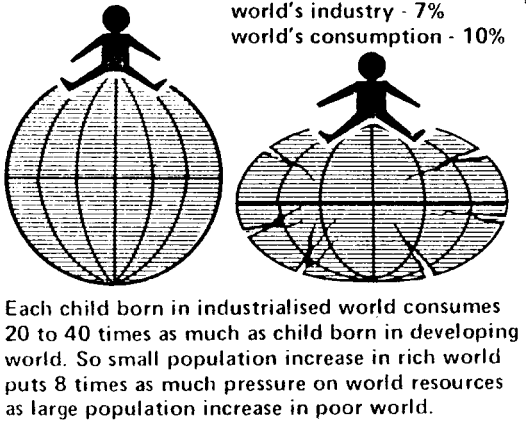
If we plan to alleviate to some extent the suffering of children in years to come, we must know the effects of an increasing population. Population planning helps determine the economic viability of the families in which children grow up. In any particular family, the more children, the smaller each child's proportion of the proverbial pie. Thus children are likely to be hurt in any population increase.

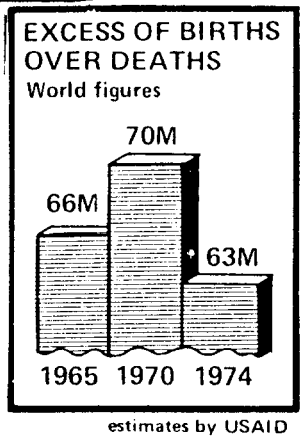
World Population Slow Down
The Facts

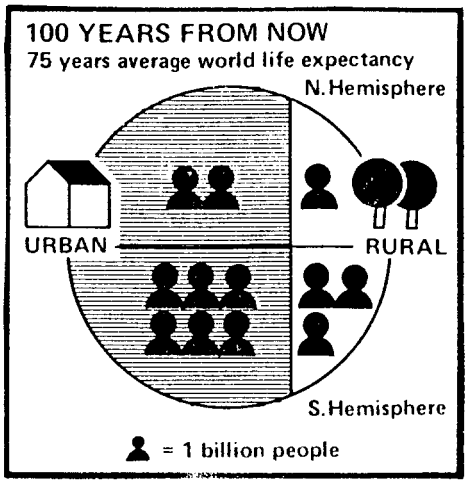
"There are clear signs of a decline in fertility" - 1978
'State of World Population Growth' Report from the UN Fund for Population Activities











WOMEN'S ROLE IN DEVELOPMENT

> 'I am nothing; I am a beast. Look at me. No, I don't want my children to be like me ....'

The woman who said that is a typical example of the newly aware woman in a slowly developing world. She is a woman who sees her changing role in the development process as both a threat and a promise for her family. She hopes to educate and improve the life of her children, yet changing social roles could destroy her marriage and her family.

No successful development stragegy can ignore the role of women. They are half the population and central to the welfare of children. In many rural communities they are the food providers, the water carriers, the nurses, and the teachers of the very young. To ease their burdens is to enable them to do what they have to do more effectively.

Women's basic needs are closely related to the needs of families and children. Women need easy access to clean water and to fuel for cooking. They need training in nutrition, primary health care, and in planning village cooperatives to provide basic services. Women need help in making their farms more productive. In parts of Africa women provide 60 percent of all farm produce. Marketing and credit facilities can supplement the family's income by encouraging small businesses.

The education of women and girls has been neglected as their work was needed at home and literacy was not considered necessary for them. Education, however, is the important link between all the various plans for improving the lives of families; only with education will women see the relationships between nutrition, water, sanitation, health and population control.

Population control is an essential element of development. Discussion of it should be incorporated into general education of women as it concerns women's freedom and the roles she may choose to play in a household and in a community. In many instances birth control information is met with general disapproval. Certain cultural standards may see it as a threat to man's virility and women's purity (one husband saw his wife becoming a prostitute if she used any form of contraception). In many Catholic countries church disapproval is a hindrance. Often women themselves are ill informed; some developed superstitious fears of brain damage occurring after using birth control. Often when it was accepted by women it was then struck down by their husbands. In some countries birth control education should start with informing the men of the community about the importance of population control to a general rise in the standard of living.

Planning for rural women is too often done by men, or by women with little knowledge of the texture of women's life in the villages. Some of the 'improvements' in health and nutrition have received little cooperation from women who have had no share in planning them. Women have been intimidated by technically impressive health clinics run by men, and by teams of specialists coming from the city to tell them what to do. No wonder they have been unsuccessful! In some instances

private companies with Western approaches to child nutrition, and eager to sell their product, have persuaded mothers that milk formula is superior to breast feeding, with catastrophic results. New development strategies must recognize the importance of traditional ways women have been using to bring up families with limited resources. Traditional ways must be incorporated into new plans. Training and the introduction of appropriate technology give women the base from which to develop their own improved conditions.

The International Women's Year in 1975 tried to emphasise the needs of women, as this year emphasises the needs of children. Until women become more active in politics, planning and decision making, their role in development will depend primarily on its understanding by men. Women contribute to development as themselves and as mothers of children. Recognition of women's Basic Needs is crucial to providing children with theirs.

WOMEN AND CHILD CARE IN CHINA

Women play an active role in all phases of life in the People's Republic of China. However, to function as equals with men in the factories, the fields, the professions, and government service, women need special support during pregnancy and the infancy of their children.

Clinics for perinatal care (before and after birth) have been established all over China. The infant receives a good start in life with shots and vaccinations, as a result of which smallpox, cholera, diptheria and polio have been completely controlled and the incidents of measels drastically reduced.

Fifty-six days after the baby is born the mother returns to work. Children enter primary school at age seven, but before this they are taken care of by a grandparent, a friend, or in one of the many excellently run nurseries and kindergartens.

When the child is still small most mothers bring the baby to work with them, leaving the infant in the 'nursing' room. The mother is allowed to leave her work twice during the day to breast-feed her baby. Infants are cared for in such 'nursing' rooms until they are one and a half, or have been weaned. At that point the mother can choose to put her child in a nursery, or leave the toddler home with grandparents. At age three children progress to kindergarten and by seven they are out in the independent world of primary school.

The effect of this enlightened policy is to care for both mothers and children, without making children a burden to harrassed women who are also trying to contribute to their family's subsistence. The role of the mother in the child's early years is acknowledged, and children are treated as precious resources, to be cared for both by the family and by society as a whole.

EDUCATION

The education systems in the developing countries, and especially in the rural areas of those countries, have been severely neglected in the past. The figures of how many people receive even a primary school education are very low - 45 percent in Africa, 55 percent in Asia and 75 percent in Latin America. These figures become even lower at the secondary level. Girls receive less education than boys.

The reasons for these low figures are not lack of student interest in schools! First and most important is the shortage of schools, of teachers and of teaching materials. Many students must travel several miles on foot to reach the school. Some are too sick or ashamed of shabby clothes, so they don't go at all. Many parents keep their children at home to help on the farm or with housework.

But the major function of a school is to educate its students. The curriculum that is to be taught in a rural school must provide much more of a vocational education. However, it cannot be solely vocational as this would limit the opportunity of the student to go onto further studies.

First of all children need to learn the basic skills of reading, writing and enumeration, but secondly, they must also learn the use and purpose of their education. Curricula are too often removed from the reality of a child's life, and education based on Western models alienates a Third World child from the local community. Children need to learn how to think logically, how to solve problems, how to question and have confidence in applying practical solutions. They need to learn about the importance of clean water, sanitation, nutrition and birth control: about fertilizers, the flow of goods from the fields and workshops to the markets. They can learn by doing, by growing their own gardens in the cities and building their own workshops in the villages.

These are educational techniques well known by educators, but seemingly very difficult to put into effect. The problem is even more urgent in developing countries. Educated children will be healthy and active participants in their communities. They are more likely to break the pattern of poverty by becoming more productive adults. They are more likely to have smaller families. The kind of school that can offer children an education which is directly useful to their lives is also likely to persuade parents to forego the help those children might be on the farm or in the home.

Those schools that use older methods of education inherited from colonial times often induce a sense of failure in young people, which leads to an acceptance of their depressed economic state. Another message that children receive from this kind of schooling is that only Western type jobs in offices and in the cities are worth striving for, and that manual work is demeaning. Many young people who 'make it' in this system find themselves unemployed as their society does not need or cannot absorb their skills. They emigrate and become part of their country's brain drain.

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All children have the right to education, but the content and method of that education need serious revision to be of use to them. Education is a supremely liberating process. The interrelationship of all aspects of development becomes clear and people become the masters of their fate, rather than the victims.

EMPLOYMENT

Human resources are a nation's most valuable asset. It is no surprise, therefore, that employment policies are an important aspect of any economic theory, be it socialist or capitalist. There have always been differences of opinion about the relationship of employment to general economic policies. If one accepts the laissez-faire concept that supply and demand will regulate themselves, how can one deal with the excess supply of labor in the developing world? There are an estimated 330 million unemployed or underemployed workers in developing countries. The industrialized economies devised policies to deal with unemployment in the depression years of the 1930s. John Maynard Keynes' theories were based on increasing consumption and investment. When people "consume" radios and bicycles, radio and bicycle factories are employing workers to produce these commodities. The workers have wages with which to "consume" hats and shoes, and so on in an upward spiral of production and consumption. In order to start this process, government and private business invest in expanding industry, public works, building, and social services, thus "pumping" money into the economy and creating jobs.

The Keynesian pattern is not applicable to countries that lack investment capital and where too many people are too poor to do much consuming. Unemployment persists and the most crucial asset of a country's economy, its human resource, is consequently wasted. This results in a decreasing Gross National Product, an increase in the burden on society (for unemployment is an economic burden to the state), and a general decrease in the standard of living.

The International Labor Office (ILO) is particularly concerned with the problem of employment as part of development strategy, as it is estimated that 1 billion more workers will need to find jobs in the next two decades. The development strategies of the 1960s and 1970s have not been sufficiently effective in dealing with this problem.

For the 1980s the ILO has adopted the Basic Needs approach to development as a means of increasing employment and raising the standard of living of the urban and rural poor. It calls for policies that would increase investment in the agricultural and "informal" urban sectors. Land redistribution into smaller farms, where that is a suitable alternative, produces a higher yield per acre than larger farms. Rural industry with the use of appropriate technology provides consumer goods for the farmers and processing for his farm produce. Greater emphasis in urban centers on the production of food, clothing, and household goods through smaller workshops and factories using labor intensive machinery provides both jobs and the type of consumer goods that the poor will buy. Services to facilitate this reorientation of production, like local transportation,

and access to credit and intermediate technology, require a diversion of resources by the government from investment in heavy, capital intensive industry.

The picture is one of more people working on a smaller scale, to satisfy smaller wants with more appropriate labor intensive technology. Bigness and sophisticated technology play their necessary part in development, but concentration on them does not reach the poor.

The creation of jobs for the presently unemployed affects children; it gives their parents wages with which to meet the family's basic needs. But children are affected by poverty and unemployment in other ways - they themselves become laborers to help support their families. Statistics on child labor are difficult to compile. How does one measure a child's drudgery on the farm or in the home? If the parents earn an adequate income, the children will be freed for school and play.

It is time to support this Basic Needs strategy of employment, if not for the sake of those suffering now, the families and children, then for our sake, for poverty anywhere constitutes a danger to prosperity everywhere.

APPROPRIATE TECHNOLOGY

Technology is an important part of development. It implies machines and methods for modernizing a country's industry, transportation and administration. This technology is usually imported as few developing countries have the experience or the money for research. It is sophisticated and expensive on two counts: it is protected by patents so that a fee must be paid for its use, and the machinery is costly. This is what is meant by the term "capital intensive". The thing has cost a lot of money, does a fantastic job, and only needs one man to push a button.

There are certain development projects that need this kind of technology, and the transfer of it from developed to developing countries is an expensive problem. One way of solving it is Technical Cooperation among Developing Countries (TCDC). A Plan for Action to encourage this process came out of a recent conference in Buenos Aires. Capital intensive technology, however, is not always appropriate for countries that cannot afford it and that need machines that give people work rather than displace them.

The idea of "appropriate" or "intermediate" technology has been growing. The principles behind it are:

1. No machine, tool, or process should displace human labor.
2. Materials should be inexpensive and easily accessible.
3. Nothing should harm the environment.
4. You don't have to be an engineer to build any of the "things".

What are these "things"? They are homemade solar heaters, grain storage containers made from empty oil drums, water wheels, wind mills, combined compost heaps and latrines, showers, fish dryers - the list is endless. They help people grow better food, build better homes, preserve their food, make their own fertilizers, use natural forms of energy. They are

particularly useful for rural development and they are designed to make people more self-reliant.

Catalogues describing appropriate technology have been published to share ideas such as how to skin a goat or build a family fish pond. One guide published in the Philippines and available in Indonesia and Malaysia is the Samaka Guide to Homesite Farming. These ideas are an important aspect of the Basic Needs strategy. They provide jobs, improve people's lives and make them more confident in their ability to control their lives.

RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Close to half of all people on Earth live in the rural areas of developing countries. More than half of these are "poor" (as measured by incomes of less than US$200 per year) while more than a third, an estimated 700 million, are categorized as "destitute". The number of these poor and destitute, according to a recent ILO estimate, increased by 162 million between 1962 and 1972.

Although governments everywhere are more conscious of rural problems than they were a few years ago, and there is an increase in official spending allotted to agriculture, the overall situation continues to deteriorate. Rural development policies improve the lives of people in addition to increasing the quantity of production. This is why development in the rural sectors is so urgent. In the process of development new values must be created, and the single most important of these is the will and desire to become self-reliant. A country cannot fully develop unless it resolves to become self-reliant and takes control of its future. The majority of people in the Third World live in villages; the policy of improving people's conditions through a combination of government help and self-reliance, must begin there.

Rural development strategies cannot be designed on the basis of superficial analysis of the causes of underdevelopment. Patterns of poverty and dependence have made it difficult to improve the lot of the villagers. Often new farming techniques have not been adopted and new policies have been greeted with apathy. It is therefore clear why it is so important that any new plans must first of all give the people a sense of participation and control.

An issue too often skirted by rural development planners is that of land ownership. Poor farmers cannot afford the technology of the "Green Revolution", with its irrigation and high cost fertilizers. Poor farmers see no point in working on projects that will primarily benefit rich farmers or landowners. One of the questions that rural planners must face is whether land should be redistributed in small farms or should be collectivized. In many countries the present land ownership patterns are an obstacle to rural development. Small plots of land do not support families, so either everyone is malnourished, including the children, or family members must seek employment elsewhere. They go to the nearest cities, adding to urban unemployment problems and the growth of slums.

Rural development must seek to give villagers employment, and basic services within their communities, not only to give them, their families and children, decent lives, but to take the pressure off the ever-growing urban population. Rural employment opportunities can be increased in many ways: large, planned projects in which the whole village participates and from which everyone benefits; smaller, private enterprises like businesses or craft shops. Technology appropriate for rural production can be developed in cooperation with other communities which have similar problems.

Rural development plans must coordinate the services needed by villagers- clean water, primary health care, education, transportation. The mobilization of women is another important part of rural development. Women are half of the working population, the first educators of children, as well as farmers and food producers.

These strategies for rural development are close to the Basic Needs approach, and the benefits to overall national development are obvious. Farmers that are producing enough food, healthy children, and their own source of income, are not a drain on the rest of the economy, but an asset to it. Rural children benefit when their parents have land and jobs, when there is food, water, health care, and education in the villages, and when there is an atmosphere of self-reliance and self-respect among the people.

URBANIZATION AND THE PROBLEMS OF CHILDREN IN URBAN SLUMS

Urbanization literally is the transferring of population from a rural to an urban setting. This change is usually accompanied by a shift in the concerned country's economy from a largely agrarian one to a more industrialized one.

Urban growth is occuring most dramatically in the developing countries of the world where rapid industrialization has brought about the need for urban centers. The physical growth of a city is in many ways determined by the people that flock to it. The rural migration to cities in South and South East Asia is mostly of people who are desperately poor, and the consequences of great numbers and poverty are massive unemployment and horrific conditions in the migrants' shanty towns and slums.

Industry in urban centers offers employment, and thus leads people to leave the rural areas to seek jobs in the cities. Urban life, despite its many problems, offers one essential ingredient that is at present lacking in the villages - the lure of hope. If employment were decentralized, the poor would have less incentive to migrate to the few largest cities. The establishment of medium or small sized cities and towns in the less congested countryside could help alleviate the crowded urban conditions. One may note that Mexico, with a projected population of over 31 million for Mexico City in 2000 A.D., plans to utilize part of its petroleum revenues to create medium and small scale industries in the less developed parts of the country.

Inheriting a colonial, or neocolonial centralized administrative system, many Third World university educated bureaucrats propagate this rapid urbanization. Cities often become overcrowded and unsanitary, with no coherent plan. The formation of slum areas around an urban core is the foremost problem of this world migration today. Unable to stem the tide of immigrants seeking marginal employment in the cities, authorities do not condone the building of transition settlements but are forced to accept them. Often finding themselves victims of the high cost of living in a city, people set up their own "towns" on the outskirts of cities. They are a primary source of disease, disaffection and misery.

The tremendous gulf between rich and poor, more apparent in the city because of close proximity, causes people to support revolutionary causes which may spur social change but breaks down traditional values. People aspire to a western standard of living attempting to achieve seventy to eighty years of improvement in two decades.

The existence of the child in many of the huge cities of the Third World is perilous. Overcrowding and unsanitary conditions are direct health hazards; unemployment and poverty cause malnutrition. The urban child is subject to additional dangers as the pressures of city life change the family structure. Parents are away most of the day, at poorly paid jobs or looking for jobs, and the children are left in the care of older siblings. Children are exposed to crime, drugs and prostitution. There are not enough schools for the older children, not enough health services, and without help the cycle of poverty and deprivation repeats itself in future generations.

The basic services approach of UNICEF is to work with the urban slum communities and the local governments to identify the needs and to establish community run programs. The education of women becomes particularly urgent in the cities, as they carry a double burden as wage earner and homemaker. They need health services, nutritional information, especially concerning substitutions for breast-feeding which becomes difficult for working mothers. Small gardens can be planted on vacant lots to supplement the family's food. Day care centers run as cooperatives can be organized. The same emphasis on self-help is urged not only because it is cheaper, but because it is more effective. People who have discovered that they can influence their lives and improve them become productive members of their societies and will work for continued improvement.

Whatever improvements can be brought to urban slum children will not be able to keep up with the influx of the millions of people anticipated by the end of the century. Some cities, like Jakarta in Indonesia, have made special regulations to discourage urban migration. The new resident must deposit with the government for six months the equivalent of his return fare to his point of origin. The authorities claim that this has cut migration by some 50 per cent since 1970! Rural development and job opportunities in the villages will take some of the pressure off the cities. Development planners realize today that whatever strategy a country chooses to follow, the problems of the cities, the rural areas, and employment are interrelated and need an integrated plan for effective improvement.

CHILDREN AND WAR

Children are the first victims of wars or civil wars. Their lives are shattered physically and emotionally—broken limbs and memories of terror are difficult to heal. Studies have been made of children in Northern Ireland, in Israel, and in the refugee camps throughout the world. They suffer nightmares; they lack confidence; they know that their world, their families and their homes can be torn apart at any moment. Some become violent in retaliation for the violence perpetrated upon them.

Many children have been scarred for life physically not only by the wounds of fighting but by the dislocation of food and medical supplies during war conditions. Political considerations sometimes prevent aid from reaching them. A case in point is the thousands of Biafran children who suffered severe malnutrition during the civil war in Nigeria during the late 1960s. This was the first time that the nature of kwashiorkor received worldwide publicity. There are few statistics on the number who died, or how many of them, now in their teens and 20s, are mentally retarded. This is not to blame one side or the other in any particular war, but, on behalf of all children, to make a statement against all wars.

DEVELOPMENT AND DISARMAMENT

Since 1961 when U Thant became the Secretary General of the United Nations and declared the most important world division as North-South (rich-poor, developed-developing) and not East-West (communist-capitalist), the United Nations has gradually become less involved in disarmament questions. Since that time, the makeup of the General Assembly has become more "Third World" dominated. Many countries are interested primarily in their own development and see the NATO-Warsaw Treaty Organization competition unrelated to their goals. Thus, for the past 18 years or so, the aims of disarmament meetings have shifted from complete global nuclear and conventional disarmament to less ambitious goals, such as partial test bans and SALT. These agreements are becoming less and less global and take place farther and farther from the United Nations; the current SALT I and Salt II talks are perfect examples of this trend. This article hopes to bring to light development-related reasons to discontinue this trend. Although the arms race continues, seemingly only between NATO, the Warsaw Treaty Organization and the remaining nuclear club members, every country in the world is seriously affected by the arms race.

At present about 400=billion dollars is spent solely on arms each year. An estimated 50=million people are intimately associated with this industry, producing no food, no medicine, only weapons. Of the 60=billion dollars spent worldwide on research and development in the early 1970s, 25=billion dollars was spent on military projects employing 400,000 scientists, compared with just 6=billion dollars spent on health research. With a human, economic, and world resource waste of this magnitude, it is impossible to believe that development programs will not suffer. Almost all such programs require large developed-country aid, but how can these countries be expected to give generously when their escalating arms competition overburdens and impoverishes their own people?

Fully one-fifteenth of the entire American product is flushed down the missile drain. The Soviet Union wastes twice as high a percentage. Astonishingly, in 1976 only 14=billion dollars was given in economic aid from developed countries. If only half the money saved from disarmament were given in aid, it would bring

about more than a tenfold increase. However, the situation in reality is far worse. Not only do countries get far less development aid, but in most cases a sizable part of that aid is in the form of arms. If a country is "fortunate" enough to have something of value—natural resources, strategic location, good port facilities—it is almost impossible for it to refuse alignment with one of the world's powers. Iran, for example, has spent over the past few years annually about 8=billion dollars on defense, almost as much as the United Kingdom or the Federal Republic of Germany. The current peace initiatives of Anwar Sadat in the Middle East were mostly prodded by the inability of his country to withstand wasting 37 per cent of its entire GNP on arms. The Israelis' quick response can in part be attributed to their own 35 per cent expenditure.

Thus, the arms race is not an isolated issue. It is globally felt and has a devastating effect on any development plans. Unless the arms race is stopped, there is no way that world poverty can be successfully combatted. It can also be argued that disarmament is the chief of all our problems. Arms exist to be used. A Third World War will solve all problems of development and the needs of children—by annihilating us.

THE DEVELOPED FREE-MARKET COUNTRIES AND DEVELOPMENT AID POLICIES

The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), based in Paris, is an institution that brings together developed countries with market economies. It came into being in 1961, and its two primary aims are: "to encourage economic growth and high employment with financial stability among member and non-member countries and to contribute to the economic development of the less advanced member countries and the expansion of world multilateral trade." (Dictionary of Economics, Bannock, G., Bacter, R.E., and Ress, R., New York; Penguin Books, 1977, p. 305) Its members are: Australia, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

The members of OECD represent the majority of aid givers to the Third World and are an important element in aid policies. The members of OECD, with the exception of the smallest or poorest countries of the organization—Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Luxembourg, Portugal, Spain, and Turkey—are members of the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) as is the Commission of the European Economic Community (EEC).

At the end of every year OECD publishes a report on the efforts and policies of the members of the DAC: Development Co-operation. The latest report, published in late 1978, points out that the International Development Strategy, despite its potential usefulness as a guideline for government policies, has not received the support of the entire international community. Most governments did not, or did not wish to, adopt the proposed reforms. Structural changes must come about in the industrialized world (the "North"). These changes would entail the redeployment of labor and resources in the North as industries in the "South" begin to compete with their counterparts in the developed states. The lower growth rates in the North have made such readjustments more difficult economically and, therefore, more difficult politically as governments become reluctant to effect changes that may endanger their chances of reelection. Workers who lose their jobs are not likely to vote for governments whose policies have caused them to do so.

The aim of the DAC states is to bring about an increase in the buying power of the people of the developing nations and to resist protectionist pressure at home. The DAC countries are strongly in favor of a policy based on an increased concern for basic human needs, however, they have noted that many Third World leaders have welcomed the Basic Needs policy with "a certain coldness, sometimes even with open hostility". These leaders are afraid the Basic Needs policies will mean foreign interference in their internal affairs, divert resources from economic growth, and also imply that they themselves are not concerned with their fellow countrymen's welfare.

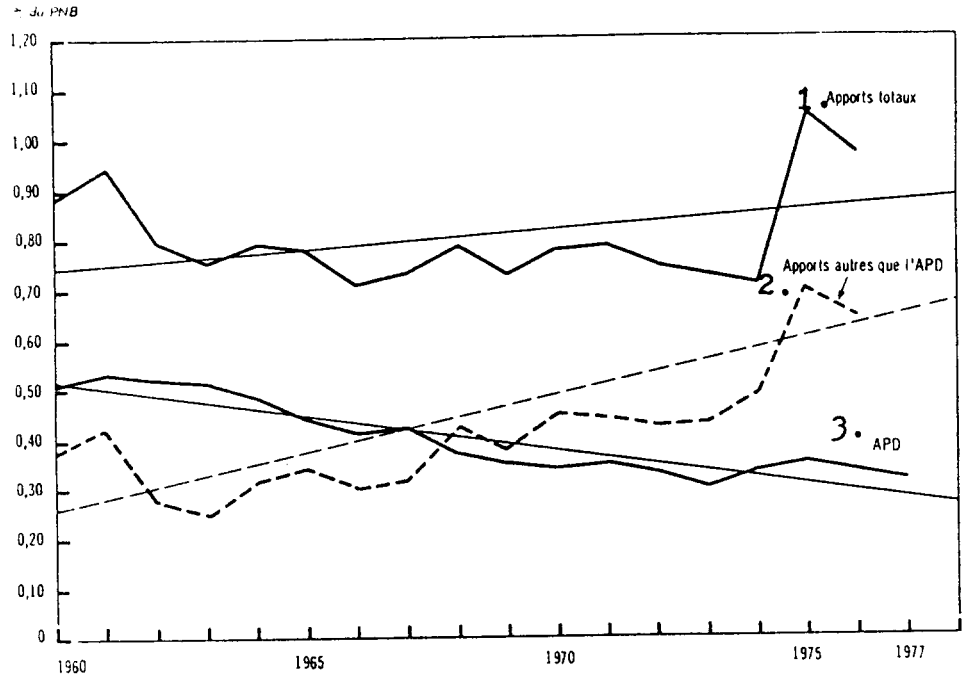
Although the reluctance of the poor countries to accept the Basic Needs strategy may be based on economic grounds, i.e., that it keeps them in a state of permanent dependence (because it maintains them as producers of relatively cheap raw materials while the first world continues to earn more money with the production of finished goods, where profits are larger), Third World leaders may also "see industry as a source of power and prestige for the state, increasing its ability to impose its will at home, or if need be, to fight wars abroad. The Basic Needs strategy does not offer them these opportunities." (from "International Development," Great Decisions '78, New York, Foreign Policy Association, 1978)

Thus, the DAC approach is two fold: (1) The DAC countries, taking into account the suspicions against Basic Needs, recognize the role of industry in development. (2) They can defend Basic Needs by pointing out that it is a part of the development policies of countries of varied size and political orientation.

Along with the efforts on Basic Needs policies, the DAC's Official Development Aid (ODA) is now more concentrated on the poorest of the developing nations.

The importance of ODA in terms of percentage of the Gross National Product (GNP) of the states in the DAC has declined almost continuously. The decline of ODA in terms of percentage of Gross National Product is explained by two principal factors. First, there was a massive pre-decolonialization aid that has now been considerably reduced since most ex-colonies have now been independent for over 15 years. Secondly, certain countries that received aid are now considered to have "taken-off" and are not in need of (or at least need less) aid. The increased income of petroleum producing states, a result of much higher prices since 1973/1974, means that they require much less external aid.

Although this article has been concerned with official government aid, the role of the private sector cannot be ignored. More than two-thirds of the resource transfers from the rich to poor countries in 1977 came from private businesses and banks. And this role has recently grown significantly. The importance of banks from OECD countries in resource transfer has increased from 3.9 percent in 1969-71 to 20.9 percent in 1975-77 in terms of net contribution of resources to the developing world. On the other hand, the importance of ODA in resource transfers has declined considerably. This is illustrated by the following graph:



(from Cooperation pour le developpement. OECD, 1978, p. 147)

Curve 1 represents the level from 1960 to 1977 of total resource transfers in terms of the GNP of DAC countries.
Curve 2 shows the level from 1960 to 1977 of resource transfers other than ODA in terms of the GNP of DAC countries.
Curve 3 shows the level from 1960 to 1977 of ODA in terms of the GNP of DAC countries.

Three major points emerge from this graph: (1) total resource transfers have increased. (2) resource transfers other than ODA have increased even more. (3) ODA has declined.

PROVIDING EFFECTIVE ASSISTANCE

The process of development assumes the transfer of resources in one way or another from the richer countries to the poorer ones. Countries giving aid - the "donor" countries - are not prepared to help "recipient" countries without some control over the use of their aid. Donor countries are anxious to see that this aid is used effectively. One way of doing so is to plan aid together with other governments and agencies.

There are a number of regional coordination groups involving several developing countries. One of them is the recently established "Club du Sahel" which is composed of a number of Development Assistance Committee (DAC) member states and some multilateral organizations. They are helping financially or by providing experts to tackle the problem of drought and desertification. Another example of such co-

operation is the Onchocercive (River Blindness) Control Program in the Volta Basin area in West Africa. Organizations such as the World Health Organization (WHO), the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), the United Nations Development Program (UNDP), and the World Bank are involved in this program as well as several DAC countries.

There are also coordination groups at the local level which receive active support from the World Bank and UNDP. DAC members support the concept of local aid coordination since it ensures that aid is adapted to the needs of the recipients and that it eliminates overlapping.

Although such coordination aims to make aid effective, problems remain. Some developing countries have a very low absorbtion capacity for the utilization of aid. A country may be so underdeveloped that it lacks the infrastructure of transportation and communication to absorb large amounts of aid. Furthermore, a Third World country may lack trained personnel to administer aid programs. The aid policies must be very flexible to deal with short range emergencies and long term planning. One of the problems of Third World countries is that after planning their development programs there may be sudden fluctuations in income that will greatly disturb investment plans. A natural disaster can ruin a crop, or fluctuations in world commodity prices can lower the price of their raw materials. Although developed countries have devised various plans of compensation for such fluctuations, some people do not consider them satisfactory because they do not address the root problem.

The developing country's fundamental need is for aid and investment in technology and trained personnel to put programs into effect. The most effective aid would seem to be the training of local people as technicians and managers. People are needed who have not only skills but also the ability and the ambition to initiate development. The characteristics of the "entrepreneur" are ingenuity and drive to start up and run a new business. He must understand the role of savings and investment, the importance of supply and demand, and the need for flexibility. His talents are essential for development in a free-market and mixed economy.

To bypass the problem of a country's low absorption capacity due to a lack of infrastructure, one might put more emphasis on the Basic Human Needs approach. This policy requires less infrastructure and thus can reach the poorest people more quickly.

Developed countries that give aid wish to be involved in the administration of projects to ensure their effectiveness. However, they run the risk of being accused of involving themselves in the affairs of other countries. The Development Assistance Committee countries believe that it is the responsibility of the recipient country to organize local coordination. However, questions remain: should a developed country drastically alter its aid policies because, for example, it believes that too much of its aid finances corruption and enhances the living standards of the elites without helping the people who really need assistance? Or should a developed country strongly advise a developing nation to follow a certain development path, free market or centrally planned,

because it is the one the donor uses? One may note that the International Monetary Fund (IMF) links its loans to the implementation of economic policies it considers financially sound. Furthermore, government to government aid is based on strategic factors, such as a recipient country's usefulness to the donor's economic or military aims, not on real needs.

These are some of the realities that must be borne in mind in considering the extent and the effectiveness of aid by developed countries to the developing world.

ALTERNATIVE DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES: THE EXPERIENCE OF TAIWAN

(The writer of this article would prefer the use of the term "Republic of China." In deference to United Nations protocol we have used the term "Taiwan." Ed.)

Taiwan is one of the most prosperous societies in the Far East. It is thus worthwhile to study its development policies as a model for other planners. Taiwan is successful in terms of Gross National Product per capita ($900 in 1977) and a life expectancy of 68 years, and free and compulsory education for all children to the age of 14. The Physical Quality of Life Index (PQLI), as measured in 1976, gave Taiwan 87, in comparison to India, 41, the People's Republic of China, 71, and the Netherlands, 96. Judging from all facts, the people on Taiwan, and thus the children, enjoy much better conditions than their counterparts in most of the other developing countries. It is interesting to note that recently wall posters in Peking praised the economic development on the other side of the Taiwan straights.

How was this remarkable degree of prosperity achieved? Taiwan has a free market economy, but one in which the government is responsible for a lot of economic planning. Every four to six years a plan is announced. In the past these plans have focused on a program of massive industrialization and agrarian mechanization. Government policy is also aimed at attracting foreign capital, especially from the United States. Private initiative and ownership is stressed. This has led to a large influx of foreign investment from the developed world - which has had a beneficial impact on the economy. Foreign trade plays a very important role in the economy. The main exports, which are the result of a high growth rate in industry, have been electronic equipment and small manufactured goods. The role of textiles has been declining. In measuring Taiwan's amazing development record, the amounts of foreign investment and the favorable trade relations with other countries are very significant.

As a result of economic prosperity and priorities set in national planning, the number of schools has increased steadily. Other social institutions have not been neglected. By 1975 there were over one thousand public medical institutions, almost half of which were mobile medical units serving remote neighborhoods. The number of housing units have been increased, and particular emphasis has been placed on renovating old rural dwellings.

The government has given the people confidence by showing that much of the wealth generated in one sector of the economy will be used to encourage another. Rural areas have not been neglected, and basic services like housing, health, and education, have been raised to more than adequate standards for the large majority of the people. Thus, while basic needs have been met, Taiwan has also acquired a considerable industrial base that gives it a place in the world economic system. A healthy economy gives the people jobs and goods in which to spend their income. Development economists see Taiwan as a model, as a flexible approach to the problems of development, which uses a combination of free market and planned policies, and considerable investment from abroad.

MULTINATIONALS

Multinational corporations play an important part in development. They are companies with their headquarters in one of the developed countries, and with branches all over the world. Some are extremely large - for instance, Royal Dutch Shell's global sales in 1976 exceeded the GNP of Pakistan and was equal to that of South Africa. The larger companies deal in raw materials, heavy industry and sophisticated technology. Other companies, like Estee Lauder, are smaller and limit their sales to consumer goods.

Their impact on the development process varies. Corporations are in the business of making profit, of buying materials and labor cheaply and selling dear. Most corporations feel that this process brings more benefits than disadvantages to the developing world. Factories are built, people are trained in new technologies, jobs are created, profits are taxed and become part of the revenues of the host country. Who can find fault with that? Multinational corporations enable a country to do what it does not have the capital or expertise to do for itself. However, much criticism has been levied against these companies. Their profits can be concealed from tax auditors by being placed on the books of sister companies in other countries. They encourage little employment with their capital intensive industry, and discourage the more labor intensive indigenous industry from competing with them. The values and marketing techniques that they propagate have little relevance to the needs of a developing society.

Some multinational corporations would agree with this criticism, but would counter it with the question of, "Whose responsibility is it?" Most companies cannot function without the permission of the host country government; if their contribution to development is detrimental, is it their fault for offering investment, or the government's for accepting it? The United Nations has established a Centre on Transnational Corporations which has been working on a code of conduct for these companies. More profits must be returned to the host country in the form of taxes or investment. More local labor must be used. But perhaps the most difficult problem is the regulation of marketing and advertising. Should people in developing countries be encouraged to buy coke and lipstick? They may not be able to afford them, but the variety and change that they offer may have beneficial effects nevertheless. There are needs beyond basic needs, and most people would

like to satisfy them also.

The relationship of Multinational corporations to developing countries is changing, as these countries become less dependent on imported capital and technology. Multinational corporations may eventually contribute much to a new international economic order with their experience in global trade and the transcending of national boundaries.

LAW OF THE SEA

One of the most interesting and promising development strategies is that of the Law of the Sea. Through the Seabed Mining Authority and the Enterprise, it will be possible to distribute the wealth of the seabeds to all the nations of the world. At the bottom of the oceans lie countless millions of manganese nodules rich in valuable metals. Besides these nodules are the resources of oil and gas on the continental shelf, and the fish. The money that countries receive from the exploitation of these resources can be used for the betterment of their people. Even the landlocked and "geographically disadvantaged" countries will be able to share in the vast resources of the sea, through the fair distribution system that the Law of the Sea proposes. The governments of the underdeveloped countries could use the funds in place of the money that they would otherwise have had to borrow from the International Monetary Fund or the World Bank.

Unfortunately, no agreement was reached last spring at the Seventh Special Session in Geneva on the Informal Composite Negotiating Text (ICNT). The United Nations Conference on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS) is planning an eighth session in Geneva again this spring to try and clear up what is left of the disagreements over various items in the text. All of the items in the text are agreed upon by consensus and although this sometimes makes the negotiations more difficult, it can also ease them. In the process of consensus, no nation is registered as having voted for or against any proposals, so bargains can be struck with less publicity. However, before a country's representative is prepared to allow a proposal to become accepted, he must be quite sure that its wording is sufficiently flexible that should disagreement as to its implimentation arise later, his government would find justification for its case. It is a slow business to negotiate over the insertion of a word here and a highly significant comma there.

Those of us that became familiar with the problems of the Law of the Sea in last year's conference, were concerned with the slowdown in achieving agreement. The establishment of a Law of the Sea would be a hopeful sign for the creation of a new world order for sharing economic resources and finding the political will to do so.

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