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LATIN AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON CHILDREN
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 Organization of the United Nations, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, and World Health Organization

Santiago, Chile 28 November to 11 December 1965

DRAFT REPORT OF THE CONFERENCE

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/Introduction

INTRODUCTION

1. The present report summarizes the proceedings and conclusions of the Latin American Conference on Children and Youth in National Development, jointly sponsored by the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the Economic Commission for Latin America (ECLA) and the Latin American Institute for Economic and Social Planning, which was held at Santiago, Chile, from 28 November to 11 December 1965.
2. The Conference was held pursuant to a decision of the UNICEF Executive Board, adopted in 1962, that UNICEF should assist developing countries in taking account of children and youth in their development programme. Funds for this purpose were approved by the Board at its session in June 1965, when it was decided to hold regional conferences on children and youth in national planning and development. The object of the Conference held at Santiago was to study the needs of children and youth in Latin America, to examine present approaches followed by Governments in meeting these needs and to consider how to improve the methods and organization for giving the younger generation its rightful place in national development.
3. The present report is in two parts. Part I describes the membership and attendance and the organization of the work of the Conference, and includes the agenda on which the discussions were based. Part II, gives an account of the proceedings and of the conclusions reached by the participants.

Part I

ORGANIZATION OF THE CONFERENCE

A. MEMBERSHIP, ATTENDANCE, AND ORGANIZATION OF WORK

Opening and closing meetings

4. The opening meeting on 29 November 1965 was held in the Hall of Honour of the National Congress, and the Chair was taken by His Excellency Mr. Eduardo Frei, President of Chile.^{1/} In his address, Mr. Frei spoke of the aims of the Conference, and of what Chile was doing for the younger generation. Mr. Espiritu Santos Mendoza, the First Vice-Chairman of the Conference, also made an address.^{2/}

5. At the first working meeting Mr. Henry Labouisse, Executive Director of UNICEF, indicated the general lines that the Conference's debates should follow.^{3/}

Membership and attendance

6. The Conference was attended by sixty-nine participants, observers and consultants from the following countries: Argentina, Austria, Bolivia, Brazil, British Guiana, Canada, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Jamaica, Mexico, Nicaragua, the Netherlands, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, the United States of America, Uruguay and Venezuela.^{4/}

7. In addition to the United Nations sponsors of the Conference, the following United Nations bodies were also represented: the UNICEF Executive Board, the United Nations Bureau of Social Affairs, the International Labour Organisation (ILO) the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD), the World Health Organization (WHO), and the Latin American Demographic Centre (CELADE).

^{1/} The complete text appears in Annex I.

^{2/} See Annex II.

^{3/} See Annex III.

^{4/} Annex IV gives a complete list of those who attended, and of the secretariat of the Conference.

8. Representatives of the following inter-American agencies also took part in the work of the Conference: the Organization of American States (OAS), the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) the Inter-American Childrens Institute and the Panamerican Health Organization.

Organization of work

Officers of the Conference

9. The officers of the Conference were to have been the following:

Chairman: Mr. Adolfo Lopez Mateos

Vice-Chairmen: Mr. Espiritu Santos Mendoza
Mr. Roberto Maldonado

Rapporteur: Mr. Fernando Cardoso

Secretary: Mr. Albert Reynolds

10. Three days before the Conference opened the Organizing Committee was informed that Mr. Adolfo Lopez Mateos, the former President of Mexico, would be unable to act as Chairman of the Conference because of ill health. The Organizing Committee sent Mr. Lopez Mateos a cable expressing its wishes for his speedy recovery, and decided that Mr. Espiritu Santos Mendoza, the First Vice-Chairman of the Conference, should take the Chair as Acting Chairman.

11. The work of the Conference was divided into two parts, each lasting a week. During the first week, under the chairmanship of Mr. Santos Mendoza, the Conference discussed the problems and needs of children and young people in Latin America, and ways and means of dealing with them. During the second week, under the chairmanship of Mr. Roberto Maldonado, the Conference studied the experiences of certain countries in the planning field, in relation to the place of children and young people in national development, and the bases for a national policy in respect of the younger generation.

12. In conformity with the internal rules of procedure adopted by the Conference, two committees were set up, to be responsible, respectively, for the steering of the Conference and for the drafting of the report. The Steering Committee was formed by the Chairman, the Secretary of the Conference, and representatives of the three sponsoring agencies. The Drafting Committee consisted of a Vice-Chairman, who took the chair, two members selected from among the participants, the Rapporteur, and representatives of the sponsoring bodies.

B. AGENDA

13. At its first working meeting the Conference adopted the following agenda:^{5/}

- I. The needs and problems of children and youth in Latin America
- II. Patterns of Action for meeting the needs of children and youth in Latin America
- III. Prerequisites for more effective policy and programme implementation
- IV. Perspectives -- the place of the child and youth in national development and planning

^{5/} The documents that served as the basis for the discussions are listed in Annex V to the present report.

PART II

ACCOUNT OF PROCEEDINGS

A. PROBLEMS AND NEEDS OF CHILDREN AND
YOUTH IN NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Introduction

14. The problems of children and youth in relation to national development from two angles. In the first place, it was considered that development, as a process of change, calls for new aptitudes and attitudes in the non-adult generation; and secondly it was felt that, irrespective of specifically economic needs, the development process makes it possible to reassess human problems, and, in that context to think of children and young people as values in themselves.

15. In both cases emphasis was laid on the importance of a dynamic approach. On the one hand, the development process is constantly creating new social functions, new types of work, and new technical demands which affect the individual human being's adjustment to his environment and to society. On the other hand, during the period of transition from the traditional "stationary" economies to modern industrial societies, the state of social and human deprivation in which a majority of the inhabitants of the under-developed countries are living clamour increasingly loudly for attention.

16. The emergence of needs created by development and the awakening of a deeper social consciousness on the part of the Latin American peoples have thrown into relief the deficiencies in existing living conditions in countries of the region. Perhaps it might have been possible, by means of comparisons drawn from history, to soften the impression caused by the shortage of resources, the poverty in which a substantial proportion of the Latin American population lives, and the relative ill-success of the efforts made to remedy this situation. But to the Governments who submitted reports to the Conference, and to most of the participants, it seemed preferable to continue painting in its true colours, without toning it down at all, the picture of the lacks and deficiencies that limit Latin America's possibilities of developing its economy and of turning the human potentialities of its population to worthy account.

17. This decision is in itself an indicator of a resolute determination to push on along the road to development and thus improve the living conditions of children and youth. It should not be interpreted as a pessimistic attitude; on the contrary, it denotes a belief on the part of the peoples and the Governments of Latin America that the first step towards the reform of the existing situation must be a steadfast and objective endeavour to recognize the deficiencies in question, to set a proper value on human beings as such, and, consequently, to strive for the creation of a new world.

18. In this connexion, it was felt at the Conference that the problems and needs of childhood and youth, although specific, are consubstantial with over-all national development problems, and, therefore, that the latter entail the devotion of special attention to the new generation.

19. So close is the correlation between the younger generations and the adult generations, between development requirements and human needs, that, strictly speaking, reference to development implies reference to the problems of children and youth, just as the solution of such problems calls for the existence of resources in the broadest sense of the term - economic, cultural, technical and organizational - which can only be available where a balanced development process is under way.

20. These considerations must be analysed in the light of the basic social phenomena common to almost all the countries of the region.

- (a) The analysis of demographic structure shows that these are young populations, in which 40 to 45 per cent of the inhabitants are under 15 years of age, and, in addition, that they are increasing at a rapid rate;
- (b) Moreover, the development process itself causes mass population shifts from the rural areas to the towns, since the exodus provoked by rural structures is aggravated by the magnetic attraction of industrialization.
- (c) Failure to create enough new employment opportunities to keep pace with migration on the part of the inhabitants of rural areas and with over-all population growth results in mass urban under-employment and unsatisfactory conditions in respect of sanitation, health, housing and education.
- (d) Consequently, it has not been possible for the new contingents to be absorbed into urban and industrial life, and there is a great deal of incomplete urbanization in Latin America, characterized by the formation of poverty belts around the larger towns;
- (e) Lastly, although the impact of the urbanization process has been more powerful, perhaps because this is a more recent development, the deficiencies of living conditions in the rural sector must not be forgotten. It is still in the rural areas that the majority of the region's population lives, and the proportions of child population are highest. The rural population exodus has created problems in the towns without improving the position in the countryside.

21. This state of affairs, taken in conjunction with such additional factors as the foreseeable decrease in the infant mortality rate and the increase in the expectation of life as a result of improved sanitary conditions, confronts the Latin American countries with problems and dilemmas which it is urgently necessary to solve. Responsible and practical action must be taken to speed up rates of economic growth, and decisions must be adopted

on an objective basis to ensure that development efforts do not prove inadequate in relation to the problems created by a steadily increasing population which finds no opportunities of normal integration into economic and social life.

22. Since the adult population of the next 20 to 25 years is the child population of today, living in the conditions described above, no radical change can be expected to take place in the Latin American picture unless policies and plans are launched with the aim of satisfying the needs of children and youth.

23. With this end in view, and in the context of the foregoing motives of concern, special reports were presented to the Conference, which are summed up below. They analyse the situation of children and youth in relation to national development (ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.16) and the demographic problems of the region (ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.10) and (ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.7); attention was also drawn to some of the findings of Un programa de encuestas comparativas de fecundidad en la América Latina: refutación de algunos conceptos erróneos.

National reports

24. In examining the principal problems presented in the national reports, it was considered in document ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.16 the Conference should focus attention on the following central objectives:

- (a) Determination of the main problems affecting children and youth and their causes;
- (b) Inclusion of programmes designed to improve the conditions for children and youth as part of the national plans, with a view to a balanced economic and social growth;
- (c) Promotion of national and international development policies aimed at removing the causes of the problems affecting children and youth instead of merely attacking their symptoms or manifestations;
- (d) Contributions to the formulation of inducements to persuade the various economic, religious and political sectors to make efforts to improve the economic and social situation of the less privileged inhabitants of the region.

25. The analysis of the position in the Latin American countries, presented in document ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.16 stressed the point that children's needs should be met through the several sectors of social activity connected with them, in the following basic respects: affection, hygiene and physical development, food, shelter, mental development (including education), freedom of communication and expression, vocational guidance and economic security, emotional development, and employment opportunities and social acceptance.

26. It was noted that certain of these problems were common to the whole of Latin America and that others might be aggravated by the development process. Further, attention was drawn to the fact that under-development prevents those needs from being met and the want of an adequate administrative structure often precludes the implementation of a policy designed to satisfy them. One of the
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points meriting most careful consideration was the imbalance between the urban and the rural environment, the lack of national integration, either as a result of the geographical isolation of certain areas, or for want of politico-administrative interconnexions, and the fact that in the policies now being implemented the family has not been approached from the standpoint of a development policy, which brings about changes in the social functions of the basic nuclei of society.

27. Consequently, opportunities are noticeably unequal in the various countries of the region, and this affects children in particular. Such problems are manifestly acute in the rural area, whose inability to meet its own social, economic and political needs is well known. The fate of its inhabitants - particularly children and young people - was a crucial factor, inasmuch as the bulk of the population lived in the rural area. A study was being made of agrarian reform and land settlement plans with a view to increasing food production and improving the income level of the rural population. However, the rapid increase in the rural population might render those efforts useless - on however large a scale they were conducted - unless supplementary solutions were sought. It would appear that reforms in the system of land tenure and diversification of production would be the only way to achieve an evolution that would remedy the present very inequitable income distribution. Hitherto, most of the measures adopted had failed to include action aimed at reducing the rural disequilibrium that was typical of the developing countries; urbanization had not been considered as a measure for supplementing agrarian reform and land settlement plans. It was necessary to intensify economic and social integration, relieve the pressure on land and create towns which would compete with the existing capitals and industrial centres. Such a strategy would result in the economic and social integration of communities that were now isolated and in the mass absorption of rural children and young people into modern life.

28. The degree of tension in the relations between various groups, population centres, areas and countries in the future would depend upon the care, example and opportunities offered today to children and young people in the interests of their physical, mental and emotional development.

29. The family was the first group to affect the physical, mental and emotional development of children and adolescents. The child's development was dependent upon its parent's health and economic circumstances, and upon the care and acceptance surrounding it. Accordingly, the economic, social and political acceptance of the parents by the community was of vital importance, as also the parents' level of education or ignorance. Thus, the effort to overcome, through mass communication media (radio, cinema, etc.), the adults' traditional ignorance and superstition, particularly in the rural areas, has had the effect of improving the children's mental development and adaptation to the circumstances of modern living. Hence those activities should be continued and increased.

30. The child's emotional development also depended on the parent's attitude to it and to the community itself, since children tended to identify themselves above all with their parents. Therefore, the lack of one or both parents (through illegitimacy, desertion or orphanhood) created serious emotional problems which in the long run could become social problems.

Discussion

31. The discussions on document ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.16 placed varying emphasis in each case on the necessity of meeting the basic needs of children and young people through an over-all policy capable of channelling the many factors influencing human well-being as part of a single common objective.

32. With respect to the basic means of ensuring that future generations would have the necessary conditions as regards material welfare, social and emotional relations and access to culture, participants' views varied. Some stressed the importance of the family as a means of guaranteeing a balanced emotional development for the child, as well as of ensuring its proper feeding, education and integration into the adult world, while others underlined the importance of economic and other environmental conditions that they considered were in the last analysis decisive in permitting the family to carry out such functions.

33. It was agreed that whichever of these views was correct, the two aspects of the situation were complementary. Thus those who stressed the importance of the factors that indirectly affect and condition the younger generation fully agreed that the important point was to define fully the scale and general lines of the efforts that must be made to overcome the lag in the national economy, and thus make a real improvement in the conditions of poverty of the broad masses, increase productivity and open up opportunities of productive employment. However, concern with these more general problems was usually justified on the grounds that the care given to children depends on their parents' opportunity to work, degree of acceptance in society, and emotional maturity. The inability of parents to provide their children with a better life springs from the weakness of the social organization of which they form part, and this can only be corrected through economic, social and administrative planning.

34. Furthermore, even when the Conference stressed the importance of family ties in enabling children to be given the care they need, it was never forgotten that such ties were affected by the general economic and social situation in the country. Hence the classic problems of broken families, unmarried mothers, abandoned children, etc., are most frequently encountered in the poorest areas of Latin America. In some areas the illegitimacy rate is as high as 60-70 per cent of all births; in these circumstances what is needed is a policy to organize the family, rather than one to strengthen it.

35. In order to deal with the multiplicity of problems, it was agreed that the main instrument must be social development and economic plans, if there was to be any improvement in the worst aspects of the situation of children and young people in Latin America. It was also stated that for this purpose it would be necessary to review the concept of development and revise planning activities, in order to give explicit expression to the importance of human problems and means of satisfying the needs and aspirations of the new generations.

National case studies

36. The problems and solutions indicated in broad outline above were considered in detail by the representatives of five countries, who described the results arrived at in the analysis of the position of children and young people in Argentina, Jamaica, Peru, Mexico and Venezuela (documents E/LACCY/CS/L.1 to L.5). An over-all study of those analyses (ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.9) was also presented to the Conference.

37. Argentina has a low population density, the bulk of its inhabitants being concentrated in the economically and socially more developed provinces. It has a relatively low population growth rate and, therefore, the age structure of its population tends to resemble that of the developed countries, a fact which distinguishes Argentina from most of the other Latin American countries.

38. Argentina's economy reflects an irregular growth of the gross domestic product, which alternates between booms and slumps caused by the vagaries of the external market. The 1965-69 development plan is intended to overcome this deficiency and achieve self-sustained growth. Argentina's socio-economic structure is in some respects similar to that of the developed countries (e.g., the distribution of its population at a productive age, and of the private consumption resources which indicate the existence of a large domestic market), while in others it is typical of the developing countries. Its particular structure necessitates a development policy which will cover the two extremes at the same time.

39. Likewise, many of the indicators relating to the population's health conditions are similar in value to those found in the developed countries -- a mortality rate of 3.5 per mil among children aged 1 to 5 years -- and this applies to many factors; on the other hand, the child mortality rate keeps pace with that of the developing countries.

40. As regards school-age population, 88 per cent of the total number of children aged 6 to 12 years are enrolled in primary schools; 30 per cent of the adolescents between 13 and 18 years of age attend secondary school and 10 per cent of the young persons in the 19-24 age group are at university. Nevertheless, there is a high drop out rate and the education provided is not compatible with the country's needs, there being a predominance of careers which are not vital to the economic development process and this necessitates the reorganization of the educational infrastructure in order to make better use of the resources invested therein (10 to 15 per cent of the total national and provincial budgets over the past ten years). The following are the goals pursued: that attendance at primary school should reach 95 per cent, secondary education 40 per cent and university education 11 per cent. At the same time, it is proposed to promote such careers as present-day technology considers of strategic importance for development. Studies have been carried out to determine how far the education imparted is in line with the country's needs and what place those leaving school are finding in society.

41. The policy of the development plan, in so far as children and youth are concerned, is to tackle their problems within the context of development problems: from both the sectoral and the over-all point of view an attempt is made to provide with maximum efficiency in the activities concerned with children and young people, and to improve the social environment in which they are developing, i.e., basically the family and the community. Moreover, it is obviously there that the causes of the problems - both physical and psychological - affecting children and young people are generally to be found.

42. The over-all plan comprises short-term "welfare-type" programmes which attempt to mitigate in part the influence of adverse environmental conditions, above all in the marginal communities. These plans contribute towards development inasmuch as they correct certain maladjustments to the environment and prevent future feelings of rootlessness and resentment which might obstruct community organization and the development of production capacity at the national level.

43. The plan is based on the criterion that investment in the social sectors, particularly health and education, should not be considered as isolated projects, ruled by the precepts of social welfare, but should be organized in line with its contribution to development and with the resources and hopes of the population. Thus, investment that favours the economy, integration and promotion of the family is necessarily much more important than that which focuses exclusively on the child or the young person.

44. Jamaica's population is increasing rapidly (at an annual rate of 3.2 per cent) and is in process of urbanization since the cities with over 10,000 inhabitants account for over 30 per cent of the total. It is, furthermore, a young population, 41 per cent being under 14 years of age.

45. The three major problems facing young Jamaicans are: under-nutrition in the early years of life, inadequate educational opportunities - both in terms of quantity and quality -, and unemployment.

46. The essential factors underlying the fast population growth are not only the general rise in the level of living but also the improvement in medical and health services. However, some serious deficiencies persist (55 per cent of the total number of babies born in the rural areas are still delivered by untrained midwives). Under-nutrition has been the main concern of the Government, and a study on nutrition was carried out recently among pre-school children with the aim of instituting a system of supplementary feeding, in addition to that already established for distributing skimmed milk to pregnant and nursing mothers and to children aged 1 to 2 years. Programmes of different types for the inoculation of children have also been launched.

47. The rapid and steady growth of the population limits the possibility of establishing an efficient educational system. At the present time, 16 per cent of the total population aged 15 years and over, receives no education at all, 76.9 per cent has attended primary school, 6.6 per cent has had a secondary education and 0.5 per cent has had higher educational training. In the last few years the Government of Jamaica has allocated 13 to 14 per cent of its budget to education, i.e., nearly 3 per cent of its national income. If private contributions are added to this, the total expenditure on education amounts to 4.5 per cent of the national income. Although at the end of their higher primary education some young people (only 15 per cent of the 15-19 age group), manage to enter secondary school, vocational or professional training schools, or youth camps, for the majority their school life ends at 14 years of age. The main problem facing those leaving school is the lack of opportunity to learn a trade or to find employment. As a means of solving the former problem, the Government of Jamaica is paying increasing attention to the agricultural, technical and vocational content of education. The latter problem is related to unemployment.

48. Jamaica's economy is basically agricultural, and its industrial structure is still very undeveloped. The Government has little influence over the manufacturing sector, and its main function is to create a favourable climate for manufacturing enterprises. As far as young people are concerned, there is a government policy for apprenticeship and industrial training that has obvious defects. The gap between population pressure on the one hand, and the traditional economic structure on the other, results in considerable unemployment, affecting mainly women and children (39 per cent of unemployment is found in workers between the ages of 15 and 19, and 54 per cent of the unemployed are seeking work for the first time). The Government has tried to remedy the situation by taking measures such as the following:

(a) Artisan training programmes, directed by local government officials as part of community development programmes in rural areas, which produce articles for sale;

(b) Urban training workshops that make it possible for workers to pursue an occupation or to produce articles that they can sell themselves;

(c) An agricultural development policy (including electrification, housing, water supplies) through which it is hoped to retain in agriculture a higher proportion of the rural population, especially among the young people, in order to meet the growing demand for food products and raise the standards of living of the rural population. Thus far the programmes of industrial development in rural areas (all industry is located in Kingston) have not been successful, and hence there is considerable migration from the country to the towns, especially among young people. These young migrants have no chance of finding work in the town, because they have to compete with the young people of Kingston, who account for 40 per cent of the total population of that city.

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(d) The Jamaica Youth Corps, created in 1957, has the aim of providing vocational training for young people, both for rural and urban occupations, in camps set up for that purpose.

49. The Five-Year Development Plan 1963-67 has had to take account of these problems. The allocation of funds for establishing economic, social and cultural services for the most needy sectors of the population prevents full concentration on the speeding up of economic growth. Similarly, the fact has had to be faced that it is not possible to raise both income and employment. Planning in general is no easy task, especially in the social sector. The main difficulty is the scale and number of the problems in relation to the resources available, the economy's vulnerability to external factors, the lack of social data, and the small size of the public sector in relation to the economy as a whole.

50. In view of the present situation of children and young people in Jamaica, and of remedial policy, it appears that attention should be concentrated on the following points:

(a) The need for statistics that would permit evaluation of the material and human resources available to the country;

(b) The essential technical cadres to advise those responsible for formulating the policy concerned;

(c) The establishment of a juridical framework that would give expression to such a policy;

(d) The administration, execution and evaluation of programmes to put the policy into effect. The Planning Office cannot correctly evaluate the programmes carried out by each Ministry unless there are adequate indicators, and this problem is particularly difficult in the case of programmes for children and young people, which involve several different Ministries.

51. In Mexico, the rate of population growth is one of the highest in Latin America (3.69 per cent), and, as in other countries, a downward trend is observable in the over-all and infant mortality rates, as a result of nation-wide health campaigns and the spread of hygienic practices, accompanied by high rates of economic development (12.66 per cent in 1953-58). In 1965-70 the population growth rate is expected to rise to 3.6 per cent annually, and the total population to 51.2 million.

52. Between 1960 and 1970 the 5-14 and 15-19 age groups are growing at 4.1 per cent annually, while the 15-64 age group (economically active population) is increasing more slowly (3.4 per cent) than the groups comprising economically dependent persons which constitute 50 per cent of the total population. This demographic growth is accompanied by a higher population density per square kilometre and, consequently, by a reduction in the number of population centres with fewer than 1,500 inhabitants.

53. As regards health and nutrition, attention was drawn to the increase in life expectancy at birth and in the capacity for work, although the indexes achieved are not yet entirely satisfactory. Mexico's public health policy places special stress on preventive medical care, and, secondly, on medical treatment services. However, owing to the size of the country and the varying levels of development in different parts of the country, the public health services are not homogenous throughout. On an average, there is one doctor for every 1,689 inhabitants, and the diseases most frequently affecting children are infectious diseases of the respiratory system and gastro-enteritis.

54. Under-nutrition is more serious in the rural areas than in the cities and it primarily affects children and pregnant women. Second-degree under-nutrition (arrested growth and signs of deficiency) affects 32.3 per cent of the pre-school children in rural areas and 18.6 per cent of those in semi-rural areas. Only 4 per cent of urban children are affected. Third-degree under-nutrition exists among 2.5 per cent of the children in rural communities and among 1.2 per cent of those living in urban or semi-rural areas. The National Institute for the Protection of Children was established for the purpose of improving the nutritional conditions for children (in 1962 it provided 720,000 daily rations) and today possesses producing plants and centres for nutritional guidance.

55. Mexico's position is that the family provides the most satisfactory environment for meeting both the physical and emotional needs of children. Among the factors militating against the well-being of the family, poor income distribution ranks first. In 1957, 30 per cent of the families received 7.5 per cent of the total national income and 60 per cent obtained 21 per cent whereas 46.7 per cent of per capita income went to 10 per cent of the families in the upper income brackets.

56. This being the position, the Government has directed its activities towards achieving the following objectives that would make for the improvement of family income conditions: (a) the provision of low-cost protein-rich foods; (b) production of foods in short supply; and (c) wider distribution of school breakfasts, with a view to improving educational indexes, family living conditions and nutritional levels. If the trend followed so far persists, 4.5 per cent of the gross national product will be spent on health and nutrition.

57. Although State education should admittedly begin when the child is 4 to 5 years of age, this is not possible for the time being in Mexico. Only 9.6 per cent of the child population goes to kindergarten because of the lack of funds which would be needed to bring nursery school attendance up to the levels achieved by primary education. In the latter, spectacular progress has been made. Between 1950 and 1964, enrollment jumped from 2.6 to 6.5 million, while the number of children who received no education during that period fell from 3.3 to 2.2 million. The school drop-out rate continues to be very high, however, for want of teachers, schools and, above all, of more practical curricula compatible with the demands made

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by the present stage of development. Because of Mexico's size and number of inhabitants and the fact that conditions vary from one area to another, the problem of education presents different facets in each part. Whereas the pupil-teacher ratio is 25 to 1 in the developed regions to the north of Mexico in others it is as high as 53 to 1. Similarly, the number of children who have no access to schools is 22.1 per cent in some States, but as much as 64.3 per cent in others.

58. Mexico's educational policy lays stress on the construction of one-teacher schools and on concentration, it being felt that a teaching centre can be so located as to serve the needs of all the communities situated within a radius of 10 kilometres, with transport facilities and school breakfasts provided. The object of this is to solve the problems posed by the scattered communities - totalling 88,151 in all - that have fewer than 2,500 inhabitants.

59. Over the short term, secondary education can be provided solely to those who ask for it. Secondary school teaching has increased at the rate of 13.4 per cent annually and two possibilities are envisaged in future: either to project the increment recorded in the past or to maintain the ratio between the number of pupils who finish sixth grade and those who go on to post-primary education.

60. In 1950 the National Institute for Mexican Youth (Instituto Nacional de la Juventud Mexicana) was set up in order to bring together young people and encourage them to study the country's major problems, thereby assimilating them into the development process and helping them to make better use of their leisure hours. The Institute's sphere of action covered rural and urban areas alike (there are currently fifteen Youth Houses in as many State capitals). Extra-curricula activities are planned for young people with an eye to the development of the country, such as school restoration brigades, literacy campaigns, reforestation and so on. Some form of social service has also been made compulsory for all groups of young people receiving higher education or at teacher training colleges.

61. In Mexico, social welfare programmes must be co-ordinated with the plans drawn up for other sectors. Expenditure on public health, medical care, nutrition, social welfare itself and State education represent a consumption that should be looked on as a profitable long-term investment. This is precisely the basis of the modern approach to human resources as part of the development process. The criteria adopted for allocating funds to meet social needs should be gauged by the same indicators as those applied to the sectors producing goods and services. The crux of the matter is to decide whether priority should be given to consumption or to investment, but in the case of social programmes, it should be remembered that while they represent consumption over the short term they will ultimately be transformed into an investment.

62. Peru shares the demographic characteristics found elsewhere in Latin America, i.e., a high growth rate (3 per cent) and an age structure which marks it out as a young population (63 per cent of the inhabitants aged 24 years or under). The situation is aggravated by the lack of integration between one part of the country and another, as a result of the topographical features of Peru, whereby the territory is divided into three sharply differentiated areas, namely, the Costa (littoral), the Sierra (mountain ranges) and the Selva (rain forests). The marked disparities between the stages of development reached in those several areas lead to migratory movements which in turn give rise to serious economic and social problems. They are reflected in widely differing levels of living and over-concentration of the population in some parts of the country to the detriment of others, with the consequent problems relating to health, housing and inequitable income distribution.

63. Peru's economic growth rates in 1950-62 were satisfactory; in fact, among the best in Latin America. The cumulative annual average for those twelve years was 5.2 per cent. Towards the end of the period, although some downward movements were registered, the corresponding rates reached 12.4 per cent in 1959-60.

64. Notwithstanding its exceptional rate of development, the Peruvian economy, in general, is incapable of creating the employment opportunities required. Nevertheless, an anomaly typical of under-development is that according to the 1961 census 2.6 per cent of the total active population were children between 6 and 14 years of age.

65. In spite of this, the social sectors most closely related to children and youth present serious deficiencies. The 1961 census revealed an illiteracy rate of 40 per cent of the population aged 17 years and over, and an average of 2.9 school grades completed in the population aged 5 and over. In 1963, 2 million students received instruction from 72,000 teachers in 17,000 schools. There is a lag in the educational services in terms of the quality of the education provided, the deterioration of installations, and the poor use made of existing installations.

66. The internal financing expenditure on education is high. The figure represents 5.8 per cent of the gross domestic product, and the State educational system absorbs 17.5 per cent of total public expenditure. About 85 per cent of education is public and 15 per cent private.

67. It is estimated that the net enrolment coefficients for 1965 were 90 per cent in primary education, 30 per cent in secondary education, and 8 per cent in higher education. Although the growth rate of the educational services is satisfactory, at 7 per cent a year, it is erratic in terms of levels and geographical distribution.

68. As regards health, the main problems, in order of importance, are: lack of sanitation, malnutrition, prevalence of communicable diseases, high infant and pre-school mortality rates, and tuberculosis.

69. Infant mortality in Peru is approximately 100 per 1,000 live births, being higher in some places than in others. The principal causes of infant mortality are diseases of the respiratory system, gastro-intestinal and communicable diseases, and those related to deficiency in nutrition. It should also be remembered that 60 per cent of the births take place under unsuitable conditions.

70. Many of the health problems are attributable to the generally unsatisfactory levels of nutrition: the calorie deficit is 28 per cent of the minimum requirement per person, and the protein deficit is 22 per cent of the average minimum requirement. In general, the intake of nutrients is only 75 per cent of the recommended quantities, especially as regards protein, calcium, iron and vitamins.

71. The Government is spending 18.2 per cent of the national budget on services for children and young people. This percentage includes education (the biggest item), public health, justice, mother and child care, protection of minors, children's homes, orphanages, etc.

72. At the same time, new forms of action have been sought to deal with national problems. In this respect, the University "Popular Co-operation" Programme represents an important experiment in diverting youthful energy into activities that will meet the needs of the less developed communities, in particular the indigenous sectors.

73. As a result of the analysis of Peru's economic and social situation as a whole and of the measures being taken by the Government, some substantive criteria may be laid down which should guide the State's policy concerning the community (and therefore concerning children, youth and the family).

74. The following are considered necessary:

- (a) A better and more effective co-ordination of effort between the public and private sectors. In both sectors there is a waste of capacity and talent;
- (b) Co-ordination of different public sector bodies concerned with education, health, nutrition, employment, entertainment and justice. The units could be decentralized, but should follow a joint programme;
- (c) Assessment and revision of all programmes at present directed by Ministries, independent national organizations, and international agencies, with a view to recasting them within the general framework of national development. It must be recognized that the education system at all levels, and the general principles of culture, justice and even politics, are all obsolete;
- (d) Experience shows that youth must take an active share in national development. Universities would have to collaborate in specific programmes on a large scale.

75. In Venezuela's planning system, problems relating to children and young persons are analysed and studied within the frame of reference constituted by human resources in general and their utilization in accordance with the country's development needs.

76. The population is characterized by a very high annual growth rate (3.49 per cent), and therefore by continuous rejuvenation. A disproportion exists between the population and the area of territory inhabited, since 32.5 per cent of the population lives in 2.2 per cent of the territory. Population projections for 1970 suggest that there is little likelihood of an improvement in this uneven distribution. Only in the Guiana area is the number of inhabitants expected to increase, in view of the specific projects located in that part of Venezuela.

77. As regards urbanization, the composition of the Venezuelan population changed between 1936 and 1961 from 65.3 per cent of rural and 34.7 per cent of urban population, to 33.3 and 67.7 per cent, respectively. It is estimated that by 1968 the urban population will represent 74.1 per cent of the total.

78. A serious difficulty, with a direct bearing on the younger age groups, is the problem of unemployment. The national unemployment rate, which is about 13 per cent, is determined both by the shortage of employment opportunities and by deficiencies in the training of the human factor. Although it might be assumed that the considerable development of the Venezuelan economy in recent years should have permitted a high degree of manpower absorption, structural unemployment and marginal employment, or under-employment, still constitute the keystone of the nation's problems, determining and influencing other difficulties, notably those affecting young persons, who pour into the labour market at the rate of 80,000 a year, without the requisite training, or without finding the right job for the training they have been given.

79. In the fields of activity most directly connected with children and young people, the targets established for the four-year period covered by the plan may be summed up as follows: reduction of absenteeism, the school deficit, repetition and dropping-out; incorporation of 13,348 new teachers in the primary education system; improvement of the situation in universities and other institutes of higher education; promulgation of a new Education Act consonant with the requirements of Venezuela's economic and social development; implementation of a far-reaching programme of incentives to promote the enrolment of larger number of students in those branches of education which are of vital importance for development; execution of a series of basic research projects which will enable the existing situation to be accurately mapped out.

80. As regards public health programmes, the aim is to improve conditions in respect of environmental sanitation, by building aqueducts to supply rural areas (by 1967 the potable water deficit will be covered in places with 500-5,000 inhabitants), and by intensifying the construction of latrines and rural sewage systems. In addition to the establishment of new standards for the development of mother and child welfare activities, it is hoped to continue the application of measures aimed at reducing the mortality rate among children in general and new-born infants in particular; to improve and expand welfare services available to mothers; to expand plans of campaign against child malnutrition; and to expand and co-ordinate paediatric services in Venezuela. Importance is also attached to the expansion of pre-natal and school-age nutrition programmes; nutrition programmes for the pre-school age groups; and training in home dietetics.

81. The agency concerned with general training problems, including those relating to young persons, is the National Institute of Educational Co-operation (Instituto Nacional de Cooperación Educativa - INCE), whose main functions may be summed up as follows: (a) to determine labour requirements for the nation as a whole and in specific industrial activities; (b) to prepare teaching manuals for the various trades and crafts; (c) to organize and promote in-service vocational training; (d) to set up vocational training centres for those trades and crafts in whose case such a step is warranted; (e) to implement and manage the Extraordinary Juvenile Training Programme (Programa Extraordinario de Adiestramiento Juvenil) for unemployed youths between 16 and 25 years of age; (f) to carry out a special programme for conscripts doing military service.

82. The concern felt by the private and public sectors with regard to the situation of children and young persons in Venezuela was reflected in the establishment of a Juvenile Occupation Commission (Comisión de Ocupación Juvenil), sponsored by INCE, to formulate a programme.

83. The Venezuelan Children's Council (Consejo Venezolano del Niño) has sought to ensure complete protection of minors. The activities of the Council can be broadly classified in four groups of programmes:

- (a) Institutional care. Day-care centres and kindergartens (children aged 0 to 6 years); hostels, observation centres, reform schools, special schools, and homes (children and adolescents aged 7 to 18 years, whose circumstances are abnormal).
- (b) Extra-institutional care. Vocational guidance; placing in foster-homes, and adoption; youth aid programmes; normal-environment observation and care; follow-up treatment, probation and special care.
- (c) Family welfare programmes and education for family living. Scholarships; family and maintenance allowances; legal assistance; education for family living.
- (d) Planned recreation. Open spaces for planned recreation; holiday camps.

84. In the private sector, the Federation of Private Child-Care Institutions (Federación de Instituciones Privadas de Asistencia al Niño - FIPAN) is an association of thirty-one non-profit-making organizations concerned with such child, adolescent and family care and welfare activities as pre- and post-natal centres; institutions for pre-school children; primary, secondary, teacher-training and vocational schools; scout movements; sports and recreational activities; education for family living, etc.
85. With a view to obtaining an over-all picture of the general problems presented by the situation in the five countries studied, and of underlining certain imperative measures for their solution, the Conference discussed document ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.9.
86. Stress is laid in this document on the fact that planning for action in favour of children and youth often encounters serious difficulties because in some cases there is a lack of the necessary co-ordination between the different measures adopted in this respect among the organizations concerned.
87. Governments should therefore draw up agreements enabling them to centralize the management of the funds destined for the care of children and young people. This is, of course, already done to a certain extent as far as public expenditure is concerned, but some remarks should be made on way in which resources are allotted. At present, they are earmarked by type of expenditure instead of in accordance with the purpose for which they are to be used. Furthermore, the amount of funds appropriated yearly is not in proportion to the volume of activities undertaken. In order to remedy these shortcomings, it is suggested that all public institutions should adopt the system of programme and performance budgeting.
88. To turn to the problem of how to strike a balance between the activities undertaken in the different social sectors, including the care of children and adolescents, it is evident that the scale of such activities the volume of investment made and the number of people who benefit from them are mainly related to formal education.
89. Whatever the reasons for this disequilibrium in the development of social programmes, there are good grounds for channelling funds towards the programme that can most easily gain ground in the life of the community, i.e., education. In other words, if the furthest reaches of the different social strata are more likely to be opened up by education it might be best for programmes of preventive medicine, family aid and birth control, sanitation, nutrition and community development, etc., to be grouped around educational programmes proper, and for the schools, polyclinics, recreation grounds and maternal and child health centres that used to be individual units to be gradually integrated into what might be called social development centres offering all those services and run by groups of professionals from related disciplines who would take part to one extent or another in all the centre's activities.

90. It was underlined in the document that since the prospects of full development for the family, youth and children are closely linked to the stage of economic development reached, it was through participation in the latter, basically through fully productive employment, that that goal could be reached. If that aim could be attained the problem would be attacked at the root, and the social welfare policies - necessary in any case - would fulfil their true function, i.e., to solve the most urgent cases requiring immediate action.

91. To link youth and development is to touch on a problem extending far beyond the mere matter of training to perform certain functions which technology entails, since it involves defining the younger age groups' relations with the development process, and how and why they resist it or identify themselves with its demands. A whole integrated policy is implied, that basically consists in creating awareness of an active responsibility, not only of certain instrumental requisites (such as professional or technical training), or in encouraging the growth of the community spirit.

Discussion

92. The discussion was not confined to the analysis of the special case studies. On the contrary, the national reports and the contributions of the delegations present were taken into consideration.

93. The main problems besetting children and youth in Latin America were passed in review, and such subjects as the organization of the family, nutrition, the pre-school and school-age child, pre-vocational guidance and employment opportunities were analysed, with reference to the common features characterizing them in the region.

94. The problems relating to the organization of the family derive from the Latin American social situation itself: the demographic position; the changes in population structure registered, particularly from the standpoint of migration to the towns and its effect on the organization of the family whenever a rural household is inopportunately drawn into an urban pattern of living, in unsatisfactory conditions, moreover, as regards housing, sanitary facilities and urban services in general. On the other hand, the deficiencies of living conditions in the rural areas are also reflected in the structure of the family and in the values that come into play in its organization.

95. Widespread poverty, unsatisfactory housing facilities, ignorance, all go to form the framework for a family life which is also affected by other factors, such as abandonment by the father and assumption of responsibilities by the mother.

96. All the countries make efforts to overcome these deficiencies. In some, high levels of institutionalization have been reached by means of specific programmes relating to agrarian reform, the structure of health services, nutrition, social security institutions and the extension of

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"social benefits" specifically designed to promote the welfare of the family. Similarly, the problems relating to abandoned children have been tackled through institutions, orphanages, foster-homes, etc.; nevertheless it was stressed that preference should be given to other ways of dealing with this question, such as the establishment of family allowances, a procedure already applied in several countries.

97. In general terms, attention was drawn to the importance of what is termed family education. This may lead to more efficient use of the existing institutions, such as those concerned with public health, or to optimum utilization of projects whose content relates to social welfare.

98. With regard to nutrition, the main features of the over-all Latin American picture are the decrease in the number of mothers who breast-feed their children, in both urban and rural areas, with the incidence of this trend on the health of young children, and the lack of a balanced diet. It was therefore thought important to extend the food guidance centres which look after cases of under-nutrition and give instruction, especially to mothers, in ways of turning the available food supplies to better account and introducing more balanced diets. These were envisaged as linked to the health centres, and, in addition, for the purposes of a policy to increase food production, the school and family allotment system was proposed.

99. The foregoing problems affect the pre-school child severely and retard his physical and mental growth. Among the solutions mooted was the establishment of more of the crèches, day-care centres and food guidance centres mentioned above.

100. With respect to education, it was recommended that kindergarten and pre-school teaching should be expanded so that children could be properly prepared for the transition to the first cycle of primary education. The absence of educational institutions for the pre-school child was cited as one of the determinants of the high dropping-out indexes.

101. Fuller reference will be made to schooling in later paragraphs, where attention will be drawn firstly to the difficulties of incorporating in the educational system vast population sectors which cannot afford to send their children to school, and, secondly, to the deficiencies inherent in the educational system itself, such as the failure of the curricula and types of education provided to meet the most pressing needs of the Latin American countries.

102. Special attention was devoted to the question of vocational guidance, a matter of urgency in Latin America, since the countries of the region, at varying levels, are reaching or have already reached the stage of industrialization. A concrete proposal put forward was that vocational guidance programmes should be incorporated into the regular curricula, and that their aim should be to develop manual skills in the child and to

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give him a measure of training in craftsmanship; it was also recommended that vocational training centres affiliated to vocational schools for adults should be organized. Particular stress was laid, however, upon the importance of drawing up specific vocational guidance programmes for the urban and rural areas, with due regard to the differences in requirements and aptitudes as well as to the two different technologies involved. No project of this kind would be complete without an accurate evaluation of the labour market in the country concerned, since upon this information would depend the distribution of emphasis among the subjects taught.

103. Children in Latin America are patently the victims of a certain amount of exploitation of child labour, of a lack of relevant legislation or of complete failure to comply with the existing laws. Action to regulate child labour conditions cannot be deferred, and is closely linked to the formation of more alert-minded workers, better equipped to attain higher standards of living. The training of youth to enter the labour force is a task closely bound up with economic development itself, since it means that the volume of the labour force is increased, its members are more highly-skilled and its productivity is consequently greater.

Demographic problems

104. The fact that the bulk of the population of Latin America consists of young people and has a sharply rising growth rate made it necessary for special stress to be laid on demographic aspects. These were discussed in the documents entitled Demographic aspects of infancy and youth in Latin America and Population growth and the first stages of population policy in Latin America: effect on problems of youth and development (ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.7 and ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.10).

Characteristics of the demographic structure

105. In the first of these it is pointed out that, contrary to popular belief the fertility level is a much more influential factor than mortality in determining the average age of a population. Although a low fertility rate will invariably lead to an old population, with relatively few people in the younger age groups, a reduced mortality rate actually has the effect of making a population slightly younger by increasing the proportion of the population in the younger age groups.

106. As a result of the decline in mortality, the infant-youth population in these countries is increasing even faster than the total population and will continue to do so in the immediate future as long as the level of fertility remains unchanged at its present high level; furthermore, because of selective census under-enumeration, the infant-youth population of the high fertility countries is probably at present proportionately greater than indicated by census figures.

107. A comparison of the high-fertility countries and the moderate and low-fertility countries with respect to the population in the ages 0 to 6 (pre-school) and 7 to 14 (primary school) discloses that the high-fertility countries have more persons in the ages 0 to 6 than in the 7 to 14 ages (with the implication that each successive age cohort entering school age will be significantly larger), whereas the reverse is true for moderate and low-fertility countries. Furthermore, in those countries with two recent censuses, the proportion of the population in the ages 0 to 6 in the countries with highest fertility has generally increased faster than the proportion in the ages 7 to 14; this pattern is not observed in the countries with lower fertility.

108. There follows a brief examination of the sex ratio among the infant and youth segment of the total population in the countries of the region. In accordance with the biological phenomenon of slightly more male than female births (followed by a slightly higher male mortality at all ages), the male population under 20 is found to exceed or at least to be equal to the female population in every country.

109. Consideration is also given to the distribution of infants and youths in the urban and rural zones of the somewhat fewer countries (16 out of the 21) which have tabulated census data on age composition separately by urban and rural residence. Partly because of higher rural fertility and partly because of the rural exodus of youths and young adults, the rural populations are younger than the urban populations in the sense of having a (generally very marked) larger proportion of the total population under 20 years of age. The differences are greatest in the pre-school ages. Evidence is presented to show that rural to urban migration (at least among females) begins under 15 years of age and affects the sex ratios of the urban and rural populations in the ages 7 to 14.

Population growth and birth control

110. The second paper on population problems (ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.10) relates to population growth and states that the population of Latin America is growing with unprecedented speed at a rate that outstrips that of any other region in the world. In seventeen years' time it will probably have doubled and, by the end of the century, may well have risen from its present total of about 240 million to 650 million. This is mainly due to the fact that mortality is declining while the birth rate remains the same. Although Latin America's need of a larger population is not being questioned the rate at which its population is growing certainly is. Owing to the maintenance of the birth rate, the majority of the population is in the lower age brackets; 40 to 45 per cent are under 15 years of age and, being economically inactive, do not take part in the production process and represent a heavy social investment.

111. This unchecked growth is directly related to the problems confronting education, nutrition and housing, and so on. Urban growth as a result of the exodus from the rural areas is due, among other things, to the fact that such areas offer no incentives to counterbalance the lure of the

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towns and the hope of higher wages, steady employment, more educational opportunities and the possibility of moving upward socially. In Latin America the phenomenon is more recent and more obvious. The most overpowering attraction is exercised by the capital cities, which are usually twice as large as the town next in size, and thus occupy a totally disproportionate position in the different countries. Another result is the formation of marginal communities; these are conglomerations with no urban integration that contain a large number of young people and often form a breeding-ground for social discontent.

112. As a result of urbanization and the improvement in levels of living, the rising rate of demographic growth must be slowed down, and this is probably an even more urgent task in Latin America than elsewhere. One way of applying the brake is through birth control, which is being practised by some social groups, particularly in the towns. In Argentina female fertility has been reduced by half since the beginning of the century.

113. According to the document, there is a great social demand for birth control, and public opinion appears to be prepared for it to be practised. It is therefore urgent for each of the Latin American countries to formulate its own population policy in accordance with its particular ideology and circumstances, since in this field there can be no outside interference, although in the execution of the programmes the help of international agencies and foreign Governments can be requested. A population policy should take account of many diverse matters. For example, statistics show that the Latin American countries have changed from exporters to importers of food products, which they are buying in increasing volume, with serious effects on their economies and their balances of payments, particularly since export prices have either decreased or at least failed to increase, and import prices have risen. Many Governments have been forced to restrict consumption of certain foods and impose rationing systems. The yearly addition of vast numbers to the labour force means that reserves of gross domestic product are required that the Latin American countries cannot hope to create. The result is unemployment, both overt and hidden, in the form of rural under-employment, top-heavy bureaucracy, minimal trade, and low-yield services. Despite the efforts made by the Latin American countries illiteracy is still a major problem. Moreover, account must be taken of the revolution of nascent or rising expectations, as a strong dynamic force, more vigorous in Latin America than in any other part of the world, and the origin of the political unrest that prevails in the region. For all these reasons, document ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.10 maintains that in the population policies of the Latin American countries consideration should be given to deliberate birth control, that would serve to accelerate the process of transition which is already making itself felt from the existing "population explosion" to a more balanced population growth. In this respect, it was advocated that contraceptive agents should be accessible to all who wish to use them and that education services in this connexion should be carried out on a continuing basis.

Survey of opinions on fertility and birth control

114. Lastly, with a view to providing some objective facts on the effects of the region's population growth, and estimating the possibility of carrying out a policy of family planning, a document was presented on problems and results of a programme of comparative surveys of fertility in Latin America. 6/

115. This programme proposes that the following data should be obtained: (a) fertility levels and trends, on the basis of given demographic and socio-economic characteristics; (b) attitudes and opinions on the desirable size of a family and on family planning, and certain related socio-economic factors; and (c) the use of contraceptives, attitudes to their use, and means of information on the subject. The survey covered seven Latin American cities: the three largest (Buenos Aires, Mexico and Rio de Janeiro), two medium-sized (Bogota and Caracas) and two of the smallest (Panama and San Jose).

116. The preliminary results of the survey reveal that:

(a) The abortion rate as computed in relation to the total number of pregnancies among women who had at some time been pregnant ranged between 16 per cent in Buenos Aires to about 9 per cent in Bogotá. Although the upper limit did not exceed what might be regarded as a "normal" rate of abortions, the highest incidence was recorded in Buenos Aires and Rio de Janeiro, which presented the lowest average number of live births.

(b) The average number of pregnancies among women who had at some time been pregnant ranged from 4.89 in Mexico (2.49 in Buenos Aires, and that suggested that a large proportion of the women in all cities used some means for controlling fertility.

(c) With respect to the age structure of the female population, 62 per cent were under 35 years of age in Mexico, as against only 45 per cent in Buenos Aires. The larger proportion of women of incomplete fertility in Mexico would necessarily reduce the average number of live births as compared with Buenos Aires.

117. In order to determine the differential fertility rates, account was taken of the following factors: age, marital status, place of birth, employment situation, educational level and religious background of the women interviewed.

118. The following conclusions were reached in relation to these variables and to the use of contraceptive methods:

6/ Reference document presented by the Latin American Demographic Centre - see Annex II.

(a) Contraceptive practices differ widely from one city to another, and there appears to be a clearly-marked correlation between general acceptance of birth control and the level of fertility. Even in the society whose mental attitude would seem to be least receptive to contraception (Mexico), a certain proportion (37.4 per cent) of married women and of those living in consensual union declared that they had on occasion used contraceptives;

(b) There is also a notable correlation between the use of contraceptives and the level of education;

(c) Efforts to prevent conception begin fairly early in the reproductive life of the women interviewed;

(d) The methods of contraception in commonest use in five of the cities covered by the survey are the least effective. This seems to bear some relation to knowledge of the various methods;

(e) In most of the cities fertility figures are still those typical of traditional societies. They appear to be exerting a certain influence on the ultimate size of the family.

Discussion

119. During the discussion of the studies in question, the participants agreed that, in view of the rapid increase in the population in Latin America and the lack of resources with which to satisfy its needs, it was urgently necessary for the countries and governments to adopt resolutions whereby the welfare of their peoples could be guaranteed and the continuity of the development process ensured.

120. However, as far as the proposed solutions are concerned, two different approaches emerged. Whereas the first reaffirmed the ideas contained in document ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.10 and supported the view that in conjunction with the improvement of health and nutrition conditions Latin America was called upon to formulate a population policy which would take into account each country's economic and cultural trends, and, if necessary, encourage birth control techniques the other stressed the fact that the population problem could be solved by stepping up the development rate and transforming the socio-economic structures, without the need to resort to birth control methods. According to the supporters of this approach, it would be a mistake to think that the

/region's demographic

region's demographic problem was over-population, since account should be taken of the countries' available resources at every stage of development. Accordingly, it would seem more reasonable to approach the problem from the angle of under-development, not forgetting that the solution of the countries' problems lay in a well-planned investment policy.

121. Those supporting the spread of birth control methods agreed that the population policy could not be regarded as a panacea to take the place of economic development, and far less could the establishment of compulsory birth control programmes be envisaged. Such programmes should be in the nature of information campaigns on the use of contraceptives, with the purpose of ensuring that parents could deliberately choose the number of children they would have as consistent with their capacity to give them protection, security, health, food and education. The discussions indicated that, from whatever standpoint the question was viewed, it was necessary to underline the need to improve the living conditions of children and young people. From that angle, it was a matter of first priority to promote practices and adopt measures that would prompt the parents to adopt an increasingly responsible attitude towards their children, thereby assuring them of adequate possibilities for their emotional development and their incorporation into society.

122. To sum up, there was general consensus on the need for the subject of a population policy to be approached in terms of the family's interests and of the possibilities for meeting the needs of children and young people. Likewise, as the establishment of such a policy was contingent upon the complex of problems facing each country, it could not be planned at a regional level, nor could it be considered as an optional solution. It was incompatible with the aims of the Conference to consider a population policy as a remedy for the lack of impetus in the national development processes.

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B. THE FAMILY AND LIVING CONDITIONS OF CHILDREN AND YOUTH

123. The broad characteristics of the social situation in the Latin American countries, as outlined in the preceding section, have a number of adverse effects on the organization of the family and on the living conditions of children and youth. The present section will include a rather more detailed account of the findings of the documents and discussions on this subject, with special reference to the main defects in the education, employment, nutrition, health and legal protection of children and young people, and the action taken to remedy these shortcomings in Latin America.

The family

124. The unsatisfactory conditions of family life in Latin America ^{7/} - and this applies equally to the urban and rural population - thwart any attempt they may make to attain a better level of living. The lack of cultural, social, legal, technical and economic training prevents the family from playing an active part in the country's economic and social development.

125. Thus far the needs of the family and of children have not been presented as a separate problem, as has been done in the case of health, housing, education and nutrition.

126. Among the factors underlying the problems that families have to face in Latin America are low income, unemployment and under-employment, inadequate social services, poor use of resources, large housing deficits - resulting from massive population shifts and the consequent growth of the towns in almost all the Latin American countries - and the lack of technical skills in the migrant population who have been thrown unprepared into urban life from a rural environment. The strengthening of the family can be regarded as one way to improve the situation of children and young people and, more generally speaking, of the community at large. A campaign of such a nature presupposes the tackling of cultural, social, legal, educational and recreational questions, and, in order to achieve successful results, a policy of inter-agency co-ordination would have to be established so that optimum use could be made of the existing resources. As a means of putting it into effect, consideration would have to be given to specific techniques for dealing with the "problems arising from the needs of children and young people within the context of the family; to projects aimed at strengthening the family and executed by professional experts with long experience in the field; and to the organization of professional social service teams in all the countries of the region.

^{7/} This part of the discussion was based on the consideration of document ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.18.

127. In connexion with the analysis of problems affecting the family, some delegations pointed out that it was impossible to postulate the existence of a single type of family, since its characteristics varied in accordance with those of the various social strata. Families also differed in type according to the areas - urban, suburban or rural - in which they had their origin and grew up. For example, the very large family was typical of rural areas, and its most serious problem derived from the fact that because it constituted an economic unit, its straitened circumstances meant that children had to be set to work at a very early age, with the consequent reduction of school attendance.

128. In suburban families, especially those living in the so-called shanty towns, the worst problems stemmed from over-crowding and promiscuity; illegitimacy rates were high, and the environment exerted an unfavourable influence on the child's development.

129. Although in urban families the level of living was passable, and social problems seemed to be less serious, in the lower strata of these population sectors the child could count on practically no protection at all, so that it needed all the help and care it could be given.

130. Stress was also laid on the relations that should be established between community institutions - educational or of any other nature - and the family.

131. The correlation of the structural characteristics and economic situation of the family with school attendance and retardation were a good example of the complexity of the problem and the multiplicity of the relations linking the family to the most widely differing sectors.

132. Lastly, although it had already been repeatedly singled out for attention, the problem of the organization of the family was still one of the most serious that Latin America had to face. The effects of the temporary unions which resulted in an alarmingly high percentage of illegitimacy were aggravated by paternal irresponsibility. It was frequently the mother who had to assume responsibility for the maintenance of her children, despite the difficulties of earning a living.

133. The break-up of the family profoundly affected children, who were thus deprived of affection, security, and physical, mental and psychological care.

134. The family was often a project rather than an actual fact. Thus, it was necessary not only to strengthen but also to create the family as it would inevitably evolve in the future, living in an urban environment, with the mother going out to work and the children needing education and maintenance of a different sort from that provided in the past.

/The child

The child

135. After considering the family and its components - children and young people -, the participants went on to make a more limited analysis of the position of the pre-school child within the broad context of national development. In that respect, a general scheme representing the child's position from the standpoint of its own biological, emotional and social process was presented to the Conference.^{8/} Obviously, at a pre-school age (0 - 6 years), the child established a difference between itself and others and acquired the elements on which the structure of its future personality would almost exclusively depend. Accordingly, the future of the next generations - which would at the same time be the future citizens - would depend upon the child's adequate development. The child's vulnerability to external factors necessitated greater care at that age since any injury it might sustain would leave indelible traces for the rest of its life.

136. Stress was placed on the urgent need to examine the problems affecting pre-school children within the context of national development plans in accordance with the following facts:

(a) The rapid growth of the Latin American population, accompanied by an expansion of the lowest age group (children under 5 years of age represented from 16 to 20 per cent);

(b) The persistence of the high frequency of preventable diseases in the age group in question;

(c) The rapid social changes (in-migration, industrialization) which called for new adjustments in the social and public health fields and for a re-orientation of educational policy.

(d) The almost total absence of educational systems for children of pre-school age.

137. While recognizing the prevalence of the foregoing factors throughout Latin America, the participants pointed out that although such educational systems certainly were more or less incipient, it was equally true that they did exist, and should be strengthened by the application of up-to-date and more appropriate techniques.

138. In the context of a general outline of conditions for pre-school children in Latin America, it was indicated that the problem of first importance was constituted by the large numbers of children up to 6 years of age (32 million), who represented a higher proportion of the total population than in the United States and the countries of Western Europe. Such factors as the decline of the infant mortality rate and the rise in the annual growth rate accounted for that situation. Nevertheless, mortality

^{8/} See ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.3.

rates among pre-school children betrayed a serious public health problem; whereas in the more developed countries the death rate among children was 6.5 per mil, in Latin America it averaged 20 per mil. The chief causes of death were enumerated in descending order of importance: gastro-intestinal diseases, diseases of the respiratory apparatus, infectious and contagious diseases, deficiency diseases (under-nutrition) and accidents. Broadly speaking, therefore, they were preventable ills. Special emphasis was laid on the significance of under-nutrition, with regard both to its purely biological consequences and to its effects on the psychological development of children. The problem of child under-nutrition hinged upon three essential factors: low levels of consumption of basic foodstuffs; lack of food purchasing power among large population groups; and ignorance of the value of certain foods.

139. During the discussion of children's living conditions, attention was also devoted to the family in relation to the child. It was thus possible to identify other social determinants of the present situation of the pre-school child, such as high illegitimacy rates, illiteracy, unsatisfactory housing conditions, especially in densely populated urban areas, and high rates of premature procreation, particularly among the lower income groups.

Discussion

140. It was agreed that any programme intended to improve the situation of the pre-school child would have to be based on recognition of the child as an individual in its growth and development, with due regard to the fact that the stage of life in question was a transition period when the child ought to enjoy a number of favourable conditions if it was later to be able to develop a personality of active use to society.

141. It was pointed out that the pre-school child in Latin America showed lower average indexes of physical development than children of the same age in developed countries. During the breast-feeding period, growth trends were similar to those recorded in developed countries, but after the age of one year they declined more or less sharply up to 3 years of age; psychological development patterns also deteriorated, especially in such respects as language and behaviour. Moreover, it was pointed out that importance is now being attached to the process of education for children under 5 years of age not only from the standpoint of their emotional development but also from that of their intellectual development.

142. These problems are most acute in what are termed the "poverty belts" round the towns, and most sharply affect children who have moved in from the country. In these cases, in addition to nutritional deficiencies and problems common in the rural areas, there are additional handicaps caused by the children being left uncared for, since in the towns the mothers have to seek work far from their homes in order to earn a living.

143. Some participants stressed that for these reasons it was necessary to establish an order of priority in the programmes for children, in order to concentrate attention of the suburban areas where there is the highest incidence of problems affecting children, with the idea of dealing at a later stage with the problems of children in the rural and urban areas.

144. Not all the countries of the region had implemented a homogeneous policy designed to solve the problems of the pre-school child. Most of the Latin American countries lacked child care institutions specifically for that age group; the training of specialists in dealing with child problems especially in the educational field, was only in its embryo stage. In this respect, it was pointed out that most of the Latin American countries give special preference to primary education, and as their resources were scanty, the educational needs of the pre-school child were relegated to second place.

145. Consequently some participants said that priority should be given to the nutrition of the pre-school child, since it was unlikely that it would be possible to extend the school system to the bulk of the pre-school population in the near future. However, it was felt that as far as possible support should be given to programmes of pre-school education so that the child would be ready to take full advantage of primary education.

Youth

146. The topic of youth as a field for sociological studies ^{9/} was touched upon at the Conference with a view to outlining research possibilities.

147. In connexion with the studies on youth published in recent years, it was pointed out that today the more responsible of these are concerned not so much with problem youth as with the youth problem.

148. In the context of the younger generations, envisaged as a social group with its own special pattern, it was noted that the upper and lower limits of the demographic agglomerate called youth have been extended, and are now usually taken to be 14 and 25 years of age. It is more difficult to establish the type of unit that youth represents. Is it a mere statistical aggregate, a social group, or a permanent dimension of the structure of life? In any case, in the broader field of history it figures as a united whole.

149. For the moment, the fact of most significance is the relatively uniform character of the younger age group in industrial societies, in the structure of which decisive importance attaches to the phase when young people are poised between two very different social horizons: the closed and protected family unit and the open prospect - at once threatening and enigmatic - of society as a whole. Hence the essential problem facing the industrial societies today is to determine how and with what result one type of social relationship gives way to another.

^{9/} See document ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.11.

150. Some writers see the compliant attitude which results in young people's adaptation to the structure of industrial societies as a sort of levelling-up of generations analogous to that of classes or sexes. Another interpretation accentuates the gap separating the social stages represented by youth and adulthood, and a "youth culture" as the bridge between the two. A third hypothesis postulates that the compliant absorption of youth in the social structure by no means signifies the elimination of its essential conflicts, which generate a more or less poignant sense of frustration. The most important of the tensions affecting the younger age groups of today is that arising between the need to adapt themselves to a society exerting secondary and technological control, and the aspirations and incentives which prompt them to make it compatible with the independence of personality.

151. The similarity of present-day youth in the industrialized countries, and of its behaviour patterns - irregular or actually delinquent - as manifest both there and in other less economically-developed parts of the world might be explained by the hypothesis that the independence of the younger age groups is merely the result of discrepancies between the various social and cultural sectors at a given point of time, particularly between the family and other sectors. In order to assess the significance of the younger generations and the varying weight they carry not only in the "socialization process" but also in political and social activities in general, they may be viewed as instruments of socialization, as nuclei of dissentient or rebellious activities - highly important in developing societies - and as the protagonists of passing outbreaks of unconventionality. The latter in turn are nothing but a reflection of cultural frustrations and even of tensions deriving from specific market conditions.

152. In short, the hypothesis formulated is based on recognition of the fact that youth cannot be properly understood without taking into account the whole social structure, and on the conjecture that the nature and extent of the variations in young people's behaviour patterns are excellent indicators of the prevailing degree of social integration.

153. Youth is commonly assigned a decisive role in the so-called "mobilization" for development, which is too wide a generalization with too ill-defined a content, to withstand sober analysis. Apart from the "assumption" that youth is more favourably disposed to change than the older generations, it could only be postulated as a very broad hypothesis that the conflict of generations in the developing countries will vary according to its origin, that is, according to whether it stems from cultural tensions or from market frictions.

154. The primary objective of empirical research on youth in Latin America must be detailed analysis of how the "socialization process" takes place de facto in each country, of the instruments at its disposal and of the repercussions of structural duality on the lack of connexion between the spheres in which young people move, and on their adaptation to the requirements of society as a whole. On the one hand, it is sought to ascertain the "objective" conditions in which young people live - as regards not only their home, educational and working environments but also their use of leisure

/and their

and their consumption patterns which are of indubitable socio-economic significance - and, on the other, the actual "subjective" reactions of youth, i.e., its images. In this latter context, an essential requisite is a strictly substantiated account of the way in which young people in the different sectors (industrial, agricultural, professional and academic) view themselves and their future, since a country's destiny is foreshadowed in youth's interpretation of its own special circumstances, including its image of society.

155. Psychologists and sociologists ascribe to the phase of youth a transitional character whose deepest significance lies not so much in its individual aspect - the passage from adolescence to adulthood - as in its collective nature, that is, in the fact that it is the transition effected by a specific "generational unit".

156. The generation theory is an inexhaustible fount of ideas for the social historian and sociologist in their interpretation of events, and no study of youth which attempts to capture and record the historical dimension of life can afford to overlook it. In the specific case of Latin America, this study - not yet carried out - would represent an interpretation of the region's history as seen through the eyes of the generations alive today, and would be of fundamental importance.

Discussion

157. During the discussion it was agreed that it was both fruitful and necessary to undertake the research work outlined, and some of the participants stressed the part that the Latin American universities would have to play in this. It was also emphasized that it was particularly desirable for such studies to be carried out by Latin Americans who, being familiar with existing conditions, were in the best possible position to deal with the more important matters.

158. The participants put forward a number of useful suggestions, often based on the experience of their own countries, regarding some of the factors that might explain the behaviour of youth. As was to be expected, prevailing social and economic conditions threw a great deal of light on the problem of juvenile conduct. Unemployment was found to be one of the factors responsible for the frustration felt by young people, and another was the inadequacy of the vocational guidance facilities available to them.

159. The question of generational analysis was also brought up, and stress was laid on the urgent need to determine whether or not there was continuity between the generations.

160. It was pointed out that young people should not merely be treated as a subject of study but allowed to take an active part in matters directly concerning them.

161. It was considered that a practical policy for dealing with the problems raised would be to increase the employment opportunities available to young people, since they could not be a dynamic force in development until they found a suitable situation in which to make use of their abilities. It was also suggested that youth organizations should be encouraged to associate closely in national development activities.

Education

162. Education, employment, nutrition and health, were discussed in detail. With respect to education the participants discussed how far the educational systems meet certain needs imposed by the characteristics and trends of present-day society, and the needs that can be foreseen for the future.^{10/}

163. The starting point was a survey of the principles that have governed the right to education in Latin America, and how far they have been effectively applied. A study of the past attitudes of the Latin American countries with respect to the right to education shows that from the birth of independence there existed, in certain minds, the desire to extend education. The aim of extending education to the broad masses was supported by statesmen and educators in Latin America throughout the nineteenth century. This principle is reflected in political constitutions or education legislation laying down the principle that universal primary education is a basic right of every citizen. What has been the practical effect of such instruments? At the UNESCO regional conference on free and compulsory education held at Lima in 1956 the situation was described as follows. Of a total population of school age of about 40 million, only 19 million were receiving a primary education, and there was a high level of absenteeism and dropping out. As a result the average number of years of schooling for the population as a whole was only one, while the average for that section of the population that had attended school was only four. The vast population increase had so aggravated the problem that the number of additional teachers needed to meet the minimum requirements was estimated as half a million.

164. The report of the UNESCO conference listed a number of shortcomings, that have not yet been remedied. As a result it was decided to establish the Major Project on the Extension and Improvement of Primary Education in Latin America. The results have certainly been encouraging: all the Latin American countries have established education planning services, and the Latin American Institute for Economic and Social Planning, in co-operation with UNESCO, has given courses for the training of specialists in education planning.

165. It cannot yet be said that education plans exist in every Latin American country, but it is true that the door to planning has been opened, and the first steps taken towards a detailed study of educational needs, with provision for expansion and the more rational distribution of resources. It should also be noted that the systems of teacher training have been improved, and there has been a marked rise in school enrolment.

^{10/} ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.4

166. Nevertheless there are serious gaps. One of the most important is the double system of primary education involved in the existence of the rural school in which the primary course cannot be completed. The mistake has been made of establishing in the countryside a form of small-scale "urban school", which has led to a sharp discrimination at the expense of the children of the countryside. From the social standpoint this represents a flagrant injustice. From the standpoint of making use of human resources it also amounts to a great waste of a considerable reservoir of intelligence. It is also true that absenteeism, dropping out and even the repetition rates are higher in the rural areas.

167. Another serious problem is teacher training, and it is significant that over 40 per cent of the teachers have no professional qualification, but in this connexion it must not be forgotten that these teachers are very poorly paid.

168. The many other problems discussed included the highly inadequate school facilities; the large number of pupils that a single teacher has to deal with, which means that he cannot give full attention to each pupil; the almost insuperable difficulty of poor children in attending school; the fact that although there has been a marked increase in enrolment in secondary education, the over-emphasis on the professions has continued; the fact that secondary education has been conceived solely as a doorway to the university, which has often prevented children from taking up technical courses in industry or agriculture; the lack of educational and vocational guidance, and of studies on the needs for different types of professional and other workers, and so forth.

169. This bird's-eye view leads to three main conclusions:

(a) The Latin American countries' aims in the field of compulsory education have been confined to primary education.

(b) In pursuing these aims much progress was made, but much remains to be done.

(c) The causes for this incomplete success include some social and economic factors, but also, to a much greater extent than would appear at first glance, relate to poor educational administration and teaching defects in the schools themselves.

170. The above are some main features of the present educational situation. In the modern world social trends impose new demands and responsibilities on education. It is pointed out that mankind today was living in an age of crisis, in a rapidly changing world which was forcing education to seek new paths. A number of far-reaching problems were besetting the educational system in Latin America; the population was increasing rapidly and at the same time the desire for education had become almost universal. The chief causes underlying the growth of interest were well-known. At the individual level, every family had perceived

the value of education as a means of climbing the economic ladder and of improving social status, and wanted its children to benefit by the opportunities thus afforded. At the community level, vast social sectors in Latin America had suddenly realized that their living conditions were unbearable, and one of the roads to emancipation they were seeking was that of education.

171. Those responsible for economic development planning in the Latin American countries also saw education in a new light as a form of generating wealth; the increasing attention that was being devoted to the financing of education by international credit agencies was a matter of common knowledge.

172. Another factor was scientific and technical progress, which was forging ahead at an exceptionally rapid rate; if workers were to be trained who could adapt themselves to the techniques of the future, pupils would have to be taught how to learn, since that was what they would be doing all their lives.

173. In addition, there was the change taking place in social and political structures. Citizens already were and would be increasingly called upon to undertake new tasks and responsibilities which they could only discharge efficiently if they were given proper training. The administration and operation of the complex structures which would characterize the society of tomorrow would leave less and less room for superficial and impromptu management and direction. The trend towards industrialization, which was leading on the one hand to a relatively rapid change in occupations and, on the other, to an increasing number of specialities, made it essential to give thought to the selection of groups of related techniques, the "type vocations" to which Friedman alluded. The move towards economic integration in Latin America had repercussions in the educational field: the creation of a genuine Latin American consciousness among the rising generation; adaptation of the structure of educational systems and the content of teaching to the economic and social development requirements of each country and of its different areas; improvement of teaching methods and materials; adoption of new evaluation and promotion systems and criteria for establishing the equivalence of courses of study; inter-university co-operation, etc.

174. Lastly, as a synthesis of the factors and trends referred to, it might be said that the future society visualized would demand training for development, education for change.

175. When compared with the requirements of a changing and developing society, the educational system in Latin America is backward, inadequate and unsatisfactory and needs to be thoroughly remodelled. What are the key points to be borne in mind in an education policy aimed at making the right to education a reality and in reshaping the system to meet the already perceptible requirements of society in future? The basic measures to be taken by an education policy of the kind proposed should

be of three kinds: they should remove the institutional obstacles that are preventing the right to education from being exercised; they should contribute by formal means to the achievement of this objective; and they should either neutralize the influence of supplementary methods of education outside the educational establishments or else incorporate them into the official system.

176. The institutional barriers to be overcome are the inflexibility of the existing school network, which could be remedied by providing the system with supplementary educational facilities that could be adapted to suit every variety of circumstance; the criteria governing the evaluation of the school child's performance, which is usually based almost entirely on the child's academic abilities; and the inability of relatively large population groups to obtain any benefit from the formal school system.

177. On the institutional side of the educational system, the following measures should be adopted: the establishment of a sufficiently long period of basic education to prepare school children to become a part of the social and working world; a structural revision of the system so that it fits more closely to the requirements of the occupational structure and facilitates the changes and inter-relationships within the system that would make for the readaptation of the pupil; a review of the content and activities of educational establishments, with due regard for the fact that the school child lives and will live in a technical world, but without giving the technical side undue prominence; the formation of permanent educational establishments that would prepare children and young people for occupational changes and make for social mobility.

178. Lastly, the barriers that exist outside the school system will have to be overcome, by enlarging the sphere of action of education policy which was formerly confined to the school system proper. The major problems with which this new concept of education policy will have to grapple are financial difficulties and the need to make education accessible to everyone; the integration or co-operation of different institutions in educational activities and the establishment of public bodies for the specific purpose of dealing with the problems of young people.

179. As regards the best ways in which to improve the educational situation, stress was laid on the contributions to be made by the population as a whole. Examples were quoted from several countries of schools that had been built and other important ventures that had been undertaken through the mobilization of large groups, especially of young people.

180. It was agreed, however, that the economic and social structural factors that had a bearing on education should not be neglected. Among them, mention was made of the financial difficulties that make it virtually essential for minors to leave school in order to work. Some countries have found that the only way to deal with this problem is to raise the family's level of living.

181. The participants suggested a number of economic measures for financing the educational system, such as the application of a progressive tax, since a number of them were of the opinion that it should be financed mainly from the national budget. In any case, for the purposes of immediate action, and given the fact that there are no grounds for supposing that formal education will expand sufficiently to absorb the whole of the school-age population in a few year's time, informal means must be sought for solving the problem and for incorporating the sectors which, for age or other reasons, do not have access to the educational system.

182. Emphasis was also laid on the need for constant revision of the subject-matter taught, since education had to be conceived with an eye to the future. In this connexion, the point was made that it was not enough merely to consider the need for transforming and expanding the school system in terms of the need for expansion of the economy. Education and access to culture for all were an ineluctable ideal.

183. As regards the specific problems of educational investment and planning, some ways of taking more effective action in this field are set forth in ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.14.

184. There are two ways of approaching investment in education, namely, through cost/benefit analysis, or by projecting manpower requirements in terms of the development plans' objectives.

185. The use of the cost/benefit approach is still at an early stage in education planning. First the relationship between expenditure in education and the income earned by persons in later years is not yet clearly established. It is known that persons with education generally receive higher incomes. However, incomes in some cases may not reflect productivity, but rather unquantifiable aspects, such as prestige or status. Cost/benefit analysis also neglects to some extent the quality of education.

186. It is necessary to know the ratio of production to labour input, and in this connexion, it is advisable that countries work out their own ratios as those of the more industrially advanced countries may not be applicable. The method of projecting human resources requirements seems more attractive because it is connected more directly with over-all national development efforts. Both of these methods however, can be used to provide broad guidelines to education planning.

187. If a government wishes to increase human resources in a certain sector of the economy it is necessary to provide appropriate incentives to attract young people to work in these sectors. This can be done through vocational guidance, the provision of fellowships for training; and of course, upgrading wage levels.

188. There are many problems yet to be solved in education planning, and it should be stressed that the problem cannot be looked at purely from an economic standpoint, as it has important social, psychological and political implications.

189. It is interesting to note that the largest expenditures in education are made by the family for text-books, clothing, etc. This expenditure also reflects earnings the child foregoes while attending school.

Employment of children and young people

190. The discussion of this subject was based on document ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.1, which describes labour conditions for minors and systems of apprenticeship and vocational guidance.

191. The problems relating to the working conditions of children under fifteen are directly related to the primary education they receive. According to the available figures, despite notable successes in the effort to extend primary education in the Latin American countries, an appreciable proportion of the labour force is still under fifteen. The percentage varies between 2 and 10 in the different countries. Children under fifteen, classified by ILO as child labour, work in the fields, as hawkers, and to some extent in the small artisan and cottage enterprises that are outside the control of the labour authorities. One possible solution to the problem of these children would be to extend the primary school courses.

192. 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.

193. 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

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.

194. During recent years, there have been only two 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.

195. 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.

196. 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 (ECLA), 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.

197. As regards workers aged 15-19, it is found that 80 per cent are unable to continue their studies, and that because they have dropped out of school most of this group have no more than three years of primary education, and are consequently not properly equipped to do the work they are supposed to do.

198. An evaluation of what is being done to prepare young people for employment shows the unsatisfactory state of technical and vocational education. The programme of the industrial schools is too long (4 to 6 years), which leads to dropping out, and the end result is frustration because the students who graduate from these schools are not helped to find work. In the first place, there is no service concerned with finding them work, and secondly, the curriculum in these schools is not always in line with the needs of industry. Moreover in many cases there are no sources of employment to absorb these new technicians.

199. On the subject of that preparation several representatives said that those problems were being dealt with in Latin America by institutions giving accelerated courses with much shorter curricula, based on practice rather than theory, and a training system compatible with the requirements of local industry. Such institutions - e.g. SENAI (Brazil) and SENA (Colombia) - also offered the students the possibility of training combined with work in an enterprise, even if at a low wage.

Discussion

200. Among the questions related to employment, considered as the objective of economic and social development programmes, emphasis was laid on the need to establish new sources of labour for the absorption of the new contingents of economically active population, and to improve rural employment with a view to preventing the exodus of population and the social disruptions which tended to stem from marginal populations. Among the systems and measures designed to solve those problems, the participants mentioned agrarian reform, the creation of intermediate urban centres between the rural populations and the capital cities, and the adaptation of up-to-date techniques to the real conditions prevailing in Latin America. One such method of adaptation consisted of seeking the best combinations of available capital and labour in the establishment of new enterprises.

201. Special attention was paid to the study of employment demand and opportunities created by development. In the face of the need to adapt up-to-date techniques designed to absorb limited manpower, serious problems arose in situations such as prevail in Latin America, where it was a matter of urgency to provide employment for large numbers of unemployed or under-employed. Such problems were aggravated by the initiation of changes in the agricultural sector, but assumed important proportions in the urban sector too, where there was also a surplus of manpower.

202. A number of participants gave an account of work being done in individual countries with a view to improving methods of vocational training and bringing it more into line with conditions in the country. It was stressed that vocational and professional training at various levels is a vital function in that it provides young people with a means of economic and social adaptation.

Nutrition

203. In the discussion of planning as a means of meeting the food and nutritional needs of children in Latin America,^{11/} two sources of data were mentioned as throwing fairly accurate light on the situation: (a) food balance sheets; and (b) food surveys. Food balance sheets indicated, over a particular reference period, the real total quantity of food available for human consumption. They were based on food production data and took into account the stocks at that date, the quantities allocated for livestock feeding, those used for seed and manufactured products and the natural losses sustained in distribution and marketing. Food balance sheets were prepared annually in most countries of the region and through them it was possible to determine the total per capita food supplies.

204. Food surveys were based on information regarding different aspects of food consumption at the level of the family or special groups. Although most of the surveys had been conducted through studies of the family as a whole, as the most accessible social unit, it was advisable systematically to include comprehensive research on qualitative and quantitative aspects of food distribution among the members of a family, in particular among those members of groups liable to suffer from under-nutrition, such as infants, pre-school children and pregnant women.

205. The two methods complemented one another, since the food balance sheets were intended as a basis for preparing general guidelines for the supply of food, while food surveys provided information on actual food consumption and the various factors influencing it. The proper application of these methods will provide data of fundamental importance for educational planning and for the programming of specific action directed towards the family or towards given sectors of the population. The use of such methods, in combination with the analysis of socio-economic and cultural models, is of basic significance for the drawing-up of specific programmes to improve food and nutrition in the particular economic sectors that are the most vulnerable from the standpoint of diet. By way of recommendation to the Latin American Governments, emphasis was laid on the importance of preparing an accurate diagnosis of the food and nutrition situation in the region, so that such information - indispensable for planning - could be submitted to the appropriate sectors.

^{11/} ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.5.

206. Although the available data are all too scanty, a general idea was given of the characteristics of the food situation in Latin America:

(a) While it is true that quantitatively the average calorie intake seems adequate, it is no less certain that there are under-nourished population nuclei whose diet corresponds to minimum subsistence levels. Differences prevail between the rural and urban population sectors, and diet is monotonous, including few foodstuffs with an acceptable protein content;

(b) From the qualitative standpoint, the problem is more serious, since the usual diet provides insufficient body-building foods - proteins of animal origin -, a fact which accounts for the physical under-development of many Latin American children.

207. Lastly, a food policy for Latin America was suggested in broad outline, on the basis of the following premises:

(a) Effort in Latin America has been directed towards the promotion of industrialization, and little attention is devoted to the agricultural sector, whose economy has remained stationary during recent years;

(b) Agriculture is still the region's principal economic activity, but it is carried on in conditions typical of under-development, owing to the socio-cultural, educational and economic characteristics of the rural sector, the inequity of the land tenure system and the pell-mell migration of the rural population to the towns;

(c) Unsatisfactory marketing levels, an unfavourable foreign trade balance and low income in the different socio-economic population groups.

208. If all these factors were combined into a "food policy" in national and regional development plans, Latin America would be able to step up and improve its food production in keeping with demand. Although it is difficult to distinguish questions relating to the nutrition of children, or other special population groups, from those relating to the family or to the population in general, the immediate aims of food policy should be to improve the diet of the economically and nutritionally vulnerable groups.

209. The data presented to the conference as a possible basis for a nutrition policy indicates that (a) the nutritional condition of the newborn child is related to the nutritional condition of the mother during pregnancy and lactation; (b) the feeding of the child during the first and second years of life is a function of the family's finances, nutritional habits, and education in nutrition; (c) once the child is over two years of age he eats the same food as the rest of the family, and consequently his nutritional problems are the same.

210. Once it is recognized that the problem of the child's nutrition at the different stages of his life is no more than a reflection of the financial, social and cultural and educational conditions of the family, it follows that the study of child nutrition, especially for the pre-school child, is a subject for all those concerned with social and economic questions at the national level, and all international agencies.

211. Although there is a whole range of measures that can be applied in this field, the most important are direct short-term measures, because of the urgent nature of the nutritional problems of mothers and children in Latin America. Such measures have the sole aim of ensuring that this vulnerable group has access to the protective foods that it needs, and can be classified in two broad groups: (a) to teach parents to produce their own food in the rural areas, and to teach the mother to spend her money to the best effect on the food available; and (b) if no protective foods are available in the country, or they are beyond the reach of the family for geographical or financial reasons, there should be a special distribution of such protective foods at reduced prices, or even without charge, as a temporary measure, but over a sufficiently long period to ensure beneficial effects to the population.

212. Although indirect measures may exercise a definite influence, it is necessary to gain access to the pre-school child. This can be done through such institutions as maternal and child health centres, day nurseries, nutrition centres and so forth. A solution that might be suitable for conditions in Latin America would be the formation of women's associations to co-operate with technical organizations in the task of improving the diet of the pre-school child.

Discussion

213. The participants agreed that, if nutritional levels were to be improved, the most pressing problem to be solved in Latin America was that of land tenure. The concentration of land in the hands of a small minority was instrumental in depriving the rural worker of any incentive to develop farming, and forced him to migrate to the towns in search of a better life.

214. Another problem was the training of young people for agricultural work, which could be dealt with through the modification of the primary school course. In order to reorganize food production, and improve plans for land utilization by placing them on a sounder technical basis, special training programmes were evidently required.

215. With respect to the Freedom from Hunger Campaign, sponsored by the United Nations, the Conference indicated the importance not only of increasing agricultural production, but also of undertaking action to teach good nutritional habits in order to make the optimum use of resources and food supplies. It was also stressed that any nutritional policy divorced from an over-all view of the problems in the light of the integrated development of the Latin American countries stood little chance of success. In relation to the specific problem of children, various measures were proposed, but there was general agreement that any attempted solution should provide for the modification of the nutritional habits of the family, and an increase in the availability of high-protein foods, which are the only foods that can raise the child's biological indexes and permit his full psychological development. However, this did not mean that child nutrition problems could be solved without specific programmes. On the contrary, countries should attach special importance to improving the nutritional condition of the child, since the harm wrought by deficiencies in its diet was likely to be irreparable.

216. There was also agreement on the need for the setting up of a group of experts in each country who would be responsible for nutrition and food production projects. There were experts contributing to agricultural development, but no nutritionists to work with the communities themselves and to assume responsibility for the preparation of foodstuffs with the resources available and to promote their marketing.

Health

217. Nutrition is closely related to health. Two documents on the subject were presented to the Conference:^{12/} the first, describing the nutritional environment of the infant and pre-school child in Latin America, and the second on national planning and the establishment of regulations for maternal and child health in the region.

218. Maternity, the rearing of children and their nutrition were the expression of biological and cultural needs rather than of pathological processes, but, in practice, they could give rise to processes requiring medical care in the province of public health. Marked differences existed between the Latin American countries in so far as morbidity and mortality during the maternity and infancy cycle were concerned; however, the national and local maternal and child hygiene regulations repeat the same formulas that derive from the classical schemes of that discipline.

^{12/} ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.16 and ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.17.

219. As a result of the influence of national planning, maternal and child health was becoming integrated with medical care at the administrative level in Latin America. A factor contributing to the process was recognition of the urgent need for public health to penetrate primarily into the rural areas, since, in the past, the administration of health in "advanced" terms was limited almost exclusively to the cities.

220. The concept of extending health services faithfully follows the principle that all mothers and children in the community should be given the same care.

221. A service conceived in these terms is only one of the many directed towards social reform, the promotion of the health of the community, the motivation of recourse to medical attention, and popular health education.

222. Action to attain mother and child health care objectives can be classified under four heads: (a) early detection of cases of unidentified illness and timely medical attention; (b) previous parent guidance and education, including home dietetics, with a view to the prevention of disease; (c) supplementary feeding; and (d) immunization. The structure of health services is envisaged as a continuum extending from a base constituted by the hospital for a given area and the urban centre, through a series of places where treatment is given by means of mobile services, to rural areas dependent upon the traditional indigenous midwives and healers. It may happen that the services are inefficacious everywhere and that the system is imperfectly integrated. There is a tendency throughout Latin America to organize the services on an area basis and to improve the system from the administrative standpoint.

223. The proportion of mothers and children covered by the system will depend upon its own dynamism; lack of medical care will create an unbridgeable gap, and only through the integration of the services will public health targets be attained. Channelling of the community's own cultural patterns and the needs of which it is keenly aware may be a useful means of introducing the concepts of health care and medical check-ups for the mother and child; pregnancy, delivery and diseases of mothers and children are occasions warranting the exercise of the principle of selection. Thus, the general trend of modern public health services is towards the development of horizontal programmes and, in respect of maternal and child health care standards, the constant provision of preventive treatment and education through the public health services.

224. The following measures were proposed, to be applied at both the regional and national level, as a general strategy for extending maternal and child health care:

(a) To define and evaluate, in order of priority, the specific diseases of pregnancy and infancy characteristic of the zone in question.

/(b) To

(b) To define and evaluate, in order of priority, the practices used in childbirth, and in the rearing and feeding of infants, that might cause or contribute to the diseases in question.

(c) To determine, on broad lines, measures of maternal and child health care that could be applied in order to permit early diagnosis of disease, and its prevention or control.

(d) To calculate the proportion of the mother and child population covered by the whole range of health services, from indigenous healers to the central hospital.

(e) To select activities and measures that could be applied at each point of contact or could conduce to the establishment of a system of after care.

(f) To adapt activities - especially as regards the task of health guidance and education - to the real situation (or handicaps) of the community, and adjust the order of priority accordingly.

(g) To enumerate the techniques (in the common sense of the word) available for carrying out each activity at each point of contact, and to place them in their probable order of effectiveness.

(h) To reduce each activity to an instrument that can be expressed in terms of per capita cost.

(i) To establish specific criteria of vulnerability to disease that could be applied at the various points of contact in order, on the basis of priorities, to decide on the number, and select the cases, that are to be dealt with by the mother and child health services or sent to special after-care services.

(j) To prepare three different plans for the provision of maternal and child health services for a population group of minimum (with no increase in resources), moderate and maximum size. Each plan would represent the carrying out of various activities at one or more points of contact, and one or more after-care systems derived from those activities. Costs and staff needs would be higher for the maximum plan and lower for the other two versions, with the application, on the basis of a priority-cost balance, of various criteria for the selection of cases for attention and different techniques for carrying out (or eliminating) an activity.

(k) To incorporate the necessary rules for the execution of the three plans into the regulations on health care and on the functions of the staff that provide services at each point of contact.

Discussion

225. As regards the nutritional circumstances of the nursing mother and her child, some suggestions were made for helping to develop a sound nutrition policy, including education, and the development, expansion and improvement of health services.

226. Maternal malnutrition affects the children at the breast and often even the pre-school child. Breast-feeding is simply a natural means of obtaining food which prolongs the protection enjoyed by the baby in the womb and thus equips it for its new environment. Technology has succeeded in perfecting certain artificial foods which impair this natural protection, whereas the breast-fed baby is free from the dangers of infection and under-nourishment. Patent milk formulas are becoming widely obtainable in nearly every country as the level of development rises but, although freeing the mother to work, may be wrongly used, through ignorance, with unfortunate results. As regards the pre-school child, the most serious problem in Latin America is the lack of proteins in their diet which, in extreme cases, leads to kwashiorkor and marasmus. As already pointed out, the death rate from deficiency diseases is highest in the 1 - 4 age group.

227. Some participants stressed that it was desirable for welfare institutions and programmes to be brought into the campaign to improve public health; in other words, that proper weight should be attached to social welfare institutions, services and campaigns as useful additional tools for solving health problems.

Legal protection

228. The problems of the family, children and youth were examined as a whole in document ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.2 in relation to the legislation needed to regulate public and private behaviour, with particular reference to the child under the law who should be given special treatment as part of the social contract. In that connexion, it was pointed out that a correct definition of the term "minor" would have important implications for the different branches of positive law enacted in Latin America.

229. There is now a trend towards a doctrine that the treatment of children should exempt them from the provisions of the penal code, and provide for new legislation in the civil and labour fields that can be regarded as the nucleus of a separate branch of law termed legislation on children. However, this tendency has not received express recognition in legal doctrine. Thus, the legislation on children would be regarded as that branch of law that governs the care of the child in order to permit better conditions for the development of its personality and to allow it to develop to its full potential in the most favourable possible moral and physical conditions.

230. Latin American legislators support the theory that the minor should be subjected to a special legal system, with its own characteristics and clearcut objectives, its own procedures and the constant application of the exercise and practise of that special law. That concept was best illustrated by the codes of children and minors.

231. Such a law implied legislation designed to fight against desertion and orphanhood for a sector of the population and, as the ultimate objective, to regulate the conditions favouring the development of children and young persons within the framework of organized society. Such legislation, therefore, would have a protective and formative function, as consistent with the spirit obtaining in public law. On those lines, the interests of minors, up to the time they came of age, required special regulations with their own principles, some under public law and others under private law, and a protective aim.

232. The doctrinary discussion did not involve recognition of minor's rights as a new autonomous legal discipline, but the inclusion of certain questions in that right. At the level of specific proposals, the function and content of that legislation was couched in the following terms: (a) assistance and protection of the family as the basic unit of society; (b) maternal and child protection through medical, economic and social services; (c) compulsory education for both normal and handicapped children; (d) civil and penal sanctions for parents on grounds of non-compliance or desertion; (e) integration of the administration of justice for minors through specialized institutions and technical personnel; (f) prevention of exploitation of children and young people, through the establishment of minimum wages and fixed working hours, and the introduction of procedures for the supervision of employed children and young persons; (g) improvement of civil registration legislation; (h) promotion of responsible parenthood by raising the minimum age at which young people could marry; and (i) introduction of the family subsidy and education of the community and of young people on the subjects of sex and family; (j) application of a minor's code or statute in every Latin American country.

C. POLICY AND PLANNING IN RELATION TO CHILDREN AND YOUTH

233. The foregoing analyses show the inadequacy of the efforts now being made to deal with the problems and needs of children and young people. In these circumstances the Conference decided not to make a declaration of principles and intentions, but rather to try to indicate some patterns of action to correct the defects and shortcomings of the policies and practices applied in this field in Latin America. To this end, in addition to giving an indication of the conventional resources, the Conference tried to devise methods and policies based on a more general and dynamic vision.

Planning in Latin America

234. This subject was dealt with in document ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.13, which states that in most of the Latin American countries there is no general acceptance of either of the two most common concepts on what is the essence of planning, the first being that it is a rational method for controlling the whole or the main part of the economy, and replacing the market forces in matters of production decisions, and the second that it is a rational means of ensuring consistency in economic decisions from the social standpoint. The reasons for this include the great difference in the level of development of the various countries, which accounts for the intense pressure to which the economies of the relatively less developed countries are and will continue to be subjected; the structural defects in these relatively less developed economies - which affect the efficient operation of the market forces and hamper development; and the close and yet conflicting relationship between the rationalization of development at the national level and the regional economic integration policy. All these factors mean that planning in Latin America is in some cases merely a non-systematic formality, cut off from major decisions, while in others it is wholly unrelated to the diagnosis of problems and the actual substance of planning.

235. A planning system is the formal expression of a dynamic and harmonious process of taking current decisions in which the rational nature of the decisions is judged on the basis of the relationship between the past and the future course mapped out for the economy, with the organized participation of the community both in the process of adopting short and medium term decisions, and in the responsibilities of direct execution of those decisions. This process must take place in accordance with predetermined operational rules that are rooted in the public administration, so that the plans and decisions are the product of a single governmental system.

236. The document in question states that the basic functions of the planning system are carried out through four types of machinery: (a) policy instruments such as general or particular medium or long term plans, sectoral plans, regional integration plans, preliminary project drafts, etc.; (b) decision-taking and operational instruments, such as annual operational plans of a general nature, annual foreign exchange budgets, annual financial budgets, annual budgets of materials and basic inputs, public sector budgets, etc.; (c) instruments of execution, such as specific and detailed project designs, budget execution programmes, general machinery for the generation and evaluation of specific projects, administrative plans, etc.; and (d) information machinery, including plans for statistical data and special research plans (relating to natural resources, scientific and technological research, etc.).

237. The tasks that these instruments must perform are the essential basic functions of any government organization, whether or not any planning system exists. Planning is the only method of ensuring consistency between the instruments of policy, decision, execution and information, and the effectiveness of each of these instruments.

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However, planning can also be regarded as the formal rationalization of a process of economic and social change, and it is perhaps for this reason, quite apart from the technical problems that exist, that planning has made slow progress in the Latin American countries, because there is no real desire, or political support, for such change.

238. The document states that in Latin America planning has been developing under political handicaps, as the product of national and international situations rather than as a form of deliberate decision to alter methods of government. Hence planning in its early years appears over-formalized, hesitant and improvised, and shows signs of the temptation to exaggerate its technical complexity.

239. To overcome these handicaps and the resistance to planning found in many quarters, it is important for idealistic schemes to be brought into line with the real conditions in the individual countries. For this purpose there should be a strategic consideration of the various courses open as regards the geographical coverage of the plans within each country, the establishment of machinery within the planning system, the formulation of plans and systems, the nature of the plans themselves, the timetable for the execution of the plans, and the institutionalization of the central planning machinery.

240. To judge by the experience acquired between 1958 and 1965, first by the secretariat of the Economic Commission for Latin America and its advisory groups, and thereafter by the Latin American Institute for Economic and Social Planning and the OAS/IDB/ECLA Ad Hoc Committee on co-operation, planning has made noteworthy progress in Latin America, although at varying rates according to the particular subject and country in question. Conditions vary considerably from country to country as regards the supply of trained personnel available and the over-all effectiveness of government activities, but the position could be improved by an exchange of experiences which would be helpful to all concerned. In order to remedy the lack of co-ordination in the mechanisms that make up the national planning systems, regional assistance must be concentrated on the weakest links in the chain.

241. Lastly, the document lists the principal shortcomings of the planning systems in Latin America. These are (a) a tendency to neglect the operational machinery; (b) no co-ordination between plans and budgets in the public sector; (c) the lack of statistical systems that provide proper coverage; (d) the shortage of projects; (e) the dearth of realistic financing programmes for development plans; (f) insufficient attention to the problems of regional economic integration in development planning; (g) the vacuum in which planning activities tend to be carried on; (h) the premature establishment of an institutional framework for planning systems; and (i) shortcomings in research on natural resources and technology in their use. These deficiencies can be summed up in one sentence: there are no real planning systems, but simply groups or organizations preparing plans in an alien environment, at the cost of exceptional effort, in relative isolation from the basic sectors of society and without proper help from them. All this militates against the continuity and normality which should be an essential feature of planning work.

Planning for children and youthBasic considerations

242. In view of the shortage of funds from which the under-developed countries normally suffered, it was considered essential to avoid proliferation of aid programmes in order to ensure the success of efforts to improve the present situation of children and young people. Similarly, it was thought necessary to transform the many separate projects of an experimental nature into a co-ordinated large-scale effort to change the existing conditions hampering national development.

243. From this standpoint it was important to make the question of the needs of children and young people part of the whole common effort directed to economic development, and integrate them into the development plans themselves.

244. The needs in question are manifold and relate to various sectors of economic and social planning, such as health, nutrition, social welfare services, education, employment and housing. These fields or sectors each have their own aims more or less closely related to the whole complex of national development problems by reason of their effect on the productive process or their consistency with the postulates of the Government's social policy.

245. The planners should recognize the importance of a separate treatment of one population group (children and young people) in terms of the care they need and of the training they should receive as members of the society of the future. In this connexion it was agreed that the members of this group belong to groups, mainly families, and that such groups must therefore be one of the means or vehicles for much of the action in the interest of children and young people.

246. The State also acts directly on this group in a form that is parallel to the action taken by means of the family. The most obvious example is compulsory education, where legislation imposes a specific line of conduct even if the family is opposed to it.

247. As a result, there are a number of intersecting facets of interest to this population stratum, such as sectors, means or instruments of action, and policies. Two basic types of problems arise from this. On the one hand, there is the analysis of the different relations between these facets, as, for example, between education and health; income distribution policy and the ability of the family group to play its proper part in looking after and bringing up children and young people; nutrition problems in this population stratum and consumption and price policies, etc. On the other, and stemming from the analysis of these inter-relations, it must be decided what mode of action will best ensure that the different activities and policies aiming at satisfying the needs of children and youth are consistent and compatible.

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248. This method usually involves a new and concerted approach to sectoral problems based on the consideration of the population stratum as a whole and as a particular object in the process of development planning. For instance, planned sectoral development has an impact on the skilled labour force. By analogy, the sectoral and over-all targets and goals of a development plan are often bound up with the organizational and institutional problems of the public administration.

249. As the characteristic indicators rise in the above-mentioned sectors, because of more rapid development, many of the requirements of the population stratum in question will become easier to satisfy. But this can no longer be left to sectoral growth since it is precisely the growth of sectors that must be harmonized. The different sectors should be co-ordinated precisely so that each can play its due part in meeting those requirements. In other words, a focal point of co-ordination should be established towards which sectoral development policies concerned with children and youth, and operational methods would converge. This is the stage reached when planning processes have been refined and perfected.

250. The fact that this "point of co-ordination" should be established at the level of the central development planning machinery undoubtedly poses a wide range of problems. How much complementarity is there between the organizations specifically concerned with children and youth in their different aspects? How can the activities proper to an organization concerned with children and youth be distinguished, and in what way are they to be co-ordinated with others? What are the sources of the funds that finance these activities? Can the funds be transferred, or are they irrevocably assigned to a specific purpose?

251. The discussion of these ideas showed that concern for the problems of children and youth at the level of national planning systems does not imply the organization of a specific new programming sector to be added to the many normally existing in the planning agencies. On the contrary, as policies for the care and training of the younger generations are of interest to a large number of institutions and sectors in economic and social life, the problems relating to such policies cut horizontally right through the planning system. The element of innovation in the introduction of questions relating to children and young people, and its vital importance, lie precisely in the fact that by this means it is possible to strengthen the trend towards a better understanding of development planning activities in relation to integrated human welfare. In this sense, the development policy underlying the "poles of co-ordination" mentioned above must be based on an over-all picture of man's social needs, since only thus will there be established a close connexion between the development problem and the satisfaction of children's and young people's needs.

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252. Furthermore, while it is true that the basic contribution which can be made to a redefinition of development objectives through the incorporation of questions bearing on children and youth consists in a broadening of the planning experts' angle of vision by the inclusion of specific problems relating to the future of humanity, it is equally certain that the consideration of such problems in terms of planning calls for strict methods and, as far as possible, quantification.

253. During the discussion it was pointed out that the shortcomings of planning in Latin America are, in actual fact, prerequisites for planning. These are: 1. greater political participation of the population in planning to enable the capitalist system to adjust to the present-day requirements; 2. wider dissemination of information to the public at all levels and in different degrees; 3. a revision of the administrative apparatus to equip it to discharge its functions efficiently. The calibre of the personnel responsible for preparing the plans is very important in this respect, constant training being necessary to achieve a high level; 4. supervision of the activities of the public sector, by supplementing a priori auditing, which is highly efficient, by a posteriori control in the form of such systems as performance budgeting; 5. incorporation of the private and local public sectors into planning, and particularly the latter because it handles a large proportion of the funds available. It is also very important to co-ordinate the various individual instruments partially controlling the private sector.

254. In relation to the contention that in Latin America planning was not effectively translated into action nor was co-ordination established between budget and plans, factors were pointed to that limited development and restricted Government action more than in the advanced countries. Communications had become so rapid that the ideas of the developed countries were shaping the aspirations of the less developed peoples; for instance, they expected to have certain minimum social welfare services which the political facts of the times compelled governments to provide if they wished to stay in power. Moreover, the public sector constituted a very small proportion of the over-all economy - its capital formation not exceeding 10 per cent of total capital formation in the Latin American countries - and had to earmark much of its resources and investment for the infrastructure on which the returns were hard to estimate. Consequently, there was little possibility of planning for as much as three or four years, and the only alternative was to draw up an annual budget whose effectiveness was undermined by the need to take political factors into account every year in its formulation.

255. There was no philosophy motivating the people to take part in development nor did they seem to feel the need of one. The importance of such a philosophy was grasped by certain sectors, but only when they were personally affected and even then not completely, such as fathers whose children were given an education or wage earners who found that they were receiving more money as a result of the progress made by the country.

256. In discussing the order of priority as between economic and social planning in Latin America, the participants agreed that the various economic, social, educational, and other fields must continue to develop independently, since the idea of planning, linked with rationalization, is not a miraculous panacea, but a fairly useful instrument that can serve human ends. Thus there is no such thing as an isolated economic activity that has no social implications. Hence in this sense it is pointless to attempt to distinguish between the economic and the social field, since economic activity cannot be regarded as an end in itself, but only as a means of permitting human development. This is why Latin America's special contribution to the concept of development should be the recognition that there can be no economic development without social development.

257. It was maintained that in Latin America planning was conceived as a means of obtaining changes in the economic and social field, and not only in the productive process. Thus, as no distinction can be made between man's nature and his function, since even work is a form of being, so economic development is merely an investment, if not a participation, in the fruits of progress.

258. University education was criticized as being cut off from the real facts of life, obliging young people to undergo a period of readjustment in their ideas after they leave the university.

259. The participants stressed the importance of increasing social mobility, so that full use could be made of the dynamic elements available at all social levels, a goal that could not be attained by economic development alone. Economic development might encourage a technocracy consisting of people from a single social group, which would tend to lead to compulsory planning, instead of the planning based on persuasion that encourages greater mobility of the human elements.

260. Attention was also drawn to the fact that although material factors can be provided over the short term, the formation of social leaders requires many years.

The content of planning to take account of children and youth

261. The content of planning to take account of children and youth can be outlined as follows:

(a) Although each ministry will be preparing its plan, and it is clear that an important part of the plans of the ministries of education, health, social welfare and labour will be concerned with children and youth, yet these plans should not be prepared in isolation, since many of the provisions are complementary. If planning is approached from the stand point of the problems of children and young people, these ministries will need each other's help and that of other ministries as well. Usually there is a member, and a section, of the planning agency concerned with the co-ordination of the social fields. But such co-ordination is not enough to cover the whole field of children's problems.

(b) Some of the most powerful means of affecting the condition of children and youth are indirect economic means. Some examples are:

Up to the present time the majority of children live in rural areas where families tend to be larger. Consequently government policy on rural incomes has an important bearing on children's welfare.

The largest families are generally the poorest, and consequently, housing policy is very important for children.

Some aspects of price policy are very important for children's welfare, for example, the production and price of milk, or the production and price of other foods suitable for weaning and young children.

One of the greatest problems of youth is that the employment rate is usually higher than in other age groups. Some steps are being taken to approach this from the "social" side by preparing youth for realistic employment prospects, but from the "economic" side it is also necessary to ensure adequate employment.

(c) Some of the "economic" provisions of a national development plan call for special training of children and young people, and protection of the family. Development means growth and change. Children and young people are the agents of change and development, as well as the beneficiaries and should therefore be trained for this task. The planned creation of employment means new types of work (industry instead of agriculture) and new ways of living (the city instead of the country). These changes will mainly affect the rising generation. Examples are land reform where colonization and irrigation require the training of young farmers; industrial development regions and new towns which require the training of young workers and provision for women with young children; some of the negative effects of industrialization may be reduced or removed by preventive action, such as the education of women for adaptation to town life; the improvement of the situation of children which may be an incentive to secure the greater participation of the population in work aimed at a better future.

Methods of planning to take account of children and youth

262. Economists have begun to think about finding methods for the allocation of resources among competing ends in the field of children and youth. (For example: more health services versus more schools.) This leads to concern with cost/benefit ratios. As most countries do not have the statistics to have a sophisticated planning of this type, such matters constitute very important fields for research.

263. The methods of national planning are now much more empirical, and the following stages can be distinguished:

(a) To reach an agreed philosophy or point of view. This is a complex problem involving many interrelations among economic sectors as well as social sectors, and requiring economic measures as well as social measures.

(b) To gather and analyse information about the present situation of children and young people, and present trends. The documentation of the Conference has made a tremendous advance in this direction, but this is a continuing task in each country.

(c) To prepare the plan from the point of view of the problems, as well as the instruments offered by the various services and ministries, without neglecting problems that are not the direct major concern of any one Ministry. For this purpose it is important to establish priorities.

(d) To look for rational paths of development of services within each sector, and taking account of the mutual relations among sectors, and look for rational investment in the life cycle of a generation as it passes through infancy, pre-school age, school age and youth, the age of entry to an occupation. In this task, international comparisons will help, particularly the socio-economic profiles developed by the United Nations Bureau of Social Affairs. Account may be taken of the different stages of industrial development and levels of income of different countries.

(e) To co-ordinate the plans of the different sectors bearing on children and youth, not to plan for a special sector for them. This will permit a unified view of problems and possibilities of action, and make clear the superiority of the planning method over isolated programmes.

(f) To develop a national policy or national programme for children and young people. In its more developed form this will lay down targets to be reached within the plan period, and indicate the resources available for reaching them and the means for regular evaluation of progress.

/National Policy

National Policy for Children and Youth

264. A national policy for the well-being of children and youth formulated within the framework of the development policy of the country should cover all children in urban and rural areas, infants, pre-school children, school children, children outside of the school system, and youth.

265. The content of a national policy is expressed clearly in the General Assembly's Declaration of the Rights of the Child, which was unanimously adopted in November 1959. Generally the policy should deal with two categories of needs:

- (a) Protection - measures aiming at the elimination of child mortality and morbidity, infectious diseases, poor sanitation, malnutrition, illiteracy, and improving child welfare;
- (b) Preparation for life - this category refers to the development of the child into productive and creative manpower; young people should be taught the skills and be motivated to participate in their country's development, and encouraged to become good citizens. More specifically, needs in this category pertain to education, vocational training and guidance, and employment prospects.

266. Protection of families, particularly mothers, would be an important feature of a national policy for children and youth, since families play such an important part in the child's development.

267. In addition to providing for the material needs of children and youth, a national policy should include objectives designed to ensure and strengthen the transmission of fundamental values to the younger generation, so that values and institutions are properly maintained, reviewed, and developed. It is obvious that children and youth play a determining role in the process of "social reproduction".

268. A national policy should contain a statement of the problems relating to the younger generation, and the expectations for achieving results through practical action programmes in given periods of time. It should call for support from the nation as a whole, that is for the participation in planning and implementing programmes of both the public and private sectors, including all kinds of non-governmental organizations, such as the church, youth camps, political parties, trade unions, farmers co-operatives.

/Non-conventional measures

Non-conventional measures

269. The participants discussed the search for non-conventional methods to solve the problems of children and young people in the Latin American countries, and pointed out that the urgency of these problems and the shortage of resources in many countries reduce the scope of measures based on the existence of extensive and efficient administrative machinery, and the plan itself, which is both the instrument for co-ordinating policies and the system of administrative liaison, proves incapable of meeting the region's needs.

270. The estimates for the per capita distribution of the gross domestic product show that in many countries it will be hard to meet the population's needs rapidly unless imaginative and dynamic measures are taken. In fact, according to the Yearbook of National Accounts Statistics 1964, eight Latin American countries - Bolivia, Brazil, Ecuador, El Salvador, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua and Paraguay - now have an annual per capita income of less than 200 dollars; in five other countries - Colombia, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, and Peru - the figure is between 200 and 300 dollars, and only in the other seven - Argentina, Chile, Cuba, Mexico, Panama, Uruguay and Venezuela - is it 400 dollars or over.

271. It is easy to see that many of the measures proposed to solve the basic social problems have little chance of success over the short term in the countries with the lowest level of per capita gross product. In those countries the basic agencies normally available in the more developed countries to deal with the problems of children and young people, such as the family itself and organized social services, are not available, with their network of social relations, for even half the population.

272. Some participants referred to the successful mobilization of national interest in their respective countries in the solving of social problems, and it was generally agreed that, with respect to patterns of action suitable to help solve the problems of children and young people, it was necessary to move on from the concept of a paternalist State bureaucracy to one underlining the more over-all social and dynamic process that should be represented by activities undertaken to that end.

273. In that connexion it was stated that some Latin American countries had already succeeded - and that it would be possible to do so in nearly all of them - in enlisting the interest and practical help of the press and mass communication media, the trade unions, the armed forces, non-governmental organizations, religious groups, and above all, young people, for collective mobilization in support of campaigns for rural construction, the eradication of illiteracy, the improvement of health and hygiene, etc., with the resulting increase in opportunities for social and human participation by children and young people.

/The participation

The participation of youth in development

274. It was asserted that in the conditions in Latin America it would be a mistake to contemplate any solution of the problems of young people unless their co-operation was obtained and, to some extent, the values gaining ground among the young were accepted. Past experience of the participation of youth associations in such campaigns as those listed above shows that it is possible to harness the enormous potential that youth represents for the building of a better future for the peoples of Latin America.

Annex I

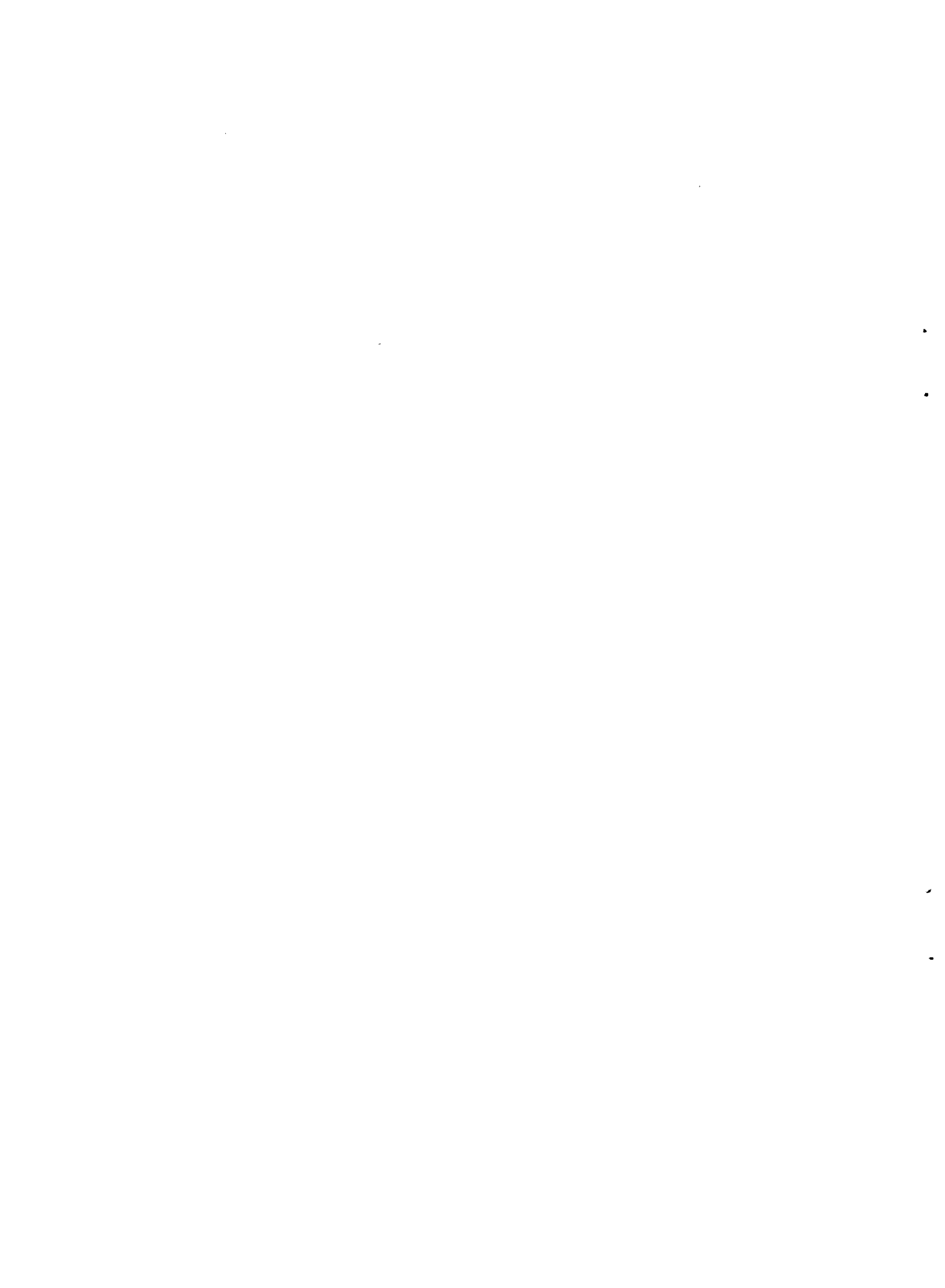
Speech delivered by President Eduardo Frei
at the inaugural session. (Will be translated
for the printed version.)

/Annex II

Annex II

Speech delivered by Mr. Espiritu Santo Mendoza
at the inaugural session. (Will be translated
for the printed version.)

/Annex III



Annex III

Opening statement by Mr. Henry R. Labouisse, Executive Director of UNICEF
in the inaugural session celebrated on 29 November, 1965

1. On behalf of the sponsoring organizations and co-operating united agencies, I should like to welcome all of you to this, the First Regional Conference on Children and Youth in National Development.
2. I know that I speak for everyone here when I express to H.E. President Frei our deep appreciation for opening the inaugural session. President Frei's remarks this morning clearly outlined the main theme of this Conference. I should also like to extend our warm thanks to the Government of Chile for its hospitality in receiving us and to the President of the Senate for enabling us to hold the inaugural session here in the Salon de Honor of the National Congress.
3. We deeply regret that Licenciado Lopez Mateos is not with us during our inaugural session. This eminent past-president of The Republic of Mexico accepted the Chairmanship of the Conference with a great sense of responsibility and enthusiasm when he was invited to occupy this post by the three sponsoring organizations.

Unfortunate and unexpected illness prevents his being here today. We all hope that he will quickly recover his health, and that he will be able to join us before the closing of our working sessions.

The fact that the Vice-Chairman of the Conference for the first week, Dr. Espiritu Santo de Mendoza, distinguished pediatrician and educator of Venezuela, was so thoroughly involved with the aims and preparation of this Conference, has allowed us to open the sessions under the best auspices for the fulfilment of its goals. We are indeed fortunate and grateful that we shall have him to guide us.

4. This Conference has been convened to consider the problems of children and youth in Latin America, and how these problems can be more effectively taken account of in development plans and programmes. The place of children in development plans has both economic and social aspects, and, therefore, among the participants here today are planners, administrators, and financial authorities, as well as people whose interests are more directly and specifically related to children's problems.

/Children as

Children as future human resources

5. Traditionally, efforts to improve the well-being of children have stemmed mainly from a humanitarian concern for the deprived and handicapped. Increasingly in recent years, however, a broader view has been taken. The new element added in looking at children's problems concerns the development of the child in relation to the economic and social development of the country.

6. We now speak of the development of "human resources", in contrast to natural or physical resources. By this, we mean the process of increasing the knowledge, the skills, and the capacity of all people in a society. In economic terms it could be described as the accumulation of human capital and its effective investment in the development of an economy. In political terms, it prepares people for adult participation in political processes. From the social point of view, the development of human resources helps people to lead fuller and richer lives.

7. Until fairly recently, attention was focused on capital investment and on higher education and training, but not enough on the development of the child. One serious matter, partly attributable to this neglect, is that most modernizing economies are now confronted simultaneously with two persistent manpower problems: a shortage of persons with critical skills, and a surplus of unproductive labour. Some countries in the region are experiencing rapid growth in population size. It is not merely the increasing number of people which may constitute an obstacle to development, but rather the increasing number of unproductive people. Therefore one of the basic tasks in developing countries is the transformation of the population into a productive manpower resource.

8. But to further this task of transformation and lay a proper foundation for all subsequent development, we must start with the child. The thoroughgoing preparation of the oncoming generation as productive adults and constructive citizens requires very substantial expenditure by the family, as well as public investment in health, nutrition, welfare, education and training. All of those aspects are inter-related in the child's total development and consequently cannot be neglected.

9. We must not, however, think of human resource development entirely in economic terms. Investment in the development of human beings is quite different, say, from investment in physical capital. Better health, or education, in addition to increasing output, are desirable in themselves. The development of human beings is a means to development, and, at the same time, the primary goal of development.

/The sponsors

The sponsors of the conference

10. The purposes of the Conference make it clear why this Conference is sponsored by ECLA, the Latin American Institute for Economic and Social Planning and UNICEF. The Economic Commission is deeply concerned with the problems of preparation and execution of national development plans in countries of the region. The Institute is responsible for training development planners, for undertaking research on issues crucial to development, and for advisory services to governments.

11. UNICEF, as an operational agency, is concerned that its assistance is directed to the priority needs of children and it considers that this can best be achieved through adequate development planning. As you know, this Conference is held in co-operation with the UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, ILO, FAO, UNESCO, WHO and the IBRD, all of whom are deeply interested in the problems of children and youth in their respective fields, and work closely with ECLA, the Institute and UNICEF.

12. We are, of course, mindful of the fact that each country will chart its own course with respect to the place of children and youth in its development programmes. Our purpose is to be as helpful as possible.

Evolution of UNICEF

13. UNICEF's role within the United Nations family is to co-operate with countries in practical programmes to protect their children and youth, and to prepare them for useful and productive lives. UNICEF was established by the United Nations General Assembly in 1946 for the benefit of children and adolescents in war devastated countries. Help was given mainly in the form of food and other emergency relief supplies.

14. With the recovery of Europe, the General Assembly in 1950 directed UNICEF to turn its attention from emergency to long-term needs of children in developing countries. During the fifties UNICEF's co-operation spread out of Europe to Asia, the Eastern Mediterranean, Latin America and Africa. The principal emphasis during this period was assistance to governments in the establishment or expansion of basic health services, in the eradication or control of such diseases as yaws, tuberculosis, malaria and trachoma, in better nutrition and in social services.

15. In 1961 UNICEF took note of the growing realization of the importance of doing more to prepare children and young people to contribute in later life to the development of their countries. Accordingly UNICEF broadened the scope of its co-operation to include aid for programmes in the fields of social welfare, education and vocational training as well as for health and nutrition wherever these were important problems to children.

/16. That

16. That we are indeed a co-operative enterprise is, I think, well illustrated in the fact that UNICEF aids projects in 118 countries or territories and receives contributions from 121. Most of the countries where we assist projects also contribute to our budget. These funds are used primarily for supplies and equipment from abroad and for certain local costs such as stipends for training that the local government is temporarily unable to provide. But, in addition, we have calculated that on the average for each dollar UNICEF spends on a project, the country administering the project spends around two dollars and a half (\$2.50).

17. In the early sixties it was realized that this co-operative endeavour - and more broadly, all efforts on behalf of children - could be more effective if development planners could give a higher priority to children's programmes in development planning. In 1962 the General Assembly declared that, where national plans exist or are in the course of preparation, provisions should be made to take account of the needs of children. The UNICEF Executive Board then decided that UNICEF should enter into closer co-operation with the United Nations Economic Commissions and Institutes in each region, especially in relation to their growing training and advisory services in national development planning. In 1963 and 1964 the UNICEF Executive Board approved funds for holding regional conferences in Latin America and Asia to focus attention on children and youth as an integral aspect of the long-term development of human resources. UNICEF's role is not to duplicate the work of others, nor to establish directives, nor to advocate separate sectors for children and youth in development plans. It is rather, as I have said, to focus attention on the well-being of children, to encourage countries to take fuller account of their children and youth in their own development plans, and this done, to make sure its own assistance is in line with and gives full support to the priorities established in these plans.

Planning

18. In the next two weeks, this Conference will be examining approaches followed by various countries in the region in taking account of their children and youth in development plans and exploring the issues arising from these approaches. No one expects that the Conference will result in a package solution to the problems of children in national development, but we do hope that participants will return to their home countries with a better understanding of these problems, their importance in development efforts, and how best to deal with them.

There are two very practical problems of particular interest to UNICEF to which, I hope, participants will give attention during this meeting:

(i) The type or types of organization required within the machinery of development planning to co-ordinate and balance the various programmes directly benefiting children, such as health, nutrition, education and social welfare.

/(ii) The

(ii) The ways for planners and financial authorities to use more effectively various economic measures of broader scope but which indirectly affect families and children in many important ways, such as price, housing, employment policies, tax relief, family allowances and the like.

19. I have been interested to note from the country papers the importance attached by many countries to the transmission to the younger generation of certain fundamental values, such as honesty, industry, democratic practices, tolerance and a sense of international understanding. I hope your discussion will be fruitful as I think there is general agreement that values such as these are essential to the whole development process.

20. Although I would like to stay for the entire proceedings of the Conference I shall have to leave at the end of this week, as I am due in Oslo on December 10 to accept, on behalf of UNICEF, the Nobel Peace Prize for 1965. With your permission I should also like to regard myself as a representative of all here who have the welfare of children at heart. No reason has yet been given for the award of the Peace Prize but surely it is a recognition of the importance of children to world peace. This Conference, the first of its kind, could be an important step toward insuring that today's children and tomorrow's adults are in fact healthy, educated, and above all willing to live in peace with themselves and their neighbours.

Annex IV

LIST OF PARTICIPANTS

A. REPRESENTATIVES

ARGENTINA	Flácido Nosiglia	Under-Secretary Ministry of Social Welfare and Public Health
	Abraam Sonis	Chief of Planning Ministry of Social Welfare and Public Health
BOLIVIA	Adolfo Aramayo	Director of Social Programming National Department of Planning and Co-ordination
BRAZIL	Getulio Lima, Jr.	Assistant Director-General National Children's Department
BRITISH GUIANA	Frank C.R. Pollard	Principal Assistant Secretary Office of the Premier
CANADA	Joseph W. Willard	Deputy Minister Department of National Health and Welfare
CHILE	Marco Antonio Rocca	Adviser to the President on youth activities
	Marco Julio Zuñiga	Chief of Programming in the President's advisory staff on youth activities
COLOMBIA	Isabel Ospina de Mallarino	Chief Minors Division Ministry of Justice
COSTA RICA	Rosa Marta Jacob	Deputy Director-General of Social Welfare Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare
CUBA	Cordelia Navarro	Deputy Minister of Secondary Education Ministry of Education

/DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC	Zoraida de Sunear	Director National Institute for Educational Research Ministry of Education, Fine Arts and Culture
ECUADOR	Jaime Quintana	Economist Social Development Section National Economic and Planning Co-ordination Board
EL SALVADOR	María de los Angeles de Fleites	Technical Adviser and Chief Supervisor Department of Social Welfare Ministry of Public Health and Social Welfare
GUATEMALA	J. Antonio Palacios	Secretary-General National Economic Planning Council
HONDURAS	Rafael Tercero	Director-General National Department of Food and Aid for Children Ministry of Public Education
JAMAICA	Gloria Scott	Acting Assistant Under- Secretary Ministry of Development and Welfare
	Thelma P. Campbell	Island Supervisor Youth Development Agency Ministry of Development and Welfare
MEXICO	Píndaro Uriostegui	Director-General National Institute for Mexican Youth
	Rubén Vasconcelos	Director-General Social Education Service Ministry of Public Education
NICARAGUA	Reynaldo Navas	Chargé d'Affaires Nicaraguan Embassy in Chile

/NETHERLANDS

NETHERLANDS	I.N.T. Diependhorst	Former Under Secretary of State Ministry of Foreign Affairs
	Evert Bos	First Secretary Netherlands Embassy in Chile
PANAMA	Boris R. Blanco	Adviser on Economic Studies of Human Resources General Planning Department Office of the President
PARAGUAY	Odilonia Fretes de Paniagua	Director Department of Maternal and Child Welfare Ministry of Public Health and Social Welfare
PERU	Manual Salcedo	Social Welfare Adviser Ministry of Public Health
UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND	P.G. Hewitt	Cultural Attaché United Kingdom Embassy in Chile
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA	Blanche Bernstein	Office of International Economic and Social Affairs Department of State
URUGUAY	Vicente Cremanti	Official of the Ministry of Public Education
VENEZUELA	Pablo Herrera	President Venezuelan Children's Council
	Oscar Palacios	President National Institute for Educational Co-operation (INCE)

/B. OBSERVERS

B. OBSERVERS

Rose Alvernaz	Children's Bureau Welfare Administration Department of Health, Education and Welfare Washington, D.C.
Walter Brunner	Commercial Attaché Austrian Embassy in Santiago
Elizabeth S. Collins	Representative International Union of Family Organizations Non-Governmental Organizations Committee on UNICEF Paris
Elizabeth Dussauze-Ingrand	Institute for Economic and Social Development Studies Paris
Angel Fernandez-Rubio	National Director of Pre- University Education Ministry of Education Havana
Iris Haberli	Director of Technical Organization Latin American Women's Christian Associations Montevideo
Andrew T. Morehead	Assistant Programme Officer United States Agency for International Development

C. CONSULTANTS

G. Barrera	UNICEF expert Professor of Clinical Paediatrics Universidad Central de Venezuela Caracas
Manuel Bravo	Adviser to the Board of Directors Bank of Mexico

/Martin Carnoy

Martin Carnoy	Associate Research Worker The Brookings Institution Washington, D.C.
Joseph Grunwald	Director Economic and Social Development Studies The Brookings Institution Washington, D.C.
Ifigenia M. de Navarrete	Economic Adviser Office of the President Mexico City
Emilio Rojas	Consultant Latin American Institute on Economic and Social Planning
Hernán Romero	Professor of Preventive and Social Medicine University of Chile Santiago
Lina Vera de Vieira	Legal consultant
Hugo Zenelman	Consultant Latin American Institute on Economic and Social Planning

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

Joseph W. Willard	Representative of the Chairman of the Executive Board Chairman of the Programme Committee
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United Nations

Donald V. McGranahan	Assistant Director in charge of the Survey, Research and Development Branch Bureau of Social Affairs New York
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/International Labour

International Labour Organisation (ILO)

René Livchen	Director, Liaison Office with ECLA Santiago, Chile
Claude Dumont	Expert

United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO)

Santiago Antuña	Regional Agricultural Extension Officer
Manuel Figueroa	Agronomist
Fabián Recalde	Regional Nutrition Officer for Latin America
Jacobo Schatan	Director Joint ECLA/FAO Agriculture Division
Jean Audrey Wight	Regional Home Economics Officer for Latin America

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)

José Blat	Chief Regional Office of Education for Latin America
Stanley Applegate	Assistant Chief Regional Office of Education for Latin America
Gustavo Zakrzewski	Programme specialist

International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD)

Jorge Bravo	Counsellor for Latin American Affairs Washington, D.C.
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World Health Organization (WHO)

S. Flache	Special Medical Adviser to UNICEF
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/Pan American

Pan American Health Organization/World Health Organization (PAHO/WHO)

Abraham Horwitz	Director
J.S. McKenzie-Pollock	Chief Office of National Health Planning Washington, D.C.
Alfred Yankauer	Regional Adviser on Maternal and Child Health

Technical Assistance Board (TAB) and United Nations Special Fund

L.M. Ramirez-Boettner	Resident Representative and Director of Special Fund Programmes
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Latin American Demographic Centre (CELADE)

Carmen A. Miró	Director
Robert O. Carleton	Lecturer

E. INTER-AMERICAN ORGANIZATIONS

Organization of American States (OAS)

Ramón de Lartundo	Director Pan American Union
Juan Tuya	Information Officer

International Development Bank (IDB)

Cleantho de Paiva Leite	Regional Representative in Chile
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Inter-American Children's Institute

Rafael Sajón	Director-General
José Pedro Achard	Chief Section for Legal and Social Studies Technical Department

/Carlos Nassar

Carlos Nassar

Chief
Section for children in
need of special care
and protection
Chilean National Health
Service

F. SECRETARIAT

United Nations Children's Fund

Henry R. Labouisse	Executive Director
E.J.R. Heyward	Deputy Executive Director
E. Iwaszkiewicz	Director for Planning
O. Vargas	Regional Director for the Americas
Sherwood Moe	Special Assistant to the Executive Director
A.J. Reynolds	Secretary of the Conference
Elena Mederos	Liaison Officer
William Fuller	Planning Officer
Marcos Candau	Public Information Officer
Eduardo Morales	Programme Officer, Mexico

Economic Commission for Latin America

Pedro Mendive	Assistant Executive Secretary
Marshall Wolfe	Director, Social Affairs Division
Virginia Paraiso	Social Affairs Officer

/Latin American

Latin American Institute for Economic and Social Planning

Cristóbal Lara	Deputy Director-General
José Medina	Director, Division of Social Development Programming
Ricardo Cibotti	Director, Training Programme
Fernando Cibotti	Deputy Director, Division of Social Development Programming
Carlos Matus	Deputy Director, Division of Advisory Services on Planning

Handwritten text, likely bleed-through from the reverse side of the page. The text is extremely faint and illegible due to low contrast and blurring. It appears to be a list or series of notes, possibly containing names and dates, but the specific content cannot be discerned.

Annex V

LIST OF DOCUMENTS ^{a/}

National reports ^{b/}

E/LACCY/NR/L.1	Necesidades y problemas de la infancia y la juventud en Honduras
E/LACCY/NR/L.2	La infancia y la juventud en el desarrollo de Colombia
E/LACCY/NR/L.3	Informe nacional sobre los aspectos asistenciales relativos a la infancia en el Uruguay
E/LACCY/NR/L.4	Children and youth in Surinam
E/LACCY/NR/L.5	L'enfance et la jeunesse dans le développement national en Haiti ^{c/}
E/LACCY/NR/L.6	Informe sobre la infancia y la juventud en el Paraguay
E/LACCY/NR/L.7	Relatório sobre a infancia e a juventude no desenvolvimento nacional do Brasil ^{d/}
E/LACCY/NR/L.8	Informe sobre la infancia y la juventud en el desarrollo nacional de El Salvador
E/LACCY/NR/L.9	Informe nacional de la República de Bolivia
E/LACCY/NR/L.10	Informe nacional de Costa Rica.
E/LACCY/NR/L.11	Informe sobre la infancia y la juventud en el desarrollo de Guatemala

^{a/} Not including information papers.

^{b/} All the national reports were prepared by official Government bodies and accompanied by summaries in English and Spanish.

^{c/} French and Spanish versions only.

^{d/} Portuguese and Spanish versions only.

/E/LACCY/NR/L.12

E/LACCY/NR/L.12	La infancia y la juventud en el desarrollo económico y social del Ecuador
E/LACCY/NR/L.13	Children and youth in British Guiana
E/LACCY/NR/L.14	Informe de Cuba
E/LACCY/NR/L.15	La infancia y la juventud en el desarrollo nacional de Panamá

Case studies e/

E/LACCY/CS/L.1	Children and youth in national development: problems and prospects (Peru)
E/LACCY/CS/L.2	Case study of country policy and planning approach to the needs of children and youth (Jamaica)
E/LACCY/CS/L.3	Problems respecting children and young persons in relation to the development process in Venezuela
E/LACCY/CS/L.4	Children and youth in national development (Argentina)
E/LACCY/CS/L.5	Integration of the needs of children and young persons in economic and social planning (Mexico)

Working papers f/

ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.1	Youth and work in Latin America (International Labour Office)
ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.2	Situación de la legislación relativa a la minoridad en Latinoamérica (Rafael Sajón and José P. Achard, Inter-American Children's Institute, OAS) g/

e/ All the case studies were presented in English and Spanish, with summaries in both languages.

f/ All the working papers have been presented in English and Spanish, and summaries of many of them are available in the two languages.

g/ Available in English, Spanish, French and Portuguese.

- ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.3
The pre-school child in national development (G. Barrera Moncada)
- ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.4
Educational needs in a modern society and the right to education in Latin America (UNESCO secretariat)
- ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.5
Planning for the food and nutrition needs of children in Latin America (United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization)
- ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.6
Needs and problems of children and youth in national development (J. Antonio Palacios)
- ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.7
Demographic aspects of infancy and youth in Latin America (Latin American Demographic Centre)
- ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.8
The family vis-à-vis the needs of children and adolescents in national development (Lina Vera de Vieira)
- ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.9
Approach to a children and youth policy in relation to economic development: analysis of five Latin American case studies (Emilio Rojas and Hugo Zemelman, Latin American Institute for Economic and Social Planning)
- ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.10
Population growth and the first stages of population policy in Latin America: effect on problems of youth and development (Dr. Hernán Romero, University of Chile)
- ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.11
Youth in Latin America as a field for social research (José Medina, Latin American Institute for Economic and Social Planning)
- ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.12
Children and youth in social service programmes (Social Affairs Division, Economic Commission for Latin America)

ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.13

Planning systems and their enforcement in Latin America (Carlos Matus, Latin American Institute for Economic and Social Planning)

ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.14

Planning educational investment (Martin Carnoy)

ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.15

Problemas conceptuales y metodológicos de la programación de la salud (Centre for Development Studies, Universidad Central de Venezuela and Pan American Sanitary Bureau)

ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.16

The nutritional ecology of the infant and pre-school child: nutritional problems in Latin America (Dr. John Kevany, Pan American Health Organization)

ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.17

National planning and the construction of maternal and child hygiene norms in Latin America (Dr. Alfred Yankauer, Pan American Health Organization)

ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.18

World Bank Group's role in the development of human resources (International Bank for Reconstruction and Development)

ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.19

Temas de debate acerca del contenido, el método y la organización de la planificación en pro de la infancia y la juventud (UNICEF Secretariat)

Background papers

E/LACCY/BP/L.1

La situación social de la infancia y la juventud en El Salvador (Division of Social Development Programming, Latin American Institute for Economic and Social Planning) h/

h/ Available in Spanish only.

/E/LACCY/BP/L.2

E/LACCY/BP/L.2

Situación y perspectivas de la juventud en una población urbana popular (Adolfo Gurrieri, Economic Commission for Latin America and Latin American Institute for Economic and Social Planning) h/

E/LACCY/BP/L.2/Add.1

Situación y perspectivas educacionales de la juventud de una población urbana marginal (Social Affairs Division, Economic Commission for Latin America) h/

E/LACCY/BP/L.2/Add.2

Los servicios públicos en una población de erradicación (Social Affairs Division, Economic Commission for Latin America) h/

E/LACCY/BP/L.2/Add.3

La participación de las poblaciones marginales en el crecimiento urbano (Social Affairs Division, Economic Commission for Latin America) h/

E/LACCY/BP/L.3

Methods of planning for the needs of children (H.W. Singer) i/ j/

E/LACCY/BP/L.4

"Social development" and "social planning": a survey of conceptual and practical problems in the setting of Latin America (Social Affairs Division, Economic Commission for Latin America) j/

E/LACCY/BP/L.5

Social service in Latin America: functions and relationships to development (Virginia Paraiso, Social Affairs Division, Economic Commission for Latin America) k/

E/LACCY/BP/L.6

Informe final del Grupo de Estudio sobre planificación de la salud (Puerto Azul, Venezuela, 1-6 febrero de 1965) (Pan American Health Organization) h/

h/ Available in Spanish only.

i/ Available in Spanish and English.

j/ Summary also available in both languages.

k/ Available in English only.

/Reference documents

Reference documents

El progreso social por medio de la planificación social: el papel del servicio social (report of the Working Group prior to the XII International Social Welfare Conference)

XII International Social Welfare Conference committee reports

Servicios de protección de la familia, la infancia y la juventud (ST/SCW/59), United Nations publication (Sales No.:65.IV.9)

Un programa de encuestas comparativas de fecundidad en la América Latina: refutación de algunos conceptos erróneos (Carmen A. Miró, Director, Latin American Demographic Centre)

Cali: estudio de los aspectos sociales, de su urbanización e industrialización, 1965 (Enrique Valencia)

Report of the first session of the Consultative Committee on the Application of Science and Technology to Development (E/3866)

Methods of determining social allocations

Report of the United Nations Secretary-General to the sixteenth session of the Social Commission (E/CN.5/387)

Social development targets. Preliminary report by the United Nations Secretary-General to the sixteenth session of the Social Commission (E/CN.5/394)

Anexo VI

ANTECEDENTES ESTADISTICOS

Cuadro 1

AMERICA LATINA: POBLACION MENOR DE 20 AÑOS POR GRUPOS
 DE EDAD Y PROPORCION RESPECTO AL TOTAL

(Cifras en miles y porcientos)

País	Año	Pobla- ción total	0-19		0-6		7-14		15-19	
			Núme- ro	% del total	Núme- ro	% del total	Núme- ro	% del total	Núme- ro	% del total
Argentina <u>a/</u>	1960	20 008.9	7 816	39.1	2 999	15.0	3 138	15.7	1 679	8.4
Bolivia <u>a/</u>	1950	2 704.0	1 339	49.4	591	21.8	480	17.7	268	9.9
Brasil <u>a/</u>	1960	70 119.0	37 074	52.9	15 432	22.0	14 500	20.7	7 142	10.2
Colombia <u>a/</u>	1951	11 228.5	5 929	52.8	2 529	22.5	2 249	20.1	1 151	10.2
Costa Rica <u>a/</u>	1963	1 332.1	760	57.1	340	25.5	294	22.1	126	9.5
Cuba	1953	5 826.3	2 676	46.0	1 030	17.7	1 087	18.7	558	9.6
Chile	1960	7 374.0	3 647	49.4	1 521	20.6	1 401	19.0	725	9.8
Ecuador <u>a/</u>	1962	4 514.8	2 473	54.8	1 065	23.6	972	21.5	436	9.7
El Salvador <u>a/</u>	1961	2 510.6	1 364	54.4	594	23.7	531	21.2	239	9.5
Guatemala	1950	2 790.7	1 486	53.3	639	22.9	541	19.4	306	11.0
Haití <u>a/</u>	1950	3 086.0	1 481	48.1	532	17.2	641	20.8	308	10.0
Honduras <u>a/</u>	1961	1 865.8	1 081	57.9	486	26.0	411	22.0	184	9.9
México <u>a/</u>	1960	34 809.5	18 987	54.6	8 001	23.0	7 451	21.4	3 535	10.2
Nicaragua <u>a/</u>	1963	1 536.6	889	57.9	391	25.5	350	22.8	148	9.6
Panamá <u>a/</u>	1960	1 013.2	539	53.2	231	22.8	207	20.4	101	10.0
Paraguay <u>a/</u>	1950	1 323.2	710	53.5	299	22.5	282	21.3	129	9.7
Perú <u>a/</u>	1961	9 901.8	5 264	53.1	2 294	23.1	1 996	20.2	974	9.8
República Dominicana <u>a/</u>	1950	2 135.6	1 176	55.1	499	23.4	451	21.2	226	10.6
Uruguay <u>a/</u>	1963	2 576.3	928	35.9	354	15.7	367	14.2	207	8.0
Venezuela	1961	7 524.1	4 081	54.2	1 805	24.0	1 565	20.8	711	9.4

Fuente: Censos Nacionales y "Demographic Yearbook" United Nations.

Notas: a/ Como se carecía de la información de edades individuales, se utilizaron multiplicadores de Sprague para obtener los grupos de edad 0-6 y 7-14 años, por interpolación.

Cuadro 2

TASAS DE CRECIMIENTO Y TASAS BRUTAS DE NATALIDAD Y MORTALIDAD PARA LAS PRINCIPALES REGIONES DEL MUNDO (1958 - 1963)

Región	Tasa de crecimiento <u>1/</u>	Tasa bruta de natalidad <u>2/</u>	Tasa bruta de mortalidad <u>3/</u>
Africa	2.3	46	23
América del Norte	1.6	24	9
América Central	3.0	43	13
América del Sur			
- Tropical	2.8	43	15
- Zona templada	1.9	29	10
Caribe	2.1	38	17
Asia	1.8	38	20
Europa	0.9	19	10
U.R.S.S.	1.6	24	7

FUENTE: United Nations: "Demographic Yearbook 1964" Cuadro 2

NOTAS: 1/ Porcentaje anual promedio de crecimiento
2/ Número de nacimientos por año por cada mil habitantes
3/ Número de muertes por año por cada mil habitantes

Cuadro 3

TASAS DE DEPENDENCIA EN ALGUNOS PAISES LATINOAMERICANOS
 (Cifras de población en miles)

País	Año	Población dependiente			Población de 15 a 64 años (2)	Tasas de dependencia (por ciento) (1) : (2)
		Menos de 15 años	Más de 64 años	Total (1)		
Costa Rica	1963	636.6	44.4	681.0	655.3	103.9
Chile	1960	2 922.4	316.8	3 239.2	4 134.9	78.3
Ecuador	1962	1 676.6	147.3	1 823.9	2 330.9	78.2
El Salvador	1961	1 125.5	81.9	1 207.4	1 303.9	92.6
Honduras	1961	900.8	47.1	947.9	936.9	101.2
México	1960	15 452.0	1 308.6	16 760.6	18 162.5	92.3
Nicaragua	1963	742.8	43.9	786.7	749.5	105.0
Panamá	1960	437.7	36.7	474.4	539.0	88.0
Perú	1961	4 290.0	380.3	4 670.3	5 236.4	89.2
Uruguay	1963	721.5	217.5	939.0	1 653.6	56.8
Venezuela	1961	3 370.0	208.0	3 578.0	3 945.3	90.7

FUENTE: United Nations "Demographic Yearbook 1964"

Cuadro 4

POBLACION URBANA Y RURAL Y PORCENTAJES RESPECTO A LA
POBLACION TOTAL EN PAISES LATINOAMERICANOS
(Cifras en miles y porcentos)

País	Año	Población Total	Población Urbana <u>1/</u>		Población Rural	
			Número	%	Número	%
Brasil	1950	51 827.8	19 050.8	36.8	33 089.9	63.2
	1960	70 119.0	32 471.5	46.3	37 647.5	53.7
Costa Rica	1950	800.3	268.0	33.5	532.0	66.5
	1963	1 332.1	530.7	39.8	801.2	60.2
Chile	1952	5 911.9	3 558.9	60.2	2 353.0	39.8
	1960	7 374.0	5 028.2	68.2	2 345.8	31.8
El Salvador	1950	1 854.5	674.9	36.4	1 179.8	63.6
	1961.	2 510.6	979.7	39.0	1 531.2	61.0
Nicaragua	1950	1 057.0	369.3	34.9	687.8	65.1
	1963	1 535.6	627.3	40.9	908.5	59.1
Panamá	1950	755.5	299.2	39.6	483.3	60.4
	1960	1 013.2	446.0	44.0	567.1	56.0
Argentina	1947	15 828.8	9 903.5	62.6	5 925.5	37.4
Cuba	1953	5 826.3	3 322.5	57.0	2 503.6	43.0
Ecuador	1962	4 514.8	1 617.0	35.8	2 897.7	64.2
México	1960	34 809.5	17 644.1	50.7	17 165.4	49.3
Perú	1961	9 901.8	4 696.1	47.4	5 205.8	52.6
Uruguay	1963	2 576.3	2 119.3	82.3	457.0	17.7
Venezuela	1963	5 026.6	2 703.2	53.8	2 323.7	46.2

FUENTE: United Nations "Demographic Yearbook" y Censos Nacionales

NOTAS: 1/ Según definición nacional

Cuadro 5

PORCENTAJES DE LA POBLACION MENOR DE 5 AÑOS SOBRE LA POBLACION
TOTAL (GENERALMENTE 1960 - 1963); TASAS DE NATALIDAD
Y MORTALIDAD PRE-ESCOLAR E INFANTIL (1961) EN VARIOS
PAISES LATINOAMERICANOS

Países	Porcentaje sobre la población total		Tasas de natalidad por mil habitantes	Mortalidad pre-escolar Tasas por mil habitantes		Tasas de mortalidad infantil <u>1/</u>
	1 a 4 años	Menos de 5 años		1 a 4 años	Menos de 5 años	
Colombia	13.0	16.7	43.4	11.5	35.8	89.6
Costa Rica	14.8	18.7	49.8	8.7	21.4	76.7
Chile	10.2	15.0	38.0	7.0	31.8	117.0
Ecuador	...	17.0	46.8	23.3	45.1	102.7
El Salvador	13.3	17.3	49.4	16.4	32.7	70.0
Guatemala	13.1	16.8	51.2	33.2	51.8	84.8
México	13.0	16.6	43.4	13.3	30.0	70.2
Rep. Dominicana	13.9	17.6	40.4	10.4	27.4	102.3
Panamá	13.1	16.7	39.6	7.1	15.4	54.8
Paraguay	12.8	16.3	27.9	8.9	23.7	44.3
Perú	13.3	16.8	38.2	11.1	24.3	89.6
Venezuela	13.8	17.8	45.4	5.4	15.7	53.3

FUENTE: Instituto Interamericano de Estadística: "AMERICA EN CIFRAS" 1963, Vol.II. Washington, 1964.
Organización Panamericana de la Salud: "LAS CONDICIONES DE SALUD EN LAS AMERICAS 1961" Publicación Científica N° 104 Washington, 1964

NOTAS: 1/ Número de nacidos vivos y fallecidos por cada 1 000 mil nacidos vivos en el año.

Cuadro 6

CONTENIDO DE CALORIAS Y PROTEINAS DE LOS ABASTECIMIENTOS
NACIONALES PROMEDIO ESTIMADOS DE ALIMENTOS POR HABITANTE
EN ALGUNOS PAISES DE AMERICA LATINA

País Período	Calorías (Cantidad l día)	Proteínas (gramos l día)	
		Total	De origen animal
<u>Argentina</u>	(2 580) b/		
1948 - 1950 (promedio)	3 240	110	66
1954 - 1956 (promedio)	2 990	97	57
1957 - 1959 (promedio)	3 090	98	57
1961 a/	2 860	84	54
<u>Brasil</u>	(2 310) b/		
1948 - 1950 (promedio)	2 360	63	24
1954 - 1956 (promedio)	2 520	62	18
1957 - 1959 (promedio)	2 580	61	19
1961 a/	2 790	65	18
<u>Colombia</u>	(2 510) b/		
1957 - 1959 (promedio)	2 010	46	22
1961 a/	2 070	46	20
<u>Chile</u>	(2 610) b/		
1948 - 1950 (promedio)	2 370	71	23
1954 - 1956 (promedio)	2 550	79	28
1957 - 1959 (promedio)	2 440	80	29
1961 a/	2 420	77	28
<u>Ecuador</u>	(2 410) b/		
1957 - 1959 (promedio)	1 780	45	15
1961 a/	1 970	50	16
<u>Honduras</u>	...		
1954 - 1955 (promedio)	2 260	57	12
1962 a/	2 340	58	15

/Cuadro 6 (Cont.)

Cuadro 6 (cont.)

País Período	Calorías (Cantidad l día)	Proteínas (gramos l día)	
		Total	De origen animal
<u>México</u>	(2 450) <u>b/</u>		
1957 - 1959 (promedio)	2 410	67	20
1961 <u>a/</u>	2 680	75	24
<u>Paraguay</u>	(2 280) <u>b/</u>		
1957 - 1959 (promedio)	2 400	64	24
1961 <u>a/</u>	2 440	60	24
<u>Perú</u>	(2 500) <u>b/</u>		
1957 - 1959 (promedio)	1 960	49	12
1961 <u>a/</u>	2 170	54	12
<u>Uruguay</u>	(2 550) <u>b/</u>		
1948 - 1950 (promedio)	2 900	95	61
1954 - 1956 (promedio)	2 960	96	62
1957 - 1959 (promedio)	3 020	95	62
1961 <u>a/</u>	2 980	95	62
<u>Venezuela</u>	(2 390) <u>b/</u>		
1957 - 1959 (promedio)	2 170	61	24
1961 <u>a/</u>	2 340	60	22

FUENTES: FAO, Hojas de Balance de Alimentos
 United Nations "COMPENDIUM OF STATISTICS 1963" Statistical Papers,
 Serie K, N° 2.

NOTAS: a/ Provisional
b/ Requerimientos

Cuadro 7

AMERICA LATINA: COEFICIENTES BRUTOS DE RETENCION ESCOLAR EN
LA ENSEÑANZA PRIMARIA POR PAISES

País	Matriculados en 1er. grado		Número de grados en enseñanza primaria	Matriculados en último grado	
	Año	Porcentaje		Año	Porcentaje
Argentina	1956	100	7	1962	40
Bolivia <u>a/</u>	1960	100	6	1962	(17)
Brasil	1958	100	4	1961	25
Colombia	1958	100	5	1962	18
Costa Rica	1957	100	6	1962	29
Cuba	1957	100	6	1962	46
Chile	1957	100	6	1962	33
Ecuador	1956	100	6	1961	21
El Salvador	1957	100	6	1962	21
Guatemala	1957	100	6	1962	15
Haití	1957	100	6	1962	14
Honduras	1957	100	6	1962	14
México	1957	100	6	1962	23
Nicaragua	1956	100	6	1961	8
Panamá	1957	100	6	1962	48
Paraguay	1957	100	6	1962	14
Perú	1957	100	6	1962	26
Rep. Dominicana	1957	100	6	1962	7
Uruguay	1957	100	6	1962	39
Venezuela	1957	100	6	1962	35

FUENTE: UNESCO

NOTAS: a/ Los datos disponibles solo han permitido relacionar los años indicados.

Cuadro 8

GASTOS DEL GOBIERNO CENTRAL EN EDUCACION COMO PORCENTAJE DEL
INGRESO NACIONAL 1956 - 1964

País	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964
Argentina	1.7	...	2.5	2.8	1.8	2.2	2.3
Chile	2.8	2.8	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.0	3.1	2.8	3.1 <u>a/</u>
Colombia	0.7	0.5	0.9	1.0	1.6	1.4	1.9	1.5 <u>b/</u>
Costa Rica	2.5	2.7	3.4	3.8	4.1	4.1	4.1
Ecuador	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.3 <u>a/</u>
El Salvador	2.5	2.6	2.8	3.3	2.6	2.6	...
Honduras	1.4	1.5	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.0	2.3	...
México	1.3	1.5	1.7	1.8	1.8	2.0	2.3 <u>a/</u>
Panamá	4.0	3.8	3.9	4.0	4.1	4.3	4.4
Perú	1.8	1.8	2.3	2.3	3.2	5.0 <u>a/</u>
Venezuela	1.4	1.5	1.5	2.6	3.4	3.3	3.4	3.3	3.4 <u>a/</u>

FUENTE: UNESCO

NOTAS: Los datos reflejan sólo tendencias dentro de cada país y no permiten comparaciones entre países.

a/ Previsiones votadas.

b/ Previsiones revisadas.

Cuadro 9

POBLACION ECONOMICAMENTE ACTIVA MENOR DE 15 AÑOS Y TASAS DE PARTICIPACION POR SEXO EN ALGUNOS PAISES LATINOAMERICANOS
 (Cifras en miles y porcentos)

País	Año	Población económicamente activa menor de 15 años					
		Ambos sexos		Hombres		Mujeres	
		Número	Tasa de participación <u>1/</u>	Número	Tasas de actividad <u>1/</u>	Número	Tasas de actividad
Costa Rica <u>2/</u>	1963	18 821	19.4	16 425	33.6	2 396	5.0
Chile <u>2/</u>	1960	39 026	7.9	29 416	11.8	9 610	3.9
Ecuador <u>2/</u>	1962	88 967	27.0	71 600	41.7	17 367	11.0
El Salvador <u>3/</u>	1961	55 080	17.8	46 940	29.3	8 140	5.5
Honduras	1961	48 179	20.5	43 946	36.3	4 233	3.7
México <u>4/</u>	1960	562 229	8.9	484 457	15.0	77 772	2.5
Nicaragua <u>3/</u>	1963	37 805	19.3	33 545	33.1	4 260	4.5
Panamá <u>3/</u>	1960	11 265	9.2	8 953	14.3	2 312	3.8
Perú <u>5/</u>	1961	79 615	3.4	41 129	3.5	38 486	3.4
Uruguay <u>3/</u>	1963	18 400	8.2
Venezuela <u>3/</u>	1961	91 825	10.2	75 500	16.6	16 325	3.7

FUENTE: United Nations: "DEMOGRAPHIC YEARBOOK 1964"

- NOTAS: 1/ Porcentaje de personas (total hombres o mujeres) económicamente activas respecto al total de personas (total, hombres o mujeres) de la misma edad.
- 2/ Se refiere a la población de 12 a 14 años.
- 3/ Se refiere a la población de 10 a 14 años.
- 4/ Se refiere a la población de 8 a 14 años.
- 5/ Se refiere a la población de 6 a 14 años.