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SOCIAL SERVICE IN LATIN AMERICA: FUNCTIONS
AND RELATIONSHIPS TO DEVELOPMENT

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INTRODUCTION

Throughout the region, demands for social service programmes and allocations from public funds and private resources for the support of new and established services are consistently mounting.^{1/} These trends indicate general acceptance of the proposition that social service has an essential role in the functioning of society and in the advancement of its welfare. Notwithstanding, social service does not seem to have a defined place within the framework of development policy in Latin American countries. Various reasons have been put forward to explain this relative isolation. One refers to the difficulty in defining what social service is and in distinguishing its activities from those of other forms of social action. Another lies in the doubt of economic planners whether social service can contribute significantly to the goals of development in view of its approach to social needs mainly through the individual and the small group. Still other reasons chiefly offered by social service personnel themselves, point to the non-involvement of social service leaders in national politics and higher echelons of public administration. Each of the above explanations is valid to some extent. It seems necessary however to search for more basic reasons in order to clarify the place of social service if any, in national development.

^{1/} In Argentina, a group of industrialists has established an institute to train industrial social workers to staff already established social service programmes and others to be established within industry; the major problem of the National School of Social Service of Peru (Lima) is to increase its training capacity in order to meet increasing demands for the services of social workers within housing and rural development programmes; British Guiana is expanding social service within the judicial and penal system; Bolivia has just embarked on social service for miners and migrants; a major component of Brazil's slum clearance programme is Social Service. Development in other countries of the region show a trend toward increasing demands for social service programmes and personnel.

This paper seeks to define the place of social service in national development and its potential contribution to that effort.^{2/} It does this first by bringing together all the common elements of the Latin American conceptions of social service and analyzing the objectives and functioning of the programmes; and second, by clarifying the relationships, if any, between the goals of social service and national development and enquiring whether the two sets of goals are in harmony one with the other. Part I discusses the meaning of social service in Latin America; Part II indicates how it functions at present; Part III deals with its planning within the framework of development policy; while Part IV discusses the future role of social service and its potential contribution to development and sets out what needs to be done so that social service can fulfil its role and maximize its contribution.

There is a dearth of published work on social service relating to Latin America. The sources of information for this document are largely unpublished annual and other reports, case records, student theses, reports of experts in social service under the United Nations Technical Assistance Programme, interviews with programme administrators and planners as well as direct service personnel, and direct observation of existing programmes. Some articles and monographs were found useful but in general, they are limited as sources of information on needs and problems specific to social service and on planning, administration and evaluation of programmes. Since no study in depth has as yet been attempted either of the programmes and the methods used or their effects, this paper runs the risk of making generalizations based on factors, the importance of which may have been over-emphasized, at the same time that

2/ Development is here interpreted as roughly equivalent to the complex of social and economic objectives set forth in the 1960 Charter of the Alliance for Progress, which sets among the principal goals of national development a substantial and self-sustaining increase in per capita income that will reduce the gaps in the level of living between the countries of the region and between the region and more industrialized countries; and a more equitable distribution of national income, raising as quickly as possible the incomes and levels of living of the more needy while assuring at the same time the investment of a major portion of the national product for economic development and social progress.

This paper deliberately avoids use of the term "social development"; instead it interprets "development" as a unified social process. The countries of Latin America have been classified under different stages of development, but these well-known differences do not preclude the existence of common characteristics which demand regional interpretation. A presentation of these common characteristics and "internal contradictions" can be found in a forthcoming Division of Social Affairs ECLA study, entitled "Social Development" and "Social Planning: A Survey of Conceptual and Practical Problems in the Setting of Latin America".

/other factors

other factors not readily observable might not have been given due consideration. The sources utilized indicate the difficulty of drawing a picture representative of the region. The most that can be expected is the identification of common concerns, characteristics and trends and also of some local and restricted experiences from which wider lessons can be derived. It is hoped that this exploratory work will start the countries into more thorough studies on the developmental potentialities of social service that will leave a positive mark on the quality of life in Latin America.

The student of international social service will no doubt find situations and characteristics that are similar to those obtaining in countries in other parts of the world. These similarities only confirm the sameness of the basic problems that beset human society everywhere, the unevenness of the phenomenon called development, no matter what stage a country has reached, and the reality of human relationships and human inter-action on an international level. There are also, however, regional, national and local differences that defy uniform action and make imperative the search for indigenous answers to what may seem, on the surface, common human needs.

Part I

THE MEANING OF SOCIAL SERVICE IN LATIN AMERICA

1. Social Service Defined

A United Nations Expert Group on the Development of National Social Service Programmes convened in 1959 defined social service as an "organized activity that aims at helping towards a mutual adjustment of individuals and their social environment". The adjustment is "achieved through the use of techniques and methods designed to enable individuals, groups and communities to meet their needs and solve their problems of adjustment to a changing pattern of society, and through co-operative action to improve economic and social conditions". 3/ This definition assigns relationships as the area of action of social service, relationships that may involve individuals, groups and communities. The techniques and methods referred to are presumed to be those specifically attributed to social work.

In practice, the term social service includes:

- (a) a set of conceptions concerning human needs and approaches to the satisfaction of these needs;
- (b) a body of professionals (social workers) who have received formal training based on these conceptions and approaches, plus wider circles of auxiliaries and volunteers who perform functions deriving from these conceptions and have acquired to some degree a "social work" outlook; and
- (c) organized institutional settings that have functions based on these conceptions and that employ social workers.

While the three elements above-mentioned can be found in all the Latin American countries, the present situation does not permit clear delimitation under any or all of them. The conceptions that form the basis of social service represent varying combinations of influences from Western Europe and the United States with older religious and charitable viewpoints. The character of professional training of social workers and the extent to which such training is considered indispensable differ according to the relative strength of such influences. Social service functions and the employment of social workers are diffused

3/ "El Desarrollo de los Programas Nacionales de Servicio Social"
Naciones Unidas, Nueva York, ST/SOA/40, página 6, par. 6.

through a wide variety of public and private agencies, and to a large extent appear as ancillary parts of programmes and institutions having other primary functions. The problem of delimiting social service as a distinct sector of social policy and action is further complicated by the fact that many institutions with social service functions and objectives are neither directed nor staffed by trained social workers. (There even exists a lack of agreement on the minimum qualifications of social workers. 4/) On the other hand, not all the functions actually performed by social workers within wider institutional settings can be legitimately brought within social service conceptions.

Terminology can also lead to misunderstandings. In the plural, social services (servicios sociales) refer to all activities with human welfare objectives including education, health, social security, community development, housing, etc. 5/) In an enumeration of this sort, social service as a field of policy and action may be listed as social welfare services (servicios de bienestar social) or as

4/ For example, there is now a bill under consideration by the Federal Congress of Argentina to regulate the employment of social workers, including within such profession the "trabajador social" and the "asistente social" both of whom have graduated from a school of social work, the "visitadora social" (an earlier name of the "asistente social" but with lower level training), the "Visitadora de higiene social" (a health aide that has a two year training course mostly in medicine) and the "educadora sanitaria" (a kind of public health aide). This lack of agreement as to who is the professional exists in varying degrees in all countries of the region.

5/ According to para. 4 of "Reappraisal of the United Nations Social Service Programmes", E/CN.5/AC.12/L.3, March 29, 1965 Social welfare is more commonly understood and used in different parts of the world to describe what henceforth the United Nations called social service. Accordingly, the Secretary General intends hereafter in this report and in all subsequent references to United Nations activities in this field to use social welfare and social welfare programme where previously the term social service and social service programme would be employed. Conversely, social services and social services programmes will be used in the broader sense to include activities in such fields as health, education, social security, etc. besides social welfare... The reappraisal Report, however, employs the term "social welfare" to embrace a wide range of social activities found in different parts of the world and does not attempt a delimitation of the coverage of the term. The present paper retains the term "social service" (singular) both to correspond with Latin American usage and to distinguish the relatively restricted range of conceptions and functions here indicated.

social assistance (asistencia social). Social Assistance is the earlier term for social service and from it derives the title social assistant (asistente social), by which the practitioner and professional in social work is known in most of the region. 6/

In Latin American usage, the singular form "servicio social" refers to the profession of social work 7/ and the substantive area in which social work concepts and techniques are applied. The use of "servicio" in preference to "trabajo" which is the literal translation of the English "work" (social work) is a particular expression of the Latin American spirit. "Trabajo" evokes the image of "labour", usually manual, and of activities the products of which accrue directly to the benefit and profit of the doer. On the other hand, "servicio" signifies action in behalf of someone other than the doer or his immediate family. It conjures up the "helping" image which is the essence of servicio social in Latin America. Some other components of this concept of social service are altruism, philanthropy, self-abnegation, a high degree of emotional commitment to the common weal plus a body of religious and charitable beliefs concerning one's obligations to one's fellow men. The professionalization of social work is tending to relegate the religious and charitable components to the background and to base social service on a more objective and rational matching of needs, available resources and expected benefits. This tendency however is not dominant considering that many schools of social work are under the management of religious institutions. What is probably more universal is the increasing acceptance of the methods of social work. Social service in Latin American is still intrinsically a "helping by doing" activity.

As a substantive area, social service includes legislation, programmes, services and activities that prevent, alleviate and remove conditions that limit the ability of specific individuals, groups and communities to make full use of such facilities and services, as schools, health centres, hospitals, churches, public utilities, etc., organized for the general public on the assumption that everyone has an equal opportunity to benefit from them. Social service provisions invariably seek to strengthen the actual capacity of individuals, groups and communities to make use of other services and more broadly, to participate on equal terms in the national society.

6/ The exceptions among the Spanish speaking Latin American countries are Mexico, Panama, Central America and Colombia which use "trabajador social"; indicative perhaps, of stronger North American influence in contrast to the stronger European orientation of South American social service.

7/ Schools for professional training in social work are called "escuelas de servicio social" throughout the region.

2. The Setting for Social Service

The Latin American setting within which social service institutions and personnel must function has, in its main features, been often described and for the purposes of the present work, it will be sufficient to set forth these features very briefly.

(a) Major trends and their meaning to social services 3/

Three particularly relevant aspects of the Latin American situation may be summed up as follows: (1) Very high rates of population increase with consequent high dependency ratios and large primary families; (2) rapid redistribution of population with high rates of concentration in urban areas, scattered and isolated settlements in the countryside and a labour force highly mobile geographically and occupationally; and (3) low and unevenly distributed incomes together with lagging growth in production and inability of the economies to absorb into productive employment a labour force growing by nearly 3 per cent annually. In a nutshell, for social service these trends mean increasing demands unmatched by resources for essential services that governments are pressured to provide but can only pretend to provide. The above trends also imply a decreasing ability and willingness on the part of parents to assume the burdens of physical support and of guidance of their children from infancy to responsible adulthood, as well as the wide range of maladjustments associated with traditional societies in transition towards modernization.

The economic growth that has taken place in the region, irregular and unbalanced as it has been, does not seem to have brought about any appreciable improvement in the lot of the masses. If anything, it has widened the gap between them and the groups whose incomes have benefitted from this growth.

The material accompaniments of poverty are well-known: families housed in one-room dwellings in the older urban slums or in shantytowns, rural as well as urban; malnutrition; educational services so rudimentary that they give the children no real opportunity to overcome the many handicaps of the environments, etc. From the standpoint of social service, the "culture of poverty" that represents the adaptation of the people to the precariousness of their situation and their lack of opportunities to participate in the national society is an even more serious challenge than the lack of the material amenities of living. 9/

8/ For detailed descriptions see Report on the World Social Situation 1963, U.N. Sales N° 63.IV.4; Desarrollo Económico de América Latina en la Postguerra, U.N. Sales N° 64.II.G.6; Industrialización en América Latina, CEPAL, E/CN.12/716; Boletín Estadístico de América Latina, Vol. II, N° 2, UN, August 1965.

9/ Oscar Lewis's "Five Families", "Pedro Martínez" and "The Children of Sánchez", Basic Books, Inc., are family case studies that illustrate very well the ways by which adaptation to a "culture of poverty" is achieved by people.

This culture is characterized by shifting and unstable family relationships, deprivation of responsible care for many of the superabundant young children and of constructive occupations for adolescents, unstable values and weak loyalties in the face of competing ideologies. At the same time, the culture of poverty retains a remarkable amount of readiness to assume burdens of mutual aid and support of dependents not met by society, and a capacity to combine in new forms of social organization to meet local needs.

Characteristic of the region is the relative concentration of organized services and job opportunities, especially for the "educated", in the big city. Notwithstanding, these resources have proved inadequate in the face of rural-urban influx, so that for a high proportion of migrants a move to the city does not represent much improvement in the level of living nor in the opportunities for attaining such. It has been asserted that the main reason for rural-urban migration is social not economic, the result of "changes in the images and aspirations which render rural life in poverty less satisfactory than urban life in poverty". 10/

The rural population cannot be ignored in any discussion of the Latin American situation. A study 11/ by the UN Economic Commission for Latin America speaks of the "... rapid population growth, combined with apparent incapacity of the rural areas to absorb more than a fraction of their contribution to this growth, to narrow the very wide gap between their levels of living and those of the cities, to respond adequately to rising urban demands for their products, or to participate effectively in national decision-making". On the role the rural situation plays in relation to urbanization and urban marginality, this same paper says: "... static or declining employment opportunities in the countryside and the small towns combines with insufficiently rapid growth in urban employment openings, to condemn a high proportion of the population increment to a marginal position - drifting from rural to urban under-employment, increasingly finding its way to the peripheral shantytowns of the great cities, multiply handicapped in education, motivations, even physical health, for any effort to escape from its marginality".

The breakdown of the "hacienda", the traditional social organization based on land tenure, as a result of revolutions, programmes of agrarian reform and land distribution, advancement in techniques of organization and increased mobility towards urban centres is changing the fabric and tempo of life. Alternative sources of the security and stability,

10/ Charles Wagley "Social Research in Latin America", Columbia University Press, New York, page 264.

11/ "Rural Settlement Patterns and Social Change in Latin America", Economic Bulletin for Latin America, X, 1.

/however minimal,

however minimal, provided by the hacienda must be found if social disorganization is to be contained within tolerable limits. The increasing geographical mobility of the population brings with it occupational shifts that affect whole families and unattached persons (single men going to mines and ranches and single women to the cities and small manufacturing centres) in pursuit of job opportunities. In the place of origin is left an economically dependent, unproductive population consisting of women with young children, the aged and the incapacitated, all in need of more than a normal amount of welfare services which the community cannot provide. In addition, there is the natural anxiety over the physical health and safety of the absent breadwinner, the uncertainty of economic contribution to the family maintenance and the possibilities of temporary or permanent desertion. Even when such possibilities are ruled out, the frequent changing of roles for the family members during the periods of absence and the periods of presence of the breadwinner is a probable source of conflicts and tensions. This is unsettling for the adults but even more so for the young; it is equally disrupting to the web of community activities. Most communities are not exempt from the negative effects of seasonal migrations. The seasonal increase in the demands for living facilities and services of all kinds can never be foreseen nor provided for in its entirety. More serious than deficiencies in facilities and services for the fluctuating population are the problems of social and psychological order that affect the resident population and the migrant. These problems are often manifested in hostile attitudes, prejudices, and disguised and open conflicts.

(b) The family ^{12/}

In a static society, the degree of equilibrium and adjustment attained would diminish the probability of disharmony and conflicts in social relationships. The economic and social changes indicated above mean that in Latin America today, except in very isolated settlements, society is far from static. These factors have raised the levels of expectations far beyond the capacity of the economies or the public authorities to meet. Traditional relationships are breaking down in all aspects and levels of society; there are constant shifts in leadership, a birth of new images of what is desirable and a groping for substitute sources of security. In this atmosphere of change, the family group seems to be the most affected and with it, its individual members. It is assumed that the objective of development is to raise the level of living of every family. But this can be done only if the family itself contributes sufficiently to the effort. The family is seriously handicapped as an agent of progress by the fact that its dependency burden is increasing: more children, more numerous and complex individual and family wants, and often less employment for adult members. Besides, the relationships in the family itself are shifting. Many heads of families are mothers of

^{12/} Effects of urbanization on the family are discussed in detail in Report on the World Social Situation, 1957, UN Sales No. 1957.IV.3.

young children, many young people now question parental and adult authority and "wisdom". The intensity of the struggle for the material necessities of survival coupled with the stresses on human relationships brought about by changing roles and values exert more and more pressure on the family as the basic unit within which the growth of the human resources for development takes place. The family members respond to the pressure sometimes by socially objectionable expedients, such as abortion, desertion and child neglect; and sometimes family ties disintegrate altogether.

3. Problems and Programmes

From the settings described above originate problems considered in the region as appropriate targets for social service action. Such problems can only be understood and dealt with effectively when considered in relation to each other, since one problem may be only a symptom of, a sequel to, or a corollary of another. Moreover, any action that is directed against a specific problem may even create another kind of problem. From this viewpoint, it is possible to appreciate the necessity of a concerted attack on the barriers to the satisfaction of the needs of a particular society and its members. Such a viewpoint permits, besides, a rational perspective on social service as part of the totality of social policy and as only one of the several possible approaches to such problems.

Table 1 presents the various problems that are prominent within the particular setting of the region and about which social service is actually doing something. These relate to (1) individual disabilities and handicaps that impede the person from utilizing the opportunities for "better life" that society provides, (2) absence, debility or disorganization of family life, and (3) inadequacies and imperfections of the existing societal order itself and its institutions. The condition of vulnerability, of disability and dependency, of family weakness and disorganization and of individual and group maladjustments, and marginality arise from situations that lend themselves in varying degrees to human intervention.

The various activities in Latin America shown in Table 2 are claimed by social service professionals and institutions, and are referred to by the general public as social service. They are classified into five general headings: (1) The protection of the young; (2) the promotion of family welfare; (3) the promotion of social change and adjustment; (4) the improvement of community life; (5) the sustaining of economic growth; and (6) the complementation of other organized services. Programmes in social service in principle increase the capacity (1) of the individual to function better in society; (2) of the social group to engage in mutually beneficial co-operative action; and (3) of the community to provide more opportunities to individuals and groups that enable them to participate in its functioning.

Table 1
SOCIAL SERVICE CONCERNS

Situations	Contributory Causes	Problem Manifestations
1. Inadequacies and imperfections of the social organization	<p>Unemployment and under employment, lack of skills, low income, maldistribution and lack of income, disability and ill-health, under-development, lack of jobs</p> <p>Mass poverty, inadequate provision of public facilities and services, maldistribution of facilities and services, poor physical planning, social segregation, migration, urbanization, geographical isolation, demographic "explosion"</p>	<p>Economic dependency, marginal housing, child labour, employment of women with young children, mendicancy, social deprivation, forced idleness, prostitution, promiscuity</p> <p>Lack of organized services such as schools, health agencies, churches, recreation, parks and playgrounds, communication and transportation, lack of neighbourhood cohesion and interaction, crime, vice, delinquency, high dependency ratios, large primary family, marginal housing.</p>
2. Absence, debility or disorganization of family life	Death of Breadearner, desertion, conjugal conflicts, parental irresponsibility, ambulatory employment, employment of women with young children, low level of parental education, ill-health, occupational shifts, migration, changes in roles, impact of new values, needs and ideologies	Orphanage, abandonment, child labour, behavioural problems, delinquency, child maltreatment, marginal housing, employment of mothers of young children, promiscuity, youth "gangs", dependency, ill-health and disability, maladjustment in relationships, child neglect, mendicancy, economic dependency, etc.
3. Individual disabilities	<p>Biological factors</p> <p>Social factors</p>	Ill-health, physical disability, mental disorders, psychological problems, old age and infirmity
4. Emergency situation	Natural disasters, armed conflict, fires and other preventable calamities	Emergency economic needs, refugees, broken families due to death, destruction of properties, displacement of population, crime, delinquency and vice, disruption of community organization.

Table 2

SOCIAL SERVICE ACTIVITIES IN LATIN AMERICA^{a/}

1. Programmes for the protection of the young	Institutions for the care of orphans, abandoned and neglected children Casework service for children with behaviour problems Adoption and foster care (very limited) Rehabilitation services for the handicapped Group activities Legislation Supervision of child labour Training institutions for the juvenile delinquent Day care centres, nurseries, feeding centres Supervised playground and recreation Vacation camps, youth groups Probation and parole
2. Programmes for the promotion of family welfare	Economic assistance Recreation and vacation services Rehabilitation of victims of national disaster and armed conflicts Counselling, family planning, and preparation for parenthood Rehabilitation services for the handicapped including the dependent aged, addict, crippled and convict Education for family life and home management Community centres Group activities for mothers, fathers, and for entire family
3. Programmes for promoting social change and adjustment	Casework services to improve relationships Informational campaigns Mobilization of resources for the benefit of families and groups Social education Welfare services with migrants, new communities and unintegrated minority groups

^{a/} For detailed description of various types of family welfare programmes, see "Family, Child and Youth Welfare Services", UN, E/CN.5/AC.12/L.4/Con.3, April 1965.

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- | | |
|--|--|
| 4. Programmes for improving community life | Community centres, social centres, social group organization, community betterment (acción cívica) creation of community parks, playgrounds, and other welfare amenities |
| 5. Programmes for sustaining economic growth | Vocational training, employee welfare services, education for income management, (these services are established in industries, commercial enterprise, governments and other economic programmes and may consist of a complex of activities) |
| 6. Programmes to complement other organized services | Services within programmes of health, education, nutrition, community development, housing, agrarian reform, colonization, etc., designed to facilitate the action of these services, complement their action and intensify their effect |

/It is

It is important to note the consensus that the inability of the family to meet adequately the responsibilities which a rapidly changing society imposes on it is the most important single source of the problems falling within the sphere of action of social service. ^{13/} For example, a 1964 study by the Dirección Nacional de Menores of Bolivia on the causes of behavioural problems among youth under its care disclosed that among the males, 84.7 per cent and among the females 63.9 per cent result from unsatisfactory family conditions. Only 8.7 per cent among the males and 2.7 per cent among the females are the consequences of inadequacies of the material and physical aspects of living. ^{14/}

Notwithstanding the identification of the family as a particularly vulnerable part of the social order, the programmes for helping and strengthening it are few and are restricted both in coverage and scope. ^{15/} Because of the historical lines of growth of social service in the region, programmes for the institutional care of the minor and the infirm are much more numerous, with emphasis on large closed institutions. More attention is also now directed towards "educative" activities, particularly for women and children, via organized groups such as mothers' centres, juvenile clubs and community and social centres. Statements that Latin American social service is largely directed to the individual are misleading. A survey of programmes will show that only a few agencies work directly with the individual in a casework relationship. In fact, it appears that social service in Latin America is mainly concerned with the basic material needs of individuals and primary groups. This is to be expected in a situation of poverty where the fight for mere survival occupies the centre of the arena, and where the needs of the moment are so great that until they are met, the individual cannot even think of the future. Many of the activities in question are no longer considered social service in countries with more highly developed economies and where specialized

^{13/} See Reports of countries submitted to the Latin American Conference on Children and Youth in National Development, Santiago, 1965. Also "Factores que afectan la organización de la familia". OEA, SIF, Doc. 2/60, June 1960.

^{14/} Extracted from the national report of Bolivia to the Interamerican Seminar on "Normas para la protección del menor en programas integrados de desarrollo", Montevideo, 2-10 May 1965.

^{15/} Legislative provisions for family allowances are common. Owing to budgetary limitations, however, no country has provided such allowances on more than a token scale to the most needy families, those outside the social security systems, and even within social security benefits are often too small to enable large families to meet minimum needs. Interviews with programme executives indicate that other services for the family as a whole are usually very short of funds and personnel.

technical services exist. ^{16/} Particularly within settings of housing and rural development programmes, there are more and more evidences of the use of "self-help" in social service, of genuine interdisciplinary relationships with other fields of policy, of the community approach to situations, and of action directed to the basic social structure and causes instead of single problems. There is also a strong conviction among social service professionals that their programmes should be integrated into national development efforts and as an initial step, that they should be included in over-all plans of development.

4. Functions and Methods of Social Service

(a) Functions

One commonly heard criticism is that the functions of social service in Latin America are so obscure that nobody really knows or understands what they are. Others go further and say that social service has no inherent functions, only those derived from other services and therefore social service is an auxiliary to such services. An examination of the laws and regulations as well as the social decisions that form the bases of social service programmes will refute these criticisms. The functions are clear when stated in general terms and constitute important potential contributions to an over-all strategy for development. The confusion results from the tendency to state specific objectives or activities of each social service programme instead of the function in the generic sense. The objectives are often expressions of aspirations rather than practical targets for implementation. The number of activities hinders understanding of the unifying function and, worse, each activity is too specific to some isolated problem to be significant, particularly in the context of over-all development. By classifying all the statements of what social service is supposed to be doing, or is expected to be doing, there emerge five generic functions. Below is an illustrative table showing relationships among the functions, the objectives and the activities. Since the list of objectives and activities is only illustrative it does not cover the entire field.

(b) Methods

It is taken for granted that the principal methods used in social service are those attributed to social work: that is social casework, social groupwork and community organization. Other techniques such as social welfare administration and social research have essential auxiliary roles, but affect only indirectly the services to individuals, groups and communities. Social service also uses borrowed techniques which constitute the main tools of other services such as education, just as these services also use to some extent social work methods. The basic and auxiliary methods are taught in schools of social work and applied after a fashion throughout the region.

^{16/} Within the Andean Indian programme and other rural development programmes, the social worker serves as a home improvement agent, a nurse-aid, a literacy teacher, a crafts teacher, etc. Recently, with the availability of home economics workers, the tasks related to cooking, sewing and other household activities have been assigned to these more specialized technicians.

Table 3

GENERIC FUNCTIONS, SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES AND PROGRAMME ACTIVITIES

Generic Functions	Specific Objectives	Activities
1. The progressive improvement of the conditions of living of people	(a) Assist the destitute and dependent to meet basic material needs (earliest and best understood objective)	Food grants to the needy Family relief Clothing relief Relief to victims of disasters Free transportation Public dormitories Economic housing
	(b) Provide specialized facilities and services	Special diets and drugs to the sick Preparation of the ill person and his family to cope with the illness Nurseries for children of sick mothers School supplies, clothing to destitute children Casework and counselling to individuals with personal problems
	(c) Help the unemployed in earning an income	Placement service Free vocational training Nurseries for children of working mothers
	(d) Provide opportunities to the disadvantaged for cultural advancement	Vacation camps, youth camps, playgrounds that are organized and supervised, employee welfare services, etc.
2. The development of human resources	(a) To restore the impaired capacity of individuals	Rehabilitation of the handicapped Training institutions for the delinquent Probation and parole

/(b) To

Generic Functions	Specific Objectives	Activities
	(b) To promote better relationships and bring about real adjustment to one's circumstances	Casework to those who have behaviour problems impeding satisfactory adjustments Measures to strengthen the family Welfare services for the migrant Welfare services for the unintegrated indigenous groups
	(c) To motivate people to assume responsibility for development	Casework services Organization of social groups Educative activities for citizenship, for new wants, for new values
	(d) To promote wholesome use of free time	Organized groups Training camps Special skills courses Community activities such as volunteer service, etc.
3. The orientation of people to change and adjustment	(a) To create awareness of the necessity for change	Direct contact with people Groupwork activities with clubs, etc. Community assemblies Demonstrations
	(b) To assist people to adjust to new ways of living	Casework and groupwork services within housing programmes, co-operatives, rural development
	(c) To form public opinion in favour of development and assist in decision-making	Discussion groups that lead to the expression of ideas, the crystallization of wants and their overt expression in the form of demands Information and interpretation of needs and resources to clients, leader groups and general public
		/(d) To

Generic Functions	Specific Objectives	Activities
	(d) To introduce practical aids in social setting of deprivation and want	"Self-Help" and mutual aid activities Facilities and services to low income employees (meals, vacations, medical care)
4. The mobilization of community resources	(a) To bring available resources to the attention of the uninformed and to help them use these	Placement services (for institutions, adoption, employment, foster homes, etc.) Orientation and information
	(b) To obtain for the needy essential services	Co-operative relationships with organized services such as health, education, housing, as well as public utilities, sources of work, etc.
	(c) To stimulate the creation of welfare amenities for communities	Action for the promotion of social legislation Pioneering work in the creation of new community services such as public laundries, sanitary facilities, playground parks for families, etc.
	(d) To provide means for social participation	Organization of volunteer services in different community programmes

/5. Provision

Generic Factors	Specific Objectives	Activities
5. The provision of institutional structures for other services	(a) To raise level of child care	Feeding centres Nurseries and other day care centres Community centres
	(b) To prevent family disorganization	Social groupwork Counselling Family welfare services Casework activities
	(c) To make other services more effective	Counselling Provision for special needs Formal education, health and nutrition education, vocational training, etc. within social service institutions

/Social work

Social work from its beginning focussed upon services to individuals; from this were evolved the techniques known as "casework" on which the greater part of social work in Latin America relies in principle. However, in view of the unrealistically heavy caseloads (all social workers interviewed reported at least 150 cases) and to some extent as a result of a weak background in the social sciences, social casework as a technique is applied rarely in settings outside of highly specialized clinics for disturbed children (in programmes for the treatment of juvenile delinquents and in neuro-psychiatric wards of hospitals). What is called casework is often only information - giving, instruction-dispensing and aid-service (trámites) that become ends in themselves.

The appeal of groupwork and community organization emanate from their multiplier effects. As the kinds and magnitude of recognized handicapping situations multiply in the course of Latin America's social evolution, so also does the demand for social services expand. In recent years, there has been a conscious effort to extend and improve training facilities in groupwork and community organization. Groupwork, which in theory presupposes the existence of group objectives and uses group inter-action as a means for developing the capacities of the members and of the group itself, in its practical application in Latin America it is no more than mass orientation. 17/

Community organization, which relies on the bringing together of different groups and classes in a community for the achievement of common goals, is limited to the neighbourhood level. Its potential in mobilizing the active participation of people in all kinds of development efforts is vast. For example, in Ecuador, the social service programme of the Acción Andina, whose objective is to integrate into national life the Andean Indians, has successfully used the community organization method to gain acceptance for the other technical services such as health, education, etc. that form part of the Acción and to get the people to participate gradually and by stages in all kinds of community activities.

The concepts underlying these methods of social work are universal. However, to apply them effectively they must be interpreted in the light of the value structure, the ideological system, the political organization and the religious and other beliefs of the people. This kind of adaptation of the imported techniques is only at its initial stage (there is a beginning in Colombia as well as in Brazil). There should be accumulating throughout the region a great deal of empirical evidence concerning the problem of adaptation but documentation of experiences is almost absent and whatever recording is done is too sketchy and inaccurate to serve as working materials for systematic study. Another deterrent factor to a more scientific analysis

17/ An interesting apparent exception to this general statement is a recreation programme described by Natalie Kisnerman in Hoy en Servicio Social, Buenos Aires, Vol.1, January, 1965, "Una experiencia con un grupo recreativo", in which the group work method was used as a means of provoking changes in individual and group attitudes and of promoting relationships that tend to group cohesiveness.

of the methods of social work in the region is the tendency to "bandwagon hitching". The "news" value of popular movements commonly known as community development has, in extreme cases, resulted in claims concerning the application of the community organization method even in individually-oriented activities and settings such as the pediatric ward of a hospital or an institution for physically incapacitated children. The "spectacular" element diverts attention from serious analysis.

The other techniques applied to social service programmes are more properly classified as "staff" techniques related to organization and management of social service agencies (social administration) and social research applied to social work. Social administration has limited application and this situation will continue until trained social work personnel are utilized on the management level of programme planning and implementation, which is not yet the case in the region. While there are a few programmes under the executive direction of social workers, these are rare and are exceptions rather than the rule. ^{18/} The application of social research as a technique in social service is barely started. The weakness of the social research component may account for the failure to plan the expansion of social service activities in relation to the changing needs of the societies.

^{18/} Ecuador's Director Nacional de Servicio Social and Chile's Director General de Asistencia Social for example are social workers. Argentina has a social worker in the technical staff of the Consejo Nacional de Desarrollo in charge of social welfare planning. However, these instances are few and recent. Heads of schools of social work are in the majority social workers; however, in some instances, physicians and other professionals are heads of such schools.

Part II

THE FUNCTIONING OF SOCIAL SERVICE ^{1/}

Social service as an organized activity outside the family received its first legal basis in Latin America in the Laws of the Indies originally promulgated between 1500 and 1542 as the framework for governing Spain's colonies in the Americas. The law encouraged the organization of charitable institutions for the poor, the first such institution being a hospital established in Mexico in 1521. The law also contained some provisions that may be considered the precursors of social policy for the protection of the mother who works for wages and the regulation of female and child labour.

During the nineteenth century, a relatively extensive range of activities classified as "social assistance" (asistencia social) began to be organized by private initiative. This was also a period of partial secularization of welfare institutions already established under the auspices of the Catholic Church and religious communities. These institutions included hospitals, schools, institutions for the aged and infirm, orphaned, abandoned and neglected children, the physically handicapped and the mentally deficient. Besides shelter and protection, these institutions also provided educational, nutrition, health and recreation services.

The concept of an activity outside the family to relieve the distress and suffering of the poorer, the weaker, the handicapped and the underprivileged classes, served as the foundation upon which social service today is organized. The first decades of the twentieth century brought in from Europe, particularly France, Belgium and Germany, and after the Second World War from the United States, influences that bear strongly on the content of social service in the region today. The legislative provisions and philosophic basis belong to the European heritage, whereas the organization is strongly influenced by United States institutions. Social service has helped in the creation of a consciousness of the need for protective laws. Public social service programmes and some of the voluntary ones have bases in law. These laws, however, are often unsupported by adequate and stable means to carry them out, and sometimes the provisions themselves are so cumbersome as to render programme operation ineffectual. Examples are the many and detailed regulations on eligibility, beneficiaries, etc. which seem to conspire in making programmes legalistic and procedural. For this reason, social service, that has a "helping" image in the public mind, is often accused by its clientele of betraying this image through rigid and "unfeeling" proceduralism on the part of the personnel.

^{1/} Organización y Administración de Servicios Sociales, ESAPAC, Costa Rica mayo de 1960, gives a comprehensive description of the functioning of social service in Central America.

People concerned with social service are generally agreed that social service personnel should be trained. Many laws creating social service programmes specify that "professional social work methods" should be applied and that "graduate" social workers should be employed. In some countries, the social service profession is given recognition and protection by law. In other countries it is a career that is struggling very hard for professional status, and in some, it remains a "vocation" and an auxiliary service. In the latter situation, although training is considered desirable, "good-will" and the desire and ability to "do good" for the unfortunate and less endowed is also an acceptable qualification.

The pioneers of social service have invariably come from the upper social class, trained in West European countries, particularly France and Belgium, to some extent Spain, and the United States. These few had the responsibility of establishing schools of social work and programmes of social service, assisted sometimes by European and United States technical advisers. The Latin American country that wielded the strongest influence in social work education is Chile; it is also the country which has the longest history of formal training in the field. The content of curricula as well as programmes reflect West Europe orientation with recent superimposition of North American conceptions and methods. For the most part, the leaders of social service in the countries have influence in society and exert strong personal and to a lesser and more recent extent, political pressures in the national leadership. With rare exceptions, their faith lies in the value of the various activities for the individual, in the traditional concern for "helping" as "doing" and the classical interpretation of "service" with its spiritual and religious connotations. In recent years, with the rapid expansion of local training institutions, these schools have become accessible to youth from the lower middle strata who are motivated not only by their interest to participate in the advancement of welfare but who also see, consciously or unconsciously, entrance into the field as a means for social mobility.^{2/} This group is impatient for change, an impatience intensified by recent trends of incorporating schools of social work into universities, thus exposing faculty and student body to the restlessness that characterizes Latin American university groups. Currently, two forces interact with each other, one tending to hold social service to trodden grounds and the other tending to push it towards new frontiers.

^{2/} With very few exceptions, professional social workers and social work students in Latin America are women. This predominance in social work is probably more overwhelming in Latin America than in any other region. In Chile, there is only one male graduate social worker compared to over two thousand female graduates. In 30 schools in Argentina there is not one male in the total enrolment of about 400. Of the approximately 4,500 social workers in the country, there is not a single male.

1. Patterns of organization and administration

The lists of social problems and programs above suggest the great variety, the complexity and the changing nature of social service. The patterns of organization and administration are several, modified to greater or lesser degree by the nature of the problems, cultural and religious differences, the availability of economic resources and general character of the administrative system. These patterns can best be understood through a consideration of the relationships between national and local levels of administration, between public and voluntary sectors, among social service programmes and between social service and other forms of social action.

The most general characteristic is the extensive use of existing administrative structures of a social character which serve as the organizational setting for social service. There are any number of combinations. The setting may be a ministry of health and social assistance or of labour and social security, or of education and social welfare, or of interior and social assistance or of justice and social service and so on. Within such structures, social service may be a bureau (dirección), a division (departamento) or a section, or it may consist of specific activities scattered in various specialized and functional units of administration, in which case they are designed to meet specific needs related to the function of the specialized structure. It may also consist of a combination of such administrative arrangements. 3/

Although there are social services under functional government ministries, there are also autonomous bodies, self-contained boards or commissions exercising a degree of financial and operational independence within the administrative system. 4/ Autonomous bodies are offshoots of the general tendency to use ad hoc groups to meet every newly recognized need. They are also half-way attempts at co-ordination without offending already existing administrative structures by curtailing their responsibility over certain areas of action. Because earlier social service programmes related to specialized functions (delinquency within justice or rehabilitation of the physically handicapped within health etc.) are already located in corresponding administrative structures, the services that usually grow around autonomous bodies are those relating to family and community welfare. (For example, under the influence of the Inter-american Institute for the Child there is in every country an autonomous body (Consejo del Niño) that is expected to co-ordinate as well as administer programmes for children. The degree of co-ordination thus

3/ In Chile, there is a Dirección General de Asistencia Social within the Ministry of Interior and Social Assistance but there is also a Sección de Servicio Social within the Servicio Nacional de Salud; in Ecuador there is a Dirección Nacional de Bienestar Social under the Ministry of Labour and Social Security, etc.

4/ The Junta Nacional de Bienestar Social of Honduras is an example.

achieved is relative and uneven.) The charters of such bodies carry provisions for integrative functions in relation to public and voluntary programmes although such provisions are seldom implemented for lack of personnel and as a result of cumbersome and inoperable provisions. Autonomous bodies have the advantage of comparative freedom from the rigidities of bureaucracy but on the other hand are more vulnerable to the incursions of personal power and prestige.

The administration of social service manifests the same general characteristics of a highly centralized top-heavy bureaucracy that have been described in relation to other parts of the public sector in Latin America; failure to delegate; heavy emphasis on written regulations, rules and precedents; complexity of paper work; mazes of administrative communication; and personnel relations relying on strict protocol and arbitrary authority from top to bottom.

Despite this "centralization" there is no real standard unification or centralization. The rigidity and complexity of administrative procedures and personnel policies prohibit mobility and favour the formation of "cliques". While on paper, the administrative procedures may be well formulated, the implementation is on the basis of personal relationships.

The frequent and radical changes in general administrative orientation resulting from political changes are likely to nullify what might have taken years to build.

It is not unusual to encounter a series of administrative "principalities" some of them with no staff other than a "chief". This kind of administration poses difficulties for co-ordination and makes real integration impossible. As a result, social service is dispersed in many small scale actions in different units under several ministries and autonomous bodies. Seldom are there inter-agency co-ordinating or consultative bodies and if they exist, rarely do they really function as such. For this reason, social service lacks the comprehensive coverage of a defined sphere of activity that is taken for granted in certain other sectors of social policy.

(a) The national and local levels of administration

Four countries of the region (Argentina, Brazil, Mexico and Venezuela) have federal systems. In all four countries, social service provisions are the responsibility of the state government, the extent of central government participation being limited to grants of aid and formulation of national policy. In the other countries the national government is directly responsible.

There is a high degree of administrative centralization. In developing countries, centralization is often a necessary expedient arising from the scarce supply of top skills, the dearth of local leaders, the absence or undeveloped state of local government and the consequent

/lack of

lack of local authority for the administration of public funds. While theoretically most programmes are national in scope, in practice, coverage is restricted to cities and "pilot" areas.

Where there are local programmes in operation, their direction and supervision is a direct responsibility of the national level ^{5/}. Local citizen boards may be organized but are only advisory and in many instances their existence is only nominal. The local level has no participation in decision-making nor in programme development. Personnel is recruited and controlled from the national office affording little leeway for local idiosyncracies.

The financing of public social service is a national responsibility. The cost is usually met from appropriations in the national budget. But since most social service programmes are parts of other areas of policy, seldom is there a direct allocation to social service. For this reason, of it is impossible to arrive at an accurate figure as to the actual cost of supporting social service. The availability of funds from institutional allocations is unstable, largely dependent on the interest of the general administrator or the weight of the pressures that bear on that authority. Social service may also be fully or partially supported from proceeds public lotteries, from special levies (luxury taxes and taxes on non-essential consumption items such as liquors, soft drinks, movies, or even on sugar as in Honduras, etc.), donations and confiscations (unclaimed imports, contraband, etc.) and incomes from institutional properties ^{6/}. These sources are fluctuating and resistant to rational programming, constituting one of the serious drawbacks to the formulation of more comprehensive and responsive programmes and providing one of the best props for bureaucratic administration. Initiative for legislation emanates from the national level, sometimes from sources unrelated to the administration of social service. In federal systems, the State or provincial governments also enact laws independent of, or complementary to, federal laws. All countries of the region have formidable bodies of social legislation but these laws are not fully enforced for lack of implementing funds, of administrative machinery, and of personnel. The practice of basing legislation on imported models whose practicability under local conditions have not been tested is, of course, not limited to social service. The Instituto Interamericano del Niño which has made the only known exhaustive study of an area of social legislation, that

^{5/} "National" is used here unless otherwise stated, to mean the central government in the unitary system or the State (provincial) government in the federal system.

^{6/} Many of the secularized welfare institutions have incomes from properties transferred from Church to State during the period of secularization.

relating to children, concludes that there is much overlapping as well as gaps and recommends systematic codification. 7/

(b) The role of the public and voluntary sectors

The voluntary sector had always been active in the field of social service. It still constitutes a strong force in the creation of services and in the formulation of public opinion in support of social service. Many programmes are administered by voluntary groups throughout the region. Such programmes are largely local, serving a limited geographical area and independent of similar programmes elsewhere. In this sense, such programmes are answers to local needs and spring from local initiative.

The earliest form of voluntary action in social service is in the provision of institutional care to dependent children and adults. Other areas of voluntary action are special services for handicapped children, economic grants to the destitute, welfare services for the family and recreational and cultural facilities and opportunities to the youth. Recently activities in family planning and in the organization of community living have gained importance. There are few voluntary organizations of formally national scope and the few that exist limit the coverage of their programmes to selected localities. The organizational structure of voluntary action may be formal or informal; in the small scale and specialized activities, there may be no formal organization. At the other extreme, the functions may be multiple and the organization correspondingly formal, with legal personality and probably discharging in addition certain functions delegated by some government agency. 8/

While much voluntary action is supported from private contributions and incomes from institutional properties, government subsidies constitute an important component. In some cases, government subsidy provides full support. A common complaint of voluntary institutions is the relative inflexibility of government subsidies, remaining the same year after year, unrelated to needs and purposes. On the other hand, programme review and budget analysis do not exist and therefore the institutions do not account for public funds received. Except in rare exceptions, there is no government machinery for licensing, regulation and standard setting for the voluntary sector. In some of the countries there are councils of voluntary organizations to which the government sends a representative whose influence is entirely personal and varies according to his social and professional prestige. Such councils have not yet attained the roles of co-ordinating, joint-planning and standard-setting bodies. Other countries have stronger bodies representing public as well as voluntary institutions. Argentina

7/ Situación de la Legislación Relativa a la Minoridad en América Latina, Dr. Rafael Sajón and José Achard, IIN, 1965.

8/ In Brasil for example, some state government programmes "board" out children under government custody to voluntary institutions.

for example, has a National Social Aid Council with governmental status to which some 8,250 welfare institutions are accredited, a large number of them voluntary.

The process of creating new services in the public sector is slow and complicated. The regulatory provisions of laws once enacted prohibit any kind of experimentation. The voluntary sector, being comparatively free from such fetters, has the important role of pioneering in the creation of new services and in experimentation with new methods of work and organizational structures. In the latter role, its contribution has been limited for lack of specialized and "development oriented" personnel and leadership. Voluntary action has been especially useful in the establishment and operation of specialized services such as the care of crippled children or chronically ill people, promotion of family planning and others that do not find full and immediate government support because of the small size of the group to which a certain programme is directed or because the service is considered controversial and cannot count on the support of majority public opinion.

(c) Co-ordination and Co-operation

The indispensability of co-ordination and co-operation among programmes of social service and between social service and other fields of action have been implied in the above pages. The programmes today are isolated and the activities within programmes are individualistic. ^{9/} The barriers spring from the absence of a unified approach and from the importance of personal relationships in the organization and administration of programmes. There is also a lack of agreement on common goals or of a feeling of interdependence; without these there can be no compelling motivation to co-ordinate and co-operate. Some degree of co-ordination is being achieved within broad programmes, between the component social service and the other specializations partly because of the complementary relationships that exist. ^{10/} The channels are far from adequate. The various co-ordinating bodies already mentioned are recent. Their main contribution up to the present is sponsorship of periodic meetings for the discussion of common problems and the exchange of information.

(d) Programme evaluation

Programme evaluation is now routine in modern administration. Evaluation takes several forms. It may be a continuous process of programme

^{9/} For example, a child welfare programme in a Ministry of Health might have no communication with a similar programme in a Ministry of Justice, and one in a capital city with another in a provincial city. The only constant channel of communication is the professional association of social workers, if such exists.

^{10/} As in the cases of social service and maternal health within health centres, or physical plant administration and social service within housing projects, etc.

review and assessment or it may be an aspect of supervision. It may be a periodic review by staff or by independent programme evaluators. The preparation of annual budgets and other periodic reports are forms of evaluation. In whatever form, programme evaluation is not a standard practice in Latin America. The preparation of reports is sporadic and in compliance with specific requests. Supervision is not yet a developed skill and although theoretically it is recognized as an educational and administrative tool, in practice it does not amount to much more than routine inspection and physical accounting. Budget preparation is the task of people who have nothing to do with the implementation of programmes and therefore do not have the instruments for evaluation. The lack of objective criteria for programme evaluations is general and to it may be traced the undue importance attached to subjective factors of administration.

There are some models that can be used in evaluating administrative structures and procedures but not for measuring programme content and impact. The formulation of criteria for the latter purpose presents a difficult task for the region because of the fragmentation of programmes, the deficiency of research on the nature of programme determinants, the scarcity of qualified personnel to conduct evaluation and the absence of an evaluation machinery.

(e) Social Participation

"Participation" is becoming common usage and common belief in Latin America. It is expressed in different terms: popular participation, popular action, popular co-operation, etc., sometimes it is understood as community development (the partnership of people and government for bringing about improvements in living conditions), and sometimes as the institutionalization of the platform of the political party in power.

In social service, participation takes the somewhat different meaning of a sharing of responsibility with regard to the content and support of an organized service between individuals and groups called "clienteles", the local community, organized interest groups, and the national authorities. "Social participation" implies a search for procedures insuring that a needed service is rendered in a manner that guarantees the dignity and self-respect of the individual, the group and the local community and permits the growth of individual capacity to weigh alternatives, reach decisions and initiate and maintain action. "Paternalism", a real deterrent to social participation is often attached as a label to "helping" services. It is one of the challenges to social service in Latin America whether it can, in societies of relatively rigid class and cultural barriers, apply basic principles concerning the inherent value of the individual irrespective of the handicaps that his environment might have imposed on him, whether the needy can be accepted in terms of their culture and their circumstances instead of on the basis of the standards of an outside group; and whether the "help" is to "enable" and not to "disable".

/Ideally, the

Ideally, the "client" (individual or group) should be able to understand and make responsible use of the organized services; the community should be able to make coherent demands for such services and help in their organization; the public in general through its organizations, the press, political channels, etc. should provide both support and informed criticism of their functioning. Through mothers' clubs, juvenile groups, neighbourhood councils, direct contact with individuals and other "educative" activities designed to change attitudes and ways of doing, the first kind of participation is taking shape to some degree in the region. Organized groups for self help and mutual aid, whether for earning a living or procuring shelter or land are growing steadily and are beginning to "participate" in the second sense in social service activity. As to the third aspect of social participation, citizen committees are common, and in most countries, volunteer services exist. Nevertheless, the potential is far from being tapped to the maximum. The general public remains passive, leaving the responsibility to a small part of the population motivated by personal, social or professional interest. Deliberate efforts to expand and organize volunteer service are being made at the national and regional levels.^{11/}

2. Social service personnel

There is a misconception that professional social workers are the only needed personnel in social service. The objectives of social service programmes require a variety of the "helping" specializations as well as many kinds of administrative staff and aides, especially in the care of young children and infirm aged. A great many volunteers are also utilized in varying degrees.

(a) The professional social workers

Social work personnel may be classified as professional or auxiliary. A third category - the "technical" sub-professional level is gaining favour. There are also many who claim a professional status based on work experience, short orientation courses, on-the-job-training and on social prestige. The social work profession has great emotional appeal as a result of which it is often exploited for personal aggrandizement. Thus, society personalities and candidates for elective positions alike lay claims to the status of "social worker". The social work profession is increasingly popular despite resistance to its acceptance on equal footing with the older and more established professions. There is no country in the region where a trained social worker is out of employment because of lack of job opportunities. The demand is always beyond the limits of supply. In

^{11/} During the year, 1965, the USAID conducted a series of training courses for volunteers, the International Secretariat for Volunteer Service had a regional conference in Argentina and courses for volunteers are being conducted in Chile, Colombia, Peru, Brasil, and other countries.

Argentina, it is claimed that about 80 per cent of the 4,500 graduate social workers are employed. The remaining 20 per cent who are not working are not seeking work because of family responsibilities. Chile, with about 2,500 professionals, also reports a very high percentage of employment. A majority of the 217 professionals of Uruguay hold more than one job. Applications for admission to schools of social work with rare exceptions outnumber the capacity of the schools by two to one, in some cases by four to one. The National Social Service School of Peru, for example, reported that at the start of the school year 1964, there were over 500 applicants for only 50 places.

Throughout the region, there is a strong movement towards professionalization and the definition of status by law. In some of the countries, the professional organization has legal personality and the qualifications, responsibilities and privileges of the professional are defined. ^{12/} The regulation of social work as a profession may be accused as clannishness which would not be without basis. However, the valid purpose is to ascertain the competence of the social worker, to establish uniform standards of practice, to provide leadership, and to ensure mobility to the professional within the country.

The functions proper to social workers are to assist and to stimulate individuals, groups and communities towards innovation, adaptation and qualifications for life in society. They do these by helping to prevent the loss of capacity, to restore lost capacity and to rehabilitate impaired capacity. These functions are constant. What vary are the activities which are the overt manifestations of these functions. The activities of the social worker are specific to the purpose, coverage and institutional structure of the programme, the users of the service and the social setting. The activities may differ from one social worker to another and from one period to the next. As was stated above in relation to social service in general, the activities are often stated as if they were the essential functions.

(b) The training of social work professionals

Professional training in Latin America started during the second decade of this century with the establishment of the first school in Chile. Since then the increases in the number of schools of social work has not been matched by any other profession. Argentina and Brazil have 30 and 36 schools respectively. Only in some of the smaller countries is there only a single school. Paraguay with barely two million people has two and Uruguay with a million eight hundred thousand people has three. In Chile, according to the Instituto de Investigaciones Estadísticas de la Universidad de Chile, Social Work accounts for 3.3 per cent of all university enrolments,

^{12/} Chile's "Colegio de Asistentes Sociales" is an example of a highly developed professional organization with legal personality and protection similar to a trade union.

compared to Engineering (9.2 per cent), Law (8.7 per cent), Medicine (6 per cent), Economics-Administration and Commerce (6 per cent), Architecture (3.1 per cent) Political Science (2.3 per cent), Agriculture (2.2 per cent), Sociology (0.6 per cent), etc.

Most of the schools are autonomous, but some are dependencies of functional ministries, while others are affiliated to or are integral parts of universities. The school that is not plagued by financial problems is an exception. The direction is usually vested in a professional social worker although there are exceptions. University schools as a rule have more liberal curricula and more competitively selected faculty in conformity with general university requirements than do the others. In all instances, there is a very high dependence on part-time faculty. In extreme cases, there can be more than 30 faculty members, each giving one or two courses and having contact with the school only for the duration of the class period. While this system makes available the services of practising professionals, it deprives the school of steady and dedicated leadership and the students of continuing guidance from the faculty.

Prevailing curricula vary in relation to the intensiveness and unity of the social work and social science content. There is a tendency to overload the curriculum with too many isolated courses with consequent inability to impart an integral view. Currently, there is a pronounced trend to bring curriculum structure closer to that of United States schools with emphasis on methods of social work and of basic social sciences. Nevertheless, the traditional "skills" content (puericulture, first aid, etc.) is still retained to a large extent so that curriculum revision has resulted so far in lengthening the duration of the period of study and in increasing yet more the number and diversity of courses.

Although curriculum structures are similar from school to school such similarity does not imply uniform standards of instruction. In the first place, faculty for social work courses are not trained in the techniques of teaching. Often they are themselves recent graduates only beginning to acquire work experience. In addition, they are products of basically ineffective teaching systems and with rare exception, do not have breadth of perspective. The teachers of the social science courses usually have no conceptual orientation to social work and therefore teach social sciences as they would to those preparing for careers in those disciplines.

Social work teaching is based on knowledge and methods developed in other settings. Teaching material consists largely of translations of foreign social work literature. So far there has not been any systematic effort to adapt such texts to regional needs, to develop original conceptual formulations, and to identify the mainsprings of a truly Latin American social work philosophy. These are essentials of any profession.

Weaknesses that social work education shares with most other professional training in the region include emphasis on information and

/memorization instead

memorization instead of the fostering of an ability to generalize from experience and to particularize from principle, and, emphasis on theory as theory instead of on skill in applying theory to practice.

Another persistent problem area in social work education is supervised field work, by which the student learns to apply the concepts learned in the classroom to practical situations. This aspect of social work training differentiates it from other disciplines in which classroom instruction is considered sufficient. Such field work is carried out in existing social service programmes. The training capacity of organized social service programmes is limited because few of them are staffed with personnel who can train. Their unquestionable value lies in their liaison role between the school of social work and the community and in the introduction of the student to the real world of work he will face after leaving the classroom.

Social work training has until recently been preoccupied with the formation of direct service personnel. The numbers of competent personnel for higher level functions is small and their preparation is only accidental. There is an extreme scarcity of methods specialists for consultant positions, teachers, executives, planners and researchers. Some schools have started basic and post-graduate courses in administration, supervision and methods for practitioners with a minimum number of years of experience. The dependence on teachers who do not have adequate preparation, however, detracts very much from the value of these courses. One such teacher for example asked to be furnished a bibliography upon which to base a course in economic development, a subject about which he honestly admitted he had no competence at all. In addition to training within the countries international and regional training opportunities are made use of in a limited way. Both have high prestige value and both have stimulating effects on profession and programmes. They also introduce problems of adaptation for the professional.

(c) The training of auxiliary and volunteer personnel

As was stated above, professional social workers constitute only a minority among social service personnel. At present, the main stimulus for the training of sub-professional personnel who can function as "multipliers" for the professional worker comes from rural development programmes that have been unable to recruit more than a few professionals. The social work professionals are not all agreed as to the need to train sub-professional personnel. Resistance arises from two aspects of professional insecurity: first, the differentiation between the training of the auxiliary personnel and the professional is only slight and this arouses fear that eventually the sub-professional would supplant the professional. Second, in the programmes the delineation between the functions and statuses of the sub-professional and those of the professional are vague. Practical experience with sub-professional personnel in some countries, although limited, has been quite satisfying to both professional and auxiliary. Experimentation is still in progress as regards the appropriate content and duration of training courses at this level.

/Historically, social

Historically, social service has always used volunteer service. This still constitutes an important although unreliable resource in programme implementation. At the beginning, anyone who had goodwill and time to spare could do volunteer work. The most common use of volunteer service is in activities needing the support of social prestige such as fund-raising, collection of donations in kind and promotional work. Volunteers are also used for activities that do not require special skill nor continuity of application such as temporary care of children, reading to the confined, supervision of recreation, preparation and distribution of supplies, etc. The training of volunteers has been spearheaded by the private sector through courses in leadership. Although it is generally agreed that leadership training is useful as preparation for public participation in community programmes, there is a danger that the current tendency towards mass training courses to professionalize leadership will produce too many who want to direct and leave only a few who feel humble enough to perform the needed community work. This in itself hinders participation in community improvement efforts. Leadership training and special skills training for volunteers should balance each other.

(d) The training of specialized direct service personnel

An obstacle to effective implementation of programmes is the total absence until recently of training facilities in specializations for direct service personnel. Training courses for personnel in child care institutions and day care centers and in institutions for juvenile delinquents, most of which were supported by UNICEF funds, have been conducted with satisfactory results. The next step would be to explore training possibilities other than ad hoc arrangements and to expand such facilities to include personnel for recreational and use-of-leisure time programmes and for specialized services for severely retarded and handicapped persons.

3. Social service within other institutional settings

Social service activities often exist within other institutional settings as a unified functional and administrative division or as an integral part of other administrative units. In Latin America, one may find social service in industrial and commercial enterprises, in programmes of health, education, housing, social security, community and rural development and in public administration particularly the army, airforce, navy, police, ministries and autonomous bodies. The functions assigned to social workers in these settings are combinations of those of social work and of other fields of action. There is also a gap between the alleged functions and the practice due mainly to difficulties in the application of social work techniques to the different activities which social service personnel undertake. An examination of social service within such settings however, indicates that it retains inherent functions, should make its voice heard in the planning of its contribution in such settings and should not be limited to miscellaneous auxiliary activities.

/(a) Social

(a) Social service within industry and commerce

Most countries of the region have laws, usually as part of a labour code, requiring industrial and commercial establishments with a minimum number of workers to provide "professional" social service (meaning a service staffed by personnel trained in social work) to their employees. Some countries, Brazil for instance, have national councils of industry and commerce to which each enterprise contributes a regular quota depending on the size of its operations, towards the provision of social service. The administration of the service is the responsibility of the national council. In other countries such as Ecuador and Argentina, each enterprise sets up its social service according to its own norms. There are advantages and disadvantages to each system. Where administration is a responsibility of a national council, management is likely to take a disinterested attitude and may fail to provide the necessary resources such as suitable locale, equipment and supporting staff for effective functioning. It may even set up barriers to prevent the workers from using the service. On the other hand, management-established and administered social service arrangements have been suspect to workers and unions as paternalistic "tools" of management.

The assumption is that a worker can attain a higher level of productivity if his personal, family, work and community relationships are satisfactory, if his family's basic needs for health, education and culture are met to a reasonable degree and if he understands the value of his role within his work organization.

While no evaluation studies have been so far made of the contribution of social service in improving productivity in industrial and commercial enterprises, some managements mention among the benefits derived, improvement in attendance and punctuality, decrease of errors and accidents in work, improved level of productivity, decreased work disputes and more stable loyalty to the enterprise. At the same time, the resources that industry and commerce allocate to social service have permitted a more rational development of programmes than in the governmental or voluntary agencies. The staff is generally able since these enterprises pay better salaries. There is a more permissive atmosphere for experimentation fostered by adequate and sometimes superior facilities.

There is no evidence that social service enters into the initial planning of enterprises. On the contrary it is usually among the last services organized. While the activities are almost always directed and supervised by a trained person, administrative responsibility including planning of the services (with few exceptions such as some enterprises in Brazil) is generally vested in a general or labour relations executive.

(b) Social service within health programmes

The earliest social service programmes in Latin America were established within the health setting. Thus most public social service

/programmes today

programmes today constitute a division of health administration and are usually supervised and directed by medical professionals. This pattern of organization is part of the heritage from Western Europe, particularly France, but it also has a historical basis in the Laws of the Indies of colonial times. It should not be surprising therefore that Red Cross first-aid volunteers and nurses and even doctors are often referred to as social workers (trabajador social or visitador social).

Social service activities are constant components of the service complex in hospitals, sanatoria and health centres. The Servicio Nacional de Salud of Chile, for example, employs at least 50 per cent of all social workers in the country. The function of social service in a health setting is mainly supportive and complementary, intended to render health and medical services more effective and better utilized. On one hand, the aim is to help the sick individual and members of his family understand the nature of the illness and how to cope with the situation. In the process, new needs may crop up, attitudes may change and latent capacity may be released. On the other hand, social service interprets to health personnel the fears, handicaps and aspirations of the individual and his family so that these factors may be taken into account in the course of treatment. It also mobilizes for both patient and health service other resources which tend to improve the therapeutic relationship.

(c) Social service and education

Many countries in the region have social service programmes within their educational system. The earliest and most widely established of such programmes are at the university level (bienestar social universitario) and are responsible for the administration of fellowships, economic grants and loans to financially deserving students, as well as case work and counselling to students with personal adjustment difficulties.

At the secondary and primary education level, social service is very recent. The beginnings of school social work appear mostly in the operation of school feeding programmes. The use of social service in connection with the problems of "drop-outs", of irregularity of attendance, of anti-social behaviour and unsatisfactory scholastic performance is still at an initial stage. Its present contribution lies in helping students and parents in meeting minimum needs of food, clothing, school supplies and fees, and in combating other hostile factors in the environment that impede the learning process.

On the other hand, social service programmes use educational methods and include some educational activities in their complex of activities, e.g. primary and vocational training within institutions for children and youth. Other educational activities frequently classified in Latin America as social service rather than as part of the educational system are free and ungraded vocational courses, literacy classes, adult education activities and special classes for mentally retarded and physically handicapped children and adults.

/(d) Social

(d) Social service and housing

The function of shelter is directly related to other human needs mainly originating from the nature of living in a family. The house is the framework of family life and unless it meets the needs of that life, a house cannot be considered to fulfill its central purpose. This conception of housing has paved way for the participation of social service in housing programmes.

In practice, the functions of social service in housing may consist of providing empirical data to housing planners and administrators concerning "target" families to be taken into account in planning the lay-outs of housing developments, in the design of the houses and the determination of costs and amortization rates; of defining and applying eligibility requirements in the allocation of houses; of educating families in the use of modern housing, of fomenting neighbourhood and community spirit; and of stimulating the community to create or seek the creation of needed services and opportunities.

In Argentina, Chile and Uruguay the services of social workers are applied in promoting "self-help" group organization for housing construction as well as for other types of co-operative action in the improvement of housing conditions. The latter include maintenance, repairs, enlargement and beautification of existing houses to meet new needs of the families. These activities are found to be particularly realistic in situations of scarce public resources to finance new houses and limited or non-existent capacity to pay for a new house on the part of the family.

Social service programmes within housing projects are varied. The most rewarding approach seeks to integrate the organization of the "community" with the subsequent establishment of a community centre from which all services brought into being by such a project can radiate. This approach provides motivation and stimulus to the community to work together. It is an arrangement which fosters co-operation among technical services and facilities through their provision within the community framework. The activities that can be associated with a community centre are numerous. They can even become the starting point of local self-government.

The provision of services in shanty towns and in the older slum areas of cities is limited in relation to the magnitude of the need. Within the few shanty town eradication programmes (Rio de Janeiro has probably the most extensive of such programmes), existing social service assists in determining the number of people affected through community surveys and in preparing them for the transfer, in providing and mobilizing services to minimize the traumatic effects of change and in helping people to re-establish themselves in new locations and new human groups.

(e) Social service and community development

To the present, the demarcation line between community development and social service is not clearly defined particularly because the

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implementation of "localized" community development projects is very much in the hands of social work personnel.

The role of social workers in community development programmes in Latin America has two aspects: (1) the performance of social work functions in an interdisciplinary relationship within the framework of the community development programme; and (2) the application of social work techniques for the achievement of the goals of community development in such programmes. Both aspects pose important issues for social work theorists and professionals; for example, whether the focus of action in community development should be content or process, and whether the approach should be through the individual or through the community.

Among the new movements in Latin America exemplified by "Cooperación Popular" of Peru, "Acción Comunitaria" of Venezuela and "Promoción Popular" in Chile may be identified possible elements for a distinction between community development and social service. Social service calls for the focusing of existing resources, organizations and power structures upon the solution of specific problems. It is carried out within existing formal institutions and its goals are determined by such institutions.

Within these limits it helps people to identify problems, to understand what they are and to decide what to do about them. The conceptions of community development that are now evolving assume that solution of the major social problems will involve some sort of reorganization of existing systems and a re-structuration of established relationships based on "grass roots" efforts. The newer national initiatives in Latin America link community development with the national political process. They are revolutionary in the sense that they aspire to involve the public directly in the development process. Social service leaders face the challenge of finding ways to adopt their techniques of work to the objectives and approaches of such community development initiatives.

(f) Social service and rural development

Rural development (including programmes of agrarian reforms, colonization, and rural community development) is the most recent setting for social service. The activities assigned to social service in rural development programmes are directed to and function through groups and communities rather than through individuals. Informational campaigns (divulgaciones), community centres and leadership training are important techniques. As more technical services become established, some of the initial activities are transferred to more specialized programmes, e.g. to home economics, agricultural extension, health education, nutrition, etc.

In the majority of cases, the over-all direction of social service in rural development programmes is the responsibility of a general administrator whose specialization is almost always another field such as education, sociology, anthropology, economics, or agronomy. Staffing has so far presented one of the most difficult problems. Training oriented to rural social service is very recent and is found in only a few schools

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of the region (some schools of Ecuador and Brazil). These schools are still in a stage of experimentation as to the content and structure of a rural welfare oriented curriculum. Since in many countries there are more city jobs than trained personnel, only a dedicated few accept positions for rural areas. The reasons are several: "fear" reactions of urban women (those who have received training in social work are mostly urban women) to rural living, the paucity of opportunities for cultural and professional advancement in rural communities, the inferiority of educational facilities for children and the professional isolation of the rural social worker. In some instances, the worker lives in the city and commutes to the rural area. This practice shortens the actual working hours, but more serious is the non-identification of the worker with the community.

(g) Social service and social security

The earliest and one of the most readily identified activities of social service in the public mind is the meeting of basic needs in times of unemployment, sickness and incapacity, disasters, and other periods of stress. Social security systems in all countries of Latin America today are supposed to stabilize individual and family incomes, thus replacing the "economic" assistance function of social service. However, in the Latin American situation, social security systems do not cover the really needy and this is a very large group.

Actual experience demonstrates, moreover that social security has not made social service, in the old sense of economic aid, unnecessary for some covered groups. The levels of contributions have often proved to be too high and burdensome for the family, so that the economic advantage for the family of belonging to the system is more apparent than real. Social service within a social security system is an alternative way of using social security resources where benefits are low. More systems are moving in this direction but its desirability is doubtful.

In practice, all social security systems in Latin America provide for their members social service activities of more varied character. The main activities of social service within social security systems are to assist the system in the determination and control of eligibility to benefits (although this is really an administrative not necessarily a social service activity), to assist the families in taking advantage of available benefits and choosing among alternative uses of the benefits, and to organize for the system and the families additional resources to supplement inadequate benefits. In discharging the first function, social workers interview members or visit them in their homes, helping them to fill out often very complicated forms and guiding them through confusing and complex procedures. In relation to the other functions all the standard social service techniques are brought into play. Most recently, social service within social security is going into community organization activities, mainly the creation of community centres.

/(h) Social

(h) Social service and personnel administration

Within personnel administration in the army, navy, airforce, police, technical ministries, specially those with widely scattered projects requiring deployment of workers far from their families as in the case of public works, and autonomous bodies, social service is frequently provided to the employee and his family. In both private and public settings, it is sometimes criticized as paternalism. Social service in public personnel administration as in private industry is expected to promote work efficiency by helping the workers make a more satisfactory adjustment to his social environment (family and community) and to his work environment (relations with co-workers and superiors). When social service is considered a partial substitute for money earnings, thus depriving the employees of choices in the use of income, it is in itself contrary to the goals of social service. If on the other hand, it is really an additional benefit, it has an income re-distributive function.

Part III

THE PLANNING OF SOCIAL SERVICE

Social service was conceived primarily as an expression of goodwill, not as a discipline. The motive was to "do good", at once a source of self-satisfaction and an expression of kindness to the less fortunate. Subjective factors characterize its growth. The forces behind its evolution from the individual "good deed" to the organized service are strong personal needs for prestige and power and for manifesting philanthropic and religious zeal. The decisions underlying action derived from the humanitarian appeal, the urgency and the spectacular nature of the need to be met. The earlier programmes therefore were directed against the readily visible handicaps of the seriously disabled, economically dependent, weak and vulnerable. This also explains the parochialism that still characterizes social service. It follows also that the allocation of resources to programmes depended upon and still depends to a large extent upon the weakness or strength of the personal factors involved and to a lesser degree on the magnitude of the need and its vulnerability to action. Within programmes, the distribution of the available resources among the component activities (direct service, administrative overhead and infrastructure) likewise depends upon the personal preferences of the seat of authority,

Interest in over-all planning of social service is recent but clearly in evidence. The statements and declarations made at regional seminars and meetings such as the UN-UNICEF sponsored Seminar on the Planning of Social Welfare for Central America held in Costa Rica in May of 1964 ^{1/} and those sponsored by the Instituto Interamericano del Niño in Quito, in October of 1964 and in Montevideo in May of 1965, as well as at national meetings and professional group discussions support the idea of subjecting social service to the discipline of national planning. Up to now, these assertions are only assertions. The stage of systematic investigations and analyses of the problems that need to be resolved before planning of social service can be integrated in national planning is now within view.

^{1/} Among the recommendations of that Seminar appear: "Que dentro de la estructura nacional de planificación, exista una estructura para la planificación del bienestar social, que cuente con profesionales de este campo", and "Que se haga una planificación adecuada de programas de bienestar social conforme a las necesidades y las posibilidades de cada país..." Planeamiento para el Bienestar Social, Informe del Seminario Regional sobre Bienestar Social para Centro América y Panamá, Costa Rica, May 1964.

(a) The Meaning of Planning in Social Work

Planning is a word that has always been in the vocabulary of social work. Ideally, when an application for social service is received (whether from an individual, a group or a community), it is determined whether or not the nature of the request falls within the scope of action of the service. If it does, the application is accepted as a "case" and a "planning process" is initiated. This planning process is directed to the solution of a problem or a complex of problems presented by the "case". The stages of this process consist of:

(1) Prognosis, which involves the collection of information through direct contact with persons and groups and available records related to the case and the need, concerning the resources that can be made to bear on the problem, and other relevant factors; the analysis of the available data; the formulation of provisional objectives and targets.

(2) Social diagnosis, which involves the definition of the problem, a projection of the requirements for meeting the problem, the matching of the requirements and the resources and a lining up of the various possible alternatives for action.

(3) Decision-making, which involves the active participation of the "case", to whom the final decision as to the nature of action to be taken is left.

(4) Action or treatment, which is the implementation of the choice that was made. This may involve other services and action that are not necessarily social service.

(5) Follow-up evaluation of the results of the action taken. This follow-up may take place during or after the chosen action has been completed. It may result in modifications to improve the effectiveness of this action.

An analogous process should take place in the setting up of a service or a programme as well as in the preparation of a programme of activities for a definite period of time. While the planning process may vary in the sequence of the various stages, the essential elements remain the same. In every instance, a problem must be recognized, the needs and resources assessed and arranged, the alternatives or choices that present themselves must be ordered, a decision must be made and action must be taken. Follow-up is an important stage in the process. This kind of planning may be carried on one level or on several levels separately, in stages or simultaneously. It is microcosmic in approach. In principle, it should be the base of all social service action.

Planning in the above sense is part of the content of social work training. It provides the reason for the inclusion in the social work curricula of courses in community surveys, interviews, recording, statistics and other tools of data collection of social sciences.

/(b) Social

(b) Social Service in the Context of National Planning

Within the context of development planning, experience in relation to social service is nil. In no country in the region is social service now a part of national plans. Some countries attempting comprehensive national planning have included in their national plans sectors in health, education and housing and more recently and rarely, community development. Mere inclusion in national plans however does not represent real integration into planning, nor is it a guarantee of better functioning.^{2/} There is no reason to believe that a social service sector in a national plan would render social service more effective unless certain requisites in planning and implementation were met.

Some countries have established planning units in functional departments of public administration. With the exception of one or two countries, even when there is a social service content in the wider programmes, e.g. in health, these activities are not necessarily included in the sectoral programming. In general, the "planning" of social service is autonomous and isolated and often the responsibility of persons who have insufficient understanding of the basic concepts, functions and techniques of social service. What is up to now called planning or programming of social service programmes is more in the nature of directives and administrative decisions made in the upper echelon of the organization hierarchy. This practice constitutes a barrier to the formulation of planning techniques that would facilitate the integration of social service into national planning. In fact because integration would considerably decrease its value as a source of personal prestige, resistance should be expected even when such integration is overtly endorsed.

The non-inclusion of social service in national development plans has not prevented Latin America from acquiring examples of all kinds of services known to social work. Nevertheless, there are weighty considerations that support the bringing of social service under the umbrella of development planning. Models from more advanced countries excite people to desire and compel governments to provide more social services than the countries can afford. The Charter of the Alliance for Progress endorses the provision of social benefits to the more needy sectors of the population in order to attain an equalization of opportunities. Unless social service is viewed as

- 2/ Report of the "Reunión Técnica sobre la Integración de los Planes Sectoriales de Educación en los Planes Generales de Desarrollo Económico y Social", Pan American Union, Document H.6, January 25, 1965.
- 3/ The Ministries of Health and Social Welfare of Peru and Paraguay, for example, have such planning units headed by physicians with training in national planning techniques. In an interview, the head of the Planning Unit in Peru pointed out the difficulties of including social service in the planning content and stated that although it did not (1964) enter into the immediate work schedule, he was seriously thinking of ways and means of doing so. In Paraguay, a social worker was appointed to a Committee in the Planning Unit; this does not mean that the plans already include social service as a field of policy although they mention some such activities.

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an integral component of development, and unless it is brought within the discipline of national planning, two possibilities present themselves. At one extreme because of dramatically strong appeals and pressures, resources could be diverted to social service to an extent that would hamper investment for rapid economic growth. At the other extreme, resources could be withheld to a degree that would detract from the smooth functioning of existing services and the meeting of the most urgent new needs, with consequent widening of the gap in levels of living between the various sectors of the population and the further incapacitation of people to participate in development, thus defeating the very objectives of development. If national planning is a process by which the different needs of the population and the resources that can be applied to those needs are ordered, matched and brought to bear upon each other, it is logical that social service, which offers techniques for confronting some of the major national needs, should come within that process of rationalization.

Apart from the problem of formal incorporation of social service into national plans of development, sectoral programming of social service informed by a broad conception of national needs and priorities is necessary. The existent proliferation of social service activities and the consequent seemingly irrational dispersion of already limited resources allocated to social service dilute the impact of such activities and also make impossible their measurement and evaluation for purposes of increasing efficiency. The restriction of the planning process in social service to "cases" and its localization within the boundaries of institutions and programmes leads to considerable waste of funds as well as trained human resources. The preceding description of the functioning of social service in the region pictures a situation where "so much conspires to ensure that so little is achieved. That so much energy and effort seem expended in negative processes is not due to apathy or indifference but to a tendency to strain after unattainable ideals and to reject practical compromises."

(c) Some problems of planning social service

One of the fundamental problems related to over-all planning and social service originates from two seemingly contradictory requisites. On the one hand, such planning requires a clear understanding of the totality of the social scene. The sum total of the different settings of the "cases" that traditionally are the immediate concern of social service action does not constitute that social scene. To arrive at that "clear understanding", social service must incorporate into its approaches the macrocosmic view, into its methods, those of investigation and analysis, and into its skills, the utilization of the findings of other disciplines, particularly the basic social sciences. In other words, social service must emerge from "parochialism".

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On the other hand, the nature of social service subjects it to a compulsion to arrive at certain practical lines of action in view of the strong demands, the urgency of needs, and its proximity to such needs and demands. Whoever has the responsibility of making decisions within each programme has to face a recurrent apparent dilemma between preparation for action through systematic and scientific studies and action that responds immediately to demands. So far, the usual choice has been to attempt practical aid immediately on the basis of what is known, however inadequate. In the long term, these two requisites must be reconciled, although such reconciliation can never be easy nor complete. In fact, the need to struggle toward such a reconciliation is one of the basic principles of social work practice that has been absorbed in the region only partially.

Professional social workers of the region strongly favour over-all planning of social service but are handicapped by their lack of opportunities to acquire training or experience in planning techniques. The scientific attitude has not been sufficiently internalized to enable them to evolve objective criteria for the determination and measurement of needs, the analysis of requirements, the forecast of benefits and the establishment of priorities. From the standpoint of the economic planner, as expressed in the Regional Seminar on Social Welfare in Central America and Panama, such criteria should be quantitatively and qualitatively defined.^{4/} Until planning techniques applicable to social service as a whole are formulated, the integration of social service into development planning is hardly conceivable. This task logically belongs to social work professionals in collaboration with specialists in other fields of social policy and with experienced planners. Until a sufficient number of these professionals can free themselves from absorbing and exacting direct services to cases, the principles and the tools for over-all planning in social service will remain an aspiration.

Social service in the region, even in the few instances in which there is supposed to be a programme of national scope is based on local action designed to meet local needs. Herein lies one of the greatest potential contributions of social service to development - the direct contact with people that places social service personnel in a favoured position to know at first hand their aspirations and their fears, their latent capacities, and the specific approaches that might enlist their participation in the developmental process.

The great number and diversity of actual and potential demands upon social service in relation to the resources available, present a challenge to planning. The targets of social service action, even when locally based, are ambitious to the extent that they represent the real demands and expectations of people. Moreover, such demands may differ from legislative provisions and official directives and may even be in direct conflict with one another. The pressures of conflicting interests - both from its sources of support and its clientele - tend to make social service present-oriented in contrast to the orientation of development policy toward future benefits.

^{4/} Planeamiento Para el Bienestar Social, Informe del seminario regional sobre bienestar social para Centroamérica y Panamá, San José, Costa Rica, 24-29 de Mayo de 1964, paginas 10-12

The bases of programmes are fragmentary policy provisions scattered in a great bulk of social legislation. These provisions do not form a consolidated framework of guiding principles for action. Such lack of a unified national social policy as a basis for programming, however, is not unique to social services. Various analyses have pointed out the same weakness in social sectors such as education, health and housing which have been formally incorporated into national plans. 5/ In the Seminar on the Planning of Social Welfare for Central America and Panama previously mentioned, economists were cited to the effect that there does not exist a true social policy in the region but only a series of governmental directives. According to this source, to formulate a social policy, it is necessary to have a diagnosis of the actual situation, a profound knowledge and understanding of its defects (which is parallel to social service concern with social pathology), an agreement on objectives, and a perspective of current tendencies clarifying the disparity between what is desirable and what is feasible and thus permitting an appreciation of the necessary steps that should be taken to achieve the set objectives. In this same Seminar, administrators of programmes asserted that there are multiple social policies but no instrument to co-ordinate these policies. This same divergence of opinion as to the real existence of "social policies" in the region was observed in the above mentioned seminars sponsored by the Interamerican Institute for the Child and seems to derive from the varied interpretations of "policy". If one considers that unified social policy should define the value premise for action, a set of objectives, a focus of emphasis, a seat of ultimate responsibility and leadership for the translation of the policy into action and the degree and nature of participation by the public, in this sense, there is no unified and defined social policy in Latin America. There is no clear evidence of decision on the above aspects although there are trends identifiable from the many social provisions that exist. For example, some countries have codes that define the status of and the conditions of protection of minors and of women, while others have laws that place the emphasis on the family. These codes express values on which policy is based. Some countries have legal provisions establishing centralized seats of responsibility, and others define sets of objectives without specifying value premises. Very commonly, a statement of values in a legal code is not accompanied by provisions for its attainment, and administrative specifications for implementation are not matched by provisions for financial support. A general characteristic of the abundant social provisions of the region, (many of which remain buried in the statute books) is specificity to defined pathological aspects of society, for example, the destitute dependent child, the low income worker, the dependent aged,

5/ See for example, "Some aspects of educational planning in Latin America" by Maximilio Halty Carrere in Problems and Strategies of Educational Planning. Lessons from Latin America, International Institute for Educational Planning, UNESCO, Paris, 1964.
See also Report of the Departamento de Planificación of Colombia to the Interamerican Conference on Children and Youth in National Development, E/LACCY/NR/L. , page 4

the criminal, the delinquent, etc.^{6/} There is yet to be formulated a social policy that unifies all these aspects into an integrated basis for social welfare action.

It has been pointed out that there is no definite administrative structure for the planning of social service. Executives of administrative units in which social service is located and those of voluntary programmes take initiatives and make decisions that are based on some sort of analysis of needs, resources and expected results but which are highly colored by personal and subjective factors. Experiences in technical assistance in social service indicate that decisions related to planning seldom involve professional social service personnel. The justification put forward to explain this phenomenon is the scarcity or total absence, of personnel (among the professionals) trained in planning. To sum up, the placing of social service within the framework of development has up to the present been frustrated by: (1) the general absence of a unified social policy on which to base social service planning, (2) the absence of a concept of overall planning within social service, (3) its traditional local and individual approach to needs and problems, (4) the inadequacies of its techniques for planning purposes, and (5) the inadequacies of administration and administrative structures for its planning including the paucity of planning competence among social service personnel.

(d) Need-Cost-Benefit-Desideratum

Planning involves an assesment of need, cost and benefit in relation to one other. In social service, this aspect of planning is particularly difficult because to date there is no formula for the quantitative measurement of need, or of benefit related to both need and cost. Need has been measured through the number of people affected but a simple numerical count leaves out the important factor of degree of intensity of deprivation and resulting incapacity, which is highly individual. In the same way, benefit can be quantified if the counting is based on the number of people served or benefitted. Again, the degree of satisfaction caused by the benefit is individual and defies ordinary means of measurement.

The problem becomes still more difficult if one seeks the optimum relationship among the three factors. How intense should a need be to justify expenditure and how much benefit would be considered a satisfactory return on a given expenditure? Is the cost of a social service activity solely a consumption expenditure or can it be considered as investment? If it is in part an investment in "human resource development" can the return on such investment be quantified?

6/ "Situación de la Legislación Relativa" La Minoridad en Latino América, Rafael Syonart, José Achard, Instituto Interamericano del Niño, Montevideo, Uruguay.

Planning implies an assessment and balancing of costs and personnel requirement. In some social service action requirements are modest but the majority require some expenditure on infrastructure, rising levels of costs for continuing operation, and trained personnel. There are many instances when the changing levels of these requirements are not considered in advanced, resulting sometimes in elaborate and costly buildings and equipment that lie idle because of lack of funds for operating expenses and for lack of personnel. In other instances, the personnel are hired but find they have no facilities nor funds for carrying out their duties. It is important that the different kinds of requirements should be budgeted for and that this provision should be balanced and timed in accordance with their relative roles in the process of implementation. In the case of personnel, this consideration should affect training policy both quantitatively and qualitatively.

Finally, in the planning of social service, it is well to bear in mind that "to apply economic rationality to expenditures on social programmes cannot be pursued beyond a certain point without running into open contradiction not only with the ways people and nations actually behave but also with their deepest value systems" that "no people is so poor that it would be prepared to do only the things it can afford according to a utilitarian scheme of priorities"; therefore the "demands of the public should be considered if plans are to respond to real social needs and to receive popular support and participation".^{7/} The search must go on for more objective techniques of measuring needs, of defining needy sectors of the population and of relating benefits to costs and needs but such techniques should admit of dimensions other than the economic.

7/ "Social Development" and "Social Planning": A survey of conceptual and practical problems in the setting of Latin America, Division of Social Affairs, Economic Commission for Latin America, Santiago, 1965, (to be published).

Part IV

AREAS FOR FUTURE ACTION: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The potential contribution of social service to the development of Latin America lies in preparing people for social change, particularly institutional changes, in preparing people for wider participation in national life, in fostering needed changes in attitudes, in promoting better adjustments in relationships, in making the action of other programmes more effective, and in smoothing out the adverse effects of the change process. The full realization of such a contribution will depend upon the remodelling of concepts along with reforms in legislation and administrative structure adequately supported by competent personnel and research.

1. Conceptual growth and adaptation

The conceptual framework of social service in Latin America originated in more highly industrialized countries where it responded to very different social conditions and relationships. The borrowing of this conceptual basis as well as the associated techniques was inevitable when social service was at its beginning in the region. Within a different cultural and social milieu, concepts assume other meanings, techniques applied produce different effects and institutions established, even though called by identical names work in different ways. The transplantation of these concepts and techniques is further affected by the human, economic and institutional resources available for their functioning. For them to acquire meaning at all, they must harmonize with the political aspirations of the people and the needs toward which these aspirations are directed. ^{1/} The growth of social service in Latin America should have been accompanied by an evolution in concepts and techniques, bringing it closer to regional value premises, to problems and needs as they are understood and to existing social institutions and resources.

^{1/} Social Research in Latin America, Wagley, Charles, cites illustrations in law courts, public administration, education, etc. In this respect, social service is not an isolated case. He says on page 27 that although Latin America has borrowed extensively from Europe and the United States, the similarity is only "formal and superficial". "Latin American nations have profoundly modified, adopted and reinterpreted European customs and institutions. A Latin American constitution may read like its U.S. counterpart but it does not function in the same way..."

There has been some progress toward this objective. In the daily task of trying to apply what was learned in school from foreign experience and foreign textbooks, social workers adapt and experiment. These efforts are limited in their effects on theory and practice for several reasons: they are undirected and unsystematic; they are not recorded, classified and tested and do not therefore become incorporated into the body of systematic knowledge and practice. Most social workers are quite unaware of the potential contributions to professional growth that they can make through their own experiences. Some, too insecure to deviate from the traditional, camouflage their experiences in the familiar terms of the classroom or keep these to themselves. In many instances, the social worker has no time to generalize and sift his thinking; the typical scene in a social service office can be likened to a market place of women elbowing their way through a crowd of sick, hungry and dejected people many of them with scuffling babies in their arms. Despite such barriers, growth in harmony with reality must take place.

The differences in terminology under which social service is known (asistencia social, servicio social, bienestar social) are of minor importance; in the public mind, all such terms evoke the same image. This image is still that of a more fortunate person giving alms or free service to the less fortunate, of someone visiting the sick and spreading artificial cheer, of someone who can "pull strings" to give the shelterless a house, the hungry food, the crippled alms. It is not an image of a service that aims to capacitate man as an individual and as a member of a group and of a wider society to recognize his legitimate needs and to choose one way or several ways towards the satisfaction of his needs. The adoption of one term is not sufficient. There must be a clarification of the purpose of social service and a definition of its functions within operational limits. This clarification and definition must be subsequently demonstrated in activities, if distorted images such as that stated by a member of a mother's club are to be dispelled: "These mothers' centres.... trying to teach the most useless things, how to bake a cake for example. They do not teach how to cook a meal. Now they are teaching machine sewing but no one has sewing machines. Also they bring electric washing machine. It is no use here. Sometimes they keep the women in meetings the whole day leaving the housekeeping to their little girls. These persons who come from outside come to divide not to unite people. Another thing is this spirit of paternalism. They want to do everything for us and they leave us knowing nothing!" 2/

2/ Quotations are taken from interviews carried out in the course of a study of "Servicios en una Población de Eradicación" carried out by the Division of Social Affairs of the Economic Commission for Latin America.

The basic principles and methods of social work need to be tested in local settings for their applicability. The principle that society is responsible for the removal of obstacles to self-realization and social participation and the parallel principle of equal opportunity, for example, suffer modifications in interpretation under different political systems and beliefs and the degree of affluence of any particular society. One of the national reports to the Latin American Conference on Children and Youth in National Development generalizes from a description of services provided to delinquent youth in local institutions on "the common anomaly of civilization by automatically guaranteeing to deviants an opportunity for training whereas the rest of their age group who are well-behaved and well-adjusted have to compete among themselves for places available to but a small proportion of their number". This does not imply that youth in institutions in Latin America receive favoured treatment in general; the resources of many such institutions are inadequate even for minimum custodial functions. It does suggest that social service provisions borrowed from more affluent settings are likely to be implemented mainly in favour of problem groups that are easily identified and small enough so that services can be provided for them without an unmanageable claim on resources. The character of the wider needs that are likely to be disregarded both because of their magnitude and because they do not correspond to the borrowed provisions can be suggested by another quotation, from a leader within a marginal urban settlement: "We lived in a place bare of everything, so we organized a 'junta'. We fought for water because in winter we had to walk in the darkness of night to arrive at the faucet and in summer the water was often cut off. We fought for light, actually at first we stole it. The junta is very representative, and we achieved this perhaps because we had nothing, no houses, no land. We seized land illegally, with sacrifices, out of need. There are many ideologies in the Junta but we achieve things".

Even the nature of elementary human needs must be re-interpreted to fit varying conditions of mass poverty and deep-rooted patterns of attitudes toward need and dependency. Food is a basic need, but this does not mean that any food will be acceptable to appease hunger; the assumption that an outside agency knows better than the local people what they need to eat is likely to be rejected by the people themselves, who often use food aid in ways unforeseen by its providers. Another local leader, mentioning that food distribution in his community had been cut down because the supplying agency did not consider it well utilized, went on to explain: "The people don't take this milk; it makes the children ill because it is skimmed milk; the adults don't like the taste and it doesn't interest them because they don't know the nutritive value of milk. The majority sell it to makers of ice cream who pass through the settlement buying it up".

The meaning of interdependence in society will differ where alienation from traditional sources of security and well-being is widespread. Its implications need to be considered in conditions such as

/those described

those described by a social worker in a housing project who classified the population into three groups; those who have steady jobs and incomes, who feel secure and feel individualistic, caring only about their own interests; those who have some income and some kind of job, who feel partially insecure, who care about the well-being of the community and participate actively in communal affairs because they see community solidarity as a potential resource to meet their insecurity; and those who have nothing, not even aspirations, who care for nothing because they have nothing to lose and believe they have nothing to gain.

Schools of social work should take the leadership in struggling for conceptual growth and adaptation by providing the essential atmosphere for searching discussions and the facilities for systematic study and formulation. The possibilities of a regional exchange of personnel among schools of social work should be explored.

2. Social Legislation

Legislation is an important link in the growth process of social service. As stated previously, there is no scarcity of legislation, but existent laws contain expressions of unrealistically high standards impossible of realization because of limitations on resources and discriminatory provisions resulting from interest group pressures.^{3/} Gaps and duplications in coverage are frequent. Provisions with good intentions are even interpreted so that they become instruments of exploitation. Social service should consider it within its innovating function to re-examine all legislation affecting its areas of concern for the purpose of formulating recommendations for their amendment or repeal and of proposing the enactment of needed laws. In fact, professional groups should spearhead social action for legislation reform including the codification of relevant laws so that they become declarations of consistent social policy. There should be a constant testing of the effect of laws on the aspects of life to which they are directed.

The making of laws is not solely a function of legislators. Government and voluntary agencies, the professions, social scientists and the general public should share this function at different stages. The whole process of law enactment for social welfare needs systematization and democratization.

3/ A study of the body of social legislation for children by the Interamerican Institute for the Child, "Situación de la Legislación Relativa a la Minoridad en Latino América", Montevideo, Uruguay, 1965, prove these points.

3. Administrative development

Some of the most serious weaknesses of social service discussed above lie in the administrative arrangements for its functioning. Its fragmentation into small-scale isolated activities makes evaluation of programmes difficult and measurement of general impact impossible, prevents concentration of resources in the areas of highest priority, and fosters the growth of rival cliques and vested interests: barriers to programme co-ordination and joint planning. While there are certain advantages to the practice of attaching social service to functional administrative units, there seem to be weightier arguments for the creation of an additional separate policy entity to take care of the major responsibility for formulating standards, defining functions and undertaking over-all planning.

Improvements in planning of programmes, implementation, co-ordination and evaluation, all require changes in organizational structure and administrative procedures, but above all in the general administrative orientation. Such requisites may be difficult to realize for some time to come. Schools of social work should recognize this likelihood and train their students to struggle and survive in "muddled" situations. At present training is carried out often in an illusionary setting.

A logical first step would be the establishment within the planning structure, if such exists, of a system of over-all evaluation of existing programmes both under government and voluntary auspices, or at least of the voluntary agencies receiving financial support, total or partial, from public funds. Programme evaluation needs to be established in each functional unit of administration for periodic assessment of changes in the nature and magnitudes of needs as well as the impact of programmes on such needs. Criteria for evaluation must be clearly stated. Such a step would require progressive attitudes and analytical and objective points of view supported by administrative procedures that are conducive to free communication, flexibility, group instead of individual decision-making and hierarchical mobility. An over-all public administrative structure oriented to development should likewise affect positively the administrative arrangements for social service. Other specific changes should include a unification of the planning and operational functions, a more rational and stable basis of financing programmes, and a functional rather than restrictive accounting system equally applicable to public and voluntary agencies expending public money. There is a lack of uniformity in standards of service from agency to agency and existing definitions of such standards remain buried in official documents with imperceptible effects on implementation. A general norm of service should be formulated and made one of the considerations of evaluation and of financing. Evaluation procedures should support regulation and licensing to weed out the voluntary programme which is solely for propaganda and self-aggrandizement, and should permit a more rational allocation of funds to assure the meritorious voluntary programme adequate and stable support.

No programme can count on success without the participation of those who benefit directly from it. A strong local administration capable of formulating its needs into demands that can be reconciled with wider planning and of sharing responsibility in the implementation of programmes as "a watchdog" to guarantee effective action, is a resource of immeasurable value. Social service should be able to contribute to the development of a strong local administration.

Several means of effecting co-ordination are now under experiment. The commonest of these are inter-ministerial commissions, technical committees and study groups within the governmental system, and councils of agencies, either limited to voluntary agencies or including both the public and voluntary sectors. Whether they are effective or not will depend upon individual and agency attitudes and the recognition of the element of interdependency as an essential consideration for survival.

4. Preparation of personnel for social service

A programme can only be as good as the people who plan and execute it. Sometimes a technically and substantively weak programme can be implemented with some degree of effectiveness if the personnel are capable. The preparation of personnel for social service is uneven and at times internally inconsistent. The training of social workers has advanced ahead of programme development and thus lacks clear objectives related to programme needs. There seems to be little relation between training and actual functions and between training and practice. A necessary pre-condition is the definition of the functions for which personnel are to be trained. In Latin America there are three distinct levels, the functions of which have not so far been clearly defined and delimited. As they become defined, these functions should become the determinants of the content of the training programme. Otherwise, personnel will continue to find their training inapplicable in the face of reality.

There is need to re-orient some aspects of the training of professional social workers so that they would be more able to function in human and professional relationships; such relationships constitute the central focus of their activities. A deeper understanding of their role in relation to their functions is the legitimate source of motivation and morale. Such understanding is possible only if the principles they are taught as basic harmonize with the culture values and beliefs that they hold, or if the teaching is able to transform the values and beliefs. The need to enlarge the understanding of social problems and of human needs indicate that the social science and research content of the curricula must be strengthened. In research, the focus should be on action-oriented types of research and on the use of the findings in social work situations leaving the responsibility for basic research to social scientists. Today, what is often called training in social research is participation in researches conducted by sociologists in which the social worker is merely an interviewer with no responsibility for analysis. This does not give any training in research methodology

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and the social workers who participate are no more than suppliers of free labour.

Training opportunities for top-level and specialized personnel should be developed: for teaching in social work, planning, research, administration and methods specialists. The establishment of training institutions for this level of personnel is essential if social work is to acquire leadership capable of original thinking and of participating with other professions in policy formulation, over-all planning and high level administration. In view of limited resources in terms of trained manpower for teaching at this level as well as in financial resources and training materials, regional co-operation would be more practical, economical and effective than national efforts. A regional professional staff exchange programme should be another promising arrangement for sharing resources for higher level personnel, as well as for direct service. The "Social Workers for America" plan of Argentina has possibilities along this line although conceived for other purposes and on different premises.

Social service in Latin America has arrived at a stage when it can contribute and make full use of a core of leaders towards the establishment of a Regional Institute for Executive Development in Social Service that would concentrate on the top-level training of teachers, administrators, planners, method specialists and researchers in social service. The courses would be intensive and in series, each focussing on one of the above specializations so that the participants in each course would have a high degree of homogeneity as to level of basic preparation and specialization. Regional training arrangements up to the present, such as the course for administration of social welfare programmes under the auspices of the Organization of American States in Buenos Aires and CREFAL for community development have been interdisciplinary and do not provide the type of preparation needed by high level personnel in social service. Such an Institute would also be a centre for documentation in social service, for the development of training materials for all levels of personnel, and growth and adaptation of social work concepts and methods.

The regional trend toward increase in the number of schools in itself will not solve the problem of personnel deficiency and might even perpetuate uneven and low standards of training. Consolidation of training facilities to a degree that will permit better selection of students, the development of careers in education for social work and economy in the use of other resources would be a more constructive trend. In the final analysis, fewer but better staffed, equipped and financed schools and the consequent improvement of quality of the graduates would pave the way to the acceptance of social work on a professional level with the corresponding entitlements to prestige and pay. The formulation and enforcement of minimum requirements in terms of physical and teaching facilities, financing, faculty and curriculum might help toward such consolidation. Schools should however be given leeway to experiment on adaptations to local needs.

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Since the functioning of social service does not depend solely on social workers, attention should be given to the training of sub-professional workers and other types of institutional personnel. Social workers should promote the training of such personnel to assure themselves of the availability of competent collaborators. There is much resistance among social workers against the training of lower level auxiliary personnel. A clear delineation of functions and responsibilities should overcome that resistance.

Schools are not the only possible means for personnel qualification. Social service started before training and there are still many untrained persons performing social work functions. Moreover, social service must be dynamic to be functional. Inservice training and supervision are instruments for professional growth within jobs. Schools of social work should take the leadership in the establishment of consistent, continuous and progressive in-service training programmes within each institution or as cooperative efforts of several institutions.

5. The need for social research and statistics

If social service has not contributed to the body of knowledge about society and social problems, it is because it has not developed a system of reporting, collection and analysis of data concerning its activities. This is due to the absence of an orientation to research and of the ability to analyse and conceptualize from empirical data, a weakness in the training programme that is generally recognized by school directors. The report of one of the countries in the region on social service states: "We regret that the chapter about the legal and social protection of children is rather vague but this vagueness is due to an almost complete lack of documentation. Most of the social services feel there is so much work to do and they are so short of personnel, that they cannot bother to prepare any reports. We do not think this is a real excuse. All work and certainly social work should be organized and any organization without data is impossible.Documentation should be an important part of this training". ^{4/} A study undertaken by the Economic Commission for Latin America, Social Affairs Division, calls attention to the difficulty of obtaining data about social service. The statistics on assistance rendered are recorded in a form that cannot be classified nor analysed to get a complete picture of what constitutes the service, much less to evaluate the benefits, the deficiencies, the duplications and the gaps, if any exist. ^{5/}

^{4/} Background document E/LACCY/NR/L.4, August 1965 of the Latin American Conference on Children and Youth in National Development, Santiago, Chile (ECLA/UNICEF/ILPES)(mimeographed).

^{5/} "Los Servicios en una población de erradicación", Social Affairs Division, ECLA, Santiago, Chile (mimeographed).

The need for basic and operational research is so great and the areas in which such research is wanting so diverse that the problem is where to start. In the first place social workers are not trained to apply the findings of basic research in practice. In the second place, basic social research on Latin America is still rudimentary. Merely as an illustration, a few of the areas of basic research that affect directly social work practice are here mentioned:

1. The impact of technological and organizational changes on the family in Latin America.
2. The measurement of the levels of living of different population groups in the regions.
3. The identification of felt needs and aspirations of such groups and of their basic attitudes concerning ways of meeting such needs.
4. The various ways in which individual, family and social satisfactions are fulfilled and the outlooks of different social strata in Latin America relative to these.
5. The convictions that shape attitudes and behaviour.
6. Incentives to family life and the relative importance of various patterns of family life.

In operational research, which should be within the competence of social workers, the following topics are suggested for priority, because they would provide important basic information for programme planning and implementation:

1. Contributions of social service in the promulgation of social legislation.
2. Differences between the written law and its operation in social service.
3. Effects of legal provisions on the operation of programmes and their compatibility with social work principles.
4. Social welfare needs of people in rural and urban settings.
5. Inventory of existing social service facilities and measurement of their adequacy.
6. Identification of elements that can be used as bases for comparative measurement of costs and effects.
7. Identification of elements that can be used as bases for determining priorities and allocations.
8. Identification

8. Identification of areas of relationships that social service is replacing with its activities, and an evaluation of the effects of such replacement, i.e. institutions for children on parent-child relationships, community restaurants on family relationships, mothers' clubs on mother-child and husband-wife relationships etc.
9. Effects of programmes on the lives of beneficiaries - relationships, attitudes, behaviour and general ways of life.
10. Effects of local authority or its weakness on the development and administration of programmes.

An initial step towards a more systematic collection of social service data for purposes of evaluation, research and programme implementation is the revision of existing reporting forms, reducing their number, simplifying them and concentrating on statistics that are classifiable and can be interpreted.

6. International and regional co-operation

The United Nations and its specialized agencies have technical assistance programmes in various fields some of which are directly or indirectly concerned with social service. These are mostly centered around the family, children and youth, rural development, and social work training. The Organization of American States has training projects for the preparation of higher level personnel. Several organizations of voluntary nature from outside the region also administer social service programmes using local staff to some extent, while many governments, including those of the United States, the Netherlands, Israel, Germany, France and the United Kingdom, offer fellowships to study abroad.

Certain problems arise from international co-operation. Financing from international assistance usually ties programmes to rigid international standards not adapted to local conditions. Requests for technical assistance are generally formulated by interest groups for certain specializations without previous analysis of the total situation and without benefit of over-all planning. Experts sent to countries are therefore specialists, normally contribute to the concentration of interest and action in the particular field of specialization, and thus unintentionally promote uneven development. There is also little co-ordination in international action at the national level, coinciding with the lack of co-ordination among national agencies already described.

International and regional co-operation can contribute to a rational development of social service in several ways. The work of international bodies in the formulation of concepts and standards is very useful if the countries are helped to use these formulations judiciously, as sources of ideas about desirable lines of policy and as encouragement to indigenous efforts. International assistance can

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also be used to force governments to look more closely at their ways of thinking and patterns of action for the purpose of achieving better unification of purpose and co-ordination of action. International assistance could itself set an example in co-ordination by establishing more effective channels of communication at the national level.

National research both basic and operational can be encouraged and financed. Regional training facilities and opportunities for the preparation of higher level personnel such as the mentioned Regional Institute for Executive Development in Social Service can be developed through matching arrangements similar to those which the OAS is presently applying for administrators of social programmes. While technical assistance in social work training is potentially valuable, the orientation should be changed from the creation of new schools to the consolidation and strengthening of existing schools. Governments should be encouraged to conduct, using technical assistance if necessary, an evaluation of existing institutional arrangements for social service as a preliminary to requests for more specialized types of expert assistance. The relative productivity of regional conferences and seminars against that of small working groups should be considered. The former have in recent years become popular and frequent in all the sectors of social policy and have set forth numerous recommendations concerning broad social objectives. At the present stage, however, it may be that smaller meetings focussed on carefully defined problems and limited to technically qualified participants, would have more real impact on social action at the national level. Some countries have advanced more quickly in certain techniques of social service than others; technical assistance should also promote a system of social service personnel exchange that would open up heretofore untapped training opportunities within the region itself. A valuable contribution which international and regional co-operation can make is the fostering of professional communication among countries and the consequent promotion of development-consciousness and better understanding of the pre-requisites of development among social service leaders and professionals.

A CHALLENGE TO LATIN AMERICAN SOCIAL SERVICE

The traditional approach of social service assumes the existence of economic and social structures that offer real opportunities for self-support and participation to its clientele once they have been helped to overcome their special problems, whether these are economic, psychological, or social relationships.

Under conditions of mass underemployment, exclusion of the masses from effective participation in the national society, absence of really effective educational and other basic services, in which half or more of the national population belongs to the "culture of poverty" the limitations of such an approach are obvious.

/The objectives

The objectives endorsed by the Government themselves in such documents as the Charter of the Alliance for Progress suppose rapid and far-reaching changes in economic and social structures, and the policy-makers in social service need to consider how they can adapt their techniques to helping the people with whom they deal to take an active part in bringing about changes rather than in adjusting to intolerable existing situations.

UNITED NATIONS

United Nations Children's Fund

Latin American Institute for
Economic and Social Planning

Economic Commission for Latin America

LATIN AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON CHILDREN AND YOUTH IN NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Information Document N° 1

This document describes the organization of the Latin American Conference on Children and Youth in National Development, which is being held under the auspices of the Economic Commission for Latin America, the Latin American Institute for Economic and Social Planning and the United Nations Children's Fund, in collaboration with ILO, FAO, UNESCO and WHO.

A. Objectives

The importance of human resources in national development is becoming more and more recognised each day. A systematic study of the part children and youth will be called upon to play in this process is required; thus it will be possible to determine the provisions which will have to be included in the development plans so as to prepare the children and youth to comply with their future role. This role will also have to be examined from the less conventional point of view of analyzing the implicit demands that national development will impose on the coming generation and how to reflect such demands on the long term planning. The Conference will also consider other aspects such as the technical preparation of that generation, its motivation and mental attitude, so that it is prepared to take its place in the future economic and social development of the country (e.g., to meet the needs of the industry and to transform traditional agriculture). These ways of focusing the problem may be summed up as follows: what children demand from the policy and what the policy demands from the children.

The needs of children and youth are interpreted in a general sense and include the fields of health, nutrition, social welfare, education and vocational training. The stress lies on the needs of the typical children of the rural and urban areas rather than on the needs of children with special problems. The economic aspects of the matter include, besides an analysis of the consequences the foreseen plans will have for the future generation, a review of the economic measures to be imposed as an indirect means to meet some of the social needs of children within the family and the community.

The Conference will be an exchange of views between planners, administrative officers in general and officers charged to allocated financial resources, and persons actively working on the execution of programmes related to children and youth. One of the fundamental objectives is to put forth the experiences of the Latin American countries on this field, so as to prepare recommendations aimed at improving the prevailing situation.

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It is not foreseen that any determined ministry or sector will be in charge of solving the problems of children and youth. It is assumed that these problems will have to be studied by several functional ministries. Therefore, a comprehensive focusing of these factors is required in order to determine a national policy for the children.

B. Agenda

The discussions of the Conference will conform to the following provisional agenda:

- 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.

C. Date and place of the meeting

The Conference will be held in Santiago, Chile, between 28 November and 11 December, 1965, in the headquarters of the Economic Commission for Latin America (ECLA).

D. Participants

All members and associate members of ECLA have been invited to send one participant drawn from the field of economic or social planning. The five countries presenting case studies will send one additional participant to the second half of the Conference.

The meeting will also be attended by representatives of the collaborating specialized agencies, the World Bank and certain regional organizations.

E. Development of the Conference

The work of the Conference will start on Sunday 28 November at 11.00 in the library of ECLA with the inscription of the participants and distribution of documents. The official inauguration will take place on Monday 29 November at a time to be announced and the work of the Conference proper will start on the same day at 15.00 and continue each day with two work sessions from 10.00 to 12.30 and from 15.00 to 18.30, with the exception of Saturday 4 and Sunday 5 December, for which a special programme will be announced.

/The meetings

The meetings of the first week will focus the present situation of children and youth in the region. Each of the participating countries has been asked to prepare a national report on the problems affecting their children and youth. A summary of the reports will be prepared to give a picture of the needs of children within the region. Besides, documents will be presented dealing with specific problems such as demographic matters, strengthening the family, the pre-school child, health, education, nutrition and agriculture, vocational training and employment, and the special problems of Latin American youth in the urban and rural areas.

During the second week, the directors of national planning institutions of Argentina, Jamaica, Mexico, Peru and Venezuela have been invited to participate and to submit studies on the systems existing in their respective countries which integrate children and youth into national development. These studies will serve as a basis to prepare a comparative analysis of how countries may plan for their children and youth. Also in the second week discussions will be held on the strategies for developing services for children protection, the techniques to improve the planning organization and methods and the establishment of an effective national policy benefitting children.

The entire Conference will be held in plenary sessions presided over by a Chairman and Vice-Chairman nominated by the United Nations. The organization of the Conference will be carried out by the Conference Secretariat of ECLA. The Conference proceedings will be conducted in Spanish and English, but documents can be presented in the official languages of the United Nations.

F. Documents

In addition to the documents mentioned above, further documentation will be circulated to participants in order to provide orientation for the discussions. Conference documentation will be circulated before the meeting and it is hoped that participants will be able to prepare their observations for the relevant discussions to be held during the Conference.

G. Other information

Following the established procedures, official contacts related to the Conference will be made through the offices of UNICEF and the Resident Representative of the Technical Assistance Board of the United Nations. The official participants will be provided with all the necessary information, especially as regards the work programme, documentation, travel and hotel accommodation, climatic conditions in Santiago at the time of the Conference, etc., in due course.

Any further information which may be required regarding the Conference may be obtained from the following:

Co-ordinator
Latin American Conference on Children
and Youth in National Development
Economic Commission for Latin America, ECLA
Av. Providencia 871
Santiago, Chile

Cable address: UNATIONS, Santiago.

UNITED NATIONS

United Nations Children's Fund

Latin American Institute for
Economic and Social Planning

Economic Commission for Latin America

LATIN AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON CHILDREN AND YOUTH
IN NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Provisional Agenda

Organization of the work sessions

The Conference is divided into two parts, each of one week. The main emphasis during the first part is on the problems and needs of children and youth in Latin America, and the patterns of action for meeting such needs and problems.

During the second week the Conference will review various national approaches to planning. The Conference will close with a discussion of the place of children and youth in national development and the foundation of a national policy for the younger generation.

The Conference is attended by representatives from all member and associate member countries of ECLA coming from planning bodies and functional ministries, certain consultants, representatives of the specialized agencies of the United Nations and the Organization of American States, ECLA, Latin American Institute for Economic and Social Planning and UNICEF.

PART I

Monday 29 November

INAUGURATION CEREMONY

Morning

Opening statements.

H.E. Eduardo Frei, President of Chile
Dr. E. Santos Mendoza, Acting Chairman of the
Conference
Mr. Henry Labouisse, Executive Director of UNICEF
representing the sponsoring organization.

Afternoon

Organization of the Conference
Adoption of Agenda
Formation of Steering and Drafting Committee

/Afternoon (continued)

Afternoon (continued) Statement by Mr. E.J.R. Heyward, Deputy Director of UNICEF, on the Content, Method, and Organization of Planning for Children and Youth.

The Problems and needs of children and youth in Latin America

Introduction and presentation of working paper by Lic. J. Antonio Palacios.

Discussion

Working paper ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.6

Background papers E/LACCY/BP/L.1 and E/LACCY/BP/L.2

National reports, series E/LACCY/NR/L.1 to L.14

Tuesday 30 November

Morning

Continued discussion of topic

Afternoon

Demographic considerations
presented by CELADE

Working paper ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.7

Population growth in Latin America
presentation of working paper
by Dr. Hernán Romero

Discussion

Working paper ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.10

Wednesday 1 December

Morning

Patterns of action for meeting the needs of children and youth

Introduction by Mr. Ricardo Cibotti

The family role in meeting the needs of children

presentation of working paper
by Mrs. Lina Vera de Vieira

The pre-school child

presentation of working paper
by Dr. G. Barrera Moncada

Discussion

Working papers ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.3 and L.8

/Afternoon

Afternoon

Continue discussion of topics presented in the morning session

Legislation - the situation as related to minors in Latin America

presentation of the Interamerican Children's Institute (IIN) by Dr. Rafael Sajon

Discussion

Working paper ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.1 and L.2

Thursday 2 December

Morning

Educational requirements, and the right to education in Latin America

presentation of the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)

Discussion

Planning investment in education

statement by Prof. Joseph Grunwald, and Mr. Martin Carnoy

Discussion

Working papers ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.4 and L.14

Afternoon

Youth and Work in Latin America

presentation of International Labour Organization (ILO)

The development of Human Resources

Presentation of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development

Discussion

Working papers ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.1 and L.18

Friday 3 December

Morning

Health of Children and Youth

presentations of the World Health Organization (WHO)

Discussion

Working papers ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.15, L.16 and L.17

/Afternoon

Afternoon

Planning for the food and nutrition needs of
children in Latin America

presentation of the Food and Agricultural
Organization (FAO)

Discussion

Working papers ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.5

Saturday 4 December

Plenary session if required

Sunday 5 December

No meetings

PART II

Monday 6 December

Morning

Chairman's greeting to new participants

Special presentations

Youth

presentation by Prof. Jose Medina

Discussion

Working paper ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.11

Afternoon

Presentation and discussion of interim report
of the first week of the Conference

Tuesday 7 December

Morning and
afternoon

Presentation of five country case studies (Argentina,
Jamaica, Mexico, Peru and Venezuela), and
discussion of the comparative analysis of the
studies presented by the Latin American Institute
for Economic and Social Planning.

Wednesday 8 December

Morning

Continue discussion of above subjects

/ Afternoon

Afternoon

Planning systems and their enforcement in
Latin America

presented by the Latin American Institute for
Economic and Social Planning

Discussion

Working paper ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.13

Research and Training

by Mr. D.V. McGranahan, Bureau of Social Affairs

Discussion

Thursday 9 December

Morning

Human resources as a basic factor in development

statement by Dr. Raúl Prebisch

Integration of education, vocational training and
manpower planning

statement by Lic. Manuel Bravo

Discussion

Afternoon

The place of children and youth in national
development

statement by Mr. Marshall Wolfe, Social Affairs
Division, CEPAL

Discussion

Friday 10 December

Morning

No session - Drafting Committee to meet to prepare
draft report

Afternoon

Discussion and adoption of draft final report of
the Conference

Closure

Saturday 11 December

Morning

Plenary session if required

1. The first part of the document discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all transactions and activities. It emphasizes that proper record-keeping is essential for transparency and accountability, particularly in financial matters. The text suggests that organizations should implement robust systems to track every aspect of their operations, from procurement to sales.

2. The second section addresses the challenges faced by organizations in managing their data. It highlights the increasing volume of information generated by modern businesses and the difficulty of storing and retrieving this data efficiently. The author suggests that investing in advanced data management technologies can help overcome these challenges and ensure that information is readily accessible when needed.

3. The third part of the document focuses on the role of leadership in driving organizational success. It argues that effective leaders must be able to inspire and motivate their teams, set clear goals, and make strategic decisions. The text provides several examples of successful leaders and their approaches, suggesting that these can be learned from and applied in other contexts.

4. The fourth section discusses the importance of continuous learning and development for individuals and organizations. It notes that in a rapidly changing world, staying up-to-date with the latest trends and technologies is crucial for maintaining a competitive edge. The author recommends that organizations should provide ongoing training and development opportunities for their employees to ensure they have the skills needed to succeed.

5. The final part of the document concludes by summarizing the key points discussed and offering some final thoughts on the future of business. It suggests that organizations that embrace change, innovation, and a commitment to excellence will be best positioned to thrive in the years ahead.

UNITED NATIONS

United Nations Children's Fund

Latin American Institute for
Economic and Social Planning

Economic Commission for Latin America

LATIN AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON CHILDREN AND YOUTH
IN NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Information Document N° 3

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PERU		
TRINIDAD	MR. Lennox Paul	Acting Director of Social and Community Development, Community Development Division, St. Ann's.
VENEZUELA		

Country	Name	Designation and Address
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D. UNICEF Executive Board

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Dr. Joseph W. Willard	Chairman of the Programme Committee, UNICEF and Deputy Minister of Welfare, Department of National Health and Welfare, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada.

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FAO	Dr. Fabián Recalde	Regional Nutrition Officer, FAO Latin American Regional Office, Santiago, Chile.
UNESCO		
WHO		
IBRD		
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/G. Sponsoring

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Fondo de las Naciones Unidas
para la Infancia

Instituto Latinoamericano
de Planificación Económica
y Social

Comisión Económica para América Latina

CONFERENCIA LATINOAMERICANA SOBRE LA INFANCIA Y LA JUVENTUD EN EL DESARROLLO NACIONAL

Documento Informativo N° 3 Rev. 1.

Information Document N° 3 Rev. 1.

LISTA PROVISIONAL DE FUNCIONARIOS, PARTICIPANTES, OBSERVADORES, CONSULTORES Y SECRETARIA

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Lic. Adolfo López Mateos

Vice-Presidentes
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Dr. E. Santos Mendoza

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<u>País/Country</u>	<u>Nombre/Name</u>	<u>Cargo y Dirección</u> <u>Designation and Address</u>
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Comisión Económica para América Latina

CONFERENCIA LATINOAMERICANA SOBRE LA INFANCIA Y LA JUVENTUD EN
EL DESARROLLO NACIONAL

Documento Informativo N° 3/Rev. 2

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G. Organización de los Estados Americanos y Organismos Especializados/
Organization of American States and Specialized Agencies

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	Sr. Juan G. TUYA	Oficial de Informaciones
BID	Dr. Cleantho de PAIVA Leites	Representante Regional del Banco en Chile
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	Dr. José Pedro ACHARD	Encargado de la Sección Estudios Jurídico-Sociales del Departamento Técnico Montevideo, Uruguay

H. Organizaciones Patrocinantes y Secretaría/
Sponsoring Organizations and Secretariat

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	Sra. Virginia PARAISO	Oficial de Asuntos Sociales
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	Sr. Cristóbal LARA	Director General Adjunto

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Mr. E. J. R. HEYWARD	Deputy Executive Director, New York, U. S. A.
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Dr. O. VARGAS Méndez	Regional Director for the Americas, New York, U. S. A.
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Mr. A. J. REYNOLDS	Co-ordinator of the Conference, Santiago, Chile
Sra. Elena MEDEROS	Liaison Officer, UNICEF, New York, U. S. A.
Mr. William FULLER	Planning Office, New York, U. S. A.
Mr. Marcos CANDAU	Public Information
Sr. Eduardo MORALES Coello	Oficial de Programas, México

UNITED NATIONS

United Nations Children's Fund

Latin American Institute for
Economic and Social Planning

Economic Commission for Latin America

LATIN AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON CHILDREN AND YOUTH
IN NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Information Document N° 4

PROVISIONAL CHECKLIST OF DOCUMENTS

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<u>National Reports</u>				
E/LACCY/NR/L.1	Honduras	Necesidades y problemas de la infancia y la juventud en Honduras	Spanish	
E/LACCY/NR/L.1-Resumé		Summary	Spanish	English
E/LACCY/NR/L.2	Colombia	La infancia y la juventud en el desarrollo de Colombia	Spanish	
E/LACCY/NR/L.2-Resumé		Summary	Spanish	English
E/LACCY/NR/L.3	Uruguay	Informe nacional sobre los aspectos asistenciales relativos a la infancia en el Uruguay	Spanish	
E/LACCY/NR/L.3-Resumé		Summary	Spanish	English
E/LACCY/NR/L.4	Surinam	Children and Youth in Surinam	English	
E/LACCY/NR/L.4-Resumé		Summary	English	Spanish
E/LACCY/NR/L.5	Haiti	L'Enfance et la jeunesse dans le Développement national en Haiti	French	
E/LACCY/NR/L.5-Resumé		Summary		English Spanish
E/LACCY/NR/L.6	Paraguay	Informe sobre la infancia y la juventud en el Paraguay	Spanish	
E/LACCY/NR/L.6-Resumé		Summary	Spanish	English
E/LACCY/NR/L.7	Brazil	Relatório sobre a Infancia e a Juventude no Desenvolvimento Nacional	Portuguese	
E/LACCY/NR/L.7-Resumé		Summary		Spanish English

Symbol	Author	Title	Original language	Translation
E/LACCY/NR/L.8	El Salvador	Informe sobre la infancia y la <u>ju</u> ventud en el desarrollo nacional de El Salvador	Spanish	
E/LACCY/NR/L.8-Resumé		Summary	Spanish	English
E/LACCY/NR/L.9	Bolivia	Informe nacional de la República de Bolivia	Spanish	
E/LACCY/NR/L.9-Resumé		Summary	Spanish	English
E/LACCY/NR/L.10	Costa Rica	Informe nacional de Costa Rica	Spanish	
E/LACCY/NR/L.10-Resumé		Summary	Spanish	English
E/LACCY/NR/L.11	Guatemala	Informe sobre la infancia y la <u>ju</u> ventud en el desarrollo de Guatemala	Spanish	
E/LACCY/NR/L.11-Resumé		Summary	Spanish	English
E/LACCY/NR/L.12	Ecuador	La infancia y la juventud en el desarrollo económico y social del Ecuador	Spanish	
E/LACCY/NR/L.12-Resumé		Summary	Spanish	English
E/LACCY/NR/L.13	British Guiana	Children and Youth in British Guiana	English	
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<u>Case Studies</u>				
E/LACCY/CS/L.1	Peru	Informe sobre la infancia y la <u>ju</u> ventud en el desarrollo nacional; problemas y perspectivas	Spanish	English
E/LACCY/CS/L.1-Resumé		Summary	Spanish	English

Symbol	Author	Title	Original language	Translation
E/LACCY/CS/L.2	Jamaica	Case study of country policy and planning approach to the needs of children and youth	English	Spanish
E/LACCY/CS/L.2-Resumé		Summary	English	Spanish
E/LACCY/CS/L.3	Venezuela	Los problemas de la infancia y la juventud en el proceso de desarrollo de Venezuela	Spanish	English
E/LACCY/CS/L.3-Resumé		Summary	Spanish	English
E/LACCY/CS/L.4	Argentina	La infancia y la juventud en el desarrollo nacional	Spanish	English
E/LACCY/CS/L.4-Resumé		Summary	Spanish	English
E/LACCY/CS/L.5	Mexico	Integración de las necesidades de la infancia y la juventud en la planificación económica y social	Spanish	English
E/LACCY/CS/L.5-Resumé		Summary	Spanish	English

Working Papers

ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.1	International Labour Office	Youth and Work in Latin America		Spanish English
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.1-Resumé		Summary		Spanish English
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.2	Interamerican Children's Institute (OAS)	Position of minor's legislation in Latin America	Spanish	Spanish French English Portuguese
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.3	Dr. G. Barrera Moncada	El niño de edad preescolar en el desarrollo nacional	Spanish	English
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.3-Resumé		Summary	Spanish	English

Symbol	Author	Title	Original language	Translation
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.4	UNESCO	Las exigencias educativas de la sociedad actual y el derecho a la educación en América Latina	Spanish	English
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.4-Resumé		Summary	Spanish	English
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.5	Food and Agriculture Organization	Planning for the food and nutrition needs of children in Latin America	English	Spanish
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.5-Resumé		Summary	English	Spanish
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.6	J.A.Palacios	Problemas y necesidades de la infancia y la juventud en el desarrollo nacional	Spanish	English
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.6-Resumé		Summary	Spanish	English
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.7	CELADE	Demographic considerations	Spanish	English
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.7-Resumé		Summary	Spanish	English
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.8	Lina Vera de Vieira	La familia frente a las necesidades de los niños y de los adolescentes en el desarrollo nacional	Spanish	English
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.8-Resumé		Summary	Spanish	English
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.9	Latin Amer. Planning Institute	Comparative analysis of some policy approaches to planning for the needs of children and youth (based on country studies)	Spanish	English
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.9-Resumé		Summary	Spanish	English
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.10	Dr. Hernán Romero	Crecimiento de la población	Spanish	English
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.10-Resumé		Summary	Spanish	English

Symbol	Author	Title	Original language	Translation
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.11	Professor J. Medina	Youth	Spanish	English
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.11-Resumé		Summary	Spanish	English

Background Papers

E/LACCY/BP/L.1	Latin American Planning Instit.	La situación social de la Infancia y la Juventud en El Salvador	Spanish	
E/LACCY/BP/L.2	A. Gurrieri ECLA/IILPES	Situación y Perspectivas de la juventud en una población urbana popular	Spanish	
E/LACCY/BP/L.3	Professor H. Singer	Methods of Planning for the needs of children	English	Spanish
E/LACCY/BP/L.3-Resumé		Summary	English	Spanish
E/LACCY/BP/L.4	Marshall Wolfe	Social Development and Social Planning	English	Spanish

Information Documents

Information Document N° 1	Objectives, provisional agenda and programme of the Conference
N° 2	General information, administrative arrangements
N° 3	Provisional list of participants
N° 4	Provisional checklist of documents

Reference Papers

XII Conferencia Internacional de Servicio Social

1. Informe del Grupo de Trabajo Previo
2. Commission Reports
3. Social Progress through Social Planning

NACIONES UNIDAS

Fondo de las Naciones Unidas
para la Infancia

Instituto Latinoamericano
de Planificación Económica
y Social

Comisión Económica para América Latina

CONFERENCIA LATINOAMERICANA SOBRE LA INFANCIA Y LA JUVENTUD EN
EL DESARROLLO NACIONAL

Documento Informativo Nº 4 Rev.1.

Information Document Nº 4 Rev.1.

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Símbolo Symbol	Autor Author	Título Title	Original	Traducción Translation
<u>Informes Nacionales/National Reports</u>				
E/LACCY/NR/L.1	Honduras	Necesidades y problemas de la infancia y la juventud en Honduras	Español	
E/LACCY/NR/L.1-Resumen		Resumen	Español	Inglés
E/LACCY/NR/L.2	Colombia	La Infancia y la juventud en el desarrollo de Colombia	Español	
E/LACCY/NR/L.2-Resumen		Resumen	Español	Inglés
E/LACCY/NR/L.3	Uruguay	Informe nacional sobre los aspectos asistenciales relativos a la infancia en el Uruguay	Español	
E/LACCY/NR/L.3-Resumen		Resumen	Español	Inglés
E/LACCY/NR/L.4	Surinam	Children and Youth in Surinam	Inglés	
E/LACCY/NR/L.4-Resumen		Resumen	Inglés	Español
E/LACCY/NR/L.5	Haiti	L'Enfance et la jeunesse dans le Développement national en Haiti	Francés	
E/LACCY/NR/L.5-Resumen		Resumen		Español Inglés
E/LACCY/NR/L.6	Paraguay	Informe sobre la infancia y la juventud en el Paraguay	Español	
E/LACCY/NR/L.7	Brasil	Relatório sobre a Infancia e a Juventude no Desenvolvimento Nacional.	Portugués	
E/LACCY/NR/L.7-Resumen		Resumen		Español Inglés

Símbolo Symbol	Autor Author	Título Title	Original	Traducción Translation
E/LACCY/NR/L.8	El Salvador	Informe sobre la infancia y la juventud en el desarrollo nacional de El Salvador	Español	
E/LACCY/NR/L.8-Resumen		Resumen	Español	Inglés
E/LACCY/NR/L.9	Bolivia	Informe nacional de la República de Bolivia	Español	
E/LACCY/NR/L.9-Resumen		Resumen	Español	Inglés
E/LACCY/NR/L.10	Costa Rica	Informe nacional de Costa Rica	Español	
E/LACCY/NR/L.10-Resumen		Resumen	Español	Inglés
E/LACCY/NR/L.11	Guatemala	Informe sobre la infancia y la juventud en el desarrollo de Guatemala	Español	
E/LACCY/NR/L.11-Resumen		Resumen	Español	Inglés
E/LACCY/NR/L.12	Ecuador	La infancia y la juventud en el desarrollo económico y social del Ecuador	Español	
E/LACCY/NR/L.12-Resumen		Resumen	Español	Inglés
E/LACCY/NR/L.13	British Guiana	Children and Youth in British Guiana	Inglés	
E/LACCY/NR/L.13-Resumen		Resumen	Inglés	Español
E/LACCY/NR/L.14	Cuba	Informe de Cuba a la Conferencia	Español	
E/LACCY/NR/L.14-Resumen		Resumen	Español	Inglés
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E/LACCY/NR/L.16	Nicaragua		Español	
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E/LACCY/NR/L.17				
E/LACCY/NR/L.17-Resumen				

Estudios especiales/Case studies

E/LACCY/CS/L.1	Perú	Informe sobre la infancia y la juventud en el desarrollo nacional; problemas y perspectivas	Español	Inglés
E/LACCY/CS/L.1-Resumen		Resumen	Español	Inglés
E/LACCY/CS/L.2	Jamaica	Case study of country policy and planning approach to the needs of children and youth	Inglés	Español
E/LACCY/CS/L.2-Resumen		Resumen	Inglés	Español
E/LACCY/CS/L.3	Venezuela	Los problemas de la infancia y la juventud en el proceso de desarrollo de Venezuela	Español	Inglés
E/LACCY/CS/L.3-Resumen		Resumen	Español	Inglés
E/LACCY/CS/L.4	Argentina	La infancia y la juventud en el desarrollo nacional	Español	Inglés
E/LACCY/CS/L.4-Resumen		Resumen	Español	Inglés
E/LACCY/CS/L.5	México	Integración de las necesidades de la infancia y la juventud en la planificación económica y social	Español	Inglés
E/LACCY/CS/L.5-Resumen		Resumen	Español	Inglés

Símbolo Symbol	Autor Author	Título Title	Original	Traducción Translation
<u>Documentos de trabajo/Working papers</u>				
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.1	International Labour Office	Youth and Work in Latin America		Español Inglés
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.1-Resumen		Resumen		Español Inglés
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.2	Instituto Interamericano del Niño (OEA)	Legislación-Situación relativa a la minoridad en Latino América	Español	Inglés Francés Portugués
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.3	Dr. G. Barrera Moncada	El niño de edad preescolar en el desarrollo nacional	Español	Inglés
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.3-Resumen		Resumen	Español	Inglés
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.4	UNESCO	Las Exigencias educativas de la sociedad actual y el derecho a la educación en América Latina	Español	Inglés
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.4-Resumen		Resumen	Español	Inglés
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.5	Food and Agriculture Organization	Planning for the food and nutrition needs of children in Latin America	Inglés	Español
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.5-Resumen		Resumen	Inglés	Español
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.6	J.A. Palacios	Problemas y necesidades de la infancia y la juventud en el desarrollo nacional	Español	Inglés
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.6-Resumen		Resumen	Español	Inglés
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.7	CELADE	Demographic considerations	Inglés	Español
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.7-Resumen		Resumen	Inglés	Español

Símbolo Symbol	Autor Author	Título Title	Original	Traducción Translation
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.8	Lina Vera de Vieira	La familia frente a las necesidades de los niños y de los adolescentes en el desarrollo nacional	Español	Inglés
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.8-Resumen		Resumen	Español	Inglés
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.9	ILPES	Enfoques para una política de la in- fancia y la juventud en el desarrollo eco- nómico: examen de cinco casos latino- americanos	Español	Inglés
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.9-Resumen		Resumen	Español	Inglés
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.10	Dr. Hernán Romero	El crecimiento de la población de América Latina y las primeras etapas de las políticas de población; su influencia sobre los problemas de la juventud y del desarrollo	Español	Inglés
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.10-Resumen		Resumen	Español	Inglés
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.11	Profesor J. Medina	Juventud	Español	Inglés
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.11-Resumen		Resumen	Español	Inglés
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.12	División de Asuntos So- ciales, CEPAL	Children and Youth in social service programmes	Inglés	Español
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.13	Sr. C. Matus	Experiencia del funcionamiento de los sistemas de pla- nificación en Am. Lat.	Español	Inglés
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.14	Mr. Martin Carnoy	Planning Education al Investment	Inglés	Español
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.15	OMS	Programación de la Salud	Español	Inglés

Símbolo Symbol	Autor Author	Título Title	Original	Traducción Translation
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.16	Dr. John Kevany	The nutritional ecology of the infant and pre-school child: Nutritional problems in Latin America	Inglés	Español
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.17	Dr. Alfred Yankauer	National planning and the construction of maternal and child hygiene norms in Latin America	Inglés	Español
ST/ECLA/CONF.20/L.18	BIRD	World Bank Group's role in the development of Human Resources	Inglés	Español

Documentos de antecedentes/Background papers

E/LACCY/BP/L.1	Instituto Latinoamericano de Planificación Económica y Social	La situación social de la Infancia y la Juventud en El Salvador	Español	
E/LACCY/BP/L.2	A. Gurrieri ECLA/ILPES	Situación y Perspectivas de la juventud en una población urbana popular	Español	
E/LACCY/BP/L.2/Add.1	División de Asuntos Sociales CEPAL	Situación y perspectivas educativas de la juventud de una población urbana marginal	Español	
E/LACCY/BP/L.2/Add.2	División de Asuntos Sociales CEPAL	Los servicios públicos en una población de erradicación	Español	
E/LACCY/BP/L.3	Professor H. Singer	Methods of Planning for the needs of children	Inglés	Español
E/LACCY/BP/L.3-Resumen		Resumen		

Símbolo Symbol	Autor Author	Título Title	Original	Traducción Translation
E/LACCY/BP/L.4	División de Asuntos Sociales, CEPAL	Desarrollo Social y planificación social, estudio de problemas conceptuales y prácticos en América Latina	Español	Inglés
E/LACCY/BP/L.5	Virginia Paraiso, Social Affairs Officer, Division of Social Affairs ECLA	Social Service in Latin America: functions and relationships to development	Inglés	
E/LACCY/BP/L.6	OMS	Grupo de Estudios sobre Planificación de Salud	Español	

Documentos Informativos/Information Documents

Documento Informativo Nº 1	Objetivos, temario y programa provisionales de la Conferencia
Nº 2	Información general, arreglos administrativos
Nº 3	Lista provisional de participantes
Nº 4	Lista provisional de documentos

Documentos de referencia/Reference Papers

XII Conferencia Internacional de Servicios Social

1. Informe del Grupo de Trabajo Previo
2. Commission Reports
3. Social Progress through Social Planning

UNITED NATIONS

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Economic and Social Planning

Economic Commission for Latin America

LATIN AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON CHILDREN AND YOUTH IN
NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Information Document No 5

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.

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LATIN AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON CHILDREN AND YOUTH IN NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Information Document N° 6

RULES AND PROCEDURES AT THE CONFERENCE

1. Sessions

- (a) The Conference will convene on Monday, 29 November at 11:00 a.m. and will continue to meet daily from 10:00 a.m. until 12:30, and from 3:00 p.m. until 6:30 p.m. through Friday, 11 December, with the exception of Saturday 4, unless otherwise indicated by the Conference Chairman, and Sunday 5 December.

2. Officers and Committees

- (a) The Conference officers include the Chairman, the two Vice Chairmen, the Rapporteur, and the Conference Secretary. The Chairman or one of the Vice Chairmen shall preside at all sessions of the Conference. The Chairman and Vice Chairman shall conduct the Conference in accordance with the rules and procedures established for ECLA, as applicable to this Conference.
- (b) The Conference committees include a Steering Committee and a Drafting Committee.
- (c) The Steering Committee consists of the Conference Chairman, Vice Chairmen, the Conference Secretary and representatives of the three sponsoring organizations. Meetings of this Committee will be scheduled by the Chairman.
- (d) The Drafting Committee consists of the Vice Chairman (one of whom will be the Chairman of this Committee), two selected participants, the Rapporteur, and representatives of the three sponsoring organizations. While preparing the interim report on the first week of the Conference, and later the final report of the Conference, the Drafting Committee will be in consultation with the authors of papers, and main speakers.

/(e) The

- (e) The Rapporteur shall prepare at the end of each day a Summary of deliberations which will be used by the Drafting Committee in preparing the interim report of the first week, and the full report of the Conference.
- (f) Questions concerning the administrative organization of the Conference should be directed to the Conference Officer.

3. Agenda

- (a) The over-all agenda of the Conference shall be adopted at the first session of the Conference.
- (b) The Steering Committee shall establish the Order of the Day which will be circulated to participants prior to the sessions.

4. Conduct of sessions

- (a) In view of the large number of participants, speakers wishing to take part in discussions are invited to notify the Conference Secretary, preferably prior to the session at which they wish to speak. However, speakers may be recognized during the sessions by the Conference Chairman.

5. Report of the Conference

- (a) On the first day of the second part of the Conference, the tentative conclusions and recommendations resulting from the first week's deliberations shall be presented by the Rapporteur and discussed by the Conference. On the final day of the Conference, the conclusions and recommendations of the entire Conference will be discussed. Suggestions or proposals for tentative conclusions and recommendations may be made at any time, but shall be discussed during the two sessions mentioned above. It is expected that participants submit recommendations in writing to the Conference Secretary.
- (b) The Conference is an informal meeting leading to conclusions which will be included in the final report. Resolutions will not be prepared and presented to the Conference, and therefore there will be no voting.

6. Languages

- (a) Spanish and English shall be the two working languages of the Conference.

7. Publicity

- (a) Publicity on the Conference shall be handled by the information officers of the sponsoring organizations.

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Information Document No. 7

THE MEANING OF PLANNING TO TAKE ACCOUNT OF CHILDREN AND YOUTH

Statement by E.J.R. Heyward

Introduction

The object of this conference is that countries should establish the place of children and youth in their national development, in a more informed and systematic way. In the early stages of the conference we shall be thinking more about WHY this is advisable, in the later stages more about HOW. I should like to say a few words about this second question now, so that we may be reflecting on it in advance of the actual discussion.

Obviously one of the methods for getting an appropriate place for children and youth in development, is to take account of children and youth in planning.

But people may ask is this really necessary? Economic development will raise the standard of living, which will bring substantial direct benefits to children and youth, as well as permitting the nation to spend more on social services. Is it necessary to do anything more? My answer is YES for two reasons:

- 1) Children and youth are not only beneficiaries of development, but are also the agents of change and development, and should be prepared for this role. As Dr. Singer points out, in a perspective plan of 15 years, the proportion of children and young people to be prepared for life during the plan will constitute 3/4 of the people alive at the end of the plan, including half the producers.
- 2) Now considering children and youth as beneficiaries, it has become clear that not all additions to the GNP in terms of money improve welfare, unless people are shown how to use money and how to adapt to new social conditions. For example, in some parts of the world, people changing from subsistence to a money economy feed themselves and their children less well than before. The situation of children in peri-urban areas is too well-known to need mention.

/The objectives

The objectives of planning to take account of children and youth

Well, supposing it is advisable to take account of children and youth in national planning, what would we try to achieve?

i) The preparation of children and young people to carry on the process of economic and social development involves the transmission of religious, moral, social, cultural and political values. For example, the attitudes with which people grow up are very important to the success of any plan - are they still imprisoned in fatalism, to what degree is their thinking oriented towards the future?

ii) There is a specific task of preparing children and youth for their future work prospects. Important steps in this direction have begun to be made by manpower planning (or the planning of investment in human resources), and the reorientation of the educational system to give more attention to scientific, technical and rural subjects. But the Conference documentation shows that this point of view has a broader application. A national development plan always makes implicit demands on children and youth as they grow up. It is better if these demands are made explicit and provided for.

iii) We want to obtain social benefits for children and youth and mothers, as a vulnerable group of the population. Moreover, the absence of some form of care can produce damage that is irreversible later. This has recently been found to be true for the nutrition of the young child. It is almost certainly true for his emotional development and even his intellectual development.

/The content

The content of planning to take account of children and youth

I turn now to the content of planning to take account of children and youth:

(i) Each ministry will be preparing its plan. 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. The Conference documentation shows however that these plans should not be prepared in isolation. Many of the provisions are complementary. If we approach planning from the point of the problems of children and youth needing to be solved, these ministries need the help of each other, and of other ministries as well.

Let us take the example of children who do not go to school and of children who drop-out of school in their first or second year. The ministers of education have recently pointed out the need for a school meal; the case of children's sight, shoes and clothing are other important aspects. Perhaps even more important is what happens to the pre-school child, which is usually the concern of the ministry of social welfare. If we take the problem of nutrition of children as another example - it concerns at once the ministries of agriculture, health, education and possibly community development. The children's problems arising from unplanned urbanization concern local government, social services, health and so on.

Usually there is a member and section of the planning commission concerned with the co-ordination of the social fields. However, the co-ordination of the social fields with respect to children's problems, is not enough to cover the whole field.

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

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

/(b) The

- (b) The largest families are generally the poorest per caput. Consequently, housing policy is very important for children.
- (c) 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.
- (d) One of the greatest problems of youth is that the rate of unemployment is usually higher in that age group than in others. 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 prepare employment: For example, some of the Conference documentation seems to assume that the modernization of agriculture will reduce employment in rural areas. Some types of modernization certainly will. But it is surely worth studying whether there are also other ways to transform agriculture, for example how better education may teach young farmers how to use higher yielding seeds, how to use water, chemical fertilizers and pesticides, and rural credit.

(iii) Some of the "economic" provisions of a national development plan preparation of children and youth, and protection of the family. Development means growth and change. 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 have to be made substantially by the rising generation.

- (a) Land reform, colonization areas and irrigation areas require preparation of young farmers for the reason indicated above;
- (b) Industrial development regions and new towns require preparation of young workers and provision for women with young children;
- (c) Some of the negative effects of industrialization may be reduced or removed by preventive action, e.g. the education of women for adaptation to town life. Other measures to protect the family.

/(d) The

- (d) The improvement of the situation of their children may be an incentive to secure the greater participation of the population in work through the plan for a better future.

These are some of the reasons why planners need to understand something about the growth and development and problems of children and youth.

Methods of planning to take account of children and youth

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 on the concern with cost/benefit ratios. At present, I believe most countries do not have the statistics to have a sophisticated planning of this type. Such matters constitute very important fields for research, it seems to me, rather than conclusions by this Conference.

The methods of planning in the country we are concerned with here are much more empirical.

- (1) The first step is to reach an agreed philosophy or point of view to recognize this as a complex problem involving many interrelations among economic sectors as well as social sectors, and requiring economic measures as well as social measures.
- (2) Second to gather and analyse information about the present situation of children and youth and present trends. The documentation of the Conference has made a tremendous step in this direction, but this is a continuing task in each country.
- (3) Third, to prepare the plan from the point of view of problems, as well as from the point of view of instruments offered by the various services and ministries; not to neglect problems that are not the direct major concern of any one ministry; to set priorities.
- (4) Fourth, to look for rational paths of development of services within each sector, and taking account of the mutual relations among sectors. To look for rational investment in the life cycle of a generation as it

/passes through

passes through infancy pre-school age, school age and youth, the age of entry to an occupation; then in its further stages the generation will more than repay the investment that has been made in it. In this task, international comparisons will help, particularly the socio-economic profiles developed by the Bureau of Social Affairs. Account may be taken of the different stages of industrial development and levels of income of different countries.

(5) Fifth, to co-ordinate the plans of the different sectors bearing on children and youth, not to plan for a special sector for them. In this way to obtain a unified view of problems and possibilities of action, which is the superiority of the planning method over isolated programmes.

(6) Sixth, to develop a national policy or national programme for children and youth. 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.

I have only presented an outline of methods. I am sure that the excellent documents that the countries and experts have prepared for the Conference, and the dialogue between planners and people directly concerned with problems of children and youth, will greatly advance our understanding of this subject.

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Information Document No. 9

THE BILL OF RIGHTS OF THE FAMILY

In voting the Bill of Rights of the Family, the General Assembly has decided that it constitutes a basic programme only, which can be made more precise and amended in the future and aimed essentially at directing and guiding the action of the Union and of its members on the international plane. The Assembly has also wished to pay a tribute to the value and scope of the articles concerning the Family contained in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted by the United Nations in 1948.

Article 1. The Family is a natural community based on marriage. It constitutes the fundamental element of society. It is a permanent source of human energy.

While leaving to the family entire responsibility for its own future, the State shall ensure the free fulfilment of its mission, especially the full growth and development of each member of the group, the transmission of life and the education of the children.

Article 2. Once the legal age of marriage is reached all men and women have the right to found a family. The State cannot impose any restriction on this right on account of either race, nationality or religion.

Marriages can only be arranged with the free and full consent of the interested parties.

Article 3. Husband and wife have equal rights and duties in marriage.

The exercise of such rights and the performance of such duties by both partners, as regards both the family community and the education of the children shall be so organized as to ensure the unity and stability of the family.

Article 4. The responsibility for the child's life and education rests primarily with the parents.

Article 5. The State shall recognize the institution of the Family and guarantee it by law.

Article 6. The State has a responsibility to provide protection and help for the Family, particularly protection against social evils and against attacks by others on its liberty, its security or its morality.

/The State

The State itself shall abstain from any infringement of the liberty and intimacy of the home.

Article 7. The intervention of the authorities in order to protect the members of the family and, in particular, the children, shall be limited to exceptional cases, shall always be in accordance with the law. The methods of helping the family used by private or public organizations, shall respect the autonomy of the family community.

Article 8. Economic and social institutions shall be so organized as to ensure a normal standard of living to families irrespective of the number of their children.

The financial resources of the home must be sufficient, to enable the mother to devote herself to her family, without being obliged to work outside her home.

Article 9. Every family has a right to security. Social security systems especially as regards unemployment, accidents, sickness, disablement, old age and early death shall be organized in accordance with the needs of the family.

Taxation schemes shall take family charges into account.

Article 10. The birth of children imposes on parents a responsibility which only ends with the children's education.

Parents have a right to choose the kind of education their children shall be given.

The controls opened by the authorities shall always respect the rights of the head of the family in the person of the father or mother.

The authorities shall watch that the rights of parents regarding the education of their children and their liberty in the choice of teachers shall not be limited by too heavy financial burdens.

Article 11. Families as such have a right to be represented on the official and other bodies responsible for giving advice to or managing social, economic and cultural institutions.

(This declaration was adopted by the General Assembly of the International Union of Family Organisations held at Brussels on 28th July 1951.)

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Information Document N° 12

Provisional Agenda (Rev.1)

PART II

Monday 6 December, 1965

Morning

Chairman's greeting to new participants

Latin American youth as a field for social research

Presentation by Prof. José Medina Echavarría of the
Latin American Institute for Economic and Social
Planning

Discussion

Working paper ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.11

Afternoon

Planning to take account of children and youth

Presentation by Mr. E.J.R. Heyward, Deputy Executive
Director of UNICEF

Review of the situation of children and youth in
Latin America

Presentation by Dr. Oscar Vargas Mendez,
Regional Director for the Americas of UNICEF

Presentation of the interim report of the first week
of the Conference by the Rapporteur

Discussion

Tuesday 7 December, 1965

Morning

Presentation of five country case studies
(Argentina, Jamaica, Mexico, Peru and Venezuela)

Approach to a children and youth policy in relation to
economic development: analysis of five Latin American
case studies

Presentation by Messrs. Emilio Rojas and Hugo Zemelman,
consultants of the Latin American Institute for Economic
and Social Planning

Working papers E/LACCY/CS/L.1 to L.5/Add.1, and
ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.9

Afternoon

Continuation of presentations and discussions

Wednesday 8 December, 1965

Morning

Continuation of discussion

Planning systems and their enforcement in Latin America

Presentation by Mr. Carlos Matus of the Latin American
Institute for Economic and Social Planning

Discussion

Working papers ST/EX LA/Conf.20/L.13

Afternoon

Continuation of discussions

Research and training

Presentation by Mr. Donald V. McGranahan,
Research and Development Branch, Bureau of Social
Affairs of the United Nations

Discussion

Thursday 9 December, 1965

Morning

Discussion

Integration of education, vocational training and
manpower planning

Presentation by Lic. Manuel Bravo

Statement by the Latin American Institute for Economic
and Social Planning

Discussion

Afternoon

The place of children and youth in national development

Presentation by Mr. Marshall Wolfe, Social Affairs
Division of ECLA

National Policy on children and youth

Statement by Mr. Edward Iwaszkiewicz,
Director of Planning, UNICEF

Discussion

Friday 10 December, 1965

Morning and
Afternoon

Preparation and discussion of draft final report

Closure

Saturday 11 December, 1965

Morning

Plenary session if required

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Information paper No..13

PROVISIONAL REPORT OF THE RAPPORTEUR ON THE WORK
OF THE CONFERENCE DURING ITS FIRST WEEK

1. The first part of the report discusses the general situation of the country and the progress of the work during the year. It also mentions the results of the various investigations and the conclusions drawn from them.

2. The second part of the report deals with the specific details of the work, including the methods used, the results obtained, and the conclusions reached. It also mentions the various difficulties encountered and the ways in which they were overcome.

3. The third part of the report discusses the future prospects of the work and the steps that will be taken to carry it out. It also mentions the various organizations and individuals who are assisting in the work and the ways in which they are being helped.

4. The fourth part of the report discusses the various organizations and individuals who are assisting in the work and the ways in which they are being helped. It also mentions the various difficulties encountered and the ways in which they were overcome.

ACCOUNT OF PROCEEDINGS

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

The aim pursued at the Conference was to look at 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.

In both cases, however, 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.

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 the 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.

/This decision

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.

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.

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 development process is under way.

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 in the region is aggravated by the magnetic attraction of urban areas in process of industrialization. Consequently, Latin America shows high levels of "incomplete urbanization", characterized by the formation of "poverty belts" around the larger towns;
- (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

with over-all population growth results in mass urban under-employment and unsatisfactory conditions in respect of sanitation, health, housing and education.

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.

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.

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.^{1/}

In examining the principal problems presented in the national reports,^{1/} the conclusion was reached that 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;

^{1/} ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.16.

- (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) Promotion of national and international co-ordination between the development programmes affecting children and youth.

The analysis should establish the relationship existing between the real needs and social behaviour, define the necessary mechanisms and institutions to meet those needs and to solve those problems; and examine the prerequisites for the establishment of such a policy, and the international co-operation that could contribute to it, especially that forthcoming from the United Nations.

The following are the basic aspects of the children's needs considered: 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.

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 points meriting most careful consideration was the imbalance between the urban and the rural environment, 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.

Owing to the characteristics of the development process in Latin America, the social conditions of the life in the poorer urban sectors were worsening, whereas there had been no significant change in the rural sector. The distinguishing feature of Latin America's rural area was its inability to meet its own social, economic and political needs. 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

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.

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

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.

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

both parents (through illegitimacy, desertion or orphanhood) created serious emotional problems which in the long run could become social problems.

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.

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.

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.

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

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.

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.

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).

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.

The best available information on these variables has been drawn upon to work out for each country, as well as for the region as a whole, the theoretical or expected proportion of the population that is under twenty years of age in relation to the total. In nearly all the high-fertility Latin American countries, it has been noted that the proportion in question is less than would be expected from the line of reasoning set forth above. After a consideration of the divergencies, it has been concluded that, as a result of the decline in mortality, the infant-youth population in these

/countries is

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.

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.

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.

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.

The second and final part of the paper is devoted to data on the differential distribution of infants and youths into different kinds of families. Since hardly any of the countries of Latin America have tabulated their census data in terms of families, several tables from a special programme of family tabulations from the 1960 census of population in Puerto Rico are selected for analysis to illustrate the usefulness of this kind of data. One table on the distribution of large-children families according to different kinds of family structure shows that a proportionately smaller share of large-children families is found in each of certain kinds of families less qualified for raising children: non-husband-wife families (i.e., "broken families") with a male head or with a female head or husband-wife families whose head is 65 years of age or over. Husband-wife families where the head is under 65 have proportionately more large-children families; only in families where the head is employed in agriculture is this true, however. In the non-agricultural sector, lower income families with more large-children families offset the fewer large families in the higher income group of families.

Another table studies school attendance and school retardation in the ages 6 to 11 by family earner status among husband-wife families whose head is not employed in agriculture. When the level of family income is not taken into consideration, it is found not very surprisingly that school attendance is poorest and school retardation is worst in families with no earners at all and that both improve with improvement in family earner status; less expected is the finding that educational performance is best of all in the considerable number of families (25 per cent of all these families) which have two or more full-year earners. This last relationship largely disappears when families are divided into lower and higher family income groups. In the lower income group, it is actually reversed; where the presence of two or more full-year earners probably signifies dire necessity more than just a desire to live more comfortably, both school retardation and school attendance are poorer than in families with only one full-year earner.

/The second

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.

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 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.

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.

/As there

As there is a great social demand for birth control, and public opinion appears to be prepared for it to be practised, it is 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.

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.^{2/}

^{2/} Reference document presented by the Latin American Demographic Centre - see Annex II.

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).

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 and 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.

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.

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

- (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

whose mental attitude would seem to be least receptive to contraception (Mexico), a certain proportion (37.5 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.

During the discussion of the study 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. 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.7 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 consistent with each country's economic and cultural trends, 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 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.

/Those supporting

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.

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.

B. THE FAMILY AND LIVING CONDITIONS OF CHILDREN AND YOUTH

The general features of the social situation of the Latin American countries outlined in the foregoing section have a number of adverse effects on the organization of the family and on the living conditions of children.

The present section presents in somewhat more detail the results of the analyses made in the documents and discussions on this subject, with special attention to the main defects in the education, employment, nutrition and health of children and young people, and the action taken to improve these defects in Latin America.

The unsatisfactory conditions of the family in Latin America^{3/} are the same for the urban as for the rural population, and vitiate any attempt to attain a better level of living. The lack of cultural, social, legal, technical or economic training prevents the family from playing an active part in contributing to the country's economic and social development.

Thus far the needs of the family and of children have not been presented from a sectoral standpoint, as in the case of health, housing, education and nutrition. The sectoral approach is all the more important since the family in Latin America has ceased to be a vehicle for the transmission of culture, perhaps because the patterns that mould it are not suited to the circumstances of today, or because they simply do not exist. In fact, a picture of urban life, with its relative attractions, has been widely diffused, through all the various communication media, and young people realize that they are unable to attain a similar standard of living because of their ignorance and poverty, and their manifold cultural handicaps. This has underlined the urgent need to deal with the special needs of children and young people in accordance with the demands of social change.

3/ This part of the debate was based on a study of document ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.18.

This approach should include such aspects as the technical training of young people; their provision with better and more appropriate tools with which to face life; an increase in the number of paid jobs open to them; and, in general, access to guidance where it is not provided either by the community or the family. Young people are not merely a potential development factor, they can also be an active catalyst so long as the policies adopted enable them to realize those potentialities to the full. The factors underlying the problems that families have to face in Latin America are low income levels, unemployment and underemployment, the unsatisfactory nature of the social welfare services, poor utilization of resources, the large housing deficit as a result of the almost mass migration from the countryside and consequent growth of the towns in nearly all the Latin American countries; and the lack of technical skills in the migrant population which have been thrown unprepared into urban life from an agricultural working-class environment. The strengthening of the family can be regarded as one way in which to improve the situation of children and young people and, more generally speaking, of the community at large. A campaign of that nature presupposes the tackling of cultural, social, legal, educational and recreational questions, and, in order to achieve successful results, a policy of co-ordination among agencies should be established so as to make the best use of the existing resources. As a means of putting it into practice, it would be necessary to consider the specific techniques for dealing with the problems arising from the needs of children and young people within the context of the family; the implementation of projects aimed at strengthening the family, carried out by professional experts with long experience in the matter; and the organization of professional social service teams in all countries of the region.

For purposes of analysing the problems affecting the family, some delegations pointed out that it was impossible to consider a single type of family in Latin America in view of the widely varying indicators in each country. These include the predominance of rural or urban sectors, a virtually minimal income and a middle class with low income levels, ignorance, illiteracy, geographical factors, different cultural standards,

development levels. Hence the different strata of Latin American society diversified the problem and offered a wide range of solutions and possibilities for action. In practice, there were cases of backwardness in the family institution, where the latter had nevertheless developed at the same pace as the society of which it formed part. In many countries solutions had been advocated and the family had been taken as a whole in relation to the community or to educational institutions; thus, there was a new tendency to establish, through the school, a directed liaison between the family per se and the child.

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 angle of its own biological, emotional and social process was presented to the Conference.^{4/} 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.

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 reorientation of educational policy.

^{4/} See ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.3

/(d) The

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

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.

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 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.

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.

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.

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.

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 reference to primary education, and as their resources were scanty, the educational needs of the pre-school child were relegated to second place. In order to lay the foundation of a strategy designed to solve the problems of the young child, the following measures were suggested:

- (a) Co-ordination of soundly conceived plans that take into account both the child's needs and the attitude of its parents;
- (b) The application of the plan on three fronts: health, nutrition and child care and education;
- (c) Optimum utilization of existing resources;
- (d) Specialized studies and analysis of the usual environment of the school child;
- (e) Family education and utilization of the family's own resources, however meagre, in the interests of the plans; and
- (f) Inter-agency co-ordination.

/The problems

The problems of the family, children and youth were examined as a whole 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.^{5/} In that connexion, it was pointed out that a correct definition of the term "minority" would have important implications for the different branches of positive law enacted in Latin America.

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. The notion of a type of law of this nature is based on two postulates, first, the child, second, the regulatory provisions, always provided that the body of rules must be regarded as an integrated unit that extends from the top of the constitutional hierarchy down through decisions of an administrative nature, and in the specific case of the care of children the system of regulations must form part of the whole juridical structure. 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.

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

Such a right 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 bias.

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.

There were detailed discussions of education, employment, nutrition and health.

In relation to the subject of education the participants discussed how far the educational systems meet certain needs imposed by the characteristics and trends of present-day society, and to the needs that can be foreseen for the future.^{6/}

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 real effect of such documents? 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.

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.

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 enrolments.

Nevertheless there are serious gaps. One of the most important is the double system of primary education involved in 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 reserve of intelligence.

Another serious problem is teacher training, and it is significant that over 40 per cent of the existing teachers have no professional qualification.

/The many

The many other problems discussed included the highly inadequate school facilities; 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 lack of educational and vocational guidance, and of studies on the needs for different types of professional and other workers, and so forth.

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 has 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 defective educational administration and teaching defects in the schools themselves.

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 humanity 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.

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.

/Another factor

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.

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 vocational 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 Fritman 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.

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.

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 remodelled from top to bottom. 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:

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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 extra-mural methods of education or else incorporate them into the official system.

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.

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.

Lastly, the barriers that exist outside the schools 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.

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.

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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 be taken away from 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.

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.

Emphasis was also laid on the need for constant revision of the subject-matter taught, since education should also be conceived with an eye to the future.

The discussion of the subject of children and labour in Latin America was based on a document outlining labour conditions for minors and systems of apprenticeship and vocational training.^{7/}

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.

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.

^{7/} ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.1.

The situation is not satisfactory as regards technical and vocational training. In the trade schools these courses are very long (4-6 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.

On the subject of that information 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.

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 seeking the best combinations of available capital and labour in the establishment of new enterprises.

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.

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In the discussion of planning as a means of meeting the food and nutritional needs of children in Latin America,^{8/} 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.

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 breast-fed children, pre-school children and pregnant women.

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 a 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.

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.

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 unfavorable foreign trade balance and low income in the different socio-economic population groups.

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 general

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and local maternal and child hygiene regulations repeat the same formulas that derive from the classical schemes of that discipline.

Another problem is the agricultural training of young people,, which could be achieved through the reform of the primary education course.

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, the possibility of obtaining more food in relation to income, 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. 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.

Nutrition is closely related to health. Two documents on the subject were presented to the Conference:^{9/} the first, describing the nutritional environment of the breast-fed 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.

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

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 that 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.

The concept of extending health services faithfully follows the principle that all mothers and children in the community should be given the same care. The standards of such a system require that the mother should visit a doctor every month during the pre-natal period, and once a fortnight as from the eighth month. In the child's case, such visits should be made monthly during the first six months of its life, and once a quarter during the next two years. By this means, it is hoped to lay the foundations of health habits which will subsequently contribute to the efficacious preventive treatment of ailments which might have more serious consequences.

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.

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.

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.

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 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 indigency 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.

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.

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.

/The participants

The participants agreed on the need to plan public health activities and to integrate the administration of the relevant services. Funds for this purpose are scarce, and not all the requirements can be dealt with at the same time, but due heed should be taken not to allow the use of statistics and averages to mask a situation that can be described as critical. It was acknowledged that the administration of the health services has serious shortcomings, and that until they are remedied the rational utilization of the resources available will be impossible.

/C. PATTERNS

C. PATTERNS OF ACTION FOR MEETING THE NEEDS OF CHILDREN AND YOUTH

The foregoing analyses showed 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. For this purpose, in addition to giving an indication of the conventional resources, the Conference sought for methods and policies based on a more general and dynamic vision.

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.

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.

The needs in question are manifold and relate to various sectors of economic and social planning, such as nutrition, health, 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.

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 taken in the interests of children and young people.

/The State

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.

As a result, there are a number of intersecting facets of interest to this population stratum, such as sectors, means or instruments of action, policies, and so on. Two basic types of problem 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.

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 administrative and institutional problems of the public administration.

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 the mercy of an individual sector's growth. 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.

The fact that this point of co-ordination should be established in the heart of the development planning machinery undoubtedly poses a wide range of problems. How much complementarity is there between the organizations

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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?

Again, how is the necessary co-ordination to be handled administratively? What levels should it involve, and how is it to take place in terms of target assignment, policy framing and programme operations?

These are among the topics that must be taken into account by planning officials concerned with procedures for satisfying the needs of children and youth, but consideration of such procedures must be related to the frame of reference provided by the various countries' relevant policies.

From the discussion of these ideas it emerged 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 it fulfil the functions indicated in the first section of the present report, relating to the close connexion between the development problem and the satisfaction of children's and young people's needs.

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.

The interest felt by the Conference in questions of this kind was manifested during the discussion of a methodology for establishing educational investment criteria, on the basis of experiments carried out in one of the Latin American countries.^{10/} It was agreed that optimum utilization of the scanty resources available for social investment in the Latin American countries will largely depend upon the perfecting and application of techniques capable of ensuring a greater measure of rationality in investment decisions. Even if such elaborate instruments of quantifications are not available, a clearly defined policy must be formulated to deal with the Latin American countries' social requirements.

With respect to the search for unconventional methods to solve the problems of children and young people in the Latin American countries, it was pointed out that the urgency of these problems and the lack 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.

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 countries - Bolivia, Brazil, Ecuador, El Salvador, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua and Paraguay - 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 in the other seven Latin American countries - Argentina, Chile, Cuba, Mexico, Panama and Uruguay - it is 400 dollars or over.

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 levels of per capita gross product. In those countries, moreover, the basic agencies normally available in the

^{10/} See ST/ECLA/Conf.20/L.14.

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."

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.

In that connexion it was stated that some Latin American countries had already succeeded - and that it would in practice be possible to do so in 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 a resulting improvement in opportunities for social and human participation by children and young people.

It was emphatically asserted that in 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.

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UNITED NATIONS

United Nations Children's Fund

Latin American Institute for
Economic and Social Planning

Economic Commission for Latin America

LATIN AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON CHILDREN AND YOUTH
IN NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Information Document No. 15

DRAFT CONCLUSIONS, SUGGESTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

NOTE: The following draft is presented for consideration for inclusion in the draft final report. While the conclusions, suggestions and recommendations are now presented as a separate part, in the final printed report it is suggested that they follow the item to which they refer.

NEEDS AND PROBLEMS AS SEEN BY COUNTRIES
(NATIONAL REPORTS AND CASE STUDIES)

Conclusion

The national reports presented to the Conference demonstrated the value of an assessment by the country of the situation of its children and youth, and current needs. The Conference considered that such an assessment should be made periodically, in relation to the timetable for the preparation and discussion of the plan in each country. All organisms whose work has a bearing on children and youth would participate in this assessment.

The Conference noted a general absence of reliable statistics bearing on children's problems and drew attention to the need for improving the collection interpretation and use of such statistics in each country, by a wider coverage of subjects, and more accurate collection, including the use of the sampling services now being developed in many countries.

THE FAMILY

Conclusions

The changes taking place in the economic and social structure of the Latin American countries have had an impact on family life. One effect is the disappearance of the family in its broad sense, whose protective influence extended to parents and relatives. Social mobility loosens the ties of the nuclei which were previously protected within a relatively stable society. A middle class has emerged whose family nucleus is less rigid. The lowest income brackets have a high proportion of consensual unions, long common in Latin America, and of free and transitory unions, which together make for an alarming percentage of illegitimacy, and the harmful effects on children are aggravated by parental irresponsibility. It is the mother, with her extremely limited

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prospects of earning a living, who has to provide for her children, and is no longer able today to look for the support traditionally forthcoming from the family.

What may be termed the disintegration of the family occurs essentially in urban and suburban areas. Its tragic consequences are most striking among those emigrating to the city from rural areas. Children are the group most affected by family disintegration, and hence their need for affection and security, and for physical, mental and psychological protection is met incompletely, if at all.

Since the home is the best natural medium for a child, society must make every effort to strengthen the family and to prevent, as far as possible, that sense of abandonment which a child feels when it lacks a home.

Suggestions

The State must provide the social welfare services needed to help the family adapt to the changing conditions involved in development. In so doing, it should take advantage of the experience gained in the field of family welfare by social workers and home improvement workers, and of the substantial assistance they have received from volunteer organizations. Broadly speaking this assistance includes:

- (a) Personal guidance for the family faced with a particularly difficult situation or unable to cope with the demands of urban life;
- (b) Group activities through mothers' clubs, parents' associations and similar units;
- (c) Community action to bring together population groups faced with similar problems and seeking how best to solve them through a pooling of their efforts. All these are measures to achieve a strengthening of the family, encourage responsibility among parents, and instil in them a greater interest in the welfare of their children.

/This work

This work can be carried out immediately by expanding the programmes of agencies concerned with social welfare in those areas where the need is greatest. The goal, in terms of the child, is to achieve his physical, mental and emotional development in accordance with his personal situation, so that he may become a well adjusted and useful member of society.

THE PRESCHOOL CHILD

The care of the preschool child has traditionally been in the hands of the family, and the importance of this stage of life, when the child is especially vulnerable, and which is so important for the formation of the human being, has been largely overlooked. The result is that there are very few establishments for the preschool child in the Latin American countries. For those countries for which data are available the percentage of children enrolled ranges from 0.7 to 5.3 per cent of the total population of the age group concerned.

It is difficult for Governments that are anxious to extend primary education to the whole population of school age to find funds to establish kindergartens for children between the ages of three and six, to say nothing of those who are under three.

The problem of the preschool child is particularly acute in what are termed the poverty belts round the large towns, consisting largely of people who have migrated from rural areas in search of work. There are data to show that in most cases the women bring their children with them, and when they are given work, the children are left with no-one to look after them.

Suggestions

1. For peripheral-urban and urban areas

- (a) Establishment of day nurseries or kindergartens for the day care of preschool children.

For this purpose both government agencies and voluntary agencies should stimulate local action. The goal could be to establish centres on a small scale to look after a limited group of children. The aim would be to appoint one of the mothers in the community itself to undertake the task of looking after the children. For this purpose such mothers would need initial briefing, and assistance in organizing and using any funds that might be obtained to take care of the basic problems of premises and feeding the children. Communal action may prove to be an effective means of undertaking the establishment of kindergartens.

Since the care of the children will be in the hands of persons without technical training, the group of children must be kept small, and most of the children should already be able to walk. Whatever public or private agency has sponsored the establishment of the kindergarten should maintain close relations with it and help to deal with any difficulties that arise, and assist in the educational work that the kindergarten should undertake both with the children and with their mothers. It could also sponsor regular training courses for the staff connected with it, and for the young people in the community. In the countries where the legislation provides that enterprises employing over a certain number of women must provide creches for their children, care should be taken to see that the law is complied with. In countries where this service is not established by law, consideration should be given to how industry can provide a better service to the preschool children of its workers.

/(b) Nutrition

(b) Nutrition

For the purpose both of supplying the kindergartens, and ensuring that children remaining in the care of families with low incomes can be properly fed, efforts should be made to provide foods suitable for the weaning and the post-weaning stage.

This could be arranged through the commercial distribution of food supplements for mothers and children, the establishment of stores where the people can buy food at cheap prices, through the organization of consumer co-operatives by the community itself, and through the use of programmes for the distribution of food surpluses from other countries.

(c) Environmental sanitation and health services

It is most important to carry out environmental sanitation measures, in particular the provision of drinking water supplies, and to extend to the maximum the services of the mother and child health centres, since these measures are vital to the health of the pre-school child, who is particularly vulnerable to poor conditions in this respect.

Regular visits by the mother and child to mother and child care centres should be used not only to permit control of the child's physical development and ensure that the appropriate inoculations, are given, but also to educate the mother and thus benefit the whole family.

The percentage of children attended at these centres varies widely from country to country, and from region to region within a single country, but in any case it would be highly beneficial to increase and extend the work done.

(d) Social services

The social services should be established in the peripheral urban settlements, because of the vital help they can provide in helping families to adjust to an unfamiliar environment.

/In addition

In addition it is important to provide these families, and especially the mothers, with an education that includes informing them about the resources available to them, and how they can best be used for the benefit of the family. They can be told how to improve their homes, how and where to do their buying, and how to make the best possible use of the little money they have.

In this work of guidance and fundamental education, social workers and home improvement advisers can perform an essential task.

To obtain the best results with limited resources, the Governments should encourage, in co-operation with the educational institutions concerned, the mobilization of the student body at a high level to contribute to the formation of local leaders, who are likely to do better work and to be more easily accepted by the community.

(e) Recreation

In view of the importance of play in the child's development, special attention should be given to recreational activities, and the following suggestions are made:

- (i) Play areas should be provided where recreational activities can be conducted under supervision.
- (ii) If possible, these areas should contain equipment for open air games in line with what is suitable for pre-school children.
- (iii) Toys should be provided that are at once educational and help the child to adapt socially. Such toys could include simple audio-visual equipment linked with the country's folklore.
- (iv) The co-operation of voluntary agencies should be enlisted for the development and supervision of recreational activities. The teachers and social workers of the community could exercise some supervision over these programmes.

2. Rural areas

The rural population lives too far away for it to be practicable to provide the pre-school children with organized services. What could be done is to find ways of helping the mother to care for her children more efficiently.

In this connexion the following suggestions are made:

(a) The education of mothers by home improvement workers and agricultural extension workers. Audio-visual aids are very useful as a supplement to the educational work to be done - especially the radio - but unfortunately they are not always accesible to the rural population. Mother's clubs where women can meet periodically are also a useful means of encouraging group improvement through social contacts.

(b) The installation of water points in places where women have to spend a lot of time in fetching water is another useful way of helping mothers to do their work more easily.

(c) The encouragement of family or communal allotments, in conjunction with nutrition education programmes, can also be of the greatest value.

(d) The participation of women in community action can be a positive element in creating a greater social awareness of the needs of children.

Lastly, mention should be made of another area of needs indicated at the Conference; those of children who are physically or mentally handicapped, whose care should be included among the work of the social welfare services. This point is raised here because it is at the pre-school age that these problems generally make themselves felt.

HEALTH

Conclusion

The Conference, encouraged by the widespread development of planning of health services as part of national planning, considered that a high priority in the health plan should be given to services benefiting mothers and young children, since they constitute a large vulnerable group, in which preventive action could save the need for much more costly services later. Furthermore, services to this group could be an important incentive for the co-operation of the people in the national development effort.

FOOD AND NUTRITION

Conclusions

1. Despite planned national (and international) efforts, it appears that dietary deficiencies occur among children in all countries of the region.

A wide range of socio-economic factors as well as the degree of availability of food affect consumption.

Ignorance and tradition, often deprive children and expectant and nursing mothers of proper foods, even when they are available. Simple under-nourishment, serious caloric and protein malnutrition, and other nutritional diseases are prevalent at critical stages of the child's development.

Suggestions

2. Countries should place the special emphasis on improving the nutritional status of children in view of the possibility that damage to the child's development because of nutritional deficiencies may be irreparable.

3. In the preparation of economic and social development plans it is desirable to take into account the special nutritional needs of various age groups of children in terms of appropriate foods and action programmes.

4. Co-ordinated planning and action should include co-operation among various agencies - involving planning bodies and ministries responsible for sectoral programmes (health, education, agriculture, etc.).

- to elaborate action programmes,
- to determine the minimum cost,
- combination and tonnage of food for satisfactory diet,
- to undertake measures to make supplies available and acceptable to the population concerned.

5. The Conference draws attention to the following: food consumption targets in a given periodic development plan should be considered in the preparation of plans for agricultural development, with respect to composition and volume of production, particularly in regard to these commodities deemed essential for vulnerable age groups of children.

6. Development plans should allocate appropriate resources and include organizational and institutional measures to ensure that the production and distribution of agricultural products meet the needs of the age groups of children requiring priority attention.

7. Development plans should include appropriate policies and measures to stimulate and direct food consumption in tune with the established objectives and targets through nutrition education.

- price policy
- subsidies or direct controls,
- marketing improvements,
- supplementary feeding for pre-school and school children, youth organizations, pregnant women and nursing mothers or other community groups using either public and/or private sector resources.

8. Governments should establish food and nutrition units in relevant ministries and in the central planning agency to prepare action programmes and in order to ensure that nutritional objectives and policies are incorporated in the development plan.

9. All sources of aid, bilateral as well as international, are encouraged by the Conference to consider how their programmes might take fuller account of the nutritional needs of children in Latin American countries.

10. The improvement of the nutritional status of infants and young children is one of the major objectives of introducing protein-rich foods, which could be incorporated into local staple food products. Use should be made of existing commercial production and

/distribution facilities

distribution facilities for this purpose, and steps should be taken to educate families from low income brackets in the nutritional benefits of such products. Price subsidies of protein-rich foods could be considered to enable families with limited incomes to purchase them.

11. Attention was drawn to the usefulness of recuperation centres for young children needing treatment for acute malnutrition.

SCHOOL AGE CHILD

Conclusions

There is considerable room for further adaptation of the content of the curricula to real work prospects. At the elementary level, there may be some increase of scientific, technical and manual content, related industry in urban areas, and agriculture in rural. At the secondary level, the proportion of the various streams (carreras) should be more closely related to the planned development of the various sectors of the economy.

Suggestions

(It does not seem necessary to make suggestions relating to the "internal" development of the education system. The following all relate to problems requiring assistance or attention outside the educational system as well as within it).

1. In the transition period until all children have been absorbed into the school system, some special programmes may be prepared for the recuperation of the out-of-school child, whose absolute numbers are not yet decreasing. This would consist basically of literary training related so far as possible to practical matters. Such training could be offered by youth corps, university students, the army, by night courses, and by radio.

2. Manual work experience may be introduced into the curricula of the school system, related to the work needs of the school's environment.

YOUTH AND WORK IN LATIN AMERICA

Conclusions

1. Modernizing economies face simultaneously two manpower problems: a shortage of persons with critical skills, and a vast surplus of unproductive labour. This situation reflects in part the growing number of young people seeking employment, and the limited education and training they receive before entering the labour market. Of workers in the 15-19 age bracket, it is estimated that 80 per cent have dropped out of school and the majority have had no more than three years of primary school. Moreover, the absolute numbers of illiterate young people continues to grow.

2. Accelerating population growth and inadequate education system is increasing the number of unproductive persons under age 15. The proportion of dependents to working persons is therefore increasing, and people engaged in productive work must become more productive to support the growing numbers of non-workers.

3. Papers prepared for the Conference, and the studies on employment reveal a preponderance of young persons, relative to all people in the labour markets, among the unemployed and underemployed.

4. Vocational and technical training for those few young people who reach these levels are generally not satisfactory: courses are too long; curricula are not always in line with industrial, agricultural and social needs; there are few facilities; students receive little vocational guidance. There is also prevailing lack of employment services to help young people find jobs.

5. Child labour, particularly in agriculture, is still extensive in some countries, ranging from 2 to 10 per cent of the total labour force. The primary reason for this situation is that children work to supplement meagre family incomes.

Suggestions

1. Within the framework of the over-all employment policy of each country, sufficient attention should be given to providing employment opportunities for young people.

3. Programmes may be considered to meet the material needs of school children - school meals; shoes and clothing, especially for girls; school health programmes including the correction of defects in eye sight.

4. Programmes may be considered to produce low-cost text-books. One of the main requirements is a bigger supply of paper for printing them.

5. To help potential school drop outs, schools may take use of voluntary social workers.

6. So long as kindergarten education has very small coverage, the first year of school may have to make up for this lack by familiarization with simple books, experience of social contact in a group, etc.

7. Consideration may be given to the possibility of adjusting school periods in rural areas in accordance with the seasonal work in which children ordinarily participate.

2. Countries should consider undertaking more labour intensive public works projects, including road building, construction, irrigation works, etc., and using unengaged youth labour for this purpose.

3. Countries should consider the expansion of out-of-school vocational and technical training for children and youth who have dropped out of school, or who have never attended, including apprenticeship training, on-the-job training, and courses in agricultural and industrial work.

4. It is suggested that vocational guidance be offered to young people in the school system in conjunction with employment services.

LEGAL PROTECTION

Conclusions

In most countries there are detailed laws regarding the protection of the children, youth and their mothers. The immediate need now is to create conditions which would make it possible to apply the existing laws.

There may be need to develop stronger provision for enforcing paternal responsibility, e.g. methods for proof of paternity. Several countries reported successful experience in simplifying the registration of fathers at the birth of the child, and then enforcing the necessary provision for their upkeep.

There is also need for more trained personnel in many of the fields concerned with the legal protection of children. This means the orientation of persons with legal training in matters concerning children and youth; e.g. children's court judges - and the orientation of social personnel in legal protection. The Interamerican Institute of the Child is actively helping countries in this field.

In some countries there is a Council of the Child or similar organization with general oversight of matters concerning children with particular emphasis on the Code of the Child or of Minors. In some countries it would be appropriate to strengthen councils and relate them more closely to the planning organization which in turn will strengthen co-ordination with other branches of governments whose work bears on children and youth.

INDIRECT ECONOMIC MEASURES FOR IMPROVING THE SITUATION OF CHILDREN AND YOUTH

Conclusion

The majority of children are members of large rural and urban families with very low income per head. There are a number of economic measures which governments may adopt to benefit these families, and these measures in turn may have an enormous impact on improving the situation of children and youth. These measures include the following:

- 1) Income redistribution and tax relief;
- 2) subsidized housing policy;
- 3) subsidized prices of commodities essential for the child's development, for instance nutritive foods, clothing;
- 4) employment policy, aiming at the provision of more employment opportunities for young people; for instance, through more labour intensive projects.

POPULAR PARTICIPATION

Suggestions

Countries usually try to build popular political support for the execution of the plan, by participation of various groups in its preparation, the announcement of interim targets and by periodic progress reports.

Among the interested groups there needs to be a "voice" speaking for children and youth. Countries locate this in different places - parliament, the executive and voluntary associations according to the political structure of the country.

The need to have popular support for carrying out aspects of the development plan relating to children and youth may require visible results of achievement. This consideration may influence the preparation of the plan, and the degree to which longer range development objectives will be emphasized.

/The interest

The interest in measures for the benefit for children and youth may bring an extra dividend of greater popular interest in the plan as a whole.

Another function of an interest group for children and youth is to help mobilize resources outside the plan for various non-governmental services.

Final note

Conclusions, suggestions and recommendations may be prepared later relating to research and training, as well as such other topics as the Conference may wish to include.

UNITED NATIONS

United Nations Children's Fund

Latin American Institute for
Economic and Social Planning

Economic Commission for Latin America

LATIN AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON CHILDREN AND YOUTH
IN NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Information Document No. 15/corr.1

DRAFT CONCLUSIONS, SUGGESTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Corrigenda

Replace the first two paragraphs in section "The school child", page 10, by the following text:

"The principles and tenor of educational policy should be based on three main aims: the removal of existing educational obstacles that prevent the right to education from becoming a reality; the adoption of educational measures specifically contributing to the achievement of that goal; and an endeavour to deal with unofficial bodies by neutralizing their influence or making them part of the official framework.

Of the obstacles that must be tackled in order to follow this line of action, the following merit special attention: (a) the inflexibility of the present school network. This could be overcome by adding flexible educational services to complement the official system and equip it to deal with every sort of situation. Examples of such services are one-teacher multi-grade schools, school nuclei, visiting teachers, school transport, a diversified time-table, teaching by correspondence courses, radio and television; (b) the fact that it is customary for a pupil's performance to be judged almost entirely by his academic capacity, even during the period of compulsory education when, precisely because it is compulsory, differences in individual ability to study should be taken into account. The rigid system of promotion should be disregarded and an effort made instead to develop the mental capacities of the children as much as possible, including, of course the less gifted pupils; (c) the fact that a fairly large group of people are unable to derive any benefit from the official school system. This problem might be met through night schools, extra-mural examinations, recognition of equivalent qualifications and other similar measures.

Three main points must be borne in mind regarding the move to reform the school structure, which is gradually spreading throughout the region. These are the relations that must be maintained between that structure and the structure of employment; the reconciliation of the range of abilities displayed by the pupils with the institutional limitations of the system; and facilities for changes and transfers within the system as a means of reorienting pupils.

To exercise the right to education, it is not enough for institutional barriers to be removed and institutional facilities overhauled and remodelled. The barriers that exist outside the school system should also be overcome by carrying educational policy beyond the bounds of its traditional province of formal school education. The new policy approach would involve dealing with the following problems: the need to remedy the difficulties caused by lack of funds; the integration in or co-operation of various kinds of institutions with educational work (families, communication media, religious groups, associations of different sorts, enterprises, the armed forces, etc.); the establishment of public agencies for the specific purpose of tackling the problems of young people (guidance centres, youth projects); and the formation of permanent educational bodies.

The fact that there are now millions of young people in Latin America who are already over the age for compulsory schooling means that special attention must be paid to the question of permanent education and that urgent measures have to be taken to offer such people educational opportunities."

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LATIN AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON CHILDREN AND YOUTH
IN NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Information Document No. 15/Add.1

DRAFT CONCLUSIONS, SUGGESTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Note: The following draft is presented for consideration for inclusion in the draft final report. While the conclusions, suggestions and recommendations are now presented as a separate part, in the final printed report it is suggested that they follow the item to which they refer.

National policy for children and youth

Conclusions

1. Each country should formulate and announce a national policy for children and youth as a part of the framework of economic and social development of the country.
2. This policy should cover all children in urban and rural areas, infants, pre-school children, school children, children out of school and youth. It also should include handicapped children.
3. A national policy for children and youth should deal with the following categories of needs:
 - (a) Protection - measures aiming at the reduction of child mortality and morbidity, elimination of infectious diseases, poor sanitation, malnutrition, illiteracy, and improving children's welfare;
 - (b) Preparation for life - the development of the child into a productive and constructive citizen; needs in this category pertain to education, vocational training and guidance, and employment prospects.
4. Protection of families, particularly mothers, would be an important feature of a national policy for children and youth, since the family plays such an important part in the child's development.
5. 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, such as honesty, democratic attitudes, loyalty to home and country, and a deep sense of international understanding and solidarity.
6. A national policy for children and youth would contain a statement of the major problems confronting the younger generation, and would include expectations for achieving results within given time periods. It should also call for the support from the nation as a whole, that is for the participation of both the public and private sectors.

/Methods of

Methods of planning

Suggestions

1. Whatever the degree of development of the country, periodic and systematic assessments of the situation of children and youth are urged, in order to determine the most important problems, to evaluate the results of previous action, and to select logical points on which to concentrate within the framework of development efforts. Such assessments would enable countries to measure the degree of achievement of policy objectives.
2. Each country should undertake a careful analysis of its development plans to determine the preparation and training required for young people, and the desirable attitudes and values that should be transmitted to them.
3. Insufficient effort has been devoted to locating and preparing relevant data in quantitative terms most useful to planners. Efforts to remedy this situation should be encouraged.
4. Insufficient quantitative data need not preclude a programme of action. Among the guiding criteria for such action may be (a) the correction of flagrant distortions of inequities, such as appear sometimes in education systems; (b) the removal of specific bottlenecks; (c) comparisons with standards of other countries; (d) choice of simpler rather than more complex programmes; (e) the economy, or better returns, to be obtained from developing complementary services; (f) choice of low-cost programmes.
5. Action programmes should be prepared bearing in mind the extent of problems and the instruments available in various services and ministries to meet these problems. Problems which are not within the purview of any one ministry, for instance out-of-school children, should not be neglected.
6. Inter-ministerial co-ordination of sectoral programmes for children and youth is suggested to ensure balanced development in all fields affecting the child's protection and preparation for adult life.
7. In addition to formulating sectoral programmes, countries should consider the importance of various economic measures in plans which may have an important impact on children.
8. The implementation of plans to meet the needs of children should make use of all possible resources, governmental and non-governmental. Some of the less conventional resources would include the Church, youth camps, labour unions, political parties and the armed forces.

/9. It

9. It is suggested that research be undertaken by national and international institutes on the methods of taking account of the needs of children and youth in national development planning.

Organization of planning

Suggestions

1. The Conference advised against the establishment of a separate sector for children in development plans, or a separate government agency responsible for all children's programmes. Functional ministries and other services would prepare such programmes.
2. Many countries in the region have planning bodies which include officials concerned with the social field. Many ministries responsible for fields in the social sector now maintain planning units, which are co-ordinated by the central planning body. This machinery may be used to co-ordinate sectoral programmes for children and youth.
3. Planning for the interests of children and youth would be aided by the expression and stimulation of public awareness through a national group composed of governmental as well as non-governmental leaders. Such a group would serve to highlight the needs of children and youth and help in the formulation of a national policy for them.

Training

Suggestions

1. Training possibilities should be expanded as a priority for all those concerned with the welfare of children and youth.
2. Training courses of the Latin American Institute for Economic and Social Planning and other agencies of the United Nations could be strengthened in regard to problems of children and youth and greater use could be made of national institutes and universities.
3. Training should be available for persons concerned with planning social aspects of development, within planning bodies. Such training would give a basic knowledge of problems of children and youth, including:
 - (a) A comprehensive approach to children's problems within national development plans;
 - (b) Examination of the relationship between sectoral programmes;
 - (c) Study of indirect economic measures to improve the situation of children and youth;
 - (d) Review of what future development will require of the oncoming generations.
4. Training in planning methods for persons concerned with sectoral programmes for children and youth may be strengthened and expanded to additional social fields.

/ Proposals for

Proposals for research projects

Introduction

During the Conference, in several papers commenting on various aspects of the relations between the younger age groups and the development process, it was acknowledged that insufficient accurate information is available on the magnitude and characteristics of specific problems, their causes and the best ways of tackling them. This gave rise to a number of suggestions as to the sociological and economic research that should be carried out in order to ensure that the right methods are chosen for dealing with the evils it is desired to remedy or eradicate. Before a synthesis of these suggestions is presented, it should be pointed out that there are two equally necessary types of research projects: (1) those that must be accompanied by practical action, and are very directly related to specific problems, in connexion with which scientific research is indispensable as a guide to the formulation of the proposed programmes; and (2) those that are concerned with fundamental problems affecting children and youth, and whose justification lies in the basic information they are designed to contribute.

Suggestions

The two areas of research to which top priority was assigned were those relating to the structure of the family and to young people on the eve of incorporation into the development effort.

The family and the pre-school child

In the first context, concern is felt for the way in which the family is being affected by the development process. The tendency towards disruption of the family is aggravated in the so-called "poverty belts" which girdle the larger towns of Latin America, and in which countless children belonging to incomplete family nuclei live.

Concomitant and similarly disquieting phenomena are the high percentages of illegitimacy and the prevalence of prostitution among young girls, almost children.

The aim of research should be to investigate causes and motivations and discover the affective resources that should be mobilized in order to strengthen the family by enabling it to adapt itself more satisfactorily to changing circumstances. The techniques applied should be selected for their compatibility with the environment and with the prevailing level of economic and social development.

/Other possible

Other possible subjects for research include the following:

- (a) Income distribution in relation to the problems affecting children and youth;
- (b) The potential role of day-care centres.

The school-age child

While this field of activity is recognized to be of special interest for UNESCO, plenty of room still remains for other undertakings, entailing as a prerequisite preliminary research and the formulation of a specific policy.

The following are the principal suggestions presented at the Conference with respect to subjects for future research in this connexion:

- (a) Qualitative evaluation, at the national level, of the large body of children and adolescents who do not attend school, with breakdowns by rural and urban areas and by age-groups;
- (b) Formulation of programmes for supplementary teaching which could be given by youth groups, university students, and social organizations, as well as through courses arranged by the armed forces, night schools and broadcasting;
- (c) Analysis of traditional and modern instruments of socialization and their applicability to the various rural and urban environments, including industrial conglomerations, shanty towns and other working-class districts.

Youth and work in Latin America

It was suggested that research in connexion with young people about to be drawn into the development process should cover four basic fields:

- (1) The family environment;
- (2) The educational environment, in the broad sense of the term;
- (3) The working environment;
- (4) Leisure hours, or the use of free time.

A few of the possible topics for future research may be listed as follows:

- (a) Evaluation of the urban working environment in relation to the progress of industrialization in the country concerned, and to the gradual increase in employment opportunities for young people from rural areas;
- (b) Planning of human resources in general, with particular reference to present and future demand for young workers, in the context of national development;
- (c) Vocational aspirations and selection of occupations, in relation to national development. Motivations. Practical possibilities, and, in accordance with these, appropriate vocational guidance;
- (d) Analysis of the aspirations of young people and their prospects in various environments or vocations, such as, for example, agricultural activities, workshops, offices, schools (pilot and experimental research);
- (e) The problem of child labour as it affects children of school age, especially in the agricultural sector;
- (f) Possibilities for making local use of the younger generations, as a new supply of manpower, in such public works as construction, irrigation projects, building of housing and schools, etc., with salutary effects on the spontaneous exodus of the best elements in the rural sector from the countryside to the towns;
- (g) Programming of inter-disciplinary co-operation in the foregoing research, at the national or provincial level, with the help and guidance of national institutions and universities and, if possible, with the benefit of the experience gathered and methods applied by the United Nations specialized agencies and other international bodies.

The use of leisure by children and youth

- (a) Modern communication media as components of the forces operating in the formation and socialization of the new generations; the influence of the cinema, television, radio, illustrated periodicals, comic strips, toys, etc.
- (b) The effect of other media, such as: sports, cultural and theatrical clubs made available to children and youth through schools or through organizations of adults in the form of "juvenile sections". Children and young people usually enjoy these privileges in important urban centres. Possibilities of extending them to the provinces and rural population centres.

Essentially juvenile organizations for boys and girls, like the Boy Scouts, Girl Guides, etc.

/General comments

General comments

Attention has also been drawn to objective and subjective questions that include the influence of the State, religion, science, the arts and sport, on youth, its compliant and rebellious attitudes, and the special situations in respect of ill-adapted youth which are sometimes reflected in delinquent behaviour. The study of all these topics is of major importance, since it could throw some light on the inner world of young people in Latin America; they should be incorporated in the research carried out so that they themselves will help to find the answers that their generation offers to the problems concerned, according to the particular environment of each, be he a rural worker, a labourer or a professional. While recognizing the importance implicit in all these studies, they do not seem to fall within the specific limits of the present Conference. These suggestions are recorded, however, in the hope that some of the countries represented here may carry out studies on the subject, which would be of unquestionable value for the other countries of the region, since, although it is true that the characteristics may vary somewhat from one country to another, the broad features characterizing the reactions of Latin American youth - in particular vis-à-vis the development process - are generally the same in neighbouring countries.

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LATIN AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON CHILDREN AND YOUTH
IN NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Information Document No. 17

Closing Remarks by Mr. Henry R. Labouisse, Executive Director of
the United Nations Children's Fund

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:

I will be very brief indeed - as I said at the opening session of this Conference I have to depart for New York in order to go to Oslo where I will represent UNICEF on December 10th. on the occasion of the Nobel Peace Prize for 1965 awarded to our Organization. But I did not want to leave without having an opportunity to say a word to you all and to tell you good-bye. I only wish that time permitted me to talk to each of you personally. As I cannot, this will have to do.

I also want to thank CEPAL and the Institute for all the help they have given us in helping us to make possible this Conference, which is being held under the sponsorship of our three Organizations.

I would also like to express deep appreciation to the Chairman of the Conference who has conducted the meetings this week with a high sense of responsibility and enthusiasm and also Dr. Maldonado who will be conducting the meetings this coming week.

I also extend my deep appreciation to the Participants in this Conference the Consultants, and the representatives of our sister United Nations agencies, for the part you all have played. You are all in fact the Conference. The papers which you have drafted are extremely interesting and I believe that they are going to be used in many capitals and quoted for years to come.

This is the first Conference of this type that we have tried. It is in a sense experimental. The wisdom of hindsight tells us that some things could be impressed; the experience here will help us in our next conference to be held in Bangkok.

/For me

For me personally - and I hope for all of you - this meeting has been and is most interesting and stimulating. The problems of children and youth are by and large the same in most countries. However, there has been some emphasis on new approaches, and, you have thrown new lights on them and made certain suggestions on how to deal with them which will be useful to all of us in UNICEF and, I hope to your governments.

Some of you expressed concern over the absence of concrete proposals for meeting the problems of children. I do not think we conceived this Conference as a forum to provide specific solutions. Rather, it was to consider the problems of children and youth - to examine the priority of these problems, to exchange views as to what individual countries are doing in this direction, and, thirdly to try to develop, in a general way a pattern for acting in the future. This is largely directed to planning. I think we have touched on these three points.

I want you to know that I feel greatly encouraged by events to date. First, I am encouraged and impressed by the quality of the participants in the meeting. Not only by the stature of the **individual themselves**, but also by the various disciplines they represent. We have those from the fields of social welfare, education, health, also administrators, economists, even lawyers - to which group I plead guilty.

During these discussions we have been talking not only in terms of physical resources but you have stressed the importance of the mobilization of all resources to help children and youth. We must have a concern for the whole child - for the child as an individual and a human being, and not just the child as a concern in the developing society. There appears to be a general recognition that the psychological, emotional and cultural aspects of development have as great or greater importance than economic development. These factors must receive the attention of planners. There appears to be a general recognition that these intangible values must be dealt with by government policies and public awareness.

On the material side, in the final analysis, if we are going to meet the needs of children, adequate resources must be allocated. This could be achieved by shifting of available resources within the countries, or, where their budgets allow it, by the increase of total resources. The predominant role must be played by individual governments - whether in allocating domestic resources or transfers from abroad.

Hence the importance of influencing planners, finance ministries and budget directors to have in mind the needs of children and youth, if we are going to have the resources necessary to deal with these problems with which we are all so concerned.

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I am not suggesting an imbalance in approach - children are not the only claim - but the concentration of interest on the child and on youth. This requires physical resources, but also education of governments as well as the development of the public awareness on what is needed. It is the job of planners to correlate the needs and resources, and also government policies as to the values mentioned above.

In one of the papers, it was suggested the UNICEF might be the United Nation's agency for mobilizing large-scale resources. However, UNICEF does not have that mandate nor the means to do this, as Dr. Willard - the chairman of our Programme Committee and representative of our Executive Board - said to you the other day. What we can do is to act as a stimulant to countries interested to embark on a project. And in many cases it has been found that this contribution of UNICEF very often makes "the difference". I have been able to observe this fact not only in this hemisphere but in other regions of the world. For example, in this Conference we acted as catalysts. In this type of thing we can be useful. If we have more funds we will be able to do a lot more.

With one or two exceptions, every country represented at this table contributes to UNICEF. We will be able to increase our sphere of action if your finance ministries, planners and budget directors allocate more to UNICEF. I hope you will go back to your countries and ask your governments to maintain, and I hope, increase its contribution. However, I do not want you to think that this is the reason why I have asked to speak!

I want again to thank you Mr. Chairman and you Dr. Maldonado for your willingness to direct these sessions. We appreciate everything that you and your colleagues are doing and have done for the preparation of this Conference. And I would also like to express my appreciation to the very wonderful interpreters who have done so much for the success of the Conference.

I hope that when you all go home at the end of the sessions we will continue our contacts concerning the problems of children and youth - and that we will meet again in the future in your countries.

UNITED NATIONS

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LATIN AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON CHILDREN AND YOUTH
IN NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Information Document No. 18

NATIONAL POLICY ON CHILDREN AND YOUTH

Statement by Mr. Edward Iwaszkiewicz,
Director for Planning, UNICEF

1. During the past two weeks I have followed the deliberations of the Conference with great interest, and I can say frankly that it has been a valuable learning experience for me to listen to country delegates exchange views in regard to how they are approaching the problems of children within the framework of their country's development efforts.

2. As Mr. Labouisse stated at the start of the Conference, efforts to improve the well-being of children no longer stems entirely from a humanitarian concern. A new dimension has been added in looking at children's problems, namely the importance of the young generations as potential human resources.

3. The Conference has underlined the fact that the oncoming generations should not only be considered as objects to be protected, but also as important agents in the implementation of development plans and programmes. The development process aims at economic and social improvement which both create and depend on changes in skills, attitudes, and values, and I believe the key factor in such changes is the younger generation. The common objective of many countries in the region is the transformation of agriculture, rapid industrialization, development of co-operatives, and so forth. As the public sector of the economy expands, an increasing number of people will work with property which is not their own, and will produce goods which are not for their own use or consumption. This will require different attitudes towards work and means of production. Many countries are attempting to carry out such programmes in just a few generations, and therefore the changes are truly dramatic. Young people must be prepared for these changes; they must be taught required skills, and acquire the necessary values and attitudes to participate constructively in national development.

4. In the region there seem to be two serious manpower problems. On the one hand there is a shortage of persons with critical skills; on the other hand there is a vast surplus of relatively unproductive labour, which is increasing as a result of accelerating population growth. We must remember however, that it is not necessarily the growing number of people which constitutes an obstacle to future development, but rather the growing number of unproductive people. It would seem that one of the basic tasks of each country is to transform the population into productive manpower. This transformation rests primarily on the shoulders of young people - the future manpower - and requires balanced investment in their health, nutrition, welfare, education and training.

5. The papers prepared for this Conference, and the discussions, provide a wealth of information on the important place of children and youth in national development. Discussions have focused on a number of questions: How the younger generation can contribute to economic and social progress? How they can be prepared for their future adult responsibilities? What are the urgent unmet needs of children and youth? What should be the roles of parents, the state, and voluntary organizations

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in protecting children and preparing them to be productive and constructive citizens? What steps can planners take to make more effective provisions to meet children's needs within the framework of development plans?

Specific problems

6. Last week we considered a number of subjects relating to the protection and preparation of children and youth such as: the rapid rate of population growth, which has now reached the unprecedented level of 3 per cent per annum, and its effect on economic and social development; the primary role of the family in raising the child; the need to reach the vulnerable pre-school child; the educational deficiencies, such as the alarming number of school drop-outs, curricula which are not in tune with development needs, and the general lack of school facilities; the difficulties young people encounter in finding employment opportunities; and health and nutrition deficiencies.

7. During this week, we have turned our attention to country approaches in taking account of children's needs in their development plans. A number of important issues have been raised in the studies presented by Argentina, Jamaica, Mexico, Peru and Venezuela and by several participants, such as: the importance of carefully assessing the needs of children and youth; the need for statistical data on children's problems; the necessity of integrating plans and programmes to meet the problems of the younger generation, and establishing suitable organizational machinery for this purpose; the importance of announcing a national policy for children and youth; the need for training planners and sectoral specialists, and to undertake research in various fields; the necessity of periodic evaluation of plans and programmes.

Policy

8. Throughout the Conference many delegates have mentioned the importance of integrated planning to meet children's needs within the framework of general development plans. Planning is, however, an instrument to implement policy. I should like to stress, at this time, the importance of each country to formulate a national policy, aiming at the protection and development of young people.

Let us consider briefly why is a national policy for children and youth necessary?

9. All children pass through a period of dependency on others, normally on their families. This period is crucial to the whole development of the human being, including his health, education, development of skills, values and social and political outlook. This is why the growth and development of the child is a concern of the nation, as well as the family. Social and economic systems can be maintained and developed only if their components,

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including their manpower resources, values and institutions, are properly maintained, renewed and developed. This may be called "social reproduction" and it is obvious that children play a determining role in this process. Child rearing includes not only the child's protection, but also the transmission of certain values and attitudes, and skills and techniques necessary for the societies' stability and growth. Can there be any doubt that the nation should be interested in this social process?

10. Our discussion of the family's role in raising the child has led to some interesting conclusions. There is no doubt that the family has the primary responsibility for the child's upbringing. However, it is evident that many families find it difficult to exercise this responsibility entirely by themselves.

Urban areas

11. Traditionally the child was raised within a large extended family. However, the process of urbanization, has made it extremely difficult for the traditional extended family to remain intact. Therefore in urban conditions children are often left alone while parents are working, and are without care and attention. It seems that countries must effect some measures to provide the security to the family and its children, which was formerly provided to a degree by the extended family structure.

Rural areas

12. The situation of children and youth in rural areas is also alarming. Most children in the region still live in rural areas because of the predominance of the agricultural sector. Per capita income tends to be lower in rural areas, and this is often accompanied by limited work opportunities, accelerating population growth rates, and over-dependency on agriculture. Generally, social services are less extensive, since it is more difficult and more expensive to organize them in rural areas.

13. As stated previously many families live in conditions of poverty. Sociologists have concluded that social groups based on poverty and want develop certain special characteristics, such as apathy and a sense of "fatal immediacy", which force people to live entirely in the present without thought of the future. In such an atmosphere families may not recognize the importance of some of their children's needs, such as education, which must be satisfied if they are to grow into productive adults.

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14. From these few remarks, it is evident that the family needs help from other sources, namely the nation, in raising children and youth. I would, however, like to mention a strong economic motive for the nation, particularly planners, to be interested in the problems of the young generations. It has been estimated, by Professor Hans Singer, that the expenditures in food, clothing, medical care, education and housing for children under age 15, amounts to approximately 22-27 per cent of national income. This figure far exceeds the expenditure for physical investment, which is calculated to be around 10-15 per cent of national income in developing countries.

Content of a national policy for children and youth

15. A national policy for the well-being of children and youth should be formulated within the framework of the development policy of each country. The policy should cover all children in urban and rural areas. Also, it should include those belonging to economically weak groups of the population, as well as handicapped children.

16. 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, however, the policy should deal with two categories of needs:

(a) Protection - measures aiming at the reduction of child mortality and morbidity, elimination of infectious diseases, poor sanitation, malnutrition, illiteracy, and improving their welfare, thereby increasing their future productive capacities;

(b) Preparation for life - this category refers to the development of the child into productive and creative manpower. More specifically, needs in this category pertain to education, vocational training and guidance, and employment prospects.

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. Nothing can substitute family protection, love, understanding and security which only can be provided in the home.

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, such as honesty, democratic attitudes, loyalty to home and country, commitment to national development, and a deep sense of international understanding and solidarity.

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A national policy should contain a statement of the problems relating to the younger generation, and would include the expectations for achieving results through practical action programmes in given periods of time. It is important that the policy cover children who normally might not be included in the provisions of sectoral programmes, such as children who are not attending school. It should also call for the 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, political parties, trade unions, universities, armies, as suggested at this Conference.

Implementation of a national policy

17. Whatever the degree of development of the country, periodic and systematic assessments of the situation of children and youth are urged, in order to determine the most important problems, to evaluate previous action programmes, and to select priority problems on which to concentrate in future; or in short, to measure the achievement of various objectives of the policy.

The interests of children and youth would be aided by the expression of public awareness through a national group composed of governmental as well as non-governmental leaders. Such a group would highlight the needs of children and youth and help in the formulation of a national policy for them.

In closing, Mr. Chairman, I would like to stress the importance of each country formulating and announcing a national policy for children.

Our deliberations have clearly shown that youth is the important factor in progress. As Professor Robert Debré said in Bellagio, "in a healthy country it is the rising generation which puts an end to fatalism, to surrender, to acceptance of bondage to the oppressive forces of man and nature." If the pressure of youth is to be vigorous, innovating, benevolent, and not destructive and unhealthy, the needs of youth must be met.

Mr. Chairman, I would like to join other speakers in appeal for action. Permit me to do so in words written by Gabriela Mistral.

"Muchas cosas que hemos menester tienen espera.
El niño no.

El está haciendo ahora mismo sus huesos, creando
su sangre y ensayando sus sentidos.

A él no se le puede responder "Mañana".

El se llama "Ahora"."



