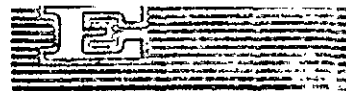


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AND YOUTH IN NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Jointly sponsored by the Economic Commission for Latin America, the Latin American Institute for Economic and Social Planning, and the United Nations Children's Fund, in co-operation with the International Labour Organisation, the Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation, and the World Health Organisation

Santiago, Chile, 28 November to 11 December, 1965

YOUTH AND WORK IN LATIN AMERICA

International Labour Organisation Presentation

Summary of an article published in the

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The following article, which is based on data collected by an ILO experts in six Latin American countries ^{1/} from April to July 1963, falls into two distinct parts. The first of these concerns the employment of children under the age of fourteen or fifteen years, and the second discusses the employment prospects open to young workers.

1. The employment of children

In all the countries investigated, the rate of population growth has risen steeply since 1955, and the low age groups are therefore particularly large. Consequently, although more and more attention is being paid to this problem, the absolute number of illiterates continues to increase.

^{1/} Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Mexico and Peru.

/Despite the

Despite the existence of legislation establishing a legal age limit below which the employment of children is prohibited, the percentage of gainfully employed children under the age of fifteen years is relatively high in most of the Latin American countries, as compared with the percentages shown for economically developed countries, which are almost down to nil.

(a) Children's occupations

It is in the agricultural sector that child labour seems to have persisted on the largest scale in several countries. The predominance of agricultural activities in Latin America is not enough to account for this phenomenon, since there is no exact correlation between the high percentage of children employed in agriculture and the over-all distribution of the active population by sectors. The explanation is to be found mainly in the facts that the very low wages received by the agricultural worker have to be supplemented by his children's earnings, and that piece work is still a common practice.

In urban areas, although censuses normally record only a negligible volume of child labour in the industrial sector, certain investigations have revealed that the number of children clandestinely employed in small workshops, often in deplorable conditions, is by no means insignificant. The principal cause of child labour is the poverty prevailing in some of the less privileged sectors of the urban population, and particularly the destitution of mother and children in consequence of the break-up of the home. In the sphere of trade, children are chiefly employed in street occupations, where their exploitation is an easy matter. Public authorities and private institutions, therefore, aware as they are that the attempt to earn money is a real necessity for such children, direct their efforts rather towards improving the living conditions of the young hawkers and pedlars than towards doing away with their employment in occupations of this type. But, although the available means of action are being gradually strengthened, nowhere are the resources at the disposal of the social rehabilitation services concerned with children and young people proportionate to the existing needs.

(b) Procedure for admission to employment

Some Latin American countries make the employment of a child or adolescent conditional upon presentation of a permit issued by an official authority, usually in the form of an employment card or book which, besides indicating identification particulars and the evidence of employability submitted, also specifies conditions of employment. Admission procedures vary from one country to another, but, generally speaking, the weakness of the administrative machinery on which proper supervision depends seriously detracts from their efficacy. Employment permits are normally issued by a special unit in the Ministry of Labour, but when the employment sought may entail

moral risks, this responsibility is often transferred to a judicial and social welfare authority (Argentina, Brazil, Peru) which, in some cases, is likewise responsible for inspection of the place of employment, although more commonly the latter function is still left in the hands of an inspection service ill-equipped for the task. It is particularly regrettable that the practice of insisting on a medical examination is not more widespread, and the ILO Conventions Nos. 77 and 78 (on the Medical Examination of Young Persons) have not been ratified by a larger number of countries.

(c) The problem of schooling

Taken as a whole, the development curve of school enrolment in relation to the number of children of school age has followed a steady upward trend since 1930, but progress has been slower in rural than in urban areas.

The period of compulsory school attendance varies in length from 4 to 7 years, sometimes reaching 8 or 9, but the teaching given is not organized in all schools in such a way as to provide the complete cycle of primary education. Here again there is an enormous difference between urban and rural areas. Dropping-out is very common, especially in country districts. Lastly, private - and therefore fee-charging - schools play a relatively important part in most of the countries of the region.

2. Youth employment prospects

(a) General prospects: further education or employment

Statistical data on the proportion of young people pursuing a secondary education show that with the exception of very few countries, and despite the progress registered in the past decade, general or vocational secondary education plays a fairly limited role in the preparation of the Latin American adolescent for active life. What is more, educational institutions at this level are for the most part privately run, and very unevenly distributed as between urban and rural areas. Owing to the high cost of secondary education or to errors of guidance, the number of students that drop out by the way is very high.

(b) Vocational guidance

The marked changes that have taken place in the Latin American economy under the influence of industrialization are reflected in some diversification of vocational training facilities, as well as in a wider range of occupational choice, and the problem of vocational guidance has thus come to the fore.

The notion that a worker's trade and even his employment constitute a sort of heirloom or hereditary right is still very much alive in Latin America, but its survival has not precluded the manifestation of a steadily increasing interest in vocational guidance methods. School guidance services have been organized in some educational establishments, but almost exclusively at the secondary level, for the benefit of pupils from the middle or upper income groups, and owing to the pedagogical background of most guidance experts, the assistance they give is focussed more on the choice between courses of study than on the choice of an occupation.

In the field of vocational information, little analytical research has been carried out with a view to providing a systematic description of skilled manual trades.

(c) Job-seeking and placement

Of the 15-year age group in the aggregate, considerably more than four-fifths in South America and nine-tenths in Central America and the Caribbean countries are already outside the educational system; that is, in 1963, about four million out of the four-and-a-half million adolescents who had just reached that age. These young people have difficulty in finding a place in the economy, not only because of their own lack of knowledge, but owing to the absence of labour exchanges, to the fact that they belong to ethnic minority groups, or to the reluctance of employers to take them on, since they are protected by special statutory provisions. Thus, young people are vulnerable to unemployment and underemployment. The employer's attitude is attributable not only to failure to understand the role that social legislation must play in safeguarding the physical well-being of young wage-earners, but also to the excessive rigidity of some of the legal requirements and to the unrealistic demands made by certain regulations.

(d) Vocational training

Vocational training is given either on an in-service basis or in vocational schools. In most of the Latin American countries, the capacity of these schools, although perceptibly increasing, is still limited, especially in respect of certain branches of activity. The place occupied by commercial education is disproportionate to the real employment opportunities. This expansion of commercial education, and the failure to systematize programmes, are largely imputable to the fact that most schools are privately run. As the level of primary education is so low, vocational training is a lengthy process, and implies a heavy burden on the families concerned. This one of the reasons why such a high proportion of the students (three-fourths on an average) drop out before completing their studies. Those who do complete the whole cycle are difficult to place, both because of the unduly theoretical character of long-term technical

/education, and

education, and for want of contact between teachers and top management. In order to overcome these difficulties, some eschools endeavour to establish contacts with local firms that might employ their pupils.

The concept of apprenticeship is not clearly defined in the existing legislation, and frequently gives rise to cut-rate employment rather than to genuine training. Nevertheless, in certain countries (Brazil, Colombia, Peru) national apprenticeship systems have been established to provide thorough and methodical training for a specific skilled occupation. In a good many instances, the responsible agencies have made arrangements with major firms affiliated to the system for apprentices to be trained exclusively within the enterprises concerned. But the number of apprentices' posts thus made available is limited not only by the capacity of the training centres themselves, but also by the extent to which employers are willing to take on their statutory quota of apprentices.

Vocational training for girls raises yet more difficult problems, since the existing system is not consistent with living conditions and with the economic development situation in the Latin American countries.

In face of the deficiencies of the training system, the idea is rapidly gaining ground that it is essential to provide the largest possible number of adolescents with opportunities of obtaining at any rate enough vocational education to make them useful workers, through training by simple means directly connected with practical work. Accordingly, different avenues are being explored with a view to the establishment of new types of elementary training applicable in the various sectors of economic activity, both rural and urban. The best example is afforded by the Mexican system of training for work through work, which combines general education with practical activities. The Workers' Educational Institute (Instituto de Educación Popular) in Chile likewise aims at teaching young people living in the suburbs of large towns who have difficulty in fitting into urban life because they have not completed their primary education. Similarly, in Brazil first steps are being taken to meet youth needs in working-class suburbs with a high proportion of in-migrants from rural areas; the programmes designed to serve this end link physical and social rehabilitation objectives with the aim of providing vocational training for some form of useful work. Lastly, the Andean programme, which international agencies are carrying out on behalf of six Latin American countries includes such elementary training systems among its activities in areas inhabited by indigenous population groups.

/Conclusions

Conclusions

The lot of children in Latin America is closely associated with the under-development of the region's economy, and the problems arising in connexion with their training and employment call for the launching of integrated programmes in which every aspect of this socio-economic situation is taken into account. The first aim should be to provide school places for all children under fourteen years and to keep them out of the employment market. In order to strengthen the efficacy of training services, steps should be taken to ensure that the first to profit by them are young people with the requisite individual interests and aptitudes, and this implies extensive diffusion of vocational information and the organization of material assistance for those capable of making the best use of it.

Furthermore, for the purposes of implementing such an integrated programme, a particularly under-developed area should be chosen as a field for application of the whole set of measures designed to safeguard children against premature employment and to ensure the provision of general education and of vocational guidance and training, as well as the admission of young people to economically active life in the best conditions possible. The experiment could then be extended to another area, and so on until the entire country had been covered.

/Part II

PART II

OCCUPATION OF UNEMPLOYED ADOLESCENTS IN LATIN AMERICA

A. Employment prospects for adolescents

1. During recent years, Ecuador and Mexico have been the only Latin American countries in which the increase in the economically active population has kept pace with the rate of demographic growth. Given the persistence of this trend -- partly linked as it is, moreover, to the rejuvenation of the population and to improved school attendance -- the rate of participation in economic activity, which exceeded 32 per cent in 1965, might be in the neighbourhood of 30 per cent by 1980.
2. This evidence alone would suffice to show that employment prospects for adolescents are not particularly bright in Latin America. But, in addition, the existence of numerous tertiary-sector activities and of what is still a high proportion of artisan and family industries, makes for underemployment of young people, the possibilities for absorption of workers being far more elastic in such low-productivity sectors than in modern branches of activity. And even these possibilities are inadequate for the young job-seekers, who migrate from the small towns to the big industrial centres in an attempt to escape from urban underemployment, only to find that conditions there are no better. In the agricultural sector, the reabsorption of unemployment and underemployment largely depends upon the introduction of radical agrarian reforms, which in their turn, by giving agricultural workers greater freedom of action and increased facilities to expand their production, would make higher educational levels indispensable, and would mean that boys who had been to school enjoyed more opportunities of using what they had learnt.
3. The inadequacy of labour exchange services, the attitude of young people themselves and the incongruity between their occupational aspirations and the real situation on the labour market, together with the unwillingness of some managers to take on young workers protected by special statutory provisions, help to aggravate this state of affairs. The Economic Commission for Latin America (ENCLA), in the course of evaluating the employment opportunities that would need to be created in order to provide work for the younger age groups in Latin America, estimated that given a rate of entry into the labour market of 39 per mil and a withdrawal rate of 14.5 per mil, about two-thirds of the requisite posts would have to be created outright. ^{1/}

^{1/} E. Fischlowitz, "Dinamismo populacional e desenvolvimento econômico social", Síntese política, econômica, social (Instituto de Estudos Políticos y Sociales da Pontifícia Universidade Católica de Rio de Janeiro), Year IV, January-March 1962, Nº 13, p.62 /4. In face

4. In face of the seriousness of the problem, it seems certain that the long-term solution can be found only in the integration of employment policy with over-all economic development policy: that is, in the incorporation of employment objectives in development plans such as most of the Latin American countries have undertaken to put into effect. Venezuela's plan for 1963-66, and the 1964-67 plan formulated by Puerto Rico, make explicit provision for the expansion of employment; but while obviously industrialization, land settlement or agrarian reform programmes are intrinsically bound to exert, in so far as they can be successfully implemented, a direct or indirect influence on the use of manpower, it too often happens that they are not primarily concerned with the creation of employment opportunities. Yet it is through the establishment of employment objectives, as well as through the application of labour-intensive methods of production, that within the framework of over-all economic development the problems stemming from the special situation of adolescents will gradually become easier to solve. A study of the development of employment in each of the individual Latin American countries, with their patently varying economic conditions, would be outside the scope of the present note.

5. It may be possible, however — and there cannot be the slightest doubt that it would be desirable —, to seek an immediate and up to a point a temporary solution, in the shape of special ways and means of providing work for youths and adolescents who are unable to obtain employment through the mere inter-action of supply and demand on the labour market, or to find a home occupation that brings their abilities into full play.

6. Parenthetically, allusion must be made here to the impossibility of shirking the school attendance problem, since all the young people that it would be better to keep out of the labour market are capable of following courses at one level or another. In this sense, for the younger age groups the problem of employment and that of school attendance are complementary in a society where technology is constantly breaking new ground. What is more, a mass withdrawal of young people from the labour market is not the only effect of school attendance; it affords employment opportunities for teachers and auxiliary personnel, and opens up new prospects for the "educated unemployed" found in some countries. Plenty of young persons, for example, could be of use as primary teachers or even, under literacy programmes in particular, in the sphere of adult education. In the strict context of young people's school attendance, it is worth while to recall the objectives proposed by UNESCO for Latin American: between 1960 and 1970, to raise the number of students attending educational establishments from

/26 million

26 million at the primary level, from 3.7 million to 11.5 million at the secondary level, and from 5000 000 to 900 000 at the level of higher education. ^{2/}

7. In order to attain such objectives, steps would have to be taken with the following ends in view (due allowance being made for the shades of difference between the various Latin American countries in each of the respects mentioned): to supply the want of teachers, premises and teaching material; to ensure the proper training of teachers, to adapt curricula and teaching methods, which in many cases are still over-academic, to the region's real needs, thus making it easier for parents to understand the importance of sending their children to school; to set up educational establishments throughout the rural areas; and to see that the instruction provided in rural primary schools really does open the gates to secondary education.

B. Work and training camps for the young unemployed

8. At the present time, the commonest method of providing occupation for unemployed adolescents in developing countries consists in establishing work camps. Various Latin American countries have adopted this system, notably El Salvador, Jamaica, Mexico and others. An interesting case in point is that of the Jamaican Youth Corps.

9. This organization was set up in 1955 to take in hand one thousand unemployed boys, grouped in two camps, with a view to enabling them to improve their qualifications. The aim was not to give them vocational training, but to develop their natural aptitudes so that they could lead a useful life in an agricultural community; to imbue them with a sense of responsibility; to train them for simple and useful work in the rural environment; to contribute to their general physical, mental and moral education; to give them the right attitude to work; and, lastly, to teach them the art of living with other people. The number of boys joining the camps has not been allowed to exceed 1 000 although as many as 16 000 applicants for admission have been submitted yearly. By virtue of the Jamaica Youth Corps Act, passed in 1956, the Government gave the movement its official support, defined the adolescent as "anyone between the ages of 15 and 21 years, inclusive", and instituted a Board of Management to be responsible for the administration of the Youth Corps.

10. Recruitment in the Youth Corps is on a purely voluntary basis. Positions of responsibility are assigned to those boys who, even if they are illiterate and unlikely to attain a high level of productivity

2/ See Provisional Report of the Conference on Education and Economic and Social Development in Latin America, March 1962 (UNESCO/ED/CEDES/37, Rev.1: ST/ECLA/CONF/10/L.37/Rev.1), Special Annex I, UNESCO, A Basis for an Estimate of Educational Targets for Latin America and Financial Resources needed to meet them.

themselves, seem to possess gifts of leadership that will enable them to inspire their community with the will to achieve a better way of living. Twelve months is the usual duration of the period spent in camp, but some of the boys may stay for an additional six months, in the course of which they are given more thorough training.

11. Made answerable in 1956 to the Ministry of Education, the camps are now under the control of the Ministry of Development and Welfare, which is in a better position to co-ordinate their activities with those carried on under Jamaica's development programmes. Accordingly, the Youth Corps now works in close contact not only with the various national development agencies and the pertinent administrative authorities, but also with private enterprises.

12. Since maximum dependence on the boys' own initiative is aimed at, the camps, each of which has a director in charge, require only a small staff. The group leaders, who are sometimes responsible for the boys' training, do not receive any systematic training themselves, the knowledge acquired on the job being gradually passed on to others. In some cases, technical advice may have been given by officials or experts, but in principle the boys are supposed to be as independent as possible and to cope with the demands of the situation. Consequently, what they learn is often at an elementary level. It has been proposed, therefore, that their training should be expanded and placed on a more systematic footing. They do not earn wages, but receive a modest sum (five shillings a week) as pocket-money; board, lodging and issues of clothing are provided.

13. The work done by the boys is mainly agricultural: crop and stock farming, forestry, navying. But it also includes construction (they did a great deal to putting up the camp buildings) and miscellaneous activities such as making clothes, mending shoes or repairing vehicles. At first, the boys received no vocational training proper. The Commission appointed to evaluate the Youth Corps, however, recommended that they should be given training in non-agricultural skills of use in connexion with the development of Jamaica (woodwork, metalwork, draughtsmanship, working with electrical equipment), so that they could easily fill a niche in the country's new economic structure; the plan for 1963-68 formalizes this reorientation of the Youth Corps movement. The evaluation commission had also placed it on record that the boys were dissatisfied because they did not find it easy to obtain employment on leaving the camps. Some entered the police force, others obtained jobs in the private sector, but only fifty per cent went back to their own rural environment to play the role they were expected to take up.

14. It is estimated that the maintenance of the Youth Corps costs the Government one hundred pounds sterling per adolescent/year. For the period 1963-68, the allocation for the upkeep of the camps is only 40 000 pounds, the Government having applied for assistance under the World Food Programme.

15. This case study serves to illustrate a good many of the problems attendant upon the establishment of a system for putting to a trade, or at least usefully occupying, unemployed adolescents in a developing country where the population growth rate is soaring. It seems worth while, however, to outline the general features that may characterize such a system, and to attempt to indicate very briefly, in the case of each of these problems, the solutions that the experience of various countries has shown to be of interest.

16. The basic objective is to encourage the young unemployed to take a share in tasks linked to national development, while at the same time acquiring a measure of general education and vocational training, and improving their physical fitness and moral character. Their participation in development activities entails their "mobilization" in a given place for a specific length of time, and this may also afford an opportunity for a medical check-up and for training in sensible diet habits. Care must be taken, however, to see that the setting-to-work system does not enter into competition with formal education, whether general or technical, and that it draws in only those boys for whom actual schooling is impossible or inappropriate.

17. Since the system is designed to harness the energies of a fairly large number of young people, the camp work assignments must be co-ordinated with national economic development programmes, in which they should if possible be incorporated. The questions that come to the fore in this connexion are those of the distribution of available resources between directly productive investment and expenditure on vocational training, and of the selection of the types of work to be undertaken, with the preliminary studies they imply.

18. The integration of the camps with a country's administrative and social structures often raises delicate problems, since by their very nature the camps may be dependent upon different government departments and different technical services at the national, regional or local level. According to the motivations underlying the establishment of the system, they may be answerable to the Ministries of Economic Affairs or of Social Welfare, to the Ministry of Agriculture, or to the departments concerned with young persons or national defence. It seems preferable, however, that a single organ or administrative authority should carry the top responsibility for the setting-to-work system as a whole, apart from the technical contacts that will still be essential at the central or regional level. Another aspect that must not be disregarded is the role that may be played in the organization of the system by certain traditional -- particularly tribal -- structures, or by political parties, or, again, by the army. In a country like Peru, for example, it would be worth while to consider what benefit might be derived from an organic link between the setting-to-work system and the "popular co-operation" movement.

/19. Given the

19. Given the existing situation in Latin America, it would seem that a network of young people's work and training camps, offering different ranges of activities, could be established in countries deeming it necessary, under the authority of a central administrative department. Before entering these camps, boys might spend some time at preparatory camps where they would receive more general elementary education. To form the groundwork of the system, particularly in the towns, centres might be established to fulfil various functions: to give non-school-attending or unemployed adolescents, in the first place, some indication of the activities whereby they could improve their qualifications and their general educational attainments; to recruit the most promising boys for drafting into the preparatory camps; or conversely to facilitate their placement in the public or private sector; and, lastly, to give homeless boys a roof over their heads. Obviously, these are merely suggestions for a prototype pattern.

20. Financing is often the stumbling-block in the way of any intensive manpower utilization system. Such systems may entail heavy expenditure, especially if the real cost of the work carried out is taken into consideration (the problems of rates of return on the operation and of recurring liabilities), together with the cost of the boys' wages, where this question arises. Hence recourse is had to external aid -- from international, bilateral or private sources -- in personnel, in kind (food) or in cash. Expenses may be reduced by marketing the boys' produce, and also through the part they play in helping to build the camps. From the technical standpoint, it would seem preferable to establish pluriennial budgets, and, if the primary aim is the reabsorption of unemployment, the credits granted for expenditure on tools and equipment can be kept relatively low. Another possible procedure might be to make local communities responsible for some proportion of the expenditure.

21. Recruitment should be effected on a voluntary basis, and the best way of achieving this is to surround the camps with such an aura of prestige that enrolment is regarded by the boys as a privilege. As for selection criteria (physical suitability; educational and technical background, or, conversely, lack of such qualifications; place or social stratum of origin, to facilitate ultimate mixing), they must depend upon the objectives pursued. Camps for girls may also be contemplated.

22. The selection of cadres -- administrative, technical or "psychological" (group counsellors) -- also presents many problems. The upper cadres, it would seem, must inevitably be drawn from government departments, unless recourse is had to independent experts in the field, with substantial experience acquired in private institutions. The more explicitly the system aims at equipping the boys with vocational skills, the sounder should be the training and background of the subaltern cadres, and, in this case, on-the-job training of members of the "contingent" of boys appears correspondingly less desirable.

Trained staff from outside, or internal personnel whose qualifications have been improved by means of training periods, seems preferable in these circumstances. It may be noted in this connexion that the army, which, in various Latin American countries, has plenty of technical experience, could usefully second cadres to the youth camps. Furthermore, advantage might be taken of the experience acquired by a committee for the co-ordination of construction projects in the hands of international volunteer corps, which has organized two training courses for works superintendents (in Paraguay in 1961, and in Bolivia in 1963).

23. The practical organization of the system itself and of the work undertaken poses innumerable problems (provision of equipment, food and diet questions, establishment of marketing facilities, contacts with the technical services concerned, formation of work teams, discipline and chain of authority in the camps) which are beyond the limited scope of the present note, and whose solution, moreover, may vary according to the case concerned. The same applies to the boys' condition of work: will they be subject to the social legislation in force in the country, or will its provisions exclude them? In any event, it seems essential to apply certain minimum regulations in the camps, particularly with regard to the number of hours worked, to safety measures and to compensation for accidents at work. Wages will often be reduced to mere pocket money, since the boys are given board and lodging, and possibly issues of clothing, free of charge.

24. In respect of the types of work to be undertaken, the most advantageous are those which, once completed, may at least be expected to yield a certain surplus, and which, over the long-term, create a large number of employment opportunities; they must, of course, entail minimum use of machinery if maximum utilization of manpower is desired. Land development heads the list of possibilities, whether it takes the forms of soil reclamation and management, clearing land and bringing it under cultivation, reforestation, irrigation and drainage, or stock-farming; clearing and crop farming have the advantage of enabling the boys to settle on the spot when they leave the camps, and also of facilitating the modernizations of agriculture if mechanization is contemplated, in which case the youth camps act as pilot enterprises whose example the rest of the population can follow. The fishing industry also offers opportunities for young people. Small-scale and artisan industry permit the production or processing of many goods for local consumption, or the manufacture of spare parts as inputs for large-scale industry. The usefulness of infrastructural work, such as the construction of means of communication, is mainly contingent upon the areas where it is carried out and upon future maintenance prospects. Residential building has the merit of multiplying employment opportunities in many allied activities, but the economic implications of urbanization work proper are limited.

25. The training that the boys are to be given varies with the nature and aim of the system. In camps where the work undertaken calls for sound technical knowledge, it will be virtually vocational training, although it will be all the better if the methods adopted are essentially practical, theoretical instruction being followed as closely as possible by concrete application. Conversely, in camps whose inmates, in many cases, will have had little or no schooling prior to their admission, "pre-training" will be required, designed to develop such aptitudes as are indispensable for the proper performance of any kind of work. On the basis of this simple and polyvalent pre-training, which may even comprise a grounding that extends from the three R's to social and health education, boys can be selected for more advanced training.

26. Even if the decision to open new camps is adopted as an emergency measure in face of a tense or disquieting social situation, it should also be linked from the outset to a reasonably firm government programme designed to ensure that adolescents called upon to perform a specific service will be helped to improve their prospects as individual human beings. This involves the whole question of the subsequent reabsorption of the young people concerned, to which end the camp activities should be directed. Clearing land and bringing it under cultivation are tasks that permit the automatic placement of the boys performing them, and broadly speaking, all land development jobs guarantee subsequent employment for a considerable number of workers. If, at the end of their term of service, the boys return to their own rural environment, automatic reabsorption also takes place up to a point, provided that they do not simply slip back into their former rut of under-employment. This reabsorption in the industrial sector after infrastructural and industrialization work is often more difficult. It may be furthered by collaboration between labour exchanges and camp managements. Moreover, the training given at the camps gains by adjustment to the existing labour market outlets and to the openings that may be offered in the near future.

C. Other activities open to adolescents

27. Irrespective of the organization of work and training camps, possibilities of providing useful occupation for adolescents are to be found at various levels:

(a) One of these is to set unemployed adolescents, especially girls, to work as auxiliary personnel in social services: hospitals, homes for children or old people, institutions for the physically handicapped, etc. In particular, the centres to which allusion was made in paragraph 19 could guide the adolescents they considered best fitted for them;

(b) Private institutions, scout, ranger or guide troops, workers' youth movements, etc., -- all of which are capable of playing some part in the training of their members, and even in the development of

production, by undertaking some of the tasks described above in the context of youth camps, as they have shown in various countries, -- ought to be given material encouragement to this end by the State;

(c) An occupation of special interest for young people might be to take part, still in the capacity of auxiliary personnel, in scientific expeditions to evaluate natural resources in little-known areas of their own country;

(d) Lastly, for the young unemployed who have attained a certain educational level (this is, on the whole, the advantage enjoyed by contemporary youth in the developing countries over the preceding generation), teaching or literacy campaigns offer ready-made employment. Until a sufficient number of fully capable certificated teachers are available, the contribution that can be made by young people with some qualification in this sphere is by no means negligible, even at the level of secondary education.

APPENDIX

YOUTH AND LABOUR IN LATIN AMERICA

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