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International Organizations and Their National Branches: The Case of  
UNICEF and the Slovak National Committee for UNICEF

(Master's Thesis)

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## **Author's Declaration**

Herewith I declare that I have written the Master's Thesis on my own and I have cited all sources.

Prague, 23 March 2017

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*Author's Signature*

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## Abstract

Since its establishment, UNICEF has been providing development and humanitarian aid in various regions of the world. Firstly, the aid was given to regions damaged by the Second World War. Nowadays, the aid is given to regions hit by natural disasters, wars, famine or diseases. In 2016, UNICEF celebrated 70<sup>th</sup> anniversary of its existence.

In order to maintain its worldwide scope of performance for such a long time, it created a top-bottom organizational structure, from which a top is represented by the headquarter composed of the Executive Board with member states, the Bureau and the Office of the Secretary of the Executive Board. The bottom is represented by field offices and the National Committees for UNICEF, which directly implement the programs and initiatives of UNICEF, and ensure fundraising activities. On the other hand, they provide the top with feedbacks about carried projects and actual situations from their countries. The linking part between the top and the bottom of the organizational structure are regional offices and external committees across UNICEF, such as the Division of Private Fundraising and Partnership (PFP). PFP also manages relationships between UNICEF and the National Committees for UNICEF, which are autonomous nongovernmental organizations. The relation between UNICEF and the National Committees for UNICEF offers a unique example of how an international organization can manage its work.

The case-study of the Slovak Committee for UNICEF portrayed more specifically how UNICEF coordinates its work within its structures and why it is a unique example. Furthermore, the case-study focused on answering if and to what extent are the activities of the Slovak Committee for UNICEF influenced by the national environment with its specifics and conditions. From another perspective, it focused on answering if the Slovak Committee can apply its own approaches toward its activities or it must follow general approaches settled by UNICEF.

## Keywords

International Organizations, Non-governmental Organizations, United Nations International Children's Fund, National Committees for UNICEF, Slovak Committee for UNICEF

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## List of Abbreviations

ACABQ	Advisory Committee on Administrative and Budgetary Questions
BFHI	Baby-Friendly Hospital Initiative
CCCs	Core Commitments for Children in Humanitarian Action
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women
C4D	Communication for Development
CFE	Child-Friendly Education
CFS	Child-Friendly School
CODAS	Country Office Development and Support
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
ECOSOC	Economic and Social Council
GMT	Global Management Team
IATI	International Aid Transparency Initiative
ICE	Integrated Corporate Engagement
ICNPO	International Classification of Non-profit Organizations
IGO	Intergovernmental Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
INGO	International Non-Governmental Organization
ISR	Inventory and Sales Report
ITC	International Trade Center
JSP	Joint Strategic Planning
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
PBA	Program Budget Allocation
PFP	Private Fundraising and Partnership
PSE	Private Sector Engagement
PSFR	Private Sector Fundraising
PTF	Strategic Plan Taskforce
RER	Revenue and Expenditure Report
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SMT	Senior Management Team
SPICE	Strategic Planning and Integrated Corporate Engagement
UN	United Nations
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNEP	United Nations Environment Program
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UN-Habitat	United Nations Human Settlements Program
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
UNRWA	United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees
UN Women	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and Empowerment of Women
WFP	World Food Program
WHO	World Health Organization



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## Introduction

The international organizations and especially those with nongovernmental character are a young phenomenon. Nevertheless, their influence and credibility have spread rapidly in recent years. Trying to alleviate social and environmental problems many of them became globally active by implementing their humanitarian and development aid into various regions in the world. The United Nations Children Fund (UNICEF) is one of the international organizations with well-established structures and tradition that is active world-wide. Originally, UNICEF was created in 1946, as a temporary relief agency to help children and mothers in China and European countries destroyed after the WWII. In 1953, UNICEF became a permanent organization of the United Nations, which supports UN's stated purpose, such as to maintain peace in the world. Moreover, it upholds its own "commitment to focus on and resolve issues identified as critical to the survival of children and mothers," (Morris, 2015, p. 12).

Nowadays, it can be also seen as "the driving force that helps build a world where rights of every child are realized," (About UNICEF, 2016). UNICEF is one of a few UN organizations and the only fund, which is fully financed through voluntary contributions. Therefore, it created a structural system of regional and country offices, which lead UNICEF's programs and fundraising activities. Moreover, the National Committees for UNICEF were established in countries with higher standard of living in order to increase public awareness about UNICEF and to ensure another stable financial source for UNICEF's programs. Currently, there are 34 National Committees.

The Slovak Committee for UNICEF was founded in 1993. From then on, it is not only active in fundraising or selling products, but also in managing educational programs aimed at increasing awareness of children rights in Slovakia. Also, the Slovak Committee supports the initiative of Baby-friendly Hospitals or it created a Child Safety Line in the country.

*Aim of the master thesis:* The aim of the thesis is to analyze relations within an international organization structures. It is achieved through answering how an international organization coordinates its work within its structures. The theoretical part answers an ontological question of what international and nongovernmental organizations are by taking into consideration various theoretical approaches. The empirical part of the thesis focuses on a specific case-study of UNICEF, as an international

organization, and the Slovak Committee for UNICEF, as its national branch. The thesis studies how and by which means UNICEF faces the challenges of the cooperation with the National Committees for UNICEF, which are autonomous nongovernmental organizations. Moreover, the empirical part examines if and to what extent are the activities of the Slovak Committee for UNICEF influenced by the national environment with its specifics and conditions. Specifically, it refers to a position of the national branches defined by the Slovak legislature. Also, it refers to a fundraising strategy of the Slovak Committee and what forms of fundraising it applies. Then, it studies if the Slovak Committee can apply its own approaches toward its activities or it must follow the general approaches settled by UNICEF. By analyzing this question, it can be also answered if the Committee deals with national issues, such as the quality of education at Slovak schools with focus on Roma children.

*Methodology and Methods:* In order to answer proposed research questions, the thesis uses a case study analysis. The case studies are helpful in shedding light not only on cause-effect relations but also on investigations of “a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context” (Yin, 1984, p. 23). More specifically, the single-case study of the Slovak Committee for UNICEF is used to provide a deeper understanding of how an international organization, such UNICEF, can practically implement its policies and manage its programs on national or local levels, and how those national branches are influenced by local specifics and conditions. The case study is based on an analysis of qualitative data collected from documents defining the cooperation between UNICEF and the National Committee for UNICEF, such as the Cooperation Agreement or the Statutes of the Slovak Committee for UNICEF. Furthermore, it is based on information, which were obtained from interviews with current or former employees of the Slovak Committee for UNICEF, such as an advocacy officer Erika Szabóová, a former coordinator of Child-Friendly Schools program Zuzana Čáčová, and the executive director Giorgio Dovigi.

*Structure of the master thesis:* The theoretical part of the thesis defines main concepts of the thesis, which are used as the basis for the understanding of the further analysis. It provides explanations of concepts, such as international organizations, nongovernmental organizations, their roles and types, and also how they are financed.

The second part of the thesis is descriptive and settles background for information in the empirical part. It provides general information about UNICEF, how and why it was founded, how it has developed since then, what goals and visions it fosters. Also, it focuses

on describing specific educational programs designed and led by UNICEF. It briefly explains current humanitarian and development programs conducted by UNICEF itself or in cooperation with other organizations. It also places UNICEF within the structures of the United Nations and portrays an approach of its management and administration.

Then, the empirical part of the thesis refers to the Slovak Committee for UNICEF. Firstly, it provides general information about the National Committees. Then, the analysis shows how the Committee is coordinated by UNICEF and what are its commitment to UNICEF. Moreover, it analyzes to what extent it must follow regulations settled by UNICEF and to what extent it can adapt to local/national conditions and specifics.

# 1 Theory and Definitions

In order to better understand provided analysis based on the case-study of the nongovernmental organization (the Slovak Committee for UNICEF) and its collaboration with international organization (UNICEF), it is important to learn about the theoretical framework referring to such organizations. Therefore, the theoretical chapter of the thesis offers definitions of used concepts and terms, and explanations of theories connected with international organizations and nongovernmental organizations.

## 1.1 Defining the Concept of International Organizations

Although the history of international organizations is still very young dating back only to the 19<sup>th</sup> Century, its impact has spread to all spheres of not only political, but also our everyday lives. Some scholars explain it as the consequence of the new technology development, which made globalization and governance exceeding national borders possible. The first ideas behind the multilateral cooperation of states were to maintain peace and stability. These ideas have evolved since then.

In general, international organizations “reflect the need that has been felt for certain matters to be permanently handled on a multilateral basis” (Lloyd & Berridge, 2012, p. 210) Subsequently, international organizations can be defined as purposive entities, which are “capable of monitoring activity and of reacting to it, and are deliberately set up and designed by states. They are bureaucratic organizations, with explicit rules and specific assignments of rules to individuals and groups.” (Keohane, 1989, p. 4)

However, it is important to recognize the correct meaning of the term ‘international organization’ in this context because it cannot be longer understood only as a synonym for the term ‘intergovernmental organization’. “Instead the term has come to include activities between individuals and groups in one state and individuals and groups in another state, as well as intergovernmental relations” (Archer, 2015, p. 16). International organizations can be defined as non-state or transnational actors in international relations, and can be further divided into intergovernmental (IGOs) and nongovernmental (NGOs) organizations. Intergovernmental organization is “an organization whose members are national governments” (Goldstein & Pevehouse, 2013, p. 15). More deeply

defined, it is “an association of states deriving its organizational character from its permanence, its quasi-governmental organs, and its employment of international civil servants” (Lloyd & Berridge, 2012, p. 209). On the other hand, nongovernmental organization is “a private non-profit-making body which operates across frontiers” (Lloyd & Berridge, 2012, p. 262). Although NGOs are not equal to IGOs, they are being recognized by states and IGOs, such as the United Nations, as legitimate actors. “IGOs and INGOs have three characteristics in common: they are based on a covenant (a text drafted by the founders which defines the objectives and the organization’s design), a permanent secretariat performing ongoing tasks and (in the case of IGOs) three or more member states, or (in the case of INGOs) member NGOs from three or more states” (Reinalda, 2009, p. 5).

From another perspective, it is important to differentiate the term ‘organization’ from a term ‘institution’. These two terms are perceived differently by international relations scholars. In this context, organizations also represent a form of the institution of the international relations. As Inis Claude stated, “an international organization is a process; international organizations are representative aspects of the phase of that process which has been reached at a given time” (Claude in Archer, 2015, p. 17).

On the other hand, Maurice Duverger explained the term institution as “the collective forms or basic structures of social organization as established by law or by human tradition” (Archer, 2015, p. 17). Similar with Duverger’s explanation, Robert O. Keohane defined institutions as “persistent and connected sets of rules (formal and informal) that prescribe behavioral roles, constrain activity, and shape expectations” (1989, p. 3). Based on his definition, Keohane further distinguished three main types of international institutions, such as formal intergovernmental or cross-national nongovernmental organizations, international regimes and conventions (1989, pp. 3-4). Jan Karlas simplified this division into international organizations, regimes and norms (2007, p. 67).

In contrary to international organizations, international regimes are limited to a specific area of political international interactions and they do not have bureaucratic structures and systems (Karlas, 2007, p. 68). Stephen D. Krasner defined regimes as “sets of implicit or explicit principles, norms, rules and decision-making procedures around which actors’ expectations converge in a given area of international relations” (Krasner, 1982, p. 186). Examples of international regimes are the international monetary regimes,

such as the Bretton Woods system, the Law of Sea regime or the limited arms control regimes, such as between the USA and the former USSR. The third type of the international institution, conventions or norms, can be seen as an informal institution. Conventions represent “standards of appropriate actions for actors with certain identities” (Karlas, 2015, p. 35). Moreover, conventions do not only coordinate actors’ behavior, but they also affect their incentives. In contrary international regimes, which are seen as “more specific contractual solutions,” conventions arise from implicit rules and understandings (Keohane, 1989, p. 4). However, international organizations and regimes would be hardly possible without conventions or norms that are prerequisites for successful negotiations.

International organizations as a form of the formal institution have evolved for various reasons, mainly to fulfill certain goals such as to solve collective problems which states, groups or individuals themselves are not capable of solving. First international organizations were mainly aimed to alleviate security dilemma and to improve economic relations among countries. Nowadays, both IGOs and NGOs are also aiming to solve broader collective problems or issues, such as saving environment with global warming, maintaining world cultural heritage, fighting terrorism, diseases or starvation, dealing with gender, religious or ethnic equality, etc. More specific roles of international organizations depend on the scope of their performance, which can have not only a global purpose and follow multiple missions, but also can be limited to specific geographic areas and missions (Ciorei & Marcu, 2013, p. 146). Also, consideration from various perspectives can differentiate their main roles. In the case of IGOs, they can serve as a tool by which states pursue their dominance and interests, or they can serve as a platform or an actor by which states pursue their mutual cooperation based on reciprocity or even common identity (Karlas, 2015, p. 87).

### **1.1.1 International Organizations in the Theories of International Relations**

Although the most accepted international relation theories do not explicitly focus on the international organizations as defined above and their research is more concerned about international institutions in general as a sphere of interaction among states and other actors, the International Relations scholars have accepted the existence of increasing number of international organizations influencing and influenced by the states

since the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Therefore, they started to implement the concept of international organizations, referring mostly only to IGOs, into their vocabularies and tries to explain the reasons for their emergence, their roles within the international system or their functioning.

However, various theories and approaches concerning with international relations perceive international organizations and their roles differently. Their understanding and definition of international organizations is based on their fundamental premises, which also places international organizations in significantly different positions of their concerns and studies.

The main premise of the **realist school of thoughts** is based on the anarchical understanding of the international environment without the supreme authority where states are the only dominant actors and which selfishly pursue their own interests by using their power capabilities. From the realist perspective, international organizations, referring only to IGOs, are seen as barely relevant in creating or influencing the international system and they are regarded only as “forums where governments representing states meets” (Reinalda, 2009, p. 5). Subsequently, the main role of the IGOs is to serve as a tool for the most powerful states by which the principle of dominance is applied. It means that the main incentive for creating the IGOs is driven by great powers, which then use the IGOs as a tool for dominance over other states in order to defend or foster their power in the international system (Karlás, 2015, pp. 60-64). Realism, specifically structural realism, thus see the institutions only as mirroring variable of the balance of power, the distribution of power in the system, defined by the polarity in the system. “The balance of power is the independent variable that explains war, institutions are merely an intervening variable in the process” (Mearsheimer, 1995, p.13). This means, as Jan Karlás added, that IGOs have only a regulative influence over states’ activities (2007, p. 70). Based on the realist understanding of the international institutions, we can come to a conclusion that the existence of the institutions is possible only in the stable international system, where the hegemonic balance of power is maintained. However, the theory of hegemonic stability does not explicitly concern with the international institutions and this assumption is only derived from its main premises. Nevertheless, scholars studying the theory of hegemonic stability accept that hegemony creates a certain international order, which creates a background for the existence of international institutions (Karlás, 2015, p. 62).



**Liberalism**, such as realism, is found on the premise of rationality. However, the rationality in liberalism is reached by selected alternatives based on certain preferences of actors, which creates their reciprocity rather than dominance in the international system. Contrary to realism, liberalism believe in possibility of mutual cooperation among states and subsequent solving of collective action problems. States are creating order in anarchy by establishing international institutions in order to overcome not only the security dilemma, but also to improve their economic and political positions both internationally and domestically. In this context, international institutions are a vital variable promoting reciprocity of states and fostering interdependence among them. Neoliberal institutionalism as a 'neo' or 'reformed' form of liberalism specifically focuses on international institutions in its research. Based on its "faith in the ability of human beings to obtain progressively better collective outcomes that promote freedom, peace, prosperity, and justice on a global scale," the main subject of liberal institutional analysis is whether and how international institutions are able to mitigate "the negative impact of anarchy on international collective actions" and how they can be improved (Sterling-Folker as cited in Dunne, Kurki & Smith, 2013, p. 115). It also assumes that international organizations have not only regulative, but also constitutive aspects over involved states. As Robert O. Keohane (1989) stated, "institutions may also affect the understanding that leaders of states have of the roles they should play and their assumptions about other's motivations and perceived self-interests. International institutions help define how interests are defined and how actions are interpreted. Meanings are communicated by general conventions such those reflecting the principle of reciprocity and by more specific conventions, such as those that indicate what is meant in a diplomatic communiqué by a full and frank exchange of views" (p. 6).

Contrary to realism and liberalism, **constructivism**, as a social theory, focuses on how social interactions shape and create interests, preferences and even identities. The main premise of constructivists is that states or individual interests are not given but socially constructed based on their identities, and that the social systems, such as international anarchy, is created by this social reality. Wendt (1992) argued that "self-help and power politics do not follow either logically or causally from anarchy and that if today we find ourselves in a self-help world, this is due to process, not structure. There is no 'logic' of anarchy apart from the practices that create and instantiate one structure of identities and interests rather than another; structure has no existence of causal powers

apart from process. Self-help and power politics are institutions, not essential features of anarchy. Anarchy is what states make of it" (p. 395). Moreover, Wendt (1987) claimed that "the causal powers of the state... are conferred upon it by the domestic and international social structures by virtue of which it is a state in the first place" (p. 360). Thus, institutions are not results of actors' interests, but they represent a required condition for existence of such interests and identities. Furthermore, the relationship between institutions and identities is mutually influential, when actors' identities and institutions are mutually constitutive. According to constructivism, international organizations represent one of the main actors in constructing the social reality. It is because they encompass not only shared goals or decision procedures, but also shared ideas that influence identities, interests or action of member states (Karlson, 2007, p. 76).

### 1.1.2 Theoretical Framework of International Organizations

**Idealism**, as a traditional international relations theory, influenced later IR theories in the understanding of international organizations. It developed after the First World War in order to propose a solution for the collective security, which was damaged by the war. The main premise of idealism is based on the necessity of international institution required to maintain the peace. Idealists claim that wars can be only avoided through "intensive political efforts and institutionalization of world politics" (Karlson, 2015, p. 71). It could be done by using the example of state political systems in which national governments ensure order and stability. It means that a war could be prevented by establishing a global organization that would deal with collective security. The US President Woodrow Wilson in his Fourteen Points speech proposed an establishment of such an organization. "A general association of nations must be formed under specific covenants for the purpose of affording mutual guarantees of political independence and territorial integrity to great and small states alike" (Wilson, 1918). In 1919, the organization called the League of Nations was created as a consequence of such visions.

Another theory referring to international organizations is **functionalism**. Functionalism, such as idealism, claims that international organizations are vital and even necessary for well-functioning of states, both internally and externally. It claims that states alone are not capable of dealing with conflicts on the one hand, and rising interdependency among states on the other hand. David Mitrany laid the foundations of

functionalism in his work 'A Working Peace System' in 1943. G. E. Rainey summarizes the thoughts of David Mitrany and pointed out that "an interdependent community of nations can be built by strands woven together through cooperation on economic and technical levels" (Rainey, 1967, p. 690). 'An interdependent community of can be reached by establishing specific international organizations, which focus on a specific collective problem. By dividing the collective problems into various organizations, an organization can effectively solve actual tasks and challenges related to its scope of performance and responsibilities. Moreover, the organizations need to be managed by technical experts, and not by political elites. Furthermore, these organizations would eventually lead to a global governance that would decrease the possibility of wars to the minimum (Karlas, 2015, pp. 71-72). The practical example of functionalism is the European Union, which was built upon the visions of Jean Monnet and Robert Schuman. They fostered the idea of creating economic linkages that would lead to close political cooperation, even a union of member states, and that would prevent future wars in Europe.

**Principal-agent theory** is derived from the new institutionalism in rational choice theory and can be applied in economics, as well as in politics and international relations (Pollack, 1997, p.100). From the perspective of international organizations, it is a matter of delegation between states and organizations with their structures. "Delegation is a conditional grant of authority from a principal to an agent that empowers the latter to act on behalf of the former. This grant of authority is limited in time or scope and must be revocable by the principal. Principals and agents are mutually constitutive" (Hawkins, Lake, Nielson & Tierney, 2006, p. 7). The main reason for such a delegation is that states, as principals, face problems of cooperation with other states, which restrain successful solving of collective action problems or successful state development. Therefore, they provide international organizations, as agents, with certain competencies. In this context, international organizations are also seen as actors used by states for reducing their costs, which would be otherwise expended for solving the problems (Karlas, 2015, p. 72). "All delegation is premised upon the division of labor and gains from specialization. These gains interact with all other benefits from delegation. We identify five additional benefits that may induce states to delegate to an IO: managing policy externalities, facilitating collective decision-making, resolving disputes, enhancing credibility, and creating policy bias. As the benefits from delegation increase, all else constant, we predict that states will be more likely to delegate authority to IOs" (Hawkins et al., 2006, p. 13).

International organizations, as agents with a specifically granted authority, gained certain amount of autonomy from their principals. Applied technocratic practices creates well established structures and administration, what lead to a creation of international organizations with a bureaucratic culture. **The approach dealing with bureaucratic culture** is derived from the premises of constructivism. From this perception, “bureaucracy is a distinctive social form of authority with its own internal logic and behavioral proclivities. It is because of their authority that bureaucracies have autonomy and the ability to change the world around them. Bureaucracies exercise power in the world through their ability to make impersonal rules. They then use these rules not only to regulate but also to constitute and construct the social world” (Barnett & Finnermore, 2004, p. 3). Bureaucracies of international organizations can construct the social reality by classifying of the world, diffusing of norms, or fixing of meaning (Karlas, 2015, p. 81). However, the bureaucratic autonomy of international organizations can escalate into their dysfunctional actions, which can be in contradiction with the visions of the principals and can restrain or even worsen dealt situations. Institutionalized bureaucratic culture of international organizations helps them to maintain the autonomy from their principals, which can be abused within the internal structures of the organizations for their own benefits. This can create the so-called principal-agent problem.

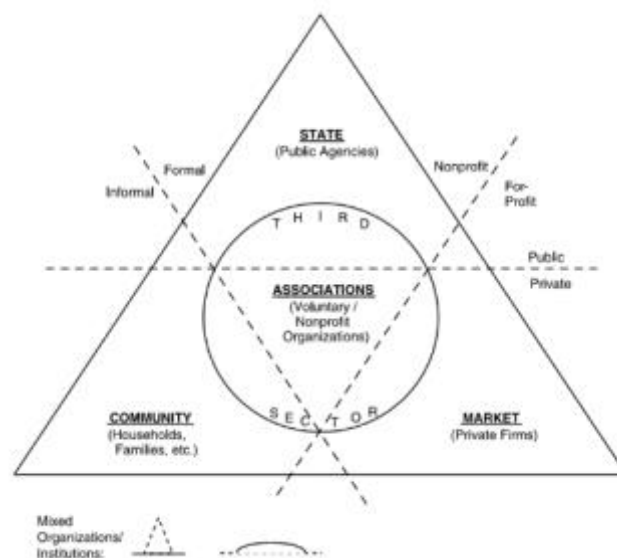
## **1.2 Non-Governmental Organizations, Voluntary Organizations, and Non-Profit Organizations**

The terms non-governmental organization, voluntary organization or non-profit organization are usually understood and used as synonyms. However, we can distinguish some differences between these terms. Firstly, “NGOs are private, non-profit, professional organizations, with a distinctive legal character, concerned with public welfare goals” (Clarke, 1998, pp. 36-37). Similarly, a voluntary organization is “an organization established and governed by a group of private citizens for a stated philanthropic purpose, and supported by voluntary individual contributions. The broader usage, ‘non-profit organization’, encompasses most of the voluntary organizations” (OECD, 1988, p. 14). These definitions show that terms non-governmental and voluntary organizations can be both defined as the non-profit organizations. Therefore, the most notable

difference can be seen in defining a term non-profit organization. It shares characteristics with a NGO, except the form of ownership. Non-profit organizations can be both private and public – owned by a state, while NGOs or voluntary organizations are always private. Simply, all NGOs or voluntary organizations are also non-profit organizations, but not all non-profit organizations are NGOs.

From the perspective of a public-private division, Victor A. Pestoff (2009) used a figure of a triangle in order to better portrait a division of national economy into various sectors, and also into private - public, nonprofit – for-profit, and formal - informal spheres (p. 9).

**Figure 1: Division of the Third Sector in the Welfare Triangle.**



Source: Pestoff, 2009, p. 9

From Pestoff's triangle of the national economy division, several characteristics of organizations can be derived. In the state or government sector, organizations are defined as public, formal and non-profit. The market or business sector contains profit-seeking, formal and private organizations. In the third or non-governmental sector, organizations are non-profit, formal and private. Pestoff also included a forth sector – community, which contains households or families, and which is always non-profit, informal and private (Rektořík, 2010, p. 21). Consequently, "one useful way of approaching the problem of labelling NGOs is to see them as part of what has been called the 'third sector'. This is the idea that the world of institutions can be divided three ways: the first sector of

government, the second sector of for-profit business and a third group of organizations that do not easily fit into either category: a 'third sector' variously identified by different observers as 'not-for-profit', voluntary or 'non-governmental' in character" (Lewis & Kanji, 2009, p. 8).

The existence of NGOs, as the third sector, have several reasons. One of them is philanthropy. This term comes from a Greek word 'philanthropos' and means 'the love of humanity.' People altruistically foster a well-being of society by creating and voluntarily participating in NGOs, which aim to improve the lives of others or to solve social problems (Rektořík, 2010, p. 26). Also, as Morris-Suzuki notes, "NGOs may pursue change, but they can equally work to maintain existing social and political systems" (Morris-Suzuki in Lewis & Kanji, 2009, p. 4).

Another reason comes from the principle of self-governance of society. The principle represents "an ability of a certain community of people living and cooperating in a defined area to organize and mutually coordinate its actions" (Rektořík, 2010, p. 23). It means that people are participating in public politics, what is allowed by a freedom of association in a civil society. The freedom of association is one of the main rights in a vital democratic state. However, state's public agencies significantly influence and limit a scope of performance of NGOs, although they are not a part of the third sector. On the one hand, the state motivates people to create NGOs in order to support the development of a civil society. On the other hand, well-functioning NGOs can gain enough power to significantly influence public politics, what can be in contrary with state's interests. Nevertheless, "NGOs need funds from the public budgets for its activities and the state needs NGOs for their creativity and flexibility in solving of social problems" (Rektořík, 2010, p. 27).

Each state has its own legislation governing the establishment and the activity of NGOs. For instance, the legislation of the Slovak Republic does not provide the comprehensive law on NGOs or non-profit organizations but it is composed of several legal regulations, such as:

- the Civil Code, which defines private interest groups or associations;
- the Commercial Code, which defines companies established for other reasons than doing business;
- general laws, which define non-profit organizations according to certain characteristics, such as the Law on Association of Citizens, the Law on Charitable Foundations, the Law on the Non-profit Organizations Providing Community

Services, the Law on the Freedom of Religion and the Status of the Churches and Religious Societies, the Law on the Association of Political Parties and Political Movements, the Law on the conditions of organizations activities with international character etc.;

- special laws, which establish professional or nonprofessional chambers, unions, and associations or the US Committee on Human Rights (Stejskal, Kuvíková & Maťátková, 2012, pp. 85-86).

### 1.2.1 Theoretical framework of the Third Sector and NGOs

**Government and Market Failure Theory** tries to explain the economic role of non-profit organizations in both the first and third sector. The market failure refers to an inability of a market to efficiently supply goods, which are unable to follow the objective market pricing mechanism. Therefore, a state must intervene into the economy by producing those goods in order to compensate the market failure. However, the state also tends to fail in sufficiently producing those goods and needs of citizens remain unsatisfied. Thus, NGOs replace the role of the market and the state to satisfy needs of a certain people by producing those goods (Stejskal et al., 2012, pp. 28-29). This claim is derived from the concept of **the public goods theory**, which was firstly elaborated by Burton A. Weisbrod. He suggested that “nonprofits serve as private producers of public goods. Governmental entities will tend to provide public goods only at the level that satisfies the median vote; consequently, there will be some residual unsatisfied demand for public goods among those individuals whose taste for such goods is greater than the median. Nonprofit organizations arise to meet this residual demand by providing public goods in amounts supplemental to those provided by government” (as cited in Hansmann, 1987, p. 28-29). Based on the argument of the median voter, it can be assumed that NGOs are mostly attractive in societies with diverse preferences and heterogeneous population coming from various socioeconomic or demographic groups.

Another theory referring to the non-profit organizations is **the contract failure theory**, also recognized as **the informational asymmetry theory**. It claims that “the main problem of the market and state failure is the problem of the informational asymmetry restraining reaching of optimal contracts” (Rektořík, 2010, p. 29). The theory is based on the assumption of trustworthiness toward the non-profit organizations. The

non-profit organizations are generally seen as fair players, which aim to improve a well-being of citizens, and thus would not mislead consumers by wrong information about their goods and services in order to maximize their profits.

According to **the welfare state theory**, NGOs and generally the whole third sector are considered only as a supplementary variable, which role will be eventually dismissed as the responsibility of the state will increase and the performance of the market will improve. This theory portrays NGOs only as temporary players, which main function is to compensate goods and services otherwise provided by the state or the market (Stejskal et al., 2012, p. 35).

**The interdependence theory** studies the relationship between the third sector and the state. The theory assumes that this relationship is reciprocal and it cannot be seen only from the perspective of 'NGOs correcting the state failure'. "All economic subjects are limited by their nature, legislature, traditional position in society, etc." (Rektořík, 2010, p. 32). Thus, their relationships are not only complementary, but also competitive and cooperative. The main presumption of the theory is based on the claim that the relationship between the state and NGOs is mutually cooperative because of the limited possibilities of NGOs, known as 'the voluntary failure'. Lester M. Salamon (1987) defined four failures concerning the third sector, such as philanthropy insufficiency, philanthropic paternalism, philanthropic amateurism and philanthropic particularism. "In short, for all its strengths, the voluntary sector has a number of inherent weaknesses as a mechanism for responding to the human-service needs of an advanced industrial society. It is limited in its ability to generate an adequate level of resources, is vulnerable to particularism and the favoritism of the wealthy, is prone to self-defeating paternalism, and has at times been associated with amateur, as opposed to professional, forms of care" (p. 42). Therefore, the state tries to correct the voluntary failures.

### **1.2.2 The Role of NGOs**

The general mission of NGOs, as it was provided in the definition, is to support or protect the public and individual welfare, which a state cannot or fails to fulfill. "NGOs tend to be best known for undertaking one or other of these two main forms of activity: the delivery of basic services to people in need, and organizing policy advocacy and public



campaigns for change... At the same time, NGOs have also become active in a wide range of other more specialized roles such as emergency response, democracy building, conflict resolution, human rights work, cultural preservation, environmental activism, policy analysis, research and information provision” (Lewis & Kanji, 2009, p. 1).

Many of them transformed or enlarged their original goals by extending their scope of performance. For instance, “what makes NGOs special can best be gathered by looking at their origins: many did not start as development agencies at all. They were often drawn to development by first providing relief in emergency situations, and by coming to recognize that in developing countries relief was not enough” (OECD, 1988, p. 14).

NGOs, as the third sector, fulfill various functions beneficial for a community and a state. As in the case of the international organizations, NGOs contribute to reducing of state’s spending. Although the state has to financially support many NGOs, they are providing services or producing goods instead of the state. Also, NGOs extend a labor supply, and thus contribute to decreasing of disproportionate number of employees in the public sector (Stejskal et al., 2012, p. 23).

Four more functions of the third sector – NGOs can be distinguished, such as:

- the economic function: NGOs are seen as consumers, but also as providers of services and producers of goods that are needed in a society but are not profitable for the business sector. They contribute to a creation of job opportunities in all sectors and support the development of human potential. Also, NGOs contribute to a creation of conditions for steady growth of not only the national, but also the world economy.
- the social function: NGOs provide services and produce goods that are allocated to those members of a community, which cannot objectively afford them. Also, NGOs meet a need of association or active participation in a certain organization and in social life.
- the political function: NGOs contribute to a democratic development of a society. They create an opportunity to influence a public opinion and politics as such. Also, NGOs contribute to solving or moderation of global problems. Furthermore, they advocate and protect human rights, which are commonly abused by the society.
- the ethical function – NGOs, based on philanthropy and the non-profit character, support positive values in the society (Tetřevová, 2003, p. 73; Stejskal et al., 2012, p. 22).

### 1.2.3 Types of Non-Governmental Organizations

Depending on the goals, functions or fields of activity, NGOs can be distinguished according to various categories. Based on their global character, NGOs can be divided into two types, such as public-serving and member-serving organizations. The mission of public-serving organizations is to help all people involved in their sphere of performance, such as the International Committee of the Red Cross with its national branches. The member-serving organizations serve only to a limited number of people, who needs to be members of an organization, such as sport clubs. Also, NGOs can be divided into two types according to their prevailing activity, such as organizations providing an advocacy and organizations delivering services. Advocacy organizations protect and support interests and rights of the whole society or various groups. Organizations providing services aims to provide various services needed in a certain community (Tetřevová, 2003, p. 30).

More specifically, NGOs can be classified based on their scope of performance. For instance, “in the developing world, NGOs include philanthropic foundations, church development agencies, academic think-tanks and other organizations focusing on issues such as human rights, gender, health, agricultural development, social welfare, the environment, and indigenous peoples” (Clarke, 1998, pp. 36-37). The International Classification of Non-profit Organizations (ICNPO) is the system of classification recommended by the United Nations in the Handbook on Non-profit Institutions in the System of National Account. The classification contains 12 main groups and several subgroups. NGOs as a part of non-profit organizations can be also classified based on this division. However, the ICNPO only simplifies the division of non-profit organizations into specified groups for the purposes of national accounting. The real performance of NGOs can contain various groups settled by the ICNPO.

**Table 1: The Classification of Non-profit Organizations**

Groups	Subgroups
1. Culture and recreation	1 100 Culture and arts 1 200 Sports 1 300 Other recreation and social clubs
2. Education and research	2 100 Primary and secondary education 2 200 Higher education 2 300 Other education 2 400 Research

3. Health	3 100 Hospitals and rehabilitation 3 200 Nursing homes 3 300 Mental health and crisis intervention 3 400 Other health services
4. Social services	4 100 Social services 4 200 Emergency and relief 4 300 Income support and maintenance
5. Environment	5 100 Environment 5 200 Anima protection
6. Development and housing	6 100 Economic, social and community development 6 200 Housing 6 200 Employment and training
7. Law, advocacy and politics	7 100 Civic and advocacy organizations 7 200 Law and legal services 7 300 Political organizations
8. Philanthropic intermediaries and voluntarism promotion	8 100 Grant-making foundations 8 200 Other philanthropic intermediaries and voluntarism promotion
9. International	9 100 International Activities
10. Religion	10 100 Religious congregations and associations
11. Business and professional associations, unions	11 100 Business associations 11 200 Professional associations 11 300 Labor union
12. Not elsewhere classifies	12 100 Not elsewhere classified

Source: United Nations (2003). *Handbook on Non-Profit Institutions in the System of National Accounts*. Retrieved from: [http://unstats.un.org/unsd/publication/seriesf/seriesf\\_91e.pdf](http://unstats.un.org/unsd/publication/seriesf/seriesf_91e.pdf)

Although there is an absence of a clear definition for the non-profit organization in the Slovak legislation, several types of non-profit organizations are officially recognized. Firstly, non-profit organizations are divided into the public and private sectors. The organizations in the public or state sector are managed by towns, associations of municipalities, regions or the state through budget organizations. Some types of the public organizations in Slovakia are state companies; contributory organizations and administrative branches of the towns, regions and state; public research institutions; and public universities (Stejskal et al., 2012, p. 84). Public universities can also be an example of organizations, which are established by law but are self-governed. Therefore, such organizations converge the first and the third sector. Victor A. Pestoff called these organizations mixed or border organizations (Stejskal et al., 2012, pp. 53-54). The third private sector contains NGOs, which can be divided into five types, such as civic associations, non-profit organization providing community services, religious organizations, charities and foundations, and non-investment funds (Stejskal et al., 2012,

p. 84). For example, a civic association represent the most numerous legal form of NGOs in the Slovak Republic. It is established as a legal person and its members can be both natural and legal persons. In the Slovak legal system, a civic association is defined by the Law on the Association of Citizens. A non-profit organization providing community services is also defined as a legal person, which provides clearly specified services and equal conditions for all involved people. It is allowed to make a profit but this profit can be used only for future activities in a community service, and thus it cannot be divided among its members or employees.

#### **1.2.4 Financing of NGOs**

As mentioned earlier, NGO is “an independent organization that is neither run by government nor driven by the profit motive like private sector business. Yet there are some NGOs that receive high levels of government funding and possess some of the characteristics of bureaucracies, while others can resemble highly professionalized private organizations with strongly corporate identities” (Lewis & Kanji, 2009, p. 2). Therefore, various NGOs may have different sources of their financing, which can be divided into three groups, such as own/internal sources, external sources and potential sources (Stejskal et al, 2012, p. 105).

Own sources of financing represent self-financing of an organization that can be reached by membership fees or by incomes from main and complementary business activities. NGO can freely decide about the use of such financial sources because they are not binded to external entities. Own financial sources are seen as stable and predictable, what makes future activities of NGOs and their decisions more effective. On the other hand, external financial sources can be obtained only for a certain period of time and they must be returned to its provider, such as banks. Thus, these financial sources must be carefully used by NGOs, which are obliged to repay borrowed money, in most cases also with interests. Therefore, many NGOs rely on potential financial sources, which are non-refundable, and are provided based on projects or applications and commonly aimed for specific purposes. Potential sources may be obtained from public institutions, private companies and organizations or individuals. For instance, potential financial sources are grants from international organizations, direct and indirect subsidies from the state

budget, grants from municipalities, grants from foundations and endowments funds, corporate donations, and individual donations. In Slovakia, a certain form of individual donations to NGOs is done through the tax assignation, when taxpayers can decide about the allocation of 2 % of their income tax to various NGOs. However, NGOs cannot rely only on one specific potential source and need to search for additional potential or other financial sources (Stejskal et al., 2012, pp. 105-113).

The multi-source financing is one of the principles of NGOs' financing that ensures stable incomes for their activities. Other principles are the self-financing and fundraising. Self-financing refers to above explained own/internal sources. Fundraising is a unique principle that can be found only in the third non-profit sector because of its philanthropic character. Also, the non-profit character is a principle that differentiate NGOs from the business sector. Furthermore, NGOs function on a principle of tax exemption, or tax credit and tax benefits for donors (Stejskal et al., 2012, pp. 94-99). "Financing of non-profit organizations is in many areas unique and innovative, it links economic, financial, social and marketing elements" (Stejskal et al., 2012, p. 94).

## **2 The United Nations Children's Fund**

Following chapter provides information about the structure, work and programs, vision and aims of the United Nations Children's Fund. UNICEF, as an international organization with numerous officers and volunteers, has established multilevel structures in order to maintain a world-wide scope of performance. Moreover, UNICEF, as a part of the UN family, is obliged to follow the rules of procedures settled by the United Nations General Assembly. Although UNICEF claims to be apolitical with extensive involvement of volunteers, its roots with the UN define UNICEF as an international intergovernmental organization. However, its national branches, called the National Committees, are established as autonomous nongovernmental organizations.

### **2.1 The United Nations, Its Programs and Funds**

The United Nations (UN) is the only universal international organizations that tries to cover various areas of social, economic, political and security collective problems. Its foundation was based on the similar idealist visions as in the case of the League of Nations. After the Second World War, countries once again realized the need for an organization that would create a platform for mutual communication, mainly in the security context. Thus, the United Nations was founded based on the Charter of the United Nations that was signed at the United Nations Conference on International Organization in San Francisco on 26 June 1945, and came into force on 24 October 1945 (Charter of the United Nations, n. d.). Contrary to the League of Nations, the UN had support of all great powers of that time and was able to create its own bodies and departments. Originally, the UN was created by 51 member states (About the UN, n. d.). Currently, it has 193 member states. According to the Chapter 1 of the Charter, the main purposes of the UN are “(1) to maintain international peace and security, (2) to develop friendly relations among nation based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples, (3) to achieve international cooperation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural, or humanitarian character, (4) to be a center for harmonizing the actions of nations in attainment of these common ends” (Charter of the United Nations, n. d.). The

Charter proposes that along to security purposes of the UN, which are performed in the forms of crisis management, peacemaking, peacekeeping, and peace enforcement missions, the UN focuses also on economic development, social development, humanitarian relief, protection of the human rights, and protection of the environment (Karlas, 2015, p. 110).

Structurally, the main organs of the UN are the General Assembly, the Secretariat, the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council, the Trusteeship Council, and the International Court of Justice. The General Assembly is “the main deliberative, policymaking and representative organ of the UN,” where all member states are represented by participating at the annual General Assembly session that takes place in New York in September (Main Organs, n. d.). The Secretariat represents administrative part of the UN. The Secretariat “comprises the Secretary-General and tens of thousands of international UN staff members who carry out the day-to-day work of the UN as mandated by the General Assembly and the Organization’s other principal organs” (Main Organs, n. d.). The Security Council “has primary responsibility, under the UN Charter, for maintenance of international peace and security” (Main Organs, n. d.). It has 5 permanent members with the power of veto and 10 non-permanent members, from which all have one vote. The Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), which 54 members are elected every three years by the General Assembly, is responsible for a coordination and an implementation of development programs and autonomous agencies. Among the special agencies of the UN, which are autonomous international organizations, are for instance the UN Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the World Health Organization (WHO), the World Bank or International Monetary Fund (IMF) (Goldstein & Pevehouse, 2013, pp. 237-238). The Trusteeship Council suspended its operations in 1994 after the last trust territory’s independence, which had been places under the administration of seven member states that prepared the territories for self-governance. Currently, it would meet only by the request of its President, the General Assembly or the Security Council (Main Organs, n. d.). The International Court of Justice or the World Court is a judicial organ of the UN. “The Court’s role is to settle, in accordance with international law, legal disputes submitted to it by States and to give advisory opinions on legal questions referred to it by authorized United Nations organs and specialized agencies” (Main Organs, n. d.).

The UN Programs and Funds affiliate with the UN main visions but have their own memberships, budgets and managements. Since the foundation of the UN, several programs and fund have been created.

**Table 2: Programs and Funds of the UN**

Area of Performance	Program/Fund and the year of establishment	
Economic development	UNCTAD	The United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, 1964
	UNDP	The United Nations Development Program, 1965
	ITC	International Trade Center, 1968
Social development	UNICEF	The United Nations Children's Fund, 1946
	WFP	The World Food Program, 1963
	UNFPA	The United Nations Population Fund, 1972
	UN-Habitat	The United Nations Human Settlements Program, 1978
	UNODC	The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 1997
	UN Women	The United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women, 2010
Humanitarian Relief	UNHCR	The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, 1949
	UNRWA	The United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees, 1950
Environment	UNEP	The United Nations Environment Program, 1972

Source: Karlas, 2015, p. 109; Programs and Funds, in *United Nations*, retrieved from <http://www.un.org/en/sections/about-un/funds-programmes-specialized-agencies-and-others/index.html>

## 2.2 UNICEF

After the Second World War, the recognition for a need of international organizations dealing not only with security questions was accepted by many states worldwide. The disastrous consequences of the war led to the establishment of an International Children's Emergency Fund by the UN General Assembly Resolution 57 of 11 December 1946, which continued the work of the United Nations Relief and



Rehabilitation Administration. The oldest fund of the UN was established in accordance with Article 55 of the UN Charter that calls for:

- a. higher standards of living, full employment, and conditions of economic and social progress and development;
- b. solutions of international economic, social, health, and related problems; and international cultural and educational cooperation;
- c. universal respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion.

(Charter of the United Nations, n. d.).

According to the General Assembly Resolution 57, the fund was to be utilized and administered:

- a. for the benefit of children and adolescents of countries which were victims of aggression and in order to assist in their rehabilitation;
- b. for the benefit of children and adolescents of countries at present receiving assistance from the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration;
- c. for child health purposes generally, giving high priority to the children of countries victims of aggression (Establishment of an International Children's Emergency Fund – A/RES/57(I), 1946).

Initially, the fund was designed for a limited period of time, settled for three years. However, at the 314<sup>th</sup> plenary meeting of the General Assembly, the Resolution 417 of December 1950 was adopted and recognized “the necessity for continued action to relieve the suffering of children, particularly in underdeveloped countries and countries that have been subjected to the devastation of war and to other calamities” (Continuing Needs of Children: United Nations Children's Emergency Fund – A/RES/417(V), 1950). Thus, the mandate of the fund was extended for another three years. Enlarging activities of the fund and increasing contributions of national governments and individuals resulted in the establishment of permanent fund, called the United Nation's Children Fund - UNICEF. The General Assembly Resolution 802 of October 1953 reaffirmed “the pertinent provisions of General Assembly resolutions 57 (I) and 417 (V), with the exception of any reference to time-limits contained in these resolutions” (United Nations Children's Fund – A/RES/802(VIII), 1953).

UNICEF is an example of an organization that began as a temporary relief fund but eventually has transformed into an international organization with its formal structures

and a worldwide scope of performance. The original General Assembly resolution establishing an International Children’s Emergency Fund also settled the formal structure of the fund that remains till nowadays. The main formal bodies of UNICEF, similarly to other UN programs and funds, are the Executive Board with the Executive Director, the Office of the Secretary of the Executive Board, and the Bureau. They all create UNICEF headquarters, which are situated in New York. The Executive Board is “the governing body of UNICEF, providing intergovernmental support and oversight to the organization, in accordance with the overall policy guidance of the United Nations General Assembly and the Economic and Social Council” (UNICEF Executive Board, 2017). It also approves general budgets, policies and country programs of the organization. Originally, the Executive Board was composed of representatives of countries governments, such as Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic, Canada, China, Colombia, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Ecuador, France, Greece, Iraq, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Peru, Poland, Sweden, Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic, Union of South Africa, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, United Kingdom, United States of America, and Yugoslavia (Establishment of an International Children’s Emergency Fund – A/RES/57(I), 1946). The diverse composition of states from various political and ideological backgrounds portrays the universality of UNICEF’s mission. Currently, the Board is composed of 36 members that are elected for three years by the Economic and Social Council. Members of the Board represents the five regional groups, such as Africa with 8 seats, Asia with 7 seats, Eastern Europe with 4 seats, Latin America and Caribbean with 5 seats, and Western Europe and Others with 12 seats.

**Table 3: Executive Board Members in 2016**

<b>2016 Executive Board</b>	
Africa	Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Libya, Sierra Leone, Zambia
Asia	Bangladesh, China, India, Iran (Islamic Republic of), Nepal, Papua New Guinea, Republic of Korea
Eastern Europe	Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Estonia, Russian Federation
Latin America and Caribbean	Antigua and Barbuda, Colombia, Cuba, El Salvador, Panama

Western Europe and Others	Andorra, Australia, Denmark, Finland, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, United States of America
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Source: Executive Board Members in 2016 (2016). In *UNICEF*. Retrieved from [https://www.unicef.org/about/execboard/files/Executive\\_Board-Members-2016-EN-11Oct2016.pdf](https://www.unicef.org/about/execboard/files/Executive_Board-Members-2016-EN-11Oct2016.pdf)

The Executive Board meets in regular sessions that are held at the UN headquarters in New York three times per year, such as in a first regular session in January/February, in an annual session in May/June and in a second regular session in September (UNICEF Executive Board, 2017). Before every session, national representations are obliged to send formal credentials to the Executive Director or Secretary of the Executive Board. Policies, determined programs and allocation of funds established by the Executive Board in accordance with principles of the Economic and Social Council are administered by an Executive Director. The Executive Director of UNICEF is appointed by the Secretary-General of the United Nations in consultation with the Executive Board (Establishment of an International Children's Emergency Fund – A/RES/57(I), 1946). Since its establishment, UNICEF has had six Executive Directors. Since 2010, the Executive Director is Mr. Anthony Lake who worked in the US government from 1962 to 1997. For instance, Mr. Lake worked as National Security Advisor under the US President Bill Clinton (Anthony Lake Biography, 2010).

The Office of the Secretary of the Executive Board “supports and services the Executive Board. It is responsible for maintaining an effective relationship between the Executive Board and the UNICEF secretariat, and helps to organize the field visits of the Executive Board. The Office also provides editorial and technical services for all documentation related to Executive Board sessions and meetings, decisions, reports of sessions and the country program documents repository” (UNICEF Executive Board, 2017).

Since 1994, the Bureau has coordinated the work of the Executive Board. It “serves as a bridge between the UNICEF secretariat and the regional groups represented on the Executive Board, dealing primarily with liaison, administrative and functional matters, such as facilitating the negotiation of decisions at the session, to enhance the effectiveness of the Executive Board. Members of the Bureau coordinate informal consultations within

their respective regional groups. The Bureau usually meets on a monthly basis, and daily during the Executive Board sessions” (Bureau, 2017). It is composed of the President and four Vice-Presidents, who usually also serve as permanent representatives to the United Nations. “These five officers, each one representing one of the five regional groups, are elected by the Executive Board each year from among its members, with the presidency rotating among the regional groups on an annual basis. As a matter of custom, permanent members of the Security Council do not serve as officers of the Executive Board” (Bureau, 2017). In 2016, the President of the Bureau was H.E. Mr. Sven Jürgenson from Estonia and the Vice-Presidents were H.E. Mr. Durga Prasad Bhattarai from Nepal, H.E. Mr. Walton Alfonso Webson from Antigua and Barbuda, H.E. Mr. Elmahdi S. Emaierbi from Libya and H.E. Mr. Horishi Minami from Japan. From 1946 to 1993, the Governing Council served instead of the Bureau and was formed by the officers of the Executive Board with the Chairman and four Vice-Chairmen. The first Chairman of the Governing Council was Dr. Ludwik Rajchman from Poland (Officers of the UNICEF Executive Board 1946-2017, 2017).

Nowadays, UNICEF operates in more than 190 countries through its country programs and National Committees. UNICEF directly manages 155 country programs in ‘developing’ or ‘middle-income’ countries, which “carry out UNICEF’s mission through a program of cooperation developed with the host governments” (UNICEF, 2014, p. 143). Country programs are managed and coordinated by 21 UNICEF country offices. Country offices and other field offices are coordinated by regional offices, which are divided into seven regions:

- The Americas and Caribbean Regional Office in Panama City, Panama
- Central and Eastern Europe, Commonwealth of Independent States Regional Office in Geneva, Switzerland
- East Asia and the Pacific Regional Office in Bangkok, Thailand
- Eastern and Southern Africa Regional Office in Nairobi, Kenya
- Middle East and North Africa Regional Office in Amman, Jordan
- South Asia Regional Office in Kathmandu, Nepal
- West and Central Africa Regional Office in Dakar, Senegal (UNICEF Regional Offices, 2003).

There are 34 non-governmental organizations, known as National Committees for UNICEF in ‘industrialized’ countries, which are “advocating for children’s rights, raising

awareness and raising funds, selling UNICEF products, creating key corporate and civil society partnerships, and supporting civil engagement for UNICEF and children's rights" (UNICEF, 2014, p. 146). The relationship between UNICEF and the national committees is managed through the UNICEF Division of Private Fundraising and Partnership (PFP), which is based in Geneva.

### **2.2.1 UNICEF's Actions and Commitments**

Since its establishment, UNICEF has claimed to work for better lives of children and their families. People involved in the organization dedicated their efforts to saving and improving vulnerable children lives. In general, the work of UNICEF can be divided into two form of aid, such as the humanitarian and the developmental aids.

The humanitarian aid represents the main form of aid and is oriented to humanitarian situations and an emergency, such as a state of war, hunger and famine, or environmental disasters. According to Inter-Agency Standing Committee, a humanitarian situation is defined as "any circumstance where humanitarian needs are sufficiently large and complex to require significant external assistance and resources, and where a multi-sectoral response is needed, with the engagement of a wide range of international humanitarian actors" (Core Commitments for Children in Humanitarian Action, 2010, p. 3). While an emergency is defined by UNICEF as "a situation that threatens the lives and well-being of large number of a population and requires extraordinary action to ensure their survival, care and protection (Core Commitments for Children in Humanitarian Action, 2010, p. 4).

In 2015, UNICEF provided a humanitarian assistance to 310 humanitarian situations in 102 countries. For instance, the main humanitarian responses of UNICEF were in the following countries, such as Ukraine (with 1.6 million people reached), Iraq (346,558 people reached), Afghanistan (160,160 children reached), Nepal (434,690 people reached), Myanmar (146 children reached), Syrian Arab Republic (278,000 children reached), Yemen (158,409 children reached), South Sudan (297,040 people reached), Burundi (333,936 children reached), Central African Republic (41,584 households reached), Nigeria (84,012 children reached), Haiti (127,000 people reached), but also Ebola response in Sierra Leone, Guinea and Liberia (3.7 million households reached),

refugee and migrant crisis in Europe (81,000 children reached), and Syrian refugees in Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon, Turkey and Egypt (630,000 refugee children reached), (UNICEF Humanitarian Action Study 2015, 2015).

**Table 4: A Number of UNICEF Humanitarian Responses According to Types of Emergency Situations and Affected Regions in 2015**

	<b>Natural Disasters</b> (hydro-meteorological)	<b>Health Crisis</b> (acute nutritional crisis, epidemic, influenza-human pandemic)	<b>Socio-political Crisis</b> (acute economic crisis, conflict/civil unrest, human rights crisis)	<b>Natural Disasters</b> (geo-physical)	<b>Other Humanitarian Situations</b>
<b>Latin America and the Caribbean</b>	18	3	5	4	4
<b>West and Central Africa</b>	13	36	12	4	8
<b>Eastern and Southern Africa</b>	23	24	14	1	6
<b>Middle East and North Africa</b>	12	17	14	0	10
<b>Central and Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States</b>	3	1	5	2	4
<b>South Asia</b>	8	6	5	5	1
<b>East Asia and the Pacific</b>	20	5	8	6	3

Source: UNICEF Humanitarian Action Study 2015 (2015). In *UNICEF*.  
Retrieved from [https://www.unicef.org/emergencies/files/HAS\\_Study\\_2015\\_FINAL.pdf](https://www.unicef.org/emergencies/files/HAS_Study_2015_FINAL.pdf)

Furthermore, UNICEF divided its humanitarian actions into several thematic programs and operational commitments, such as child protection, communication for development, early childhood development, education, health, HIV and AIDS, nutrition, and water, sanitation and hygiene. For instance, the child protection covers active response to and prevention of violence, exploitation and abuse of children, such as in cases of child armed recruitment, gender-based violence, unaccompanied and separated children, or child trafficking. Also, it provides psychological and social support of children from emergencies. In the case of armed conflicts, it also aims to release child soldiers and reintegrate them into a society. Furthermore, the child protection program monitors and

reports on grave violations of children's rights in situations of armed conflicts. Monitoring is based on a Monitoring and Reporting Mechanism, which was requested in the UN Resolution 1612 by the Security Council in 2005 (Child Protection, 2016). Communication for Development (C4D) supports social mobilization in the case of emergency. It learns people to act responsibly and reasonably in order to increase their participation in helping ourselves and others. Also, the initiative focuses on providing relevant and advanced information for affected people (C4D in Humanitarian Situations, 2016).

The early childhood development along with the education, health and nutrition programs in emergencies and post-crisis transition aims to meet basic needs of children and their mother for their secure and health development. For example, one of an integral part of UNICEF's response in an emergency situation is the early childhood development kit, which contains various games and toys promoting learning of children at the age of 0 to 8. Also, child friendly spaces providing health services, education or psychosocial support are created in order to provide stability for children in the insecure situations (Early Childhood Development in Emergencies, 2016). Another example connected with water, sanitation and hygiene that was developed by UNICEF was the WASH program. The first Wash project was in India in 1966, where it operated in drought-affected northern India (Emergency WASH, 2014). In the case of nutrition, UNICEF provides humanitarian responses, such as providing life-saving treatment, delivering key micronutrients to vulnerable population, supporting infant and young child feeding, but also conducting assessment and surveillance, monitoring of food and nutrition security, fostering resilience, and developing norms, standards and guidelines as in the case of Nutritional care of children and adults with Ebola virus disease in treatment centers (Nutrition in Emergencies, 2015).

The main framework that upholds and guides above mentioned humanitarian programs and actions are the Core Commitments for Children in Humanitarian Action (the CCCs). It is a central policy of UNICEF, which focus on protecting rights of children from affected areas. The CCCs was originally developed in 1998 but updated in 2010. It follows international humanitarian law and international human rights law, such as the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) or the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). UNICEF by the CCCs commits to apply humanitarian principles in humanitarian situations, such as principles of humanity,

impartiality and neutrality (Core Commitments for Children in Humanitarian Action, 2010, pp. 1-6).

All UNICEF's humanitarian and development programs and actions would be hard to achieve without supplies and logistics of needed goods and services. Therefore, UNICEF developed the UNICEF Supply Chain that is divided into 8 separate operations from a definition of need, budgeting and planning, procurement of products, delivery and clearance, inspection of quantity and quality of products, warehousing and redistribution, utilization by end-user, to monitoring and evaluation of a satisfied need (The UNICEF Supply Chain, 2013). Warehouse operations are processed in the Supply Division Warehouse in Copenhagen and in three supply hubs in Dubai, Panama and Shanghai. The Warehouse stocks over 850 different items, which are parts of 38 different pre-packed kits ready to be used in case of emergency for medical care, protection or children's education. For example, one of the medical care kits was packed for midwives to handle 50 normal deliveries. Another the School-in-a-Box kit can be used by a teacher and 40 students. In 2014, the Supply Division's Copenhagen warehouse packed about 319,000 kits. In the case of emergency, the Copenhagen Warehouse along with its hubs is able to supply 250,000 people for three weeks (Warehouse Operations, 2015).

The developmental aid of UNICEF correlates with the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). MDGs were adopted in 2000 after the signature of the United Nations Millennium Declaration by 189 countries and the agreement of the General Assembly Resolution 60/1 of 2005 World Summit (2005 World Summit Outcome – A/RES/60/1, 2005). The MDGs pursued to “(1) eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, (2) achieve universal primary education, (3) promote gender equality and empower women, (4) reduce child mortality, (5) improve maternal health, (6) combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases, (7) ensure environmental sustainability, and (8) develop a global partnership for development” (WHO, 2015, p. 4). UNICEF's work for development can be divided into five strategic areas, which are interrelated to each other. In a support of MDGs 1, 4, 5 and 6, UNICEF works toward young child survival and development. Basic education and gender equality is an area that supports MDG 2 and 3. HIV/AIDS and children is another area that support MDG 6. An area of child protection refers to more specific Section 6 of Millennium Declaration Summit. The fifth area of UNICEF's developmental work focuses on water and sanitation, what refers to MDG 7. Then, all five UNICEF's focus areas elaborate policy analysis,



advocacy and partnership for children's rights, what refers to MDG 8 (UNICEF Focus Areas and the Millennium Agenda, n. d.).

However, proposed 8 goals of the MDGs were expected to be met in 2015. Thus, the new development agenda was needed to be acquired. Therefore, the Transforming our world: the 2030 agenda for sustainable development was adopted by the UN General Assembly in the Resolution 70/1 in 2015. SDGs "build upon, and extend, the MDGs in order to tackle the 'unfinished business' of the MDG era" (WHO, 2015, p. 7).

In order to improve not only humanitarian responses with provided goods and services, but also to improve developmental aid, UNICEF created the Global Innovation Center and the Innocenti Research Center. UNICEF's innovations are driven by "an interdisciplinary team of individual around the world tasked with identifying, prototyping, and scaling technologies and practices that strengthen UNICEF's work for children" (UNICEF Stories of Innovation, n. d.). For instance, innovations like mobile birth registration in Nigeria, using drones in Malawi to transport blood samples for early infant diagnosis of HIV, or using SMS to support mother in Mexico are some of innovations transformed to practice (UNICEF Stories of Innovation, n. d.). The Office of Research and the Innocenti Research Center, based in Florence, aims to "enhance worldwide collaboration that will strengthen the generation and use of knowledge in programs of cooperation and policy advocacy, and support UNICEF's work" (UNICEF Office of Research – Innocenti, n. d.).

### **2.2.2 Financing and Revenues**

UNICEF is the only organization from the UN family that is not financed from the UN budget. "UNICEF is wholly financed by voluntary contributions, hence its need for a constant, active promotion of its programs and achievements and calls for financial support" (Beigbeder, 2001, p. 57). The external sources of its financial contributions can be divided into two parts, such as contributions from governments and IGOs, and NGOs, individuals and private sector. The internal source of financial contributions come from UNICEF investments, procurement and other activities. Also the financial contributions can be divided into two forms, such as regular and other or irregular resources.

According to the 2015 UNICEF Annual Report, total UNICEF revenue was 5,009 millions of US dollar, from which:

- 60 % were contributions from governments,
- 29 % were contributions from private sector and NGOs,
- 9 % were inter-organizational arrangements,
- 2 % was other revenues that includes income from interest, procurement and other resources.

**Table 5: Total UNICEF Revenue by Source of Funding in 2015**

			<b>Donor countries</b>	<b>IGOs</b>	<b>NGOs</b>	<b>Inter-organizational arrangements</b>	<b>Other revenue</b>	<b>Grand Total</b>
<b>Regular resources</b>	Public sector	Government	545,989,290	-	-	-	-	545,989,290
		Inter-organizational arrangements	-	-	-	5,851	-	5,851
	Private sector	National Committees	499,307,753	-	-	-	-	499,307,753
		Other contributions	30,135,179	-	814,996	-	-	30,950,175
<b>Other resources</b>	Public sector	Government	2,193,924,018	282,979,487	-	-	-	2,476,903,506
		Inter-organizational arrangements	-	-	-	432,356,724	-	432,356,724
	Private sector	National Committees	648,765,827	-	-	-	-	648,765,827
		Other contributions	164,924,893	-	112,949,018	-	-	277,873,911
	<b>Total</b>		4,083,046,961	282,979,487	113,764,013	432,362,575	97,404,434	<b>5,009,557,471</b>

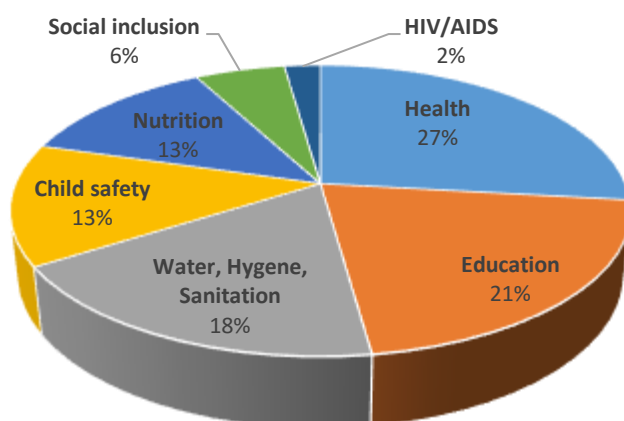
Source: UNICEF Annual Report 2015 (2016). In UNICEF.

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UNICEF's direct program expense by region in 2015 were:

- Sub-Saharan Africa (\$ 2.643 mil.)
- Asia (\$ 798.4 mil.)
- Middle-East and North Africa (\$ 885.4 mil.)
- Latin America and the Caribbean (\$ 153.4 mil.)
- Interregional (\$ 142.4 mil.)
- Eastern Europe and CIS (\$ 145.7 mil.)

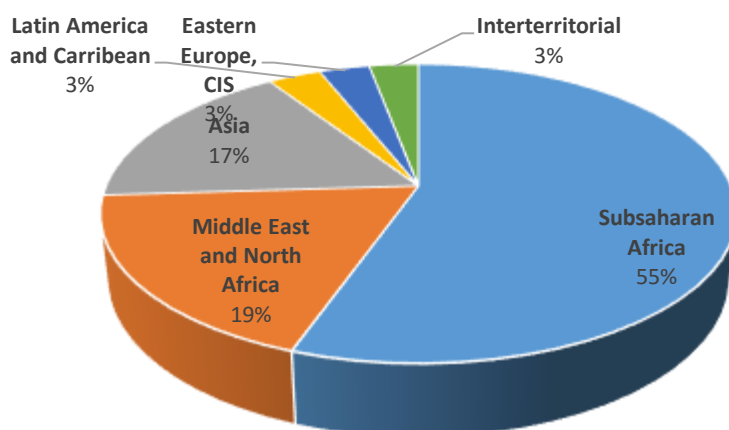
**Graph 1: UNICEF's Direct Program Expense by Strategic Area**



Source: UNICEF Annual Report 2015 (2016). In UNICEF.

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**Graph 2: UNICEF's Direct Program Expense by Region**



Source: UNICEF Annual Report 2015 (2016). In UNICEF.

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UNICEF's total expenditure in 2015 were:

- Direct help to children and support of UNICEF programs – 91.5 %
- Operations and management – 6.1 %
- Investments, fundraising and coordination – 2.4 %

(UNICEF Annual Report 2015, 2016).

As an international organization serving for improving lives of children and their families, UNICEF aims to maintain the highest standard of transparency. Therefore, “UNICEF financial reports and accounts and the report of the Board of Auditors are

submitted annually to the General Assembly, reviewed by its Fifth Committee and by the Advisory Committee on Administrative and Budgetary Questions (ACABQ). The Advisory Committee also reviews the UNICEF biennial support budget and other related reports, as appropriate” (Office of the Secretary of the Executive Board, 2016, p. 4). Moreover, UNICEF is a voluntary member of International Aid Transparency Initiative – IATI. Its goal is to raise transparency of the development aid and humanitarian resources, as well as securing access to the information. Members of IATI are bound to transparently report all its activities that is continuously monitored. UNICEF leads with example among the NGO transparency. Further to the membership in IATI, UNICEF prepared an IATI Implementation Schedule that has reached several ambitious milestones finishing with UNICEF ranking 3<sup>rd</sup> out of 46 organizations in 2016’s annual Aid Transparency Index being evaluated as ‘very good category’. The standardization within the IATI rules allowed UNICEF to launch a transparency website ‘open.unicef.org’, where visualization of geographical flow of UNICEF’s funds can be found (Transparency and Accountability, 2016).

## **2.3 Rights of Children**

Since the proclamation of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights by the United Nations General Assembly through the Resolution 217 A of 10 December 1948, human rights have gained its importance and acceptance by many governments from all around the world. Although human rights are still being violated, the declarations and other conventions about human rights aim to legally bind states in order to prevent such violations and even foster their acceptance by not only states, but also general public. All of these declarations and conventions claim that “all human rights – civil, political, economic, social and cultural – are recognized as a universal, inherent, inalienable, indivisible and interdependent body of right” (PWESCR, 2015, p. 5).

Forty-one years later, the General Assembly adopted another important treaty binding signatory states to implement rights of children. The Convention of the Rights of the Child was adopted by the General Assembly Resolution 44/25 of 20 November 1989. The Convention is composed of 54 articles, from which first 42 articles can be divided into four categories, such as guiding principles, survival and development rights, protection

rights and participation rights (Rights under the Convention of the Rights of the Child, 2014). Articles from 43 to 54 discuss how the rights should be implemented by governments, and how international organizations and NGOs should support a protection of those rights. Guiding principles contain articles 1, 2, 3, 6 and 12. These articles refers to general requirements for all other children rights, such as definition of the child (Article 1), non-discrimination principle (Article 2), principle of the best interest of the child (Article 3), the right to life, survival and development (Article 6), and the respect for the views of the child (Article 12). Survival and development rights defines the basic rights to life, survival and development of one's full potential, such as the right to live (Article 6), the right to a legally registered name and the right to a nationality (Article 7), the right to identity (Article 8), the right to live with parent(s) (Article 9), the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion (Article 14), the right to leisure, play and culture (Article 31), etc. Protection rights ensure keeping children safe from harm, violence, kidnapping, child labor, sexual exploitation, abduction, sale and trafficking, etc. Also, these rights contain the right to legal help and fair treatment (Article 40), the right to rehabilitation of child victims (Article 39), the right to protect children in case of a war or a conflict (Article 38), etc. Participation rights support an active voice of all children, such as the right to freedom of expression (13), the right to freedom of association (Article 15), the right to privacy (Article 16), the right to access to information, mass media (Article 17), etc. (Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989).

The Convention was not a first international treaty that defined the children rights. It was even before the Universal Declaration on Human Rights in the Geneva Declaration of the Rights of the Child of 1924, when "the need to extend particular care to the children has been stated" (Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989). Then the Declaration of the Rights of the Child was adopted by the General Assembly in 1959. Also, the universality of human and particularly children rights can be seen in joint statements, which can be found in various treaties, and which the Convention of the Rights of the Child combines. For instance, the Article 6 of the Conventions states that "1. States Parties recognize that every child has the inherent right to life" (Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989). The right to life is also stated under the same Article 6 in the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights adopted by the General Assembly in 1966 (International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, 1966). The Universal Declaration of Human Right proclaims the right to life in the first article – "Everyone has the right to life,

liberty and security of person.” Then, the Article 28 of the Convention states that “1. States Parties recognize the right of the child to education, and with a view to achieving the right progressively and on the basis of equal opportunity, they shall, in particular: (a) make primary education compulsory and available free to all; (b) encourage the development of different forms of secondary education, including general and vocational education, make them available and accessible to every child, and take appropriate measures such as the introduction of free education and offering financial assistance in case of need; (c) make higher education accessible to all on the basis of capacity by every appropriate means; (d) make educational and vocational information and guidance available and accessible to all children; (e) take measures to encourage regular attendance at schools and the reduction of drop-out rates” (Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989). The right of everyone to education is also stated in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights adopted by the General Assembly Resolution 2200A of 16 December 1966 (International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 1966).

UNICEF has an indispensable role in the advocacy of the Convention and in the monitoring the fulfilment of states obligations. “The Convention on the Rights of the Child is the first human rights treaty that grants a role in its implementation to a specialized United Nations agency—UNICEF. Under the Convention, UNICEF has a legal obligation to promote and protect child rights by supporting the work of the Committee on the Rights of the Child” (Monitoring the Fulfilment of State Obligations, 2005). The Committee on the Rights of the Child is composed of 18 children’s right experts, who are elected by signatory states but do not work as states’ representatives. The Committee reviews states’ reports about the situation on the children’s rights and reviews how governments fulfill and protect children’s right in their countries and abroad. “Reports to the Committee on the situation of children’s rights in their country are submitted by the State within two years of ratification and every five years thereafter” (Monitoring the Fulfilment of State Obligations, 2005).

### **2.3.1 The Right to Education – Child Rights Education**

One of the main objectives of UNICEF is to protect and support the right of child to education. Humanitarian and developmental programs of UNICEF focuses not only on

fulfilling this right, but also on teaching about the children rights in general. Also, national committees along with their fundraising activities work on advocating and teaching about the children rights in their countries. UNICEF defines child rights education (CRE) as “teaching and learning about the provisions and principles of the Convention on the Rights of the Child and the ‘child rights approach’ – in order to empower both adults and children to take action to advocate for and apply these at the family, school, community, national and global levels” (2013 Annual Report – Private Fundraising and Partnership, 2014, p. 17).

Widespread child rights education is one of the desirable outcomes of the UNICEF Strategic Plan 2014-2017, as well as the UNICEF Private Fundraising and Partnership Plan 2014-2017. One of the practical ways of CRE is the Child Rights Education Toolkit for primary and secondary schools provided by UNICEF’s Private Fundraising and Partnership Division in Geneva in cooperation with UNICEF’s Program Division in New York and in consultations with National Committees (UNICEF, 2014).

#### **2.3.1.1 Quality of Education: Child-friendly Education and Child-Friendly Schools**

Another practical way of child rights education and fulfilling the right to education vested in the Convention on the Rights of the Child is through UNICEF’s framework of the Child-Friendly Schools (CFSs). The framework of CFSs was launched in 1999 and aims to increase quality of education, what is a part of UNICEF’s development work contained in an area of the basic education and gender equality. Main objectives of CFSs are to “attract students (increase access); to improve attendance rates; to improve retention and completion rates; to improve learning achievement; to provide safe, inclusive, welcoming environments for all children; to provide enabling learning environments, including accommodating children with physical and mental/learning disabilities; to build a sense of community within the school (institutional ethos); to involve parents and the community (support and participation); to cultivate harmony between the school and its community; to harmonize buildings, school grounds and environment as children interact with them” (Child Friendly Schools: Manual, 2006, Chapter 3, pp. 1-2).

Furthermore, CFSs are a part of broader child-friendly education (CFE) that aims to provide more complex satisfaction of the right to education. While CFSs, as rights-based

schools, provide a friendly place for children education, child-friendly education includes: “child-friendly (safe, secure, healthy) school construction and facilities; curricula and textbooks that promote CFE principles; teacher-friendly pre-service and in-service professional education that enables teachers to learn how to make their school child-friendly; examination processes that are adaptable to the needs and learning styles of individual students; and education budgets that provide adequate funds to develop child-friendly education” (Identifying and Promoting Good Practice in Equity and Child-Friendly Education, 2013, p. 15). Both child-right schools and child right education share two basic characteristics, such as child-seeking and child-centered. Child-seeking school or child-seeking education is “actively identifying excluded children to get them enrolled in school and included in learning, treating children as subjects with rights and State as duty-bearers with obligations to fulfill these rights, and demonstrating, promoting, and helping to monitor the rights and well-being of all children in the community” (Child Friendly Schools, 2012). Child-centered school or child-centered education is “acting in the best interests of the child, leading to the realization of the child’s full potential, and concerned both about the ‘whole’ child (including her health, nutritional status, and well-being) and about what happens to children — in their families and communities - before they enter school and after they leave it” (Child Friendly Schools, 2012).

Currently, CFSs can be found in 90 countries all around the world (Child Friendly Schools, 2010). The requirements for becoming a child-friendly school vary from a country to a country depending on its standards of living. A status of CFS can be provided not only by UNICEF’s country offices, but also can be given to a school by the National Committees in the countries of their performance.

### **2.3.2 Child Survival**

Along with education, child survival and development is another strategically important area of UNICEF’s actions, which combines various initiatives, such as the Early Childhood Development, Health, HIV/AIDS, Immunization, Nutrition, and WASH (water, sanitation and hygiene). All these initiatives focus on a wide spectrum of concerning social problems and are applied not only as a developmental aid, but also in cases of emergency. The initiatives aim to protect various children rights from the most basic one, the right to



live, to more specified concerned with children's well-being and prosperity. For instance, the Nutrition Initiative works on improving breastfeeding and complementary feeding, tackling micronutrient deficiencies, treating and preventing severe acute malnutrition, linking nutrition support with the treatment of HIV/AIDS, responding rapidly and effectively to nutrition emergencies, improving adolescent and maternal nutrition, but also preventing overweight and obesity (Nutrition, 2015).

In the case of breastfeeding and complementary feeding, UNICEF is a leading organization promoting the Global Breastfeeding Advocacy Initiative, which advocates protective policies and legislation by working with national governments, provides guidance on appropriate care and feeding practices, and supports training and capacity strengthening of health workers. The main aim of the initiative is to increase a number of breastfeeding mothers. Currently, "only 38 per cent of the world's (0-6-month-old) infants are exclusively breastfed and most young children are not eating a minimally acceptable diet" (Breastfeeding and Complementary Feeding, 2015). Another initiative supporting breastfeeding is the Baby-Friendly Hospital Initiative.

#### **2.3.2.1 Baby Friendly Hospital Initiative**

The Baby-Friendly Hospital Initiative (BFHI) was launched by UNICEF in a close cooperation with World Health Organization (WHO) in 1991 as a response to the 1990 Innocenti Declaration on the Protection, Promotion and Support of Breastfeeding. Currently, more than 20,000 hospitals in 156 countries were designed to fulfill the requirements for obtaining a status of being BFH. "A maternity facility can be designated 'baby-friendly' when it does not accept free or low-cost breastmilk substitutes, feeding bottles or teats, and has implemented 10 specific steps to support successful breastfeeding," such as practice rooming in, encourage breastfeeding on demand, or show mothers how to breastfeed and maintain lactation, even if they should be separated from their infants (The Baby-Friendly Hospital Initiative, n. d.). BFHI is managed by UNICEF's regional and subsequently field offices, and also by the National Committees. For example, "in November 1994, the UK Committee launched the UK Baby-Friendly Hospital Initiative after two years of preparatory work with 40 NGOs, medial professional associations and the Department of Health. It included the 'Charter for Mothers', which outlines

breastfeeding rights” (Beigbeder, 2001, p. 52). In 2002, there were 29 Baby-Friendly facilities in the UK (Current Status of BFHI, 2002). Currently, 61% of maternity services and 63% of health visiting services have full Baby-Friendly accreditation in the UK (Baby Friendly Statistics, 2017). Similarly, there were 25 Baby-Friendly facilities in the USA in 2002. Currently, there are 404 Baby-Friendly hospitals and birthing centers, where annually 19.83% (790,600) of babies are born in the USA (Find Facilities, 2012).

### **3 Slovak Committee for UNICEF**

The empirical chapter analyzes a relationship between UNICEF and the Slovak Committee for UNICEF. It firstly briefly defines the National Committees for UNICEF. Subsequently, it provides information about the Slovak Committee and its activities. Also, it answers proposed research questions of how UNICEF coordinates its relations with the Slovak Committee and to what extent local conditions and specifics influence the work of the Slovak Committee.

#### **3.1 National Committees for UNICEF**

Right after the establishment of International Children's Emergency Fund after the Second World War, the fund gained support of many governments and individuals. However, as a fully self-finance fund of the UN, the Emergency Fund and later UNICEF had to elaborate its own ways for fundraising and further cooperation with general public. As a consequence, National Committees for UNICEF were established. The first National Committee was created in former Yugoslavia in 1946 but its mandate differed from the nowadays committees. Following year, the National Committees were established in the USA and Belgium. The idea of a National Committee for UNICEF was spread by Prime Minister of Belgium Mr. Paul-Henri Spaak, UNICEF's Executive Director Mr. Maurice Pate and the Chief of External Relations Mr. Willie Meyer from at that time the UNICEF Regional Office for Africa and Europe. "Apart from Yugoslavia and Poland which formed a Committee as early as 1962, Eastern Europe, which had suffered tremendous devastation during the war and which was a recipient of UNICEF assistance, joined the National Committee family in the 1970s" (Phillips, 1986, p. 2). Currently, there are 34 National Committees for UNICEF, from which 24 are in Europe. Since the establishment of the first National Committee, their mandates have developed. At the beginning, the committees were mostly about fundraising for UNICEF's programs by selling greeting cards. Throughout the time, they enlarged their scope of performance to not only fundraising, but also to advocacy of children rights in their home countries. Nowadays, "national committees are a unique and integral part of UNICEF" (2013 Annual Report, 2014, p. 18).

Furthermore, their relationship with UNICEF headquarters and country offices have developed as well. From being a pure agent of UNICEF, the increasing role and statue of the committees placed them to a role of a partner with UNICEF. This changed in 1983, when “the Executive Board recognized Committees as full-fledged partners of the agency” (Beigbeder, 2001, p. 50). “UNICEF has a structure, methods and a mission different from those of other members of the UN family. One of the components contributing to the originality of the organization is the integration of the National Committees as its partners. By their nature, their composition, and their methods of work, they constitute not only a counter-balance to the Secretariat, but also a permanent questioning element by reason of the large financial contributions they furnish, and their role as intermediaries of public opinion in their country, and the advocate of UNICEF vis-a-vis that same public” (Phillips, 1986, p. 27). Furthermore, the special position of the National Committees toward UNICEF is based on their commitment to UNICEF’s values and their mutual relationship is dependent on goodwill between these two sides. It is because “the National Committees, as the name implies, are national bodies having autonomy in their own countries, and their statutes are drawn up in conformity with the rules and regulations of that country” (Phillips, 1986, p. 7). It means that the National Committees have the right to act freely. However, their commitment toward UNICEF restrains their work and limits the scope of their performance to settled policy of UNICEF.

### **3.2 UNICEF Slovakia**

The Slovak Committee for UNICEF was created in 1 January 1993 succeeding the Czechoslovak Committee for UNICEF in the territory of the Slovak Republic. The Czechoslovak Committee was created in 1971. At that time, all established committees from Eastern Europe and the committee from Sweden were government bodies with no individual membership (Phillips, 1986, p. 3). Currently, the Slovak Committee for UNICEF functions according to the Act No. 116/1985 Coll. on the conditions of organizations activities with international character, the Act No. 83/1990 Coll., Civil Code and other legislative norms and regulations defining activities of civil associations in the Slovak Republic (Statutes of the Slovak Committee for UNICEF, 1993). “The establishment of a National Committee requires that there be no objection to its formation on the part of the

government of the country involved, and that the Executive Director agree to the Committee's purposes, function and statutes" (Phillips, 1986, p. 3).

By accepting the general values, interests and policy of UNICEF, "UNICEF grants the National Committee the right to use the UNICEF name, logo, brand and any other associated intellectual property (collectively the 'UNICEF Brand')" (Cooperation Agreement, Section 5a.) In order to unite public awareness about UNICEF in a country, the National Committee is allowed to use simplified version of its name, such as UNICEF Slovakia or simply UNICEF.

**Figure 2: Universal logo of UNICEF and logo of the Slovak Committee for UNICEF**



Source: Slovak Committee for UNICEF

The Statutes of the Slovak Committee for UNICEF is an establishing document defining its organizational character, roles, and structure. According to the Statutes, the Committee is composed of the General Assembly, the Executive Council, the Executive Board, the Office of the Secretary, the Audit Commission, and the Statutory Representatives. The statutory representatives are the President of the Executive Board and Executive Director of the Committee.

The General Assembly is the highest body that represents the ultimate oversight over the Committee. The General Assembly is an annual meeting of the Committee members. A membership of the Committee is voluntary and "any physical or legal person supporting UNICEF objectives, activities, and mission can become a member of the Committee. Membership of state bodies, political parties and movements is inadmissible" (Statutes of the Slovak Committee for UNICEF, 1993, Article 3). Furthermore, the membership can be individual, collective and honorary. Individual members can be any citizen of the Slovak Republic over 18 years old. Collective membership is allowed to

organizations with “agenda, objectives and program corresponding with those of the Committee” (Statutes of the Slovak Committee for UNICEF, 1993, Article 3/4b). Honorary members have an advisory vote at the assembly and can be both domestic or foreign individuals or organizations that “has supported works of the Committee, propagation or practical realization of UNICEF ideas” (Statutes of the Slovak Committee for UNICEF, 1993, Article 3/4c). Currently, the Slovak Committee have 48 members and does not have any collective or honorary members.

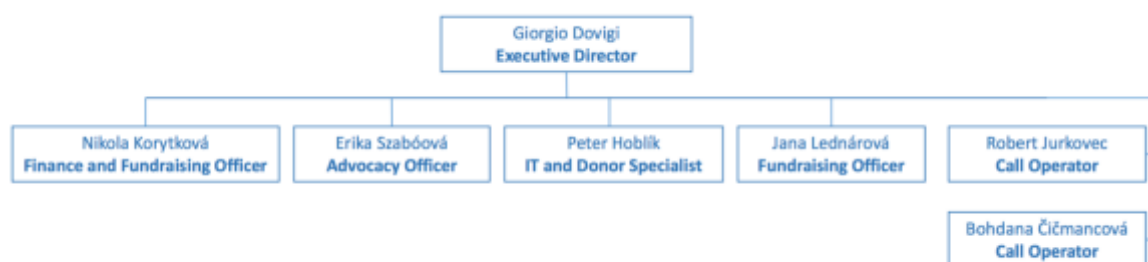
The Executive Council and the Executive Board represent the governance of the Committee. The Executive Council is the highest executive body of the Committee. It is composed of the President and Executive Board’s members, Chair of the Audit Commission, the Executive Director and honorary members of the Committee. The Executive Council:

- a) determines long-term prognoses, policies and prospective areas of the Committee’s activities,
- b) based on proposals made by the Executive Board
  - approves the convocation date and agenda of the General Assembly of the Committee,
  - debates then recommends to the General Assembly of the Committee a calendar plan of activities and a Committee budget for the year,
  - forms permanent or temporary working groups and commissions as well as a committee of honorary members and appoints their chairmen,
- c) elects a new chairman of the Committee if the acting chair resigns or dies during the period between two General Assemblies. Election of the new Chairman is valid until the definitive appointment of a new Chairman by the next General Assembly (The Statutes, 1993, Article 7/5).

The Executive Board is an executive body that governs the work of the Committee over the year based on the decisions of the General Assembly. Members of the Board are elected by the Assembly. “The Executive Board consists of the President, Deputy President, members involved in program activities, financial problems, contacts with mass media and advertisement, distribution of UNICEF wares, and other members. The number of members of the Executive Board is always odd” (The Statutes, 1993, Article 7/2). Management of the Committee is organized through the Office of the Secretary that is composed of the Executive Director and the Committee employed staff that have

responsibility for day-to-day tasks. The Executive Director and other staff of the Office of the Secretary are not members of the Executive Board and the Executive Director has an advisory vote in negotiations at the Executive Council and the General Assembly (The Statutes, 1993 Article 8). The Audit Commission, as an independent body of the Committee, is comprised of the Chairman, two regular and one substitute members. The role of the Audit Commission is to “(a) audit the management of funds by the Committee, (b) presents proposals to the Executive Board regarding the remedy of failures discovered during an audit, (c) presents a summary report on its activities to the Executive Board and General Assembly, (d) carries out inquiries into claims, proposals and notifications of the Committee’s members and other persons or organizations related to activities of the Committee, (e) presents members’ inquiries into decisions of the Executive Board on membership annulment to the Assembly” (The Statutes, 1993, Article 10/5).

**Figure 3: Employment Structure of the Slovak Committee for UNICEF**



Source: Slovak Committee for UNICEF

### 3.2.1 Commitment to UNICEF

The Slovak Committee for UNICEF, as an autonomous NGO, expressed its commitment to work and values of UNICEF in the Statutes, which is an establishing document of the Committee. The assignment of the Slovak Committee to UNICEF is stated in the Article 1 of the Statutes, such as “the Committee is a non-governmental, independent and non-political organization, representing the interests of the Slovak public to the international organization UNICEF and assuring UNICEF activities within the Slovak Republic. The Committee participates in realization of UN objectives and programs

in spheres of protection of children's rights, their cultural requirements, and their health care, education, and family needs" (The Statutes, 1993, Article 1).

More specifically, the mission and main roles of the Slovak Committee, stated in the Article 2 of Statutes of the Slovak Committee for UNICEF, are:

1. participation on propagation of ideas, intentions and initiatives of UNICEF;
2. obtaining of material, financial and ideological support of public for cooperation with UNICEF;
3. advocating of rights and interests of children in the Slovak Republic and obtaining public support for it;
4. by fulfilling its roles, a cooperation of the committee with government authorities, with voluntary organizations and with individual experts, working in a field of child care;
5. influencing government authorities and non-governmental organizations at realization of UNICEF's aims, connected with child care, with a special respect to aims and principles of the Convention on the Rights of the Child and the World Summit of 1990;
6. regular information of public about its roles and activities and about roles and activities of UNICEF and for this purpose it issues publications (The Statutes, 1993, Article 2).

Along with the Statutes of the Slovak Committee for UNICEF, the Cooperation Agreement is another document defining the relationship between the Committee and UNICEF. Similar to the Statutes, the Section 2 of the Cooperation Agreement defines the roles of the Committee as:

a. To further the shared goals of the Parties, the primary role of the National Committee in accordance with this Agreement is to contribute to the advancement of children's rights globally. The National Committee will pursue this goal through the following means:

- i. primarily, by raising funds in the territory from the general public, the private sector and other sources, as provided for in Section 11 (Fundraising).
- ii. secondly, by advocating for children and promoting children's rights internationally and domestically through activities in the territory as provided for in Section 12 (Child rights advocacy); as well as



iii. by supporting UNICEF's relations with governments including facilitating and encouraging government contributions to UNICEF; and

iv. by being a valuable knowledge source for UNICEF with respect to the territory.

b. The Parties recognize that the above roles are interrelated and mutually supportive and that the National Committee will undertake these roles only for the advancement of children's rights consistent with the objectives of the National Committee and National Law (Cooperation Agreement, 1994, Section 2).

Although the Slovak Committee for UNICEF is an independent NGO, the defined roles provided in the Statutes and the accepted Cooperation Agreement bind its work to UNICEF's visions. On the other hand, the Agreement determines not only commitments of the Committee, but also roles of UNICEF toward the Committee. The Section 3 of the Agreement states:

a. To further the shared goals of the Parties, the roles of UNICEF in accordance with this Agreement are:

i. To provide overall global leadership, strategies and standards as part of an overall framework for action by the National Committee community and UNICEF;

ii. To develop quality programs for children from the funds raised and given to UNICEF pursuant to this Agreement;

iii. To grant the National Committee the right to use the UNICEF Brand in the territory;

iv. To provide guidance, support and coordination for fulfilment of the National Committee roles in the context of overall UNICEF Policy;

v. To support the National Committee to ensure that fundraising and child rights advocacy in furtherance of UNICEF Policy are being undertaken in the territory;

vi. To report on programs and their results for children to the National Committee in line with best practice and Annex B; and

vii. To ensure well-defined processes, and ongoing active adherence to those processes to monitor the implementation of this Agreement and to ensure ongoing evaluation of the relationship to assist both Parties in delivering on their objectives and ensuring results for children (Cooperation Agreement, 1994, Section 3).

### 3.2.2 Coordination by UNICEF

As mentioned above, “the National Committee is an independent legal entity, associated with UNICEF but neither owned nor controlled by UNICEF” (Cooperation Agreement, 1994, Section 6a). Therefore, the relationship between the Committee and UNICEF is coordinated by three key documents. The first one is the bilateral Cooperation Agreement signed on 27 September 1994, which sets the framework for a collaboration in fostering the rights of children and supporting programs of UNICEF. The second document is the Recognition Agreement, which is a unilateral statement provided by UNICEF. The Recognition Agreement recognizes the National Committee as the official and exclusive partner of UNICEF, who promote its work in a certain country. The third one is the Governance Joint Strategic Plan Results Framework that aims to support the Committee in its effective governance.

The Governance JSP Results Framework is derived from the Joint Strategic Planning that is a mandatory bilateral planning between the Committee and UNICEF. JSP determines mutually agreed performance and strategies of the Committee, which is adopted or reaffirmed every three years and reviewing every year. The Current JSP for the Slovak Committee is settled from 2016 till 2019. “The JSP is the mandatory but not legally enforceable strategic framework to align long-term objectives, strategies and the organizational resources of UNICEF and the National Committee to achieve the greatest impact for children and to assist the National Committee to achieve performance and results consistent with Section 14, paragraphs (a-c) of the Cooperation Agreement” (Cooperation Agreement, 1994, Annex E). The Section 14 defines the finance provisions and settles the rates of required contribution and retention as the primary objective of the Committee is to maximize the net financial contribution to UNICEF’s programs. The Section 14.a.i. specifies, “the standard minimum annual contribution rate of National Committees to UNICEF is seventy-five per cent (75%) of gross proceeds raised. Within this context, the National Committee may retain up to twenty-five per cent (25%) of gross proceeds to cover the costs of its activities” (Cooperation Agreement, 1994, Section 14ai). The National Committees providing child rights advocacy and Education for Development work in their countries, such as the Slovak Committee, may retain higher percentage of gross proceeds. “In this context, resources (up to a maximum of five per cent (5%) of the National Committee’s gross proceeds) applied to these activities will be taken into

account in agreeing on variances to the contribution rate through the JSP” (Cooperation Agreement, 1994, Section 14.a.ii). Moreover, the Committee cannot use its fundraising activities for financing the advocacy or monitoring activities. However, it is allowed to finance its activities through external grants and subsidies.

For an international organization as UNICEF, it is important to establish rules, direction, structure and controlling system that prospect its effective operation with satisfying results. As a consequence, UNICEF set principles of Good Governance, which were also adopted by the National Committees at in 54<sup>th</sup> Annual Meeting in Luxembourg in May 2009, and which were previously agreed in Vilnius in 2008 as the Vilnius Declaration. The principles set a framework for the Committees in order to promote their own best governance practices. The principles contain five governance themes, such as (1) boards, committees, and strategy, (2) management and operations, (3) disclosure and transparency, (4) ethical environment, (5) audit, risk management, and compliance. For instance, the first principle requires a written constitution document establishing the Committee, which is consistent with the relevant national law, such as the Statutes of the Slovak Committee for UNICEF. The Principles of Good Governance are also implemented in the Cooperation Agreement, such as the Section 9.a. states, “The National Committee will review its alignment with these principles and ensure compliance or explain variations or exceptions. The National Committee will notify UNICEF and provide explanation of all variations and exceptions and UNICEF will provide support to comply whenever possible” (Cooperation Agreement, 1994, Section 9a).

Except the key documents, the Annual Meeting of the National Committees is the highest organizational forum, where representatives from the National Committees and UNICEF collectively decide about current and future cooperation among them. Furthermore, the Annual Meeting serves for exchange of information, possible amendments of the Cooperation Agreements, or creation of the Standing Group of the National Committees that represent all committees. Also, representatives of the National Committees are entitled to take part at UNICEF Executive Board meetings with a status of observers. However, the Chair of the Standing Group created by the National Committee community may speak at the meetings if he or she is not also a part of a government delegation.

The relationship between the Committee and UNICEF is being evaluated and corrected according to regular reporting. Both the Committee and UNICEF must stay

informed about activities of each other. UNICEF provides regular briefings to the Committee about an actual situation of the organization, but also about actual situations of children in the world. For instance, employees of the Committee receive everyday e-mails from UNICEF about actual information from regions with UNICEF's presence. More comprehensive information provided by UNICEF to the Committee about the use of contributions received from the National Committee are summarized in:

- i. An annual report on the use of Regular Resource funds made available to all National Committees within nine months of the end of the calendar year.
- ii. Reports on Thematic and Non-Thematic Other Resources funding provided in accordance with UNICEF toolkits. UNICEF Country Offices will ensure that the National Committees and, when appropriate, individual donors, are provided with sufficient and timely reports on the utilization of funds that will include a narrative report together with financial information and outcomes against objectives. Reports shall be provided annually for each Program Budget Allocation (PBA) or as otherwise mutually agreed.
- iii. Regular reporting on Private Fundraising and Partnership (PFP) operating costs as provided to the UNICEF Executive Board (Cooperation Agreement, 1994, Annex B).

On the other hand, the Committee is obliged to provide UNICEF with an annual report describing its activities and financial situation. The report must be in English. The Cooperation Agreement defines forms of annual financial reporting provided by the Committee to UNICEF, such as:

- i. Provisional Revenue and Expenditure Report (Provisional RER) for the previous calendar year – provides information on the estimated value of sales and the actual revenue from fundraising and other income together with the expenditures.
- ii. Final Revenue and Expenditure Report (Final RER) – provides the final figures for revenue and expenditure for the previous calendar year.
- iii. Inventory and Sales Report (ISR) – provides information on the quantities of stock in consignment as at 31 December and the value and quantity of products sold during the previous calendar year. This is provided in conjunction with the Final RER.

- iv. Audited Financial Statements and Auditor's Certification of the Final RER – are to be provided in accordance with the requirements set out in Section 14 of the main body of the Cooperation Agreement, accompanied by an English translation if the originals are not in English. The Auditor's Certification is a statement by the external auditors that the Final RER has been duly completed based on the audited accounts of the National Committee.
- v. Key performance indicators – provide important financial and non-financial information on key performance measures (Cooperation Agreement, 1994, Annex F).

The requirements for the Audited Financial Statements and Auditor's Certification of the final RER defined in Section 14 are, such as “the National Committee will ensure that its accounts are audited by independent certified external auditors. The accounts, together with the external auditor's certification and report, will be submitted to UNICEF within a maximum of six months of the financial year end. The National Committee will also ask the external auditors to certify the National Committee's financial compliance with the data presented in the Final Revenue and Expenditure Report (RER).” (14. e.)

All these provisions are managed by the Private Fundraising and Partnership Division (PFP) based in Geneva, Switzerland. PFP is the main contact for National Committees with UNICEF. PFP coordinates and supports National Committees and 21 country offices in all private sector fundraising and partnership activities, or licensing and sales of products. “PFP also implements global strategies in child rights advocacy, communication and brand positioning in National Committee countries through a range of partnerships, including with the media, private companies, foundations, civil society and young people” (2013 Annual Report, 2014, p. 3).

The whole work of PFP is driven according to the UNICEF Private Fundraising and Partnership Plan 2014-2017 that is aimed to support general UNICEF Strategic Plan 2014-2017. The Plan lays out a common vision and framework for private sector fundraising and partnerships at all levels of UNICEF and for National Committees to:

- maximize revenue from the private sector for UNICEF programs (to US\$1.45 billion by the end of 2017),
- expand strategic engagement with the private sector and advocate to advance child rights through an integrated approach, incorporating resource mobilization, corporate social responsibility initiatives and programmatic

cooperation, as appropriate (UNICEF Private Fundraising and Partnership Plan 2014-2017, p. 6).

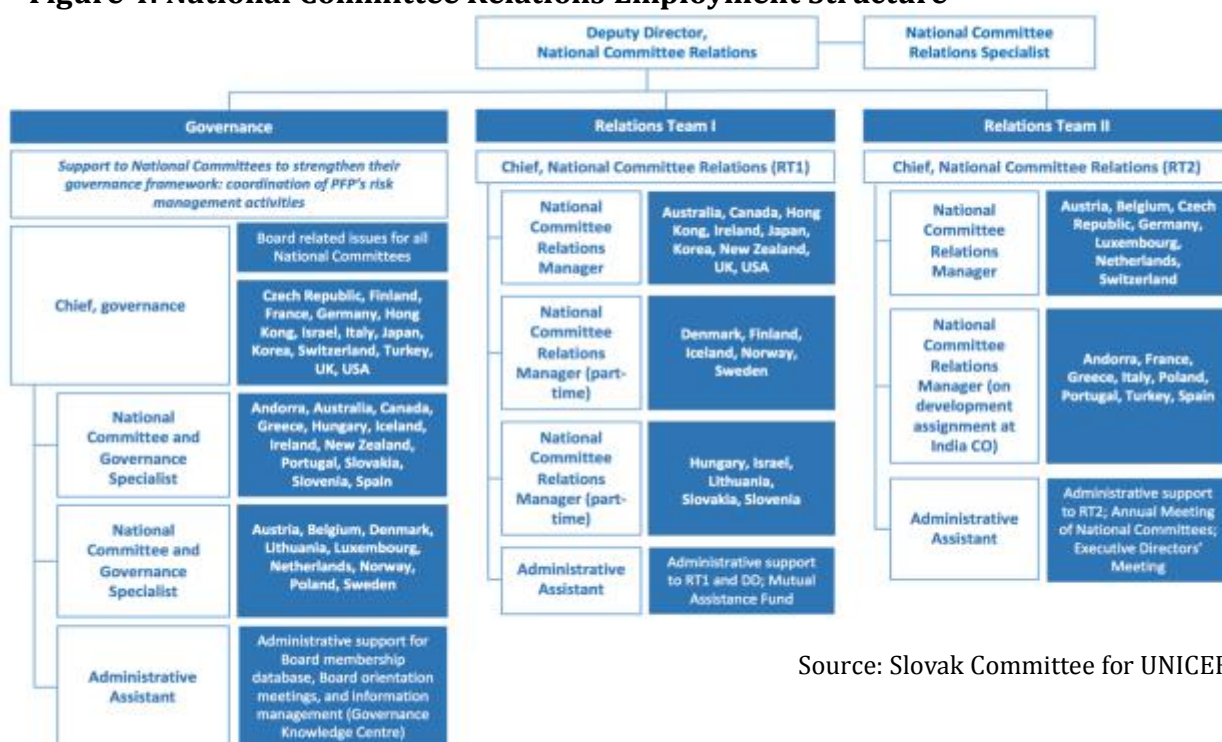
Moreover, UNICEF is being developing the next UNICEF Strategic Plan, and subsequent Private Fundraising and Partnership Plan 2018-2012 that will accompany a 2030 vision of SDG. The process of developing the new plan is led by PFP Senior Management Team (SMT) with coordination by the Strategic Planning Section and the PFP Strategic Plan Taskforce (PTF).

The PFP Division consists of the following eight sectors as well as the Director's Office:

- Private Sector Fundraising (PSFR)
- Private Sector Engagement (PSE)
- National Committee Relations
- Operations and Finance
- Human Resources
- Country Office Development and Support (CODAS)
- Strategic Planning and Integrated Corporate Engagement (SPICE)
- Communication and Marketing

The sector of the National Committee Relations is divided into the Governance and 2 relations teams.

**Figure 4: National Committee Relations Employment Structure**



Source: Slovak Committee for UNICEF

The contact person for the relations between PFP and the Committee is the Executive Director of the Committee unless otherwise agreed in the Joint Strategic Planning (JSP). The President of the Board of the Committee is the contact person for governance matters. Furthermore, “it is also recognized that other relationships between the Committee and PFP, and in particular with other sections of UNICEF, must exist for the effective and efficient operation of the relationship. In particular, the JSP will address the relationship with the Public Sector Alliances and Resource Mobilization Office (PARMO) including issues related to engagement with government, inter-governmental institutions and certain large foundations; UNICEF offices in the territory if relevant; and UNICEF Country Offices” (p. 2).

Private Fundraising and Partnership Division is a member of broader external committees across UNICEF and its regional offices, country offices, headquarters division and National Committees. PFP acts as a global secretariat for different offices and National Committees. The external committees across UNICEF include:

- Global Management Team (GMT)
- Coordination Committee for Corporate Engagement
- Global Resource Mobilization Steering Committee
- Global IT Management Team
- Project and Portfolio Review Meetings
- UNICEF Advisory Group: Tools for Implementing Due Diligence Process (relevant to the Children's Rights and Business Principles)
- Integrated Corporate Engagement (ICE) Implementation Team
- Senior Support Group to National Committee Relations

### **3.2.3 Activities of the Slovak Committee for UNICEF**

The main task of the Slovak Committee, as other National Committees, is to fundraise money for UNICEF's programs and work, and to support public awareness about UNICEF. However, the work of the Slovak Committee has developed and changed since its establishment. The Committee stopped a direct sale of UNICEF postcards and other products, what was and still is one of the main fundraising tools of other National Committees. The reason was that the Committee wanted to fully focus on other types of

fundraising that were more popular in the country. Also, it thought that 'a paperless age' would lead to a disappearance of paper postcards. Nevertheless, the Committee changed its strategy and renewed the sale soon after its end. This time, the sale is done by sub-suppliers from which UNICEF gets a certain percentage of the proceeds. Furthermore, the fundraising strategy of the Committee can be divided into two parts. It contains activities that are done globally and those that are done nationally. For instance, a global activity is a fundraising strategy of UNICEF in all around the world and can be called Global Parents UNICEF or Friends of Children UNICEF – in Slovak 'Priatel'ia detí UNICEF'. It aims to ensure pledge donors with regular donations. In 2015, this activity represented the major part of Committee's contributions, such as 218,853 EUR. Then, the Committee concentrates on three main national fundraising activities, such as Týždeň modrého gombíka, (The Blue Button Week), Vianočná zbierka (The Christmas Fundraising) and Školy pre Afriku (Schools for Africa). Týždeň modrého gombíka is organized usually in May and obtained financial contributions are used by UNICEF for specified programs or relief actions, such as a war in Ukraine, malnutrition in Mauritania or an earthquake in Nepal. All of the national fundraising activities are organized mainly thanks to schools and volunteering students and pupils. In 2015, the contributions from the national fundraising activities were 68,629 EUR. Other contributions from corporate partners or single contributions were 180.278 EUR in 2015 (Výročná správa, 2015).

The Slovak Committee focuses on more than just fundraising activities. The Slovak Committee also concentrates on advocacy activities by increasing the Slovak public awareness about children's rights, supporting child rights education in the Slovak school system, and monitoring an implementation of the Convention on the Rights of the Child by the Slovak government. Moreover, the Committee supervises the initiative of Baby-Friendly Hospitals or established a child helpline.

### **3.2.3.1 Child-Friendly Schools – Junior Ambassadors**

The main advocacy activity fostered by the Slovak Committee is a program of Child-Friendly Schools. It is a world-wide program that has different applications in various countries. However, only a few donor countries are actively participating in the program, such as Slovakia, Germany, New Zealand and Slovenia. In the case of the Slovak Republic,



the program represents a unique example of how the Child-Friendly Schools can look like because of its own variation. The program started around the year 2000 as simple presentations about UNICEF and its work in the field at Slovak schools. Zuzana Čáčová, a former program coordinator, explained the idea behind the creation of the program in Slovakia. She stated, that “schools were desperate for these presentations and there were also quite remarkable numbers of young people/volunteers willing to work for UNICEF. So the idea came somehow like that. UNICEF have run Child-Friendly Schools in program countries for many years and we really liked the name, and we also felt the schools in Slovakia could be much more friendly then they are. So first we started with very simple cooperation with schools. But we also realized that if want to change our schools into more ‘child friendly’ just occasional cooperation is not enough. So inspired by other well-known program (Rights respecting schools in UK, Zelená škola in Slovakia) we came with the idea of ‘few steps for becoming the child friendly’ for the schools.”

The Committee provides a title of Child-Friendly Schools to Slovak schools who are eligible and fulfill all requirements settled by the Committee. For instance, a school can obtain the title if it has a school student parliament, it implements child rights education into its learning process, it regularly trains its teachers about child rights, their application and protection, or it organizes collective association of parents, teachers and pupils. Also, it aims to provide not only a know-how about child rights education to Slovak schools by translation of various UNICEF’s publications into Slovak language, but it also actively participates in teaching and learning processes by a peer-to-peer education or training of teachers. In the school year 2015/2016, there were 71 schools from kinder gardens to high schools, who obtained the title of Child-Friendly Schools. Currently, there are 143 schools from all around Slovakia, who aims to receive the title in the school year 2016/2017.

Every year, the Slovak Committee opens a recruitment of new Junior Ambassadors, who participate at peer-to-peer education. Junior Ambassadors are young high school or university volunteers, who organize interactive workshops at Slovak schools about the rights of child, their meanings, their application and protection. In order to become a Junior Ambassador, young people have to pass a training and then they are regularly supervised by the Committee about their work at workshops. In the school year 2015/2016, Junior Ambassadors visited about 160 schools and 9,970 pupils took part at

their workshops. Currently, the Committee has 30 entitled Junior Ambassadors for the school year 2016/2017.

The contemporary face of the Slovak Child-Friendly Schools program and subsequent Junior Ambassadors is a result of the work of the program coordinators, such as Zuzana Čáčová, Melánia Kurpielová, Alexandra Draková and Erika Szabóová. It can be said that the contemporary status of the Slovak variation of the program is built upon active individuals and Slovak schools. Currently, Committee's advocacy activities are co-financed by the Ministry of Foreign and European Affairs of the Slovak Republic through the grant for supporting and protecting human rights and freedom.

### **3.2.4 Current Status and Challenges**

The Slovak Republic implemented the Convention on Rights of Child right after the dissolution of Czechoslovakia in 1993. The Slovak government is required to submit every five years a report about a level of implementation of children rights and a status of children lives in the country to the UN General Assembly. The General Assembly also receives an alternative report from NGOs. The Slovak Committee for UNICEF, as one of the first non-governmental organizations advocating children rights in Slovakia, prepared first two reports submitted in 1999 and 2006. It contributed to a submission of an alternative report to two optional protocols of the Convention from 2012 and an alternative report about implementation of the Convention on Rights of Child in the Slovak Republic from 2007-2015, which were made in cooperation with other Slovak NGOs as a part of the Coalition for Children. Through the Coalition for Children, the Slovak Committee as its establishing member actively cooperates with other NGOs in Slovakia.

In 1996, the Committee launched a national project of the child helpline, called 'Linka detskej istoty.' Since then, it has been working nonstop. It became a part of Child Helpline International and Missing Children International. In October 2014, the Committee started to separate the child helpline from its structures. At the end of 2015, Linka detskej istoty started to work as an independent nonprofit organization but still with a close cooperation with the Committee.

The Baby-Friendly Hospitals Initiative is another project that was adopted by the Committee in Slovakia in 1993. In order to be able to manage the initiative and follow all

requirements settled by UNICEF and WHO, the Committee started to cooperate with the Slovak Pediatric Society. Nowadays, the Slovak Pediatric Society provides a full coordination of the initiative and the Committee provides only the accreditation to the hospitals. Since 1993, 29 hospitals obtained the title of Baby-Friendly Hospital. However, none of the Slovak hospitals is currently eligible to use the title because they have failed to apply for reconsideration of the title, what is required every four years. Moreover, a long-time coordinator of the initiative, MUDr. Viera Haľamová retired and resigned her function in December 2016. Therefore, a current status of the initiative is more symbolic than actively fostering by the Committee or the Slovak Pediatric Society.

The main challenge for the Slovak Committee is to remain a reliable partner for UNICEF by fulfilling all settled plans and financial contributions, while ensuring a stable status of its national activities that are positively accepted by the Slovak society. It is a challenging task because the Committee must ensure firstly financial contributions for UNICEF programs and then financial stability for its national activities. In 2015, per capita contributions to UNICEF from the Slovak Committee were 0.05 USD, while the contributions in neighboring countries were 0.08 USD in Poland, 0.25 USD in the Czech Republic and 0.71 USD in Austria, or the highest were 33.66 USD in Norway. It places Slovakia to the bottom of the per capita contributions from member countries of the Development Assistance Committee of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development. It means that the mission of the Slovak Committee is primary to propagate a good name of UNICEF and advocate rights of children in Slovakia.

## Conclusion

Since its establishment, UNICEF has been providing development and humanitarian aid in various regions of the world. Firstly, the aid was given to regions damaged by the Second World War. Nowadays, the aid is given to regions hit by natural disasters, wars, famine or diseases. In 2016, UNICEF celebrated 70<sup>th</sup> anniversary of its existence.

In order to maintain its worldwide scope of performance for such a long time, it created a top-bottom organizational structure, from which a top is represented by the headquarter composed of the Executive Board with member states, the Bureau and the Office of the Secretary of the Executive Board. The bottom is represented by field offices and the National Committees for UNICEF, which directly implement the programs and initiatives of UNICEF, and ensure fundraising activities. On the other hand, they provide the top with feedbacks about carried projects and actual situations from their countries. The linking part between the top and the bottom of the organizational structure are regional offices and external committees across UNICEF, such as the Division of Private Fundraising and Partnership (PFP). PFP also manages relationships between UNICEF and the National Committees for UNICEF, which are autonomous nongovernmental organizations. The relation between UNICEF and the National Committees for UNICEF offers a unique example of how an international organization can manage its work.

The case-study of the Slovak Committee for UNICEF portrayed more specifically how UNICEF coordinates its work within its structures and why it is a unique example. Furthermore, the case-study focused on answering if and to what extent are the activities of the Slovak Committee for UNICEF influenced by the national environment with its specifics and conditions. From another perspective, it focused on answering if the Slovak Committee can apply its own approaches toward its activities or it must follow general approaches settled by UNICEF.

The empirical part of the thesis showed that the Committee is seen as a partner, not an agent of UNICEF. Thus, the relationship between UNICEF and the Slovak Committee for UNICEF is based on mutual values and cooperation is defined at the cooperation agreement and the statutes. The Slovak Committee is obliged to follow the Joint Strategic Planning, though it is not a legally binding document. Moreover, the Committee can manage its own programs that are adjusted to local conditions but must share UNICEF values. In the case of the Slovak Committee, it is for instance the program of the Child-

Friendly Schools with Junior Ambassadors as a form of peer-to-peer education, which by advocating means aims to increase awareness about the rights of children and child participation at the Slovak schools. Although the Committee is an autonomous NGO and financially is self-sufficient, it does not have autonomous control over distribution of its financial resources. Financial contributions collected through its fundraising activities are primarily aimed for general programs of UNICEF, and then for further marketing and administrative support of the Committee. The programs managed by the Committee can be financed for instance through obtained grants. As a consequence of sharing the values and policies with UNICEF and financial limitations settled by UNICEF, the scope of performance of the Slovak Committee for UNICEF is restrained to mainly fundraising and advocacy activities. Therefore, the Committee deals more with general topics connected with the rights of children, than with specific national issues, such as the quality of education at Slovak schools with focus on Roma children.

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