LATIN AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON CHILDREN AND YOUTH IN NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

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CHILDREN AND YOUTH IN NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT: PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS

Case study presented by the Government of Peru
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/COMMENTS/
SUMMARY

The report analyses five aspects: the economic and social situation; the problems of children and youth; action by public and private sectors; prerequisites for an effective children and youth policy; and children and youth in national development.

The economic and social situation in Peru during the last decade can be considered uneven as far as economic and social approaches are concerned. On the economics side growth rates between 1950 and 1962 were good, if not among the best in Latin America. In fact, the cumulative annual average for the twelve years mentioned was 5.2 per cent. Although there was a slight drop between 1962 and 1964, (annual average 4.5 per cent) the 1960-64 growth rates reached 12.4 per cent of the gross national product in 1959-60.

The driving forces behind Peruvian economic growth are:

1. The surprising boost in exports, which registered an average growth of 256 per cent between 1950 and 1960, while the Latin American average was only 57 per cent. This increase is due to exports of a variety of raw materials such as coffee, sugar, cotton, wool, copper, iron, zinc, lead, etc. and to exports of manufactures of fishing industry products. There is not only the possibility of increasing these export lines in the future, but also of placing on international markets such new products as sulphates, jute, and capital goods for the fishing industry.

2. The favourable export situation, accompanied by increases in imports, but with an emphasis on capital goods, has meant a satisfactory trading position for the country in 1964 and 1965 which will probably continue in the future. Consequently the balance of payments is firm and permits the country's economic expansion to be carried out without acute external payments problems.

3. The public sector, which has been developing in the last few years into a strategic element for progress, Investment, and public investment in particular, has soared. Between 1960 and 1965 total investment increased by 82.4 per cent, while public investment over the same period rose by 332.7 per cent.

Between 1960 and 1964 product growth was favourable in the following sectors: construction, trade, banking and insurance, fisheries, and manufacturing. However, agriculture still acts as a brake on expansion as can be seen from its low growth rates (1962-64, cumulative annual average 1.6 per cent). The causes are, among others, deficiencies in the land tenure system and mismanagement of farms. Imports of cereals, meat, dairy products, etc. are still increasing and total some 3,000 million soles.

The social situation in Peru has been unsatisfactory for several decades. The situation is reflected in the notoriously unequal distribution of income as between different social classes and different geo-economic regions of the country.

/Preliminary studies
Preliminary studies indicate that the entrepreneurs' share of the national income increased considerably in the period 1950-1960, while that of workers, self-employed persons and small-scale entrepreneurs decreased. A recent estimate of the distribution of income for 1963 shows that 90.5 per cent of the economically active population receives a monthly remuneration of not more than 2,000 soles; 9.3 per cent receives between 2,000 and 20,000 soles per month; and that only 0.2 per cent are in the 20,000 to 120,000 soles bracket, receiving 10.3 per cent of total remunerations.

Although there have been no recent surveys at the regional level, a 1958 study of the Southern region of Peru which represents some 30 per cent of the total area and 25 per cent of the country's population, showed that about 96 per cent of the employed population had annual incomes of less than 10,000 soles. This situation together with other factors resulting from the pattern of income distribution are major elements of social unrest.

Peru's population is growing at an annual average of 3.0 per cent. This rate will rise even more, and only from 1977 onwards is it expected to slow down. Persons under 24 years of age, classified as children and youth in this report, represent 63.2 per cent of the total population.

Land tenure conditions are such that in spite of efforts made to change the system, inequality exists to such an extent that about 76 per cent of the country's farmland with estates of more than 500 hectares, belongs to 0.4 per cent of the land owners, while 6.0 per cent of the farmland with farms smaller than 5 hectares is in the hands of 83.0 per cent of the owners.

Health conditions are unsatisfactory. About 60 per cent of the urban population lacks drinking-water facilities, and the rural population has practically none at all; 65 per cent of the urban population has no sewage system. Nutrition presents a problem, with an average calory deficit of 28 per cent of the minimum requirement per person. The protein deficit is 22 per cent of the minimum requirement. The situation is worse in rural areas.

The last Housing Census in 1961 showed that approximately 65 per cent of the population lives in sub-standard dwellings where overcrowding, promiscuity, health risks, etc. exist. There is a shortage of around one million dwellings, made up of about 850,000 new housing units, and the rest which need to be reconstructed.

To sum up, Peru's economic and social situation clearly shows that in the last decade there has been no real Government policy aimed not only at maintaining high production rates, but at creating the conditions in which this expansion will be of benefit to the majority of the population.
The problems of children and youth are therefore consequences of the conditions mentioned above. In fact, there is an infant mortality rate of about 100 for every 1,000 live births, which is due to widespread diseases of the respiratory system.

In Peru illiteracy in persons of over 17 years of age is 40 per cent. In mountain districts and rural areas, this figure is over 80 per cent. Illiteracy in women in rural areas is over 90 per cent.

According to the 1961 census, employed children between the ages of 6 and 14 represent 2.6 per cent of the total working population. Statistics referring to children in irregular situation (those who have been neglected or abandoned, delinquent and handicapped children, etc.) are scarce, but in spite of an increasing effort to deal with this kind of problem, the services provided are still far from satisfactory.

No information is available concerning the family unit. As a probable result of a sense of maladjustment which exists among youth, of increasing migration, and of some other factors; it can be said that major changes are taking place in the structure, composition and stability of the family. The conclusion that can be drawn is that the Peruvian family is going through a crisis and is in the process of being remoulded as a result of economic changes.

Action by public and private sectors with regard to children and youth.

Increased government investment in economic sectors has already been mentioned, and expenditure has also increased in social sectors which deal with problems of education, health, etc.

Government aid to children and youth is increasing; more than 3,000 million soles, or 18.2 per cent of the Budget has been earmarked to this end. Apart from education, which is the most important item, less than 100 million soles are set aside for maternal and child health, and for institutions concerned with aid to children in irregular situations.

The National Council for Minors, which is based on a new policy for helping such children, is carrying out important work by providing special hostels, foster homes, nurseries, guardians, legal aid for children, etc.

The Ministry of Education and the Armed Forces have new programmes to extend educational services, to train semi-skilled technical personnel, and to reduce illiteracy.

The private sector is also playing its part in solving problems of children and youth; unfortunately no information is available from which to judge the results already obtained, or to assess future prospects.
The part that youth itself is playing in development programmes is worth mentioning. For example, the University Cooperation Programme, acting within the traditional university framework, is an effort to channel youthful restlessness and energy into positive action to improve the community. Peruvian university students, on a small scale, are beginning to make a contribution to national development.

The national effort to improve action in favour not only of children and youth, but of the whole community as well, is growing. The job of carrying out material and spiritual improvement involves action by the public sector, the country's private sector, by such international organizations as FAO, WHO, ILO, UNICEF, etc.

Finally, legislation governing the different spheres of action is being recast and new laws are being enacted which are designed to adapt these activities to present conditions.

The new Minors' Code and some provisions dealing with families and labour reflect the common desire that government action should go hand in hand with legislation designed to sanction the measures already adopted.

Although government measures and those taken by the private sector have increased in scope and importance in the last few years, they cannot all be considered as having been good, well-timed, or carried out on the necessary scale. The situation is due to the lack of a development plan which sets established standards by which to measure results being obtained and to calculate future requirements. The need for such a plan has been felt, and it is hoped that in the next one economic and social policy, especially where it concerns the family unit and children and youth will be directed towards the right aim.

With regard to the prerequisites for an effective children and youth policy, the basic requirement is that any policy must be formed in accordance with a development plan. In other words, the actions and measures to be taken must conform to the general and specific needs of each problem under consideration. The present problems of number and maladjustment of youth, and of unsettled family life, cannot be solved by outmoded concepts such as improvisation or paternalism. This Report proposes that such problems must be overcome scientifically and completely with the help of modern economic and social techniques.

This principle means, therefore, the co-ordination of action by the public and private sectors in order to draw up joint programmes for mothers, children and youth, which will systemize and integrate education, health, social assistance, etc. on a new basis resting on human dignity and liberty.

/CONCLUSIONS
CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions given here do not necessarily refer to a systematic presentation of Peru's economic achievements and social problems. These aspects were briefly dealt with in the summary and can be considered as typical for developing countries. Equally typical are the various and indirect measures taken by Governments, and even more typical is the frequent neglect of important problems for lack of timely decisions and of planning.

The most important conclusions relate to the solutions that can be found and applied in the future, as effective decisions made by Governments and society as a whole. In this way, if shortcomings are examined, a new rational policy can be evolved based on efficiently prepared development plans.

By way of an example, and as a result of the experience of our countries in the last few years, it might be worth while to point out, in all objectivity, a frequent occurrence. The techniques of economic development planning have won a much more ready response among the executive classes of the public and private sectors than has development in its general and philosophical sense. In other words, for several reasons Latin American leaders have not yet realized the undeniable advantages that can be obtained from modern science and technology.

In this field, an invaluable contribution to Latin American development could be made not only by concentrating on the full-scale training of additional technical personnel in intensive courses, but also by providing systematic guidance to the ruling elite, to government officials whose job it is to take daily decisions which have a considerable bearing on present as well as future development.

Executives in public administration, leaders of the executive and legislative branches of the Government, opposition leaders, entrepreneurs and trade union leaders all need, at this new stage, special guidance so that agreements and conclusions reached at the technical level can find the support needed.

Based on these guiding principles, some general and specific conclusions can be drawn.

1. Measures concerning children and youth that are taken by the public sector must cover aspects such as education, health, employment, guidance, etc. and must receive the co-operation of the private sector, especially organized family groups.

2. The family, as well as children and youth, must be guided along new lines. This guidance must be based on a broad concept of life, on a philosophy that teaches the four classic freedoms: freedom of thought, freedom of religion, freedom from want and freedom to live without fear.
3. It is essential to work out specific programmes which direct youth towards the task of development. It has been proved that young people, especially university students, are capable of doing useful material and spiritual work in the community.

4. Many of the complaints made by young people are justified. For this reason, university teachers should be the first to introduce innovations in teaching. The Latin American university can thus show the way in achieving change without violence.

5. In order to put many of the above ideas into practice, national and regional organizations are needed in Latin America to recommend and co-ordinate specific tasks. International organizations are at present probably doing a satisfactory job, but are doing so separately. What is undoubtedly needed is better co-ordination or the establishment of a specific body or office.

On a national scale, what is required in the case of Peru is a new policy and a reorganization of associations dedicated to the goals already mentioned. These goals must form part of an economic and social development plan.

INTRODUCTION

Primarily in connexion with the Latin American Conference on Children and Youth in National Development, to be held in Santiago, Chile, a preliminary survey was carried out for the first time in Peru concerning the situation and general prospects of children and youth. The survey is informative, and in some aspects an analysis of the situation. The survey is also important in view of the fact that Peru's Economic and Social Development Plan for 1967-70, currently being drawn up, will be able to include in its programmes goals and targets relating to a new approach to the possibilities of improving services, and of tapping the potential that each new generation carries.

Being a preliminary survey, it is subject to changes and alterations designed to produce a definitive document at the Conference. The National Institute for Planning, for example, plans to carry out research among leading politicians, teachers, anthropologists, sociologists, lawyers, etc. for the purpose of obtaining their ideas, experiences, and suggestions, in order to form a national policy for immediate and future action.

The Report has, therefore, the shortcomings common to all topics analysed for the first time, but it tries to set out briefly the action taken by public and private sectors, and to measure the results in relation to the country's economic and social situation. In short, the problems of children and youth are shown against the background of a general analysis of the Peruvian situation where the family as a private entity, and the State, as organizer of the nation's public life, have a decisive role to play in the future of every community.

/Chapter 1
Chapter 1

THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL SITUATION IN PERU

Children and youth, or persons under 24 years of age, represent 63 per cent of the total population. This important human nucleus of problems and hopes, somewhat neglected or else treated with such different and sometimes conflicting approaches and criteria by public bodies, undoubtedly needs an entirely new approach which is complete, bold, and holds out some prospects for the future.

With the aim of finding and establishing a suitable reference point from which to obtain a new sense of values with respect to youth, it has been considered necessary to begin with a compact analysis of the economic and social situation in Peru during the last few years. The behaviour of some macro-economic variables will be explained, and social factors such as health, education, housing, etc. will be examined; all of which are involved as cause and/or effect in the complex vicious circle of under-development.

Many other factors, some of them cultural, sociological, and even historical are not mentioned in the report for lack of information, but their study would certainly provide an insight into the problems of young persons, whose dissatisfaction and unrest do not always stem from economic considerations.

In any case, the following report contains factual information which, it is hoped, will contribute to an understanding of the complicated problems of children and youth.

Rate of growth of the gross national product and the most important macro-economic variables

According to the "Analysis of the social-economic reality in Peru" of July 1963, and the "Report on Peru's social and economic situation 1963-1964" and subsequent surveys of Public Investment Programmes for 1964-1965 and 1966 produced by the National Planning System, the Peruvian economy has surged forward in recent years. In fact, the long and short-term growth of the gross national product, with slight dips in some years, has been remarkable compared to that of some Latin American countries.

Between 1950 and 1962 overall growth was 5.2 per cent, for a cumulative annual average increase in the per capita product of 2.5 per cent. This figure means that Peru had no difficulty in reaching the per capita rate recommended as a minimum by the Charter of Punta del Este in August 1961.

If we confine the analysis to a recent period, 1960-64 (see table 1), it will be seen that the GNP reached the high figure of 12.4 per cent in 1960, 8.3 per cent in 1960-62 and 4.5 per cent in 1962-64. In spite of this drop, Peru is still registering growth rates uncommonly high for Latin America.

/A brief
A brief look at the most important macro-economic variables which are, after all, influenced by the GNP, shows that between 1960 and 1964, the domestic supply of goods and services (total goods and services available to the population) suffered a marked drop as a result of the drop in the GNP growth rate, which in 1962-64 was only 4.5 per cent. The situation is believed to have been caused by a slowing down of export growth during the same period.

A comparison between the periods 1960-62 and 1962-64 shows that consumption, the all-important item in domestic demand, also experienced a reduction in its average cumulative annual growth rate. This appears to be the result of a drop in the rate of increase of available goods and services, and to a greater relative share of imports in domestic supply.

If these variables are related to per capita indexes, it can be concluded that the average standard of living, although still increasing, has slowed down its rate of improvement in recent years.

Peru's foreign trade, one of the mainstays of its economic growth, has been sound since 1950, and is much more dynamic than that of other Latin American countries. It suffices to say that in the period 1950-1960 Peru's exports increased by 256 per cent, while the Latin American average was only 57 per cent. The export estimate for 1965, in dollars at current prices is 692.3 million dollars, and imports are expected to total 677.0 million dollars. The trade balance, therefore, will continue to be highly favourable.

Peruvian exports owe their increase to product diversification and the recent addition of important items such as fisheries products, copper, coffee, and iron. In recent years, capital goods have been forming an increasing part of the country's imports, which means a tendency towards more investment that will either maintain or possibly increase over-all growth rates.

Peru's balance of payments situation remains most satisfactory and recent estimates show that the average trade surplus, which was 672 million soles in 1962, will reach approximately 1,933 million soles in the period 1964-65. This excellent position is due to the favourable effect of the 1964 terms of trade, which will continue in 1965. This means that the country is able to cover the excess of imports over exports by means of this important foreign trade factor. Another reason for the favourable balance of payments situation is the fact that long-term capital and credit, after registering a deficit of 181 million soles in 1960, produced for the country in 1961-63 a net amount of dollars equivalent to 3,878 million soles at constant 1960 prices.

Capital formation in Peru continued to expand in the period 1960-64; for example, net fixed capital more than doubled in those years. The satisfactory capital formation position is due to the considerable increase in national savings, particularly private savings; foreign investment has also been a decisive element.
The public sector, deemed to be a strategic element in economic and social development policies and planning, is becoming a powerful factor of expansion through its investments. However, the taxation system is still backward and constitutes a brake on increased investment and an obstacle to a redistribution of income.

Some characteristics of sectoral growth, food production and employment levels

In the previous chapter, referring to over-all GNP growth and the slowing down of the rate in 1962-64, compared with previous periods, it was stated that this is one of the smallest increases on recent record. Now the GNP sectors of production have developed at different and diminishing rates, as can be seen from the three periods studied in table 2. Considering individual sectors, it can be seen that fishing, mining, construction, and manufacturing industries showed important growth.

If the sectors are considered as a whole, then the period 1962-64 was that of less growth than previous years, and the sector with the highest rate was construction with 8.7 per cent.

Agriculture, which represents 20 per cent of the GNP, grew at the rate of 6.8 per cent in 1960, 9.5 per cent in 1960-62, and dropped to 1.6 per cent in 1962-64. A brief analysis of the production side of agriculture, which has such an influence on food availability, shows that the home supply fell while food imports grew in 1960-62, only to drop slightly in 1962-64.

Production of potatoes, meat, wheat, and maize has either fallen or remained stationary during the last few years. Milk production increased from 2.8 per cent to 5.8 per cent over the same period. Consequently, the supply of home produced food has been falling, causing the need for more food imports, which in its turn has meant fewer possibilities of importing capital goods and raw materials for industry.

Imports of agricultural produce rose from 1,832 million soles at constant prices in 1960 to approximately 2,750 million soles in 1964 - a 50 per cent increase caused by the short supply of domestic consumer products such as potatoes, meat, milk, wheat, maize, etc. As can be seen from Tables 3 and 4, food frequently accounts for up to 20 per cent of the country's total imports.

With regard to other sectors, industry is still expanding but at a slower rate than in previous years. This is largely due to a lack of steady, expanding markets with increased purchasing power. More than 64 per cent of manufacturing production (textiles, food and beverages), is concentrated in Lima and Callao, as are the chemical industry, one of the most dynamic, which accounts for 8 per cent, metallurgy and transport (about 7 per cent) and basic industries (about 2 per cent) of total production.

/More than
More than 400,000 persons, or 13.2 per cent of the working population are employed in industry. The entire manufacturing industry represented 19.5 per cent of the GNP in 1964. At the moment, industry is not creating sufficient jobs to cope with the growing annual demand for work; however, the most pressing problem is the lack of skilled manpower at all levels. Calculations made by SENATI (The National Apprenticeship and Industrial Labour Service) based on ECLA's estimates concerning manufacturing industry in Peru, show that between 1956 and 1962, 604 engineers, 1,208 technicians, and 2,911 skilled workers could have found employment had they been available.

As regards vocational training, a survey carried out by the Government's Employment Service in 604 establishments in Lima and Callao showed that out of a total of 58,718 employed persons, only 4.8 per cent had received vocational training.

During the last ten years mining has registered an extraordinary increase of over 200 per cent. Mining accounts for about 9 per cent of the GNP. In spite of its remarkable growth, the mining sector is not a dynamic source of employment; it gives work to only 2 per cent of the working population. The high degree of automation in this sector reduces even more its capacity to absorb manpower.

Trade accounted for 17.5 per cent of the 1961 GNP. This sector, which employs about 9 per cent of the working population, has the biggest intake of unemployed persons.

**Distribution of income and regional disparity**

The noteworthy increase in GNP rates, however, has not produced a well-balanced social and regional development. For this reason it can be claimed that "growth" and not "development" is a characteristic of Peru. What is meant is that the term "development" implies optimum distribution of income on a social scale, a balanced sectoral and regional growth, and an over-all expansion based on national effort, that gradually takes shape over the years.

The country's economy still depends to a great extent on foreign trade - a sector which is of benefit to a minority, and is subject to frequent fluctuations on the part of purchasing countries. On the other hand, taxation, as mentioned previously, is principally indirect, and tends to hinder a fair distribution of income.

The "Analysis of Social-economic Reality in Peru" Volume 1 - a document that still holds good today - showed that in the period 1950-1960, the share in national income of private entrepreneurs and white-collar workers increased considerably, while that of workers, self-employed persons, and small-scale entrepreneurs decreased. Thus, while the earnings
of capital and entrepreneurs in the private sector rose from 20.2 per cent to 25.1 per cent between 1950 and 1960, the share of workers and small entrepreneurs dropped from 37 per cent to 31 per cent during the same period.

Expressed in percentage variations, if national income between 1950 and 1960 grew by 226 per cent, income of private entrepreneurs and from capital went up by 304 per cent; that of white-collar workers by 292 per cent, and that of workers by only 172 per cent. If together with these percentages, we consider the fact that workers and white-collar workers represent 90 per cent of the working population, and that the cost of living has been increasing at a considerable rate, the conclusion that can be drawn is that Peruvian economic growth has not been benefitting national majorities.

Actually, there are no real surveys that give the full picture of the unbalanced distribution of income in Peru. However, a recent estimate of the 1963 national distribution of income made by the National Planning Institute, gives figures that show how out of date the country's economic structure really is, and shows the causes of social pressure and tension. This goes to confirm the theory that Peru's present problem is not only how to increase production, but how to distribute in a better way the fruits of labour and help the underprivileged sectors of society, to widen the home market, and to ensure development of the economy.

According to the estimate, the distribution of income among the working population is as follows: 90.5 per cent of the working population receives a monthly income of 2,000 soles or less; 9.3 per cent between 2,000 and 20,000 soles per month, and only 0.2 per cent between 20,000 and 120,000 with this 0.2 per cent receiving 16.3 per cent of total remunerations. (See table 5.)

Surveys at regional level are even scantier. One was carried out in 1958 on the economic and social situation in the south of Peru, comprising the departments of Apurímac, Arequipa, Ayacucho, Cuzco, Madre de Dios, Moquegua, Puno, and Tacna. The total area of these departments is 386,000 square kilometres, representing 30 per cent of the area of Peru with a population of around 2,520,000, or 25 per cent of the national total.

Economically and socially, the South of Peru is the most densely populated region, with a population that is principally indigenous; it has an uneven topography and very few natural resources, and is the country's poorest region.

The analysis of probable distribution of income for 1958 showed that approximately 96 per cent of the working population, made up of settlers, small-scale-farmers, sundry independent entrepreneurs, workers, etc., received annual incomes of 10,000 soles or less; 62 per cent of the

/working population
working population received annual incomes of less than 1,000 soles, while 4 per cent received incomes higher than 10,000 soles. The high income sector is made up of medium-scale entrepreneurs, white-collar workers, landowners, merchants, industrialists, professionals, government officials, etc. (See table 6.)

Peru is traditionally divided into three geographical regions: the Coastal Region, the Sierra - or mountain region - and the selva - or rain-forest-area. The Coastal Region is a narrow strip along the Pacific coast, crossed by rivers which have an irregular flow. These rivers have given rise to transversal valleys and to large areas of sand and desert. The cultivated areas of the Coast are fertile, and are the principal producers of export items such as cotton and sugar cane. It is therefore the country's richest region, the site of the capital of the Republic and of the principal cities and industrial areas. The coastal area is approximately 14,000 square kilometres, (11 per cent of the total) and has a population of 4,113,000 (40 per cent of the total). It is not integrated with the rest of the country, and its development is due to foreign trade.

The Sierra, parallel to the Coastal Region and, according to historians, the cradle of once-flourishing civilizations, is crossed from end to end by the Andes. The region is thus marked by jagged peaks and is harsh and difficult to live in. However, some 4 million people manage to eke out a living there under extremely poor conditions. In spite of its natural disadvantages, the Sierra supplies most of the food for the other two regions. It has an area of 335,000 square kilometres (26 per cent of the country's total), and 5,327,000 inhabitants (52 per cent of the total). The Selva or rain-forest-area in the East of Peru is the source of the great rivers of the Atlantic Basin. It is an undulating area with some plains, a scant population, and little-known resources. It could have an important future. The area is 806,000 square kilometres, (63 per cent of the total) with approximately 880,000 inhabitants (8 per cent of the total).

The lack of regional integration has been pointed out, and this has given rise to two kinds of agricultural economy: one highly productive in the Coastal Region, with an export market; the other, in the Sierra, out of date and inefficient. Several infrastructural, sociological, and historical factors are responsible for this situation.

Not only the agricultural sector, but the whole structure of economic relations between the Coastal Region and the Sierra greatly hinders economic development. It was estimated that in 1959 the Sierra was "exporting" to the Coast, products to the value of more than 4,000 million soles per year, 75 per cent of which was agricultural produce. The Sierra was "importing" from the Coastal Region about 2,000 million soles, mostly in industrial products. The result is, that the Coastal Region is developing by virtue of its national and international trade, while the Sierra remains economically static.

/In short
In short, the lack of integration of Peru's three regions has caused migration, with its subsequent effect on housing and employment. Surplus manpower is probably responsible for the low income level among industrial workers and for the serious under-employment, (reflected in the presence of all kinds of street vendors, middlemen, etc.). For some years the Coastal Region will not be in a position to absorb manpower surpluses from the Sierra.

The disorganized migration from the Sierra to the Coastal Region, together with the inexperience and low purchasing power of the people involved in such migration, must also play an important part in preventing the growth of a modern economy marked by increasing productivity and high individual incomes.

Regional disparities which cause migration from poorer areas, apart from creating social and economic problems in the areas of influx, have also led to disequilibrium in public sector investment. Surveys by the National Planning Institute show that the Government has to invest large sums in so-called social sectors to the detriment of economic sectors. In other words, the possibility of creating new jobs has had to take second place to that of trying to alleviate the chaotic situation of cities overcrowded by "immigrants" from the country's interior.

The actual figures for the 1960 public sector expenditure are: 3,460 million soles on education, health, housing, social services, labour, etc., while only 961 million soles (at constant prices) were spent on economic services such as agriculture, power, industry, transport, etc. The predominance of social expenditure over economic expenditure still continued in 1964, but the relative proportion improved: 7,892 million soles at 1960 constant prices were spent on social services in 1964, and 4,571 soles on economic services.

Over the period 1960-64, investment was better balanced, expenditure on social services doubled, while that on economic services went up by nearly five times. This shows interest in the solution of social problems, but at the same time a clearly-marked tendency towards investment in economic sectors. Tables 7, 8 and 9 give all the relevant figures.

**Characteristics of population, land tenure, education, nutrition, health, and housing**

(a) **Population**

The population of Peru, like that of other developing countries, can be considered a young population. This is shown in table 10, where 45 per cent of the population is in the 0-14 age group, and 63 per cent consists of children and youth, i.e., persons 24 years of age and under. The population situation in Peru is similar to that of Mexico or Costa Rica. Chile's population is undergoing changes which bring it more into line with that of more advanced countries.

/ The percentages
The percentages given for Peru together with the fact that the population growth rate in 1965 is 3 per cent per year, give an indication of the size of the task to be undertaken in such services as labour, housing, health, nutrition, education, etc.

Another significant guide to the social and economic situation in Peru is the proportion of inhabitants in different social and economic sectors. At present 50 per cent of the population is employed in agriculture, and this percentage goes up to more than 90 in mountain regions. Industry employs 13 per cent of the total working population. On the whole, some 50 per cent of the population is urban.

The productivity of Peruvian workers is low, and under-employment is rife. About 50 per cent of the working population is engaged in agriculture, and in spite of a flow of approximately 100,000 persons per year from agriculture to other sectors, agricultural areas are still over-populated. For this reason the productivity of agricultural workers is 7,500 soles per year, while that of industrial workers is more than 25,000 soles per year.

(b) Land Tenure

It has already been mentioned that agriculture is a drag on the Peruvian economy because of the insufficient supply of food products for urban consumption. Although agrarian reform has now begun, and is already changing the structure of land tenure and bringing social stability to agricultural workers, traditional obstacles will probably not be removed for some years to come. They are: a low land/worker ratio (0.2 hectares per man), low productivity of both land and farmworker, out of date distribution of land, and the persistence of inflexible institutional and finance systems.

Of the above-mentioned factors, the one that has been the greatest cause of the poor supply of agricultural products and of social discontent is, perhaps, the land tenure system. Table 12 illustrates this point. It can be claimed that this defect in agrarian structure existed from the days of Spanish rule until 1964, when an Agrarian Reform law was passed for the first time (No. 15037, May 1964). This law should bring about many positive results.

The table shows that about 76 per cent of Peruvian farmland is divided into farms of more than 500 hectares, and that this land is in the hands of 0.4 per cent of the total number of landowners. At the other end of the scale, more than 83 per cent of the landowners own less than 6 per cent of the farmland.

/General outlook
General outlook of health, sanitation, and nutrition

In spite of a notable improvement in the last ten years, the general conditions of health, sanitation, and nutrition are all highly unsatisfactory. Such statistics as are available show that approximately 33 per cent of births, and 44 per cent of deaths and communicable diseases are registered. The Ministry of Public Health and Social Welfare has listed the following factors, in order of importance, which contribute to Peru's principal health problems: lack of environmental sanitation, malnutrition, prevalence of communicable diseases, high infant and pre-school mortality rate, and tuberculosis. In urban areas, 58.7 per cent of the population has no drinking water, and the figure is as high as 98.5 per cent in rural areas. In cities, 65 per cent of the population has no sewage system, and sewage is practically unknown in the country. In other words, half the population of Peru has no drinking water and sewage.

Malnutrition presents a serious problem, with an average calory deficit of 28 per cent of the minimum requirement per person. The protein deficit is 22 per cent of the average minimum requirement. These deficiencies reach the figure of around 40 per cent in the Sierra and Selva areas. Carbohydrates predominate in everyday diet, and in country areas they form as much as 82 per cent of the total diet.

For the most part, studies concerning nutrition are scarce. In 1951, a series of surveys was carried out in different areas which were specially selected as representing the Coastal Region, Sierra, and Selva. The surveys were at family level, and in some areas were carried out twice in one year in order to take seasonal changes into consideration. Results gave information concerning intake per person of calories, proteins, fats, calcium, vitamin A, thiamine, and riboflavin.

As can be seen, the national and regional figures are well below the minimum requirements per person. Table 13 shows the average intake per person of the items indicated, and table 14 gives the percentages of families which the surveys showed to be receiving less than 75 per cent of the recommended intake of nutrients.

Nutrition among children and youth will be dealt with in another chapter of this report. The information is based on results of a survey carried out by Dr. Carlos Collazos Ch., which were published in the magazine "Viernes Médico" (1956, Vol. VII No. 1).

In 1961, a quarter of the persons treated in the country's hospital had communicable diseases, and in general hospitals, 41 per cent of the beds per day were occupied by patients suffering from such diseases. A large proportion of these diseases is due to lack of environmental sanitation, the cause of intestinal diseases, and one of Peru's principal health problems.

Infant mortality
Infant mortality in Peru is approximately 100 per 1,000 live births. The rate ranges from 182 per 1,000 in the departments of Huancavelica, Cusco, and Ayacucho, to 60 per 1,000 in La Libertad, Cajamarca, and Lambayeque. In some cases the rates are believed to be higher, but are not registered as statistics are incomplete.

The number of deaths due to tuberculosis decreased sharply from 300 per 100,000 deaths in 1948, to 50 per 100,000 in 1961. Tuberculosis still presents a serious problem but the drop in the number of cases, due to improved medical services, is encouraging.

(c) Housing and shanty towns

The first national housing census, carried out in 1961, showed the critical situation of the country's living conditions. About 75 per cent of the population lives in sub-standard dwellings with problems of overcrowding, promiscuity, health risks, or lack of basic hygiene and welfare services. Three problems are causing housing conditions to deteriorate further: lack of maintenance of existing dwellings; inadequate rate of construction in relation to annual needs due to population growth, and the large-scale migration from rural areas to urban centres.

Migration is responsible for the fact that in 1961 total population growth was 2.9 per cent, while the rate of urban population growth was approximately 4 per cent. The migrants moved into fringe areas of the principal cities, or into slum regions in the centres.

The situation concerning type and quantity of hygienic services is as follows: of about 2 million private dwellings for some 10 million inhabitants, approximately 240,000 have a family W.C. and 40,000 possess a collective one; 86,000 have a private bathroom, and around 40,000 have collective bathrooms. Less than 20 per cent of occupied dwellings in Peru, therefore, have acceptable hygienic services.

Of the total number of dwellings, 400,000 have water mains, a little more than 500,000 have electricity, and 400,000 have walls made of wattle and daub, matting, or tin sheets, and more than 1 million have thatched roofs.

The Census gives the following figures concerning the urban and rural housing situation with regard to number of occupants per room: in towns, out of 336,000 dwellings, more than 160,000 have only one room, with more than 3 occupants per room; 129,000 two-roomed dwellings have more than 5 occupants each; and about 46,000 homes with 3 rooms are each occupied by more than 7 persons. In country areas more than 50 per cent (310,500) of the total number of dwellings are each occupied by more than 3 persons, and within this total there are some 50,000 which have only one room and more than eight person to every room.

/The Census
The Census gives the following figures for house ownership: 56 per cent are owned by their occupants, 25 per cent are rented, and 19 per cent are subject to other tenancy conditions.

In the case of shanty towns or city areas which attract disorganized rural migration, Lima is a typical case. More than 600,000 people (around 39 per cent of Lima's population) have come from country areas, but only 400,000 (25 per cent) have been absorbed. No direct relationship exists between the size of a city and its inflow of migration. Chimbote for example, which is 400 kilometres to the north of Lima, has a population of 60,000, 90 per cent of which is a result of migration. Pucallpa, in the Selva region (840 kilometres from Lima) owes 85 per cent of its 22,000 inhabitants to migration.

Chimbote is really one huge slum district, in spite of being the country's principal fishing and iron and steel centre.

The case of Lima and Callao (urban area) is representative of the migratory situation; between 1940 and 1960 the population increased by 189 per cent, with an annual average of 5.1 per cent. The reasons for this movement have been given in a survey carried out by San Marcos University, and are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>61.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>22.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military (compulsory military service)</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These figures are taken from "Demographic Growth and Economic Development", a publication of the Employment and Human Relations Service, Lima, 1963.

If the annual population growth rate of about 3 per cent is taken into consideration (4 per cent in urban, and 1.6 per cent in rural areas), together with the assumption that there is an average of five persons per family, it can be estimated that between 40,000 and 45,000 new urban dwellings, and about 20,000 new rural dwellings are required each year. At the moment there is a deficit of about 1 million homes, made up of 850,000 to be constructed, and 150,000 in need of rebuilding.

A real effort is now being made in the field of housing construction. The public sector was responsible for the construction of about 9,000 homes in 1964, and this figure is expected to be 13,000 in 1965. This unprecedented action on behalf of the State is expected to continue in future years. The private sector is taking similar action, and although no statistics are available, several
available, several societies and co-operatives in close contact with the National Housing Committee, have more than 800 homes under construction this year.

(d) **Education**

This item is dealt with in the following chapter.

**Government policy and the economic and social situation**

From the foregoing analysis of Peru's economic and social situation, it is evident that there has been no economic and social development policy. Only since the Punta del Este Conference (August 1961) has the Government been making an effort to define a joint social-economic policy that co-ordinates sectoral and regional development.

Policies with certain aims, and which dealt with some sectors, have existed before in Peru, but there has never been an integral, coherent, and far-sighted one. Fortunately for the country, the men in Government bodies and in decision-making positions, are now beginning to consider the country's priorities.

In former years it was believed that the free play of the market itself would be enough to ensure a smooth rate of development, and that the Government's role had to be one of minimum interference in production and distribution of income. This belief, apart from some exceptions, now belongs to the past, and there is a common desire to bring about changes in the country within the concept of Western liberty.

National policy is changing direction, the national planning system is making great contributions to a better knowledge of the situation, to the assessment of immediate and future goals, and to the solution of the many problems that are arising.

It is likely that government policy will be directed by rational programming in the near future. However, there are many administrative, political, economic, social, and cultural obstacles still to be overcome.
Chapter 2

THE PROBLEMS OF CHILDREN AND YOUTH IN PERU

In the previous chapter the country's unsatisfactory social situation was outlined, and was found to be largely due to an unequal social and regional distribution of income rather than to considerations of annual output increases or neglect by the public sector. Consequently, Peru, like any developing country, has serious problems concerning children and youth. Fortunately, a clearer picture of the difficulties involved is developing, accompanied by Government readiness to overcome such difficulties. The most important measures taken by the public and private sectors will be examined in Chapter 3.

Table 11 gave the different age groups to be considered in this report. A more detailed analysis of the 1961 Census further divides the 4.5 per cent representing the inactive population (0-14 years) into the following groups: 0-4 years, 18.2 per cent; 5-9 years, 14.2 per cent; 10-14 years, 12.1 per cent. In spite of the large-scale migration already mentioned, the rural population is still 57.6 per cent of the 1965 national total, and the urban population 42.4 per cent.

The rural characteristic of the population is heightened by a large indigenous population with its traditional way of life, divided into small communities, principally agricultural in nature, and this makes action in favour of education, health, training, recreation, etc. difficult to carry out.

Between 1950 and 1960 there was an absolute annual increase in population of 130,000 to 200,000; between 1965 and 1970 the annual average will rise to around 400,000 persons. This tendency is expected to reach its maximum level in 1977, when the birth curve will begin to drop.

Health and Nutrition among Children and Youth

One of the most serious health problems is that of infant mortality, with a rate of around 100 for every 1,000 live births, which is higher in rural areas.

Table 15, giving the principal causes of death and their proportion among young people, shows that 30 per cent of deaths occurred in children under one year of age in 1960, and that approximately 63 per cent of total deaths occurred in persons less than 25 years of age.

The most frequent causes of infant mortality are diseases of the respiratory system, gastro-intestinal diseases, communicable and infectious diseases, and those related to deficiency in nutrition. Other age groups suffer from the above to varying degrees.

To attend to the needs of the new-born, there are 2,500 maternity beds in Peru, the vast majority of which are in the urban zones of the
major centres of population, particularly in the Coastal region. It is calculated that 60 per cent of the births (240,000) are carried out under unsuitable conditions, with the consequent harm to the health of both mother and child.

There are now (1965) 110 preventive, therapeutic, and mobile services, attached to health units. These services have cared for more than 400,000 children between 0 and 5 years, and have given over 700,000 consultations.

Children's hospital services have 1,511 beds in the whole country; this is not enough to meet requirements, in view of the high morbidity rates.

Between 1962 and 1964, fourteen modern hospitals were built in different cities of the Coastal region and Sierra. These hospitals have suitable services for mothers and children.

The appropriate number of institutions for the protection of pre-school children has not yet been reached; the kindergarten facilities that exist are hardly sufficient for 10 per cent of the infant population. The total capacity of public and private kindergarten and nurseries is about 40,000 children, but attention is needed for 600,000 pre-school children whose mothers are working on farms, in factories, and in domestic service in the cities.

Food services for pre-school children are scarce in comparison to those received by infants and schoolchildren. The same applies to recreation and instruction services for pre-school children. In government and private schools, children between the ages of 5 and 14 are given poor medical care and attention.

Breakfasts and dinners are being given to some children in government schools. In 1964, 84 million meals were supplied, due to a great extent to Alliance for Progress aid. The school meals service is gradually increasing.

In 1956, a report was published by Dr. Carlos Collazos Chiriboga, entitled "Aspectos Clínicos del Estado Nutritivo de los Peruanos". The publication contained important conclusions concerning the study of nutrition conditions and their effect on the population's organic state. Observations referring to early childhood (0-3 years), and puberty (13-18 years) are worth considering here.

A survey of 88 cases in early childhood carried out in representative areas of the three natural regions gave the following information: in the Coastal region more than 90 per cent of infants in their first six months had satisfactory height and weight. From the age of 13 months onwards, some children showed signs of being underweight and undersized, and between the ages of 24 and 36 months, children were below the height and weight they should normally have.

/In the
In the Sierra, children between 0 and 3 years became undersized and underweight before those in the Coastal region, and this condition was maintained throughout the period indicated. In the Selva region, height and weight fell below normal after the first 6 months.

In all three regions, and from 6-3 years of age, the thoracic measurements were larger than the abdominal. In the Sierra, every child has deficiency of vitamin A, and B complex. In the Selva region, apart from vitamin A and B deficiency, children had unduly pale oral mucosa.

A sample survey showed that during puberty, (13-18 years) personal hygiene was found to be satisfactory in all children from mountain areas, and in 83 per cent of the children in the Coastal region. It was unsatisfactory in 100 per cent of the cases in the Sierra. In the Sierra and Selva area the percentage of children showing insufficient muscular development and abnormal growth was 87 per cent and 66 per cent respectively. Other important observations were pigment and vascular alterations of the conjunctiva in as many as 75 per cent of the cases studied in the Coastal region, and in 42 per cent of the cases in the Sierra. The occurrence of tooth decay is disturbing: 69 per cent in the Selva region, 58 per cent in the Coastal region, and 47 per cent in the Sierra.

**Education**

For some years, intense efforts have been made to increase the operative capacity of schools and the number of teachers. In spite of this, numbers are still below requirements. Tables 16, 17 and 18 show the percentage variations from 1960 to 1963.

The 1961 Census showed an illiteracy index of 40 per cent among people over 17 years, and an average of 2.9 finished school grades among persons over 5 years. In 1963, 2 million people received instruction from 72,000 teachers in 17,000 schools. However, there is still a deficit in the present system of education, with regard to its quality, the deterioration of present capacity, and poor use of existing facilities.

The net number of registrations in educational establishments for 1965 is calculated to be 90 per cent for primary education, 30 per cent for secondary education, and 8 per cent for higher education. In spite of a satisfactory growth of educational services, (7 per cent per year) in terms of quality and geographic distribution, growth was uneven.
Statistics show that out of every 100 pupils who begin the first year of studies at each level of education, 50 primary students, 65 secondary students, 40 technical students, and 45 university students each finish their course as do 90 in teacher training institutions.

In spite of the high degree of investment in education, the situation is still far from satisfactory. The percentage of GNP being spent on education is 5.8, and public education takes 17.5 per cent of total public expenditure. Approximately 15 per cent of education is in private hands, 85 per cent being provided in government schools.

Illiteracy is still a difficult problem, adversely influencing the country's development possibilities. The 40 per cent illiteracy figure in people over 17 years of age that was previously mentioned, is the average of 18 per cent illiteracy in urban areas, and 61 per cent in rural areas.

The departmental illiteracy breakdown by sex is worth examining. In the whole of Peru 53 per cent of the women, and 26 per cent of the men are illiterate. In rural districts, 78 per cent of the women are illiterate. The departments with the highest and lowest levels of illiteracy are the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Departments</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Urban</th>
<th>Rural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Apurimac</td>
<td>77.5</td>
<td>53.0</td>
<td>83.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ayacucho</td>
<td>72.5</td>
<td>52.6</td>
<td>79.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cajamarca</td>
<td>54.9</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td>60.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuzco</td>
<td>67.0</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td>79.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Huancavelica</td>
<td>71.2</td>
<td>43.7</td>
<td>75.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puno</td>
<td>65.9</td>
<td>43.8</td>
<td>71.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Huánuco</td>
<td>56.5</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>63.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lima</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>26.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ica</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Callao</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>22.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Illiteracy among women in rural districts reaches 93.1 per cent in El Cuzco, 94.5 per cent in Apurimac, 91.8 per cent in Ayacucho, 88.7 per cent in Puno, and 75.2 per cent in Pasco. The lowest illiteracy percentages among women in rural districts are 39.7 in Callao, 32.8 in Ica, 41.7 in Lima and 37.8 in Tumbes.
The quality of education at all levels is considered to be highly unsatisfactory. Although no recent and comprehensive reports are available, it is evident that apart from this deficiency, there is no integration of primary, secondary, and higher education and that these levels are not geared to the needs of the country. This serious problem has been under consideration since about 1960, and educational levels and the growing needs of the country are being jointly analysed. It should be pointed out that the old humanities-centred educational system, somewhat out-of-date as to content and aims, is now under revision. It is hoped that this will lead to a new approach which, without altering the nature of education as a whole, will satisfy the constant demand for specialists.

A publication by SENATI (National Service for Industrial Apprenticeship and Labour) entitled "Manufacturing Industry and its Manpower in 1962" gave the number of skilled workers needed between 1963 and 1965 to meet the deficit that existed in 1962 (when there were only 19,309 skilled workers) was 2,100 for 1963, 2,137 for 1964, and 2,175 for 1965. During this period 4,341 technicians specialized in work directly connected with the needs of industry graduated from Government schools. Theoretically, the problem of sufficient numbers does not exist, yet less than 1% per cent of these technicians went into industry because their standard was not high enough. To sum up, the reason why factory owners do not accept, or accept only a limited number of skilled men, is the poor professional training that these men have received. SENATI, the organization that trains manpower, with the support of entrepreneurs, intends to improve the standards of technical personnel required by industry.

The standard of university teaching is variable, and the number of university students is not in accordance with the needs of the country. Some universities such as the Agrarian University, the Engineering University and the Medical Sciences and Veterinary Faculty of the National University of San Marcos, have modern educational systems. The extraordinary proliferation of universities is alarming; there are now 29, many of them in a precarious financial situation.
Child Labour

The 1961 Census showed that there were about 80,000 children between the ages of 6 and 14 who were at work, and that approximately 44,000 of these worked on the land. The number of working children expressed as a percentage of the total working population is less than 2.6. The 1961 figures are probably not accurate as the number of working children in mountain regions is believed to be greater. It must be added that the Government is trying to standardize legislation concerning child labour.

Children and youth in an irregular situation

In general, the above term includes all young people whose biological, psychological, or social conditions are below the normal level, but it specially concerns the effect that these conditions have on the child's behaviour. Both abnormal conditions and their effect are closely related and are only different from an outside point of view. Children in an irregular situation therefore, are those who, because of their particular living conditions or environment, lack the care and attention that their personality requires, whether it be for their physical, psychological or social development.

The concept of children in an irregular situation is provided for under Peruvian legislation. In this category are those who have been abandoned, those in moral danger, or those whose behaviour has been marked by acts against society.

The number of children in an irregular situation is not known, as no statistics exist. However, information concerning the number of such children in establishments of the Ministry of Justice and Culture gives a total of 1,579 cases for 1963, and 1,691 for 1965. The Policía de Investigaciones gives 15,000 as the total of children who left home, were held for law-breaking, or who were sentenced in 1959. The total, however, is hardly representative of the true picture.

The family and its stability

The Peruvian family, like those in other developing countries, is undergoing profound changes in both urban and rural areas, and at all social levels. It appears that the old patterns of peaceful country life, and colonial city life are on their way out. Many factors are bringing about this change, some of them economic, others ideological, but they all lead to a family and society that are better and more fairly balanced. The causes of migration that were mentioned earlier are producing upheavals in homes throughout the country, and traditional concepts are being revised.

Apart from the above, the population explosion, the lack or misuse of resources, the speed of technological advancement in the world, and new
development theories, all have an important role to play in disrupting the family. In fact the traditional family structure has been over-
whelmed by a modern movement that causes conflicts between a vigorously
impulsive youth ready to absorb innovation, and a family tradition
resisting the need for change.

At present there is a gap between the technological advance being
undertaken by the Government for the benefit of the country, and the
cultural level of the population, which does not appear to be prepared to
accept modern thinking. There are more opportunities for education than
before, better health services, the basic structure of industrial
development has been created, but the family unit is a product of other
generations, and is less eager to agree to change. The State and the
family are still not working together in the job of educating future
generations.

An example of this is the fact that up to 1950 the heads of family
had a greater influence over youth than they have now. This influence
has been replaced neither by the State, nor by the family itself.

Children and youth have shown frequent outbursts of violence. These
outbursts are evidently on the increase, and cannot be attributed solely
to extreme right or extreme left ideology, nor to the reactions of low-
income groups, as there are often young people involved who belong to the
higher levels of society. The causes are those already mentioned and
many more, a complex of forces difficult to measure and probably even
more difficult to control.

The Peruvian family and its future constituents - the children and
youth of today - appear to be drifting aimlessly. This is not a new
development, being merely the first form of expression of people who,
according to Kostow, are emerging from traditional societies into the
stage of preconditions for take-off towards a better life.

Peru has now actually reached the stage that Kostow describes as
the breaking down of the last bastions of traditional society, and these
are being replaced by a modern State based on mobility, on an hierarchical
social structure with more scope for vertical changing social values, and
on a central political authority that supersedes provincial feudalism and
is directed towards an economically more equitable and socially freer
society.

What youth expects from the family, the State, and society in general.

Because of the gap that exists between older and younger generations,
between those who give orders and those who take them, and between rural and
urban areas, it can be said that seldom more than it does now has youth,
consciously or unconsciously, expected a solution to its problem and to
those of the country.

/Youth today
Youth today expects rapid changes. This is a challenge to the creative capacity and to the determination of adult generations. The need is so pressing that changes which adult generations have taken several decades to bring about in developed countries will have to be effected in a few years. This has both its advantages and disadvantages. The process was made easier in the case of the developed countries because the changes in the pattern of family life were effected at a time when young persons followed in the path of their elders. Today it is the younger generation which presses for change and sometimes goes too far in its demands.

One advantage, however, is that this enthusiasm for changes among youth can be so channelled as to make youth not only the beneficiaries of social progress but a partner in bringing it about.

Chapter 3
ACTION BY THE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS IN THE FIELD OF CHILDREN AND YOUTH

Peru still has no over-all plan for medium or long-term development that includes rational and organized action by all economic and social sectors. This has meant that the policies and plans of both the public and private sectors have had no common aim; consequently, measures and decisions concerning children and youth have lacked cohesion and perspective.

Direct action by the State

Many budget items reflect the Government's concern for children and youth. Table 19 shows that the Government is spending on the needs of children and youth, a grand total of more than 3,000 million soles per year, which is 18.2 per cent of the total budget. Excluding education, the amount spent on items such as public health, justice, etc. was 90.8 million soles in 1964, or 0.5 per cent of the total budget. The amount spent on mother and child care, children's homes, orphanages, etc. hardly reached 62 million soles.

Of all public sector organizations, the most dynamic is the National Council for Minors.

Since the end of 1964, this organization has outlined an over-all plan for the social protection of the child, which is wide in scope and organized at a national level. The Council's policy is directed not only towards aid and protection of problem children, but of all young people.
The National Council for Minors

This body directs the country's child protection policy, trying to improve and streamline existing programmes which deal with health, nutrition, housing, social security, labour, and other aspects of family and child welfare. It also wishes to give better legal protection to the family unit.

The general aim is to give children and youth both in rural and in urban areas, a suitable social atmosphere for the development of their personality. For this reason, the Council not only wishes to improve the welfare services that different Ministries organize, but to co-ordinate these services for the benefit of all young people.

The principles and philosophy of the general plan for the social defence of the child

The child, because of its state of physical and mental evolution, needs special care and attention from before birth until it is a fully fledged member of society. It has the right to receive the best the State can offer, so that its childhood is spent in full enjoyment of national and international rights and freedoms recognized by men everywhere. The child must be free from all discrimination, and free to make use of the best opportunities and services of a social, physical, mental, moral, and spiritual development that is both healthy and normal.

The child must stay and grow in its own family, if possible. It has the right to be fed by its own mother, and to enjoy suitable standards of nutrition, housing, recreation, and medical care, and to receive special care and treatment when physically or mentally handicapped.

The child needs love and understanding for the complete and harmonious development of its personality. It needs to be free from neglect, cruelty and exploitation, and must be so educated as to be aware that it must devote its energies and aptitude to the service of its fellow men.

Child care also includes family protection, assistance before, during and after school age and when at work. This care must be provided by the appropriate educational, legal, and social authorities that the State and society should make available.

Abandoned children, or those in moral danger must be given special care that removes all sense of frustration and encourages their normal social adaption. Children with behavioural problems cannot be considered delinquents. On the contrary, they must fall within the province of protective legislation that prohibit sentences or punishment, but offer re-educative treatment and special care which is capable of bringing about the children's complete return to normal society.

/In any
In any case, laws, regulations, provisions or orders, whatever the level of authority from which they emanate, must consider the child's interest to be paramount - the criterion being the universal one that humanity owes the child the best it can give.

The following are the objectives set by the National Council for Minors under the over-all plan for the protection of the child:

- Improvement and broadening of the mother and child services now provided by some Ministries.

- Establishment of new services in line with the modern concept of child protection.

- Development of, and emphasis upon, campaigns of preventive action covering all sectors of children and youth.

- The national co-ordination of public and private services for the protection of mothers, children, and the family, in order to make better use of existing resources.

- The launching of a national crusade for the all-round protection of infants.

In order to attain the above, social policy will be based on State-sponsored programmes for the most part, and on co-ordination with private institutions, in accordance with the following outline:

I. **Preventive Programme**

**Concerning the individual child**

Improvement and extension of the following services:

- Children's Homes.
- Foster Families.
- Reform Establishments.
- Adoption.
- Child labour.
- Child guidance organizations.
- Children's legal services.
- Clinics for both healthy and sick children.
- Hospital attention for sick children.
- Child mental health:

  Child guidance service.
  Detection of problems of intelligence.
  Detection of mental disturbances in children.

/Establishment of
Establishment of the following services:
- Nursery homes.
- Foster homes.
- Centres for the social protection of children.
- Homes for older children.
- Vocational guidance centres.
- Establishments for training and apprenticeship in the trades.
- Co-operative, youth employment service.
- Educational establishments for abandoned children.
- Special police service for children.
- Emergency homes.

Concerning children in groups:

Improvement and extension of the following services:

Pre-school education (Kindergarten)
- Inoculation against: Diphtheria, smallpox, whooping cough, diphtheria, and polio.
- School meals service.
- Holiday camps.
- Education outside school hours.

Establishment of the following services:
- Supervised playgrounds.
- Youth clubs.
- Youth magazines.
- Censorship boards for books, magazines, public entertainments etc.

Concerning the family:

Improvement and extension of the following services:
- Family aid.
- Free medical supplies.
- Distribution of skimmed and whole milk and dietetic products.
- Free legal advice.
- Education in hygiene for individuals, families and communities.
- Mother and child medical centres.
- Pre-natal clinics.
- Post-natal clinics.
- Medical attention at childbirth, either at home or in hospital.
- Crèches for mothers.

Establishment of the following services:
- Meals service for mothers.
- Family education campaigns.

/II. Curative
II. **Curative Programme:**

Improvement and extension of the following services:

- Re-education establishments.
- Observation and guidance boards.
- Preventive section.
- Therapeutic section.

Establishment of the following services:

- Probation service.
- Specialized institutions for normal and abnormal children.
- Aid for children suffering from disabilities of the senses or of the mind.
- Aid for physically handicapped children.

III. **Programme for co-operation with private institutions:**

This is a special plan to stimulate, develop, and organize family and child care among private institutions.

An integration of the above programmes would enable such services as establishments for the custody of children in an irregular situation before they are brought before the authorities concerned thus avoiding their detention in police stations. At present, there are two such establishments which were set up in October 1964.

The *foster home* service offers an alternative home to children. *Children's homes*, of which there are 9 in the country, take in children between 7 and 12 years in order to protect them from various pitfalls.

In addition probationary services, foster homes, social assistance to the family, and centers for the social protection of children have been established, each with a specific preventive or protection programme.

On the therapeutic side, the National Council for Minors is financing the construction of a National Re-education Institute which would have the necessary staff and installations for important work in this field.

Together with these plans, staff-training programmes are under way to ensure the functioning of all these establishments.

In this way the Peruvian Government, through the National Council for Minors, is trying to prevent delinquency by protecting children in moral danger, and assisting those with behavioural problems. The Government's legal instrument is the "Código de Menores" whose doctrine and principles are based on the general principles of protection of minors and the Declaration of the Rights of Children.

/Because of
Because of the growing number of young people without experience or training who are looking for work in industry and commerce, the Minors' Code contains a chapter on protection of working youth which covers such items as minimum age for employment, number of working hours, health conditions at work, etc. At the moment, a Department of the Ministry of Labour is in charge of this service. The finishing touches are now being put to the Labour Code, which will bring every piece of legislation concerning employment into one complete unit.

The Child Guidance Service helps with the work of placing children from reform homes in other types of establishment, in schools, in hospitals, or finding them work. The Service is self-supporting, but also receives small government grants.

The Children's Legal Service was set up pursuant to Act No. 13,968, and is designed to bring about a timely and efficient application of the measures contained in the Minors' Code. The service is free.

The Ministry of Public Health and Social Assistance provides facilities for medical consultations for sick and for healthy children, hospital attention, health and welfare services, inoculations, food, free medicine and milk, etc.

For children and youth in an irregular situation, there are Juvenile Courts with specialized judges and tribunals.

According to Peruvian law, children under 18 years of age cannot be held responsible for an offence. They can be subjected to measures of prevention, protection, or treatment, but not to those of a punitive character.

Legally speaking, juvenile delinquency does not exist in Peru. Children in an irregular situation are given protection or treatment: protection for abandoned children or those in moral danger, and treatment for those with bad conduct.

The policy to be applied in respect of children in an irregular situation includes: care of those children in their own homes, placing them in foster homes and in educational establishments, education and guidance at home, effective aid in reuniting broken homes, complete protection or treatment in reform homes.

Juvenile Courts should make use of their own special services such as: observation and diagnosis units, children's police, etc. Their investigation should not be confined to the anti-social act committed by the child, but must order the law, include a psychological and physical examination, and a full investigation of the child's family and social background.

/Rural education
Rural education centres

As mentioned before, education facilities in Peru are ample. Primary and secondary education is free, and university education is practically free. There are private schools and universities however, for the benefit of the rich, which charge high fees, and which are nearly all run by religious groups.

Although Peruvian primary and secondary education have the same fundamental basis as that of other Latin American countries, Peru's case is different because of its high proportion of rural inhabitants, and because of the 4 million indigenous inhabitants that are still living in primitive conditions. This has given rise to an experiment with "Rural education centres" that has been carried out in the south of Peru since 1946.

The rural education centre is an attempt to organize some sort of community in the vast area populated by indians. The central school is intended to be a real social and cultural centre, with religious activities, sports, exhibitions, shops, and anything that can make it a centre of general interest. In short, it is an attempt to group together scattered human nuclei, and give them a common interest. At present, there are centres in 6 of the 8 regions chosen for the experiment, with a total of 97 centres. Each rural education centre is a separate administrative unit, consisting of a central school with between 7 and 12 subsidiary schools, all under one director. The centre is staffed with teachers and supervisors specialized in agriculture, health, adult education, and in some cases even in light industries.

The Ministry of Education is also attaching importance to technical education and to development of the arts, and has set down clear goals in these two fields and in education concerning agriculture, commerce, industrial training for both men and women, etc. This programme however, which is wide in scope since it covers the whole country, is not enough to satisfy the country's need for trained manpower.

There are two more recent experiments worth mentioning - that of the Peace Corps, which forms part of the Alliance for Progress, and the Government's Popular Co-operation Programme.

The United States' Peace Corps

The Peace Corps, largely made up of young Americans, is carrying out important work in Peru. At the moment there are 400 volunteers in the country. About 45 teach in universities or schools, either in urban or rural areas; some 250 work in community development in shanty towns and small villages; and there are about 40 who help to organize and operate all kinds of co-operatives.

/Peace Corps
Peace Corps volunteers receive special training in the United States, and further training shortly after their arrival in the country to which they are assigned. Their achievements in Peru have not yet been analysed in detail; however, their work is an interesting experiment which will have far-reaching results on the possibilities of raising the dignity of unfortunate people by having them live and work together with young idealists who wish to help their fellow men.

The most important result is probably the fact that both a desire and a need for change through self-help are now being aroused in poor urban districts and in isolated villages. Some members of the Peace Corps believe that the essential task is to bring together scattered social groups and see that they organize themselves and that they accept and have faith in their own leaders. The principal problem however, is the lack of leaders who are capable of directing their groups in working towards the aims of social welfare.

University "Popular Co-operation" Programme

This new experiment is one of the many solutions to the problem of diverting youthful energy and idealism into activities which will produce changes in the country. Active participation by university students in national organization is not new in Peru or in Latin America; it is one of the basic principles supported by the University Reform of 1918, adopted at Córdoba, Argentina. In fact the University Co-operation Programme also stems from the unique collectivism practised by the Incas, and even from before that time.

The Programme is based on aims for the community in general, and for the individual student. As far as the community is concerned, the Programme is trying to revive and reinforce the national spirit of co-operation that is an integral part of Peru's history. It is also trying to begin a process which would socially integrate rural communities with national life, and to awaken and stimulate the rural workers' interests, talents and capacities thus making him the architect of his own destiny.

Where the individual student is concerned, the Programme intends to establish direct contact between the university lecture-room and actual community life allowing the student at the same time to find his own way towards integration within the community.

There are a number of projects connected with this programme at present, many of them with volunteers from Belgium, France, Sweden, Finland and Holland. They, together with Peruvian volunteers, have received special training. Work has been concentrated in 1965 in the valley of Sicuani, department of Cuzco, which is one of the departments with the highest number of indigenous inhabitants and with frequent social conflicts.

According to information available, the work carried out by the University Public Co-operation Programme between January and March 1964...
included a whole range of civil engineering activities (construction of roads, schools, walls, first-aid posts, lavatories, squares, pavements, etc.); educational activities (literacy classes, courses at different levels, family education, etc.); and in health work (medical and dental care, inoculations, etc.). Legal and administrative activities included the organization of municipal archives, of co-operatives and trade unions, instruments granting recognition to communities, etc., and in agriculture the work included demonstrations of the use of fertilizers, forestation, vaccination of animals, the planting of orchards, etc.

The University Public co-operation Programme forms part of the National Co-operation Programme, the characteristic of which is to combine Government support with the resources available in a community, and to give the community a direct share in the decisions involving the work to be done. The system aims at making full use of idle manpower that exists in communities and, at their request to provide Government assistance in carrying out urgent work which is of direct benefit to the local community. The University Public Co-operation Programme has so far been in operation in 1964 and 1965.

The Municipality of Lima is another public sector body which is doing important work through its social welfare inspection scheme.

This scheme, which is also concerned with the problem of begging, is divided into three sections. It has free legal aid sections where births can be registered. It has established a "useful holiday" programme which combines holidays with work and which catered for some 12,000 young people last year. The recreation section, in collaboration with the National Physical Education Institute, the Ministry of Education, etc., is trying to bring a little pleasure into the lives of poorer class children and youth.

The Municipality of Lima also gives small sums of money to mothers' homes, blind children's institutes, kindergarten, etc. to a total value of a little more than 25,000 soles per year.

Report on the actions of the private sector in the sphere of Children and Youth

Several organizations such as sports clubs, religious, social and political groups, as well as certain groups of adults and of young people, are all making efforts to help children and youth.

Very little is known about the total numbers of such groups, their types and objectives, and their real effect on the community. Some organizations like Orjupe (Youth Organization of Peru) have tried, but with little success, to bring together different types of youth movements.

The importance of these organizations is worth mentioning, because they represent an undoubtful source of organizational ability and leadership in society.
in society. Most of these organizations have the same basic objective, which is the welfare of the community, each from their different points of view. With the exception of young members of political parties, who are bound to often conflicting economic and social principles, all these organizations are cast in practically the same structural and social mould.

The fact that there are many such groups formed of young people and of adults who have an influence on children and youth, leads to the conclusion that there is a strong well of good will and effort that could be tapped to aid development. A well-planned development policy could easily channel these forces towards common aims in the task of national development.

**Indirect action on the part of the Government for the benefit of children and youth**

Apart from direct action towards improving the living conditions of children and youth, (education, juvenile employment services, and dealing with children in an irregular situation) during the last few years, Government share in other spheres such as agrarian reform, housing, health, etc. has been increasing. Without a doubt, this action will have a favourable effect on the living conditions of children and youth, and might mean that present difficulties will be overcome in the future.

(a) **Agrarian Reform**

Government policy has been intensified in recent years to give preference to agricultural development, and consequently to the expansion of transport services and energy. These measures will directly benefit the rural population of the country (an average of 50 per cent of the total), and will also form the infra-structural basis necessary for the expansion of private industry in urban areas. The essential aim will be to integrate the Coastal Region, Sierra, and Selva region with a modern transport system permitting an intra-regional flow of production and expanding the home market.

The first chapter of this report gave a detailed account of public sector expenditure in terms of amounts, composition, and ratios, with equal emphasis on economic and social services.

Total investment in Peru in recent years has been high, and it is expected to be higher in the future. Total investment in 1960 was 19.2 per cent of the GNP; in 1966 the figure is expected to be 27.5 per cent. Total investment in soles went up from 10,699 millions in 1960 to 21,942 millions in 1964. Of a total public expenditure of 9,773 million soles in 1960, investment accounted for 1,095 million (11.2 per cent). The estimate for 1966 is a total expenditure of 24,988 million soles, with some 5,400 millions (or 21.7 per cent) earmarked for investment. This represents a 50 per cent increase in public investment over the 1960 figure.

/The public
The public sector is undoubtedly becoming a powerful factor in economic expansion that will permit an accelerated growth of private sector investment and an improvement in social conditions.

(b) Modifications in the structure of agriculture

It has been repeatedly claimed that the agricultural sector has been, and still is, a bottleneck. This is because there has been no clear-cut policy aimed at modifying the structure of production or land tenure, and therefore at introducing a new social pattern.

At present the general aims of government policy are: improvement of the land worker ratio by increasing the area under cultivation or by intensifying cultivation of existing land; a higher and more evenly distributed income through agrarian reform; productivity increases through expansion and experiment; and greater food production which would improve the quality and quantity of agricultural produce supplied to the urban centres.

Several important pieces of legislation such as laws, decrees, and resolutions, are setting the pattern of government action in rural areas. The Agrarian Reform Act No. 15,037 is the most important, and is in full operation now. Apart from that, there is Act No. 15,242 which deals with the methods of financing agrarian reform measures, thus modifying and extending articles 29, 47 and 211 of the Constitution. This Act permits payment for expropriation with bonds, whose acceptance is compulsory; it encourages the preservation and the diffusion of small and medium-sized farms, and in land distribution gives preference to indigenous communities which have insufficient land. Act No. 15,120 makes it unlawful to dispossess share-croppers and other tenant farmers of the land which they work.

Title XV, Article 224 of Act No. 15,037 mentioned above, states:

"Yanaconas *, aparceros *, arrendadres *, allegados *, colonos *, mejoreros *, sub-tenants, small holders, and other tenants of agricultural land shall, upon payment of the price in accordance with this Act, become permanent owners of the land that they now occupy, whether or not the zone in which such land is located has been declared a zone of agrarian reform and on condition that the area in each case does not exceed 15 hectares in the Coastal Region, or 30 hectares in the Sierra and Selva region."

"Those who rent more than one piece of land shall be entitled to the benefit expressed in Title XV of this Act only in so far as the total area does not exceed the above-mentioned limits."

"Occupants of forest land which is the property of the Government and who have a minimum area of 5 hectares under cultivation, and have

* Various forms of land tenure peculiar to Peru, which involve special services to the landlord.
begun the process of registering their claims, shall become owners of the land they occupy up to a maximum of 30 hectares.

Lands of less than 15 hectares area in the Coastal Region, and of less than 30 hectares in the Sierra and Selva region shall be exempt from the above if their owners do not possess other rural property."

Other decrees and resolutions have been passed by the supreme authorities with the intention of enforcing the production of certain food crops, with heavy penalties for non-compliance. Payment in the form of labour has been abolished in the principal valleys of the Sierra in the south of Peru, and several regions have been declared areas of agrarian reform.

Public sector expenditure on agriculture was 2.6 per cent of total expenditure in 1960 (2.2 million soles at 1960 prices), and went up to 4.6 per cent in 1965, (4.56 million soles at 1960 prices).

The Government is set on increasing the area of agricultural land by a further million hectares for 1970. Different public sector programmes at present will mean an increase of more than 500,000 hectares in the Coastal Region during the next few years. More than 230,000 hectares will be new agricultural land, and around 250,000 hectares will be improved, thus benefitting over 150,000 families.

After a year of intense work the agrarian reform which will modify property ownership and technical assistance, has begun to operate. Table 20 shows that 2 million hectares have already been affected by the reform.

In the Departments of Pasco and Junín (Central Region) 207,000 hectares have been distributed among communities and tenant farmers, more than 50,000 of whom will receive their title deeds during the course of 1965. It is hoped to issue title deeds to a further 120,000 persons on the register as soon as possible.

Agricultural loans, which are necessary to develop the distributed land, are being granted with all haste, and 115 million soles have already been given to peasants in the Coastal Region, to communities in the Central Region of Peru, and to co-operatives in the South.

In accordance with Act Nº 15,242 mentioned earlier, agrarian reform bonds are being distributed where expropriations have been made.

(c) Improvement of health conditions

The Government gives improvement of health conditions priority in its programmes. Expenditure on health went up by 350 per cent between 1960 and 1965 to 1,963 million soles at 1960 prices. In 1960, health accounted for 4.4 per cent of total expenditure, and in 1965 to 8.2 per cent.

/ The public
The public investment programme 1964-65, now in force, aims at reducing the deficit of water and drainage by 10 per cent in urban areas, and 5 per cent in rural areas.

The programme also plans to reduce the apparent deficit of 17,328 hospital beds by providing 685 new ones. For townships with between 2,000 and 10,000 inhabitants, 100 new medical clinics are being equipped, and for district capitals with 500 to 2,000 inhabitants, 70 health clinics are being set up.

Health costs for 1966 have been estimated at 848 million soles, 57 per cent of which will be for sanitary works (drinking water and drainage), and 43 per cent for construction and equipment of health centres.

The programme of sanitary works includes the following important projects:

The National Plan for Sanitary Projects (First Stage) which will bring drinking water and drainage to townships with over 2,000 inhabitants, and which will benefit some 584,000 people in 1966; the Plan for Improvement of drinking water services in Lima and seaside resorts; the Drainage Plan for Arequipa; the Rural Basic Drainage Plan (First Stage) which concerns 150 rural districts and a total of 140,000 inhabitants; the Drainage Plan for the north and north west; the Integral Drainage Plan, to increase the number of water and sewage mains, and the installation of other services, etc.

There is also a two-year plan for the construction and equipment of health services which includes the construction of 7 hospitals, the installation of 7 health centres, 50 small clinics, and 50 medical posts, and the construction and installation of a further 24 posts.

(d) Programmes for improvement in nutrition

In co-ordination with national and international organizations, several highly important programmes have been put into operation with the object of improving the low standard of nutrition prevalent in Peru. The Ministry of Public Health and Social Assistance (Food Department and Nutrition Institute), the Ministries of Education, Agriculture and War, the Agrarian University, UNICER, FAO, WHO and ILO are engaged in this work.

An important event was the formation in 1964 of the Supreme Nutrition Council, whose work is to co-ordinate research activities and to guide the different departments of Agriculture, Fishing, Industry and Public Health in the drawing up of plans concerning the supply and demand of essential food items.

/ The Government
The Government has four immediate basic objectives:

- Encouraging the agricultural and industrial production of food mixtures;
- Education concerning nutrition;
- Integration of nutrition and food programmes, and
- Co-ordination at a national level of the tasks of research and practical application.

One of the measures taken to further these objectives was a supreme decree issued in 1964 concerning "Compensatory Nutritive Supplements", which gave tax relief to industries that produced low-cost protein concentrates from national raw materials.

The National Nutrition Institute, for example, developed a vegetable food rich in protein called "National Nutritive Supplement" or "Peruvita". The laboratory tests of Peruvita (shown in table 21) are highly satisfactory.

The Ministry of Public Health is carrying out a project for the enrichment of bread through the addition of a 4 per cent mixture of fish flour type "B" which is fit for human consumption.

In the south of Peru, and in the Puno Department in particular, where most of the indigenous population is to be found, a programme known as PINA (Integral Nutrition and Alimentation Programme) is being carried out. The Ministries of Public Health, Agriculture, Education, Labour and War, as well as UNICEF, F.A.O., "WHO and I.I.O are involved in this Programme. At present (1964) 92 schools and 500 family kitchen gardens have been established, as well as 28 school farms.

As a Department of the Ministry of Health, the Technical Bureau for Food has been carrying out important work. For example, the "Food for Children" campaign in co-operation with A.I.D. (Food for Peace programme) has been supplying extra meals to primary-school children in government schools and to pre-school children in several departments since 1962.

The Food for Children campaign is rapidly spreading throughout the country (see table 22).

The old pattern of this programme - division of labour among different national and international organizations, work directed from Lima and for the benefit of schoolchildren only - are now being changed. The programme is being institutionally co-ordinated, decentralized, and now involves small groups of pre-school children. The National Nutrition

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Institute also carries out active work in the evaluation and technical direction of this programme through determination of the nutritional level in children, and its reports gave rise to the production of "Peruvita".

International co-operation has been on the increase in recent years. Until 1962, UNICEF supplied the Peruvian Government with dried skimmed milk and vitamins A and D for the former "school lunchroom" programme. Since 1962 the AID food for peace programme of the Alliance for Progress has been supplying skimmed milk, fats, flour, maize, etc. in the following quantities:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Metric Tons</th>
<th>Thousands of Soles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1962</td>
<td>2,604</td>
<td>18,983</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963</td>
<td>3,685</td>
<td>54,925</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964</td>
<td>6,663</td>
<td>52,395</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>15,498</td>
<td>123,467</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The WHO has a technical advisor in Peru, and it was with the help of a FAO food technologist that "Peruvita" was made possible.

UNICEF has programmes operating at present which concern nutrition health services, environmental sanitation, training of professionals and assistants in public health, control of tuberculosis, malaria eradication, training for primary school teachers and educational supervisors at all levels, improvement of the nutritional level in schools and in selected areas, etc. All these programmes are being co-ordinated with national organizations.

FAO, apart from its work in several large-scale agricultural programmes, also has some projects which, in spite of their apparently small scope, will have important results in the field of food. These projects are important because they not only contribute towards a solution of Peru's food problems, but lay down the foundations of a possible aid programme to other Latin American regions with nutrition problems. The marketing of "Peruvita" and of fish protein concentrates for human consumption are two items worth considering in more detail:

"Peruvita",2/ which is superior to fresh milk or beef (see table 21) is prepared from flour obtained from cotton seed and quinoa. These ingredients have a guaranteed home production, are rich in protein, and as they are obtainable at low cost, are of economic and social importance to low-income groups.

To a great extent, the success in obtaining the product was due to research by the Agrarian University - "La Molina" - which helped to extract edible flour from cotton seed, an ingredient much used for food.


After several
After several tests and analyses, and once its high protein content, satisfactory digestible degree, and low cost were proved, the Government supported the manufacture and distribution of "Peruvita".

A special committee studied the practicability of the project from several points of view, and finally, Supreme Decree No. 9H defined government policy by stimulating private initiative for the production and marketing of protein-rich food by means of tax concessions and exemption. At present, an important company (PERULAC), making NESTLE products has a 10-year Government contract for the production and marketing of Peruvita. In August 1965 production will begin at a rate of 70 tons per month, half of which will be for Government pre-school and school programmes, and the other half on sale to the public.

Fish meal protein concentrate is a product that has had the support of several groups such as the Zootechnic Faculty of the Agrarian University, the Faculty of Pharmacy and Biochemistry of the University of San Marcos, the Anglo-American Clinic, the National Nutrition Institute, and private industrial concerns. FAO also played an important part, especially at the governmental level.

Use of the concentrate as a nutritive supplement in human diet was authorized in 1964. It is now being used in many different ways.

Because of the success obtained, the Government is widening the school feeding programmes by permitting the addition of 4 per cent of the concentrate to bread.

The firm "Industrializacion de Productos Agrícolas S.A." is using the concentrate in mixtures with other products which are being distributed chiefly among indigenous communities in collaboration with AID and CARITAS.

"Micolini Bros. S.A.", which is an important spaghetti firm, in a joint programme with the Anglo American Clinic of Lima, is now putting 10 per cent of the concentrate in its products. The firm intends to offer this product to the public when final tests have been completed.

On his own initiative a Peruvian industrialist, Sr. Verrando, is carrying out tests for the production and sale of a special soup and of macaroni. The soup is already available to the public, and the results will be examined before beginning large-scale production.

According to Sr. Contesse the FAO food technologist, Sr. Verrando is in contact with an Italian firm with a view to a possible production for the Asian market, and with an American firm for possible production on an international scale.

The programmes noted here are of extreme importance, but unfortunately results have not been evaluated. However, they will all be considered in the Plan for 1967-70 which is now being drawn up.

3/ Development of Fish Protein Concentrate in Peru, by Gustavo Contesse P., FAO Food Technologist, Peru, 1965. / (e) Improvement of
(e) Improvement of housing conditions

The large-scale housing programmes have the following aims: to supply the housing that the population growth requires, to reduce the huge housing deficit, and to improve houses in bad condition by supplying them with basic services and the necessary communal services. In the present Government's investment programme, housing has the same priority as agriculture or transport.

The National Housing Board directs housing investment either in the form of Government funds, foreign loans, promoting private sector construction, or legislation in favour of present tenants.

The investment programme of the National Housing Committee includes the provision of homes for the middle as well as the lower-income groups; construction is being carried out in the capital, in the Coastal Region, as well as in the Sierra and Selva region.

It is hoped that 5,500 new homes will be provided in 1966 and some 7,000 for 1967. Housing investment is increasing, and although the huge deficit cannot be removed at once, the programme will alleviate to some extent the great demand for houses. As mentioned previously, public sector expenditure on housing and communal services went up from 396 million soles (or 4 per cent of the total expenditure in 1960) to 1,420 million soles (or 6 per cent of the total in 1965), both figures in soles at 1960 prices. Actual expenditure increased by about 260 per cent over this period.

The Executive Power was authorized under Act 12,370 to take the measures required to solve the country's housing problem. This has given rise to a series of decrees and resolutions designed to bring about private sector contributions towards relief of the chronic situation.

For example, Supreme Resolution 649 of 1963, formed a commission to study housing intended for members of the teaching profession. Supreme Decree No. 12 of 1964 increased the tax exemption period to 15 years for those persons or corporations, whether national or foreign, which financed the construction of low-cost houses of the A or B type, which have a maximum price of 120,000 and 170,000 soles respectively. Supreme Decree No. 4 of 1964 granted tax concessions on loans obtained by companies for the construction or buying of houses. This Decree includes exemption from housing tax for personnel of the Employees' Fund of the Caja de Depósitos y Consignaciones. There are other clauses which speed up house-buying procedures, and still others designed to establish building sites for housing with the help of building societies and mutual credit associations. Finally, Supreme Decree No. 28 of 1963 authorizes industrial and commercial enterprises to grant interest-free loans to their employees' co-operative societies for A and B type housing.

(f) The Peruvian armed forces' share in social and economic development activities

The Army, Navy and Air Force are carrying out important work in development programmes throughout the country.

/The Army's
The Army's programme in these activities is called "Civic Action", which at present includes road building, literacy campaigns, industrial training, agricultural training, education, cartography aid, and food delivery.

The Army is building roads principally in remote and difficult forest areas, with the aim of increasing the area of productive agricultural land. It has been calculated that a further 3 million hectares will in this way be gained for national production.

The Army's contribution to the national literacy campaign has been to revise its teaching procedure in all units so that barrack schools in all 5 military regions will be able to teach reading and writing to some 6,000 soldiers per year. The programme also includes training for 3,000 soldiers who, when they return to civil life, will teach reading and writing to an average of 30,000 people in two years.

The industrial training programme includes the teaching of several technical trades. In 1964-65, a total of 2,576 persons became specialised in bricklaying, carpentry, electrical installations, forging and welding, plumbing, etc.

The agricultural training programme in El Cuzco is designed to give instruction in techniques and production to military personnel and to rural children in the 4th military region.

The education programme, in co-operation with the Ministry of Education, gives instruction to children of officers, of civil employees, and of "C.O.'s.

The 1965 national cartography programme being carried out by the Military Geographic Institute, produces aerial photographs and maps for social and economic development projects.

The medical assistance programme has 38 medical posts and 39 mobile posts distributed throughout the whole country. Between March and July of 1965, more than 62,000 patients received medical consultations, and dental consultations were given to more than 17,000 persons.

The land settlement programme of the frontier and forest zones is co-ordinated with the Institute for Agrarian Reform and Development. Other land settlement programmes are concerned with reconnaissance and preparatory surveys in different forest areas.

Community aid programmes include the job of stimulating team-work in the community in such fields as health and sanitation, education, public and welfare services.

The food delivery programme refers to the roadside distribution of food (supplied by AID) made by engineering units of the Army.

Principal legal provisions and comments

National policy towards integral aid and protection for children and youth is reflected in pieces of legislation such as the Political Constitution of the State, the Civil Code, the Penal Code, the Minors' Code and many other laws and decrees referred to later.

The Constitution of the State

The Constitution contains articles setting out the obligations of State in favour of education, health and Welfare in general, from which different specific laws have been formulated.

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The main provisions in the Constitution under this heading are:

Art. 50. The State is responsible for public sanitation and the care of private health and makes the necessary laws for hygiene and sanitary control as well as those covering the physical, moral and social education of the population.

Art. 51. Marriage, the family, and motherhood come under protection of the law.

Art. 52. Defence of physical, mental and moral health of children is a basic duty of the State. The State defends the child's right to a home life, to education, to vocational guidance, and to full assistance when abandoned, sick or in adversity. The State entrusts the implementation of the provisions laid down in this article to the proper technical organizations.

Art. 71. The State is responsible for the technical direction of education.

Art. 72. Primary education is compulsory and free of charge.

Art. 73. There shall be at least one school in any place having 30 or more children of school age. In each provincial and district capital complete primary education shall be given.

Art. 74. Schools in industrial, agricultural, or mining centres shall be supported by the respective owners or enterprises.

Art. 75. The State sponsors secondary and higher education, free of charge where possible.

Art. 76. Each Department shall have at least one technical school.

Art. 77. The State sponsors technical instruction for workers.

Art. 78. The State sponsors and gives support to pre-school and post-school education and to special schools for retarded or abnormal children.

Art. 79. Moral and civic education of children is compulsory and is necessarily inspired by national progress and human solidarity.

CIVIL CODE (Act No 8305)

Volume II "Family Law" Articles 75 to 656 of the Civil Code; the Code contains important provisions concerning marriage, possession of goods during marriage, divorce, legal relationships, legitimate heirs, legitimation, adoption, illegitimate heirs, paternal jurisdiction, maintenance, guardianship, and family guidance.

PENAL CODE (Act. N° 4868)

Volume I: Title XVIII: "Judicial Treatment of Children". Reduction of sentence for offenders between 18 and 21 years of age.

/Volume II:
Volume II: Title I: "Offences against the Family", Adultery, illegal marriage, suppression and alteration of marital status, and unlawful custody of minors.

ACT NO 2851. EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN

Benefitting women and children, this Act was passed in 1918, that is before the provisions in favour of employees and workmen.

It therefore applies to employees and workers, in addition to the benefits they enjoy under subsequent legislation. Hence working women and children are entitled to more social benefits than male employees and workers.

Act No 2851 states the following conditions of employment for working women and children:

- Shorter working day, of 8 hours, or 45 per week, which means either Saturday afternoon or Monday morning free.

- Prohibition of employment of women and children in work which is unsuitable for them.

- Prohibition of night work.

- Rest at childbirth. Women are not allowed to work for 20 days before and 40 days after childbirth. During this period they will receive 60 per cent of their salary.

- Compensation for work accidents is increased by 25 per cent if the victim is a woman or a child.

- Seats must be provided for women and children when at work unless the nature of the work requires them to stand.

- In every work centre where more than 25 women over 18 years of age are employed, a room must be available during working hours for their children who are less than one year old. Mothers will have the right to feed their children for periods of time which do not exceed one hour per day.

- A woman dismissed within three months before or after childbirth has the right to 90 days' pay, apart from other benefits that the law may grant.

- Women and children dismissed without good reason will receive two months' salary or wages. A female worker receives compensation of 50 days' pay.

- The special compensation granted to women and children dismissed without good reason is in addition to the compensation contained in Act No 4916, concerning dismissal without notice.
MINORS' CODE (Act Nº 13,968)

This Code directs the policy of the State and of social institutions in child protection. It has three sections which cover: administration of the National Council for Minors; family, maternity and infancy protection; child assistance at pre-school and school ages, and in adolescence; protection of children at work; jurisdiction of children; joint services of: children's attorneys and free legal advice; technical services, guardianship of children.

The Code lays down the policy, procedure, and application of measures of protection and guidance in cases of children in need of such measures.

It recognizes that child assistance must include the mother and the family, and that this assistance benefits the community most where properly authorized and instructed private institutions give the child the right background for normal development.

The Code is based on the declarations of the rights of the child, and the provisions concerning protection of children and of the family contained in the Constitution of the Republic.

The National Council for Minors is responsible for formulating national policy for assistance to and protection of children, and for supervising the execution of the Code's legislative measures.

There are fourteen Council members, who represent four Ministries, the Supreme Court, Juvenile Courts, the State Welfare Service, private institutions, and parents' associations.

FREE EDUCATION (Act Nº 14,693)

This Law Act states that primary, secondary, and higher education shall be free of charge in schools, colleges, institutes, and universities, which belong to the State.

Act Nº 15,200 of 6 November, 1964, declares 1965 to be "CHILDREN'S YEAR".

SUPREME DECREES AND RESOLUTIONS WHICH BENEFIT CHILDREN

The National Council for Minors (NCM), in its role of national policymaker for the assistance and protection of children, has issued the following Decrees in accordance with the policy and resolutions of the Minors' Code:


/Prohibits moral
Prohibits moral and physical maltreatment of children in an irregular situation, the use of handcuffs or other means of restraint and the filing or registering of anti-social acts such children may commit with a view to compiling a criminal dossier.


This Decree creates and brings into force the Probationary Service as a preferential system of treatment for children in an irregular situation. The Service is a branch of the Juvenile Courts, and already has trained personnel available.

- Supreme Decree No 251 - NCM. 31 December, 1963.

Provides that penal establishments and reform institutions under the Ministry of Justice and Culture will be placed under separate administration.

- Supreme Decree No 112 - NCM. 24 April, 1964.

Foundation of Reform Home No 1 for Girls, and substitution of custody in police stations for custody in special hostels for children awaiting Juvenile Court hearing.

- Resolution NCM No 4 - 29 April, 1964.

Foundation of Foster Family Service as a branch of the Juvenile Courts. Offers an alternative home to children in moral danger, or those who have been abandoned.


Regulates the working of Provincial Councils for Minors in departmental capitals.


Foundation of Children's Reform Home No 2 for Boys.


Official declaration of October 6 as "WORLD CHILDREN'S DAY".


Approval of the Over-all Plan for the Social Defence of the Child.


Creates prizes for children, adults, or institutions, as a reward for exceptional acts of human solidarity or of benefit to children.

/- Institutional Resolution

Approves the financial regulations of the National Council for Minors.


Grants financial aid to the "Asociación Enmas del Perú" in order to finish and inaugurate the nurseries "Buenos Aires" of Villa, and "Nazareth" of Chorrillos.


Grants financial aid to the "Cruz Blanca" for the construction of buildings at Ancón holiday camp.

SOCIAL SECURITY FOR WORKERS - Act N° 8,433 - Year 1936.

Social Security covers the worker against the risks of sickness, maternity, disability, old age and death.

It is compulsory for all persons of both sexes under 60 years of age who are directly employed whether the employer is an individual or a company. Social Security also covers persons who work at home; domestics in commercial, industrial, social, and similar establishments; contractors; sub-contractors; or intermediaries who do part of the work themselves and employ no more than two assistants work; piece workers in the textile industry, whatever their annual salary; farm workers and assistants on cotton and rice plantations who work less than four "fanegadas"* of land.


Provides retirement pensions to both men and women workers over 60 years of age who have been employed for 30 years, whoever may have been their employer, without losing the right to compensation in accordance with other laws in force.

For this service a Workers' Pension Fund has been established which is administered by the Workers' National Social Security Fund. The Pension Fund is formed with the following contributions:

- 2 per cent over all Peruvian workers' wages is paid by employers.

- 2 per cent is deducted from workers' wages by employers.

- 20 per cent of the amounts referred to in sub-section (a) Article 7, Act N° 8,433, and

- The amounts of fines collected under the provision of this Act.

This Retirement Pension Act revises life and old-age insurance, and guarantees the following benefits: Old Age Pension, Widows'Pension and Orphans' Pension.

* Fanegada - Land measurement (about 1 1/2 acres). /EMPLOYEES' SOCIAL
EMPLOYEES' SOCIAL SECURITY

Created under Act No. 10,902, its provisions concerning sickness and maternity benefits are contained in Act No. 13,724.

It includes social security for private and public employees, and for those who wish to continue their contributions when their commitments have expired, i.e., after retirement.

There are two branches:

- Sickness and Maternity Insurance
- Pension Scheme

Sickness and maternity insurance consists of the following medical services: general and special medical attention, obstetrics, hospitalization, examinations, medicine and curative materials, odontology.

Monetary benefits include: sick-pay allowance (daily), maternity and post-natal allowances and funeral expenses.

Non-government employees enjoy full entitlement to medical and monetary benefits.

Government employees are entitled to the medical benefits, post-natal allowances and funeral expenses.

The wives of insured employees are entitled to obstetric assistance from the sixth month of pregnancy onwards, or before that should their health require it.

The pension scheme comprises pensions for sickness, old-age, widows and orphans, and cash grants for invalids, old-age, death and funeral costs.

The total contribution for sickness and maternity benefits is 7 per cent of private employees' salaries, made up in the following way: 3 per cent paid by the employee, 3.5 per cent paid by employer and 0.5 per cent paid by the State.

The total contribution in the case of Government employees is 6 per cent of salaries: 2.5 per cent is paid by the employee, 3 per cent by the employer, and 0.5 per cent by the State.

The contribution in respect of sickness and maternity insurance for pensioners is 5 per cent – 4.5 to be paid by them and 0.5 per cent by the State.

/OTHER LEGISLATION
OTHER LEGISLATION CONCERNING FAMILY PROTECTION

**Act No 9,103.** Stipulates an increase of 25 per cent in the tax on salaries of men over 35 years of age who are single, widowers, or divorced persons with no children.

**Act No 11,298.** (May, 1950) States that Armed Forces' allowances for meals, length of service or special duty, large families, and certain other allowances shall not be subject to the tax on salaries.

**Act No 12,469.** (December, 1955) Authorizes deductions from the tax on salaries in respect of wives, children under 21 years of age, and for dependents. A minimum tax-free living allowance is also granted. The deduction for tax purposes is increased by 50 per cent for more than two children, and is doubled for more than four.

These tax deductions are only applicable if the wife, children, or dependents live with the taxpayer and have no personal incomes.

An exception is made in the case of dependents who, in specially approved cases, are obliged to live in a different place.

**Act No 12,710.** (January, 1957) Stipulates that premiums paid by taxpayers in respect of life insurance contracted in favour of their heirs shall, for the purposes of the tax on professional earnings, be deductible in an amount not exceeding 7.5 per cent of their gross personal income. Premiums paid in respect of life insurance contracted under the "single premium" scheme shall not be deductible.

**Act No 12,813.** Concerning mutual building societies.

**Act No 13,506.** (Concerning Family Abandonment) Requires payment of alimony to children under 18 years of age or to disabled adults, as well as to women who have conceived out of wedlock; it provides for prison terms and fines in cases of non-compliance.

Peru has been signatory to several international agreements, and to many others relating to employment of women and children which are awaiting ratification.

**Agreements already ratified**

No 4 Concerning night work (women) 1919. Ratified in 1945.


No 45 Concerning underground work (women) 1935. Ratified 1945.


Par

Concerning
equal
work
for
male
and
female
workers.

Concerning
minimum
standard
of
Social
Security.

Concerning
the
protection
and
incorporation
of
indigenous
and
other
tribal
and
semi-tribal
population
in
independent
countries.

Concerning
the
minimum
age
for
fisheries
work.

Other
international
agreements
are
still
awaiting
ratification.

Fulfillment
of
legal
provisions
concerning
employment
of
women
and
children

Peruvian
legislation
regarding
children,
the
family,
etc.
is
extensive.

However,
as
elsewhere,
it
is
scattered,
ignored
or
wilfully
disregarded.

As
a
result,
it
is
either
not
applied
at
all,
or
only
in
country.

With
the
object
of
finding
out
to
what
degree
the
laws
concerning
employment
of
women
and
children
are
being
complied
with,
an
enquiry
was
sent
to
the
leaders
of
the
"Confederación
de
Trabajadores
del
Perú"
(CTP).
The
CTP
Workers'
Defence
Secretary
stated
that
in
the
Greater
Lima
area
over
20
per
cent
of
the
establishments
employing
women
and
children
disregarded
the
laws
in
force.
The
percentage
of
such
establishments
is
far
higher
in
the
rest
of
the
country.

The
principal
abuses
concern
number
of
working
hours,
wages,
holiday
rights,
social
security,
etc.

In
the
opinion
of
the
CTP,
this
situation
is
due
to
the
fact
that
employment
registers
for
women
and
children
are
not
kept,
consequently
such
persons
are
"unofficially"
employed.
This
in
turn
affects
local
Government
income
and
undermines
the
whole
position
of
workers'
privileges.

Town
Councils
and
the
Ministry
of
Labour
do
not
have
available
resources
for
a
better
control
of
the
situation,
and
can
only
act
in
cases
where
the
workers
themselves
complain
—in
other
words,
no
preventive
measures
exist.
The
situation
in
the
Sierra
and
Selva
region
is
unknown,
but
believed
to
be
serious
because
of
the
social
conflicts
that
these
abuses
produce.

/Chapter
4
Chapter 4

PREREQUISITES FOR AN EFFECTIVE DEVELOPMENT POLICY IN THE SPHERE OF CHILDREN AND YOUTH

The possibility of making an analysis, on a Latin American scale, of the difficulties, future possibilities and solutions relative to the problems of children and youth, would be of tremendous advantage for the formulation of a general policy towards this important sector of the population.

This would certainly help towards solving the complex problem of the family and of the community, for in addition to children and youth, the family is also in need of special attention due to the fact that its basic structure, stability, and future, are all undergoing transformation. The State can do a great deal for children and youth, but the family must do more; this means that State and family must join in the common cause to give and receive from youth short and long term benefits for national development. The wish to include the family as an important factor in development might be taken up at the same as the problems and solutions which are the object of the conference. A social phenomenon worth considering and which must be taken into account in order to understand and try to solve the problem of Latin American development, is the cultural aspect - the algebraic total of values that the kaleidoscope of community life represents. All this requires new consideration or better still, replanning, so that planning will not, in the final instance, be a mere expression of global or sectoral figures designed to reach physical goals of increased production and/or improved structure.

In other words, to be really effective and long-lasting, planning must be integral. To this end, the methodological theory of application of macro- and micro-economical relations has advanced considerably, but in the social field - concerning the most important expression of man as a person - little has been said or done. The problem has only been touched upon. The present philosophy of man progressing towards the future, which could be claimed to form the back-bone of economic development, is still to be defined, is still vague; unless it can be clear defined macro-measurements are of little value.

The fact that the problem of children and youth has at least been approached technically and scientifically is already an advantage. It must be recognized, however, that dealing with such problems does not only mean dealing with statistics, but delving into the unknown realms of the personality, reactions, and other motivations of children and youth, thus further complicating an already complicated task.

/Without trying
Without trying to uphold the theory that the life of man must be planned because his reactions are due more to ignorance than to knowledge, it would appear necessary to follow this line to a certain extent, not with the idea of implanting strict discipline, but in order to guide the community into being an effective and conscious leader and all-round beneficiary of its own achievements.

The gap between technological development and cultural advance, which gives rise to conflicts of maladjustment and problems which are difficult to solve, illustrates the need to form a separate theory for the outstanding problem of cultural integration.

The policy to be applied in order to solve the problems of the family and youth needs a guiding theory, or better still, a concrete philosophy to project it into the future. At present no such philosophy exists, and for obvious reasons does not always form part of the culture of Latin American political leaders. This is noticeable and even explicable, and is a powerful brake on reaching decisions concerning temporary or future positions.

**Development plans as a government instrument**

Theoretically, the need to plan economic and social development, and the principle of democratic planning with the State having an important share have been accepted in Peru. So too has the principle that so-called "market forces" are no longer sufficient to ensure a development which is integral, sustained, and of benefit to the majority.

The fact that planning is a form of government, and therefore a method of organizing a new State to enable it to confront its national responsibilities, has been recognized in Peru. The Government is even more aware that planning goes beyond the formulation of a simple economic and social development plan and is a permanent process of action by the public sector and the private sector consisting of entrepreneurs, workers, farm workers, etc.

Preparation of the State to receive planning is now being carried out in Peru, with the aim of modifying the social and economic structure to permit an effective and permanent improvement in living conditions and to illustrate that planning is an extremely important instrument. Planning can be summarized as strategy for national reconstruction; however, it must be mentioned that planning in Peru has many pitfalls, principally as the result of political immaturity.

Peru has just begun its planning process. In 1962 Act N° 14,220 created the National Planification Scheme, thus fulfilling the obligation of the Charter of Punta del Este made the year before. To date, "An analysis of the factual economic and social situation in Peru" has been published, together with other economic reports, and the public investment programmes for 1964-1965, and for 1966 have been prepared.

/ The Peruvian
The Peruvian Government considers as urgent the preparation of the first Social and Economic Development Plan for 1967-1970. This plan is actually being drawn up and will be as realistic as possible, with the participation of senior government officials as well as representatives of the private sector. Experience is being gained to try to avoid converting the Development Plan simply into an instrument for requesting foreign loans, and to see that it becomes a governmental instrument for decisions at all levels of public administration, and a blueprint for private-sector action.

The 1967-1970 Development Plan with annual revision and improvement would contain all the necessary aims and policies for good government. Unfortunately, as the Plan is still in its preparatory stages, this report cannot give information concerning decisions which have already been approved; however, the basic criteria which must guide Government policy towards children and youth have been formed as a result of consultations, and represent the opinion of the national Government.

**Basic criteria and objectives which must guide the State's policy concerning children and youth**

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

The following are considered necessary:

- A better and more effective co-ordination of effort between the public and private sectors. In both sectors there is a waste of capacity and talent.

- Co-ordination of different public bodies concerned with education, health, nutrition, employment, entertainment and justice. The units could be decentralized, but should follow a joint programme.

- Assessment and revision of all programmes at present directed by Ministries, independent national organizations, and international agencies, with a view to recasting them within the general framework of national development. It must be recognized that the education system at all levels, and the general principles of culture, justice and even politics, are all obsolete.

- Urgent priority must be given to strengthening the family structure by providing the family with the security it needs to permit it to play its highly important role of national nucleus, and to share with the State the responsibility of forming and guiding youth. Measures such as the extension of social security benefits to cover the family, family allowances, creation of co-operatives, encouragement for more parents' associations, etc. are indispensable.

/- Experience shows
Experience shows that youth must take an active share in national development. Universities would have to collaborate in specific programmes on a large scale. The prime concern, of course, is to motivate youth.

Professional training in universities and institutes of higher education is perhaps too academic and not practical enough. However, youth has no alternative without the creation of intermediate technological centres designed to reduce the flow to universities and, at the same time to supply industry with the technicians it needs. It must be pointed out that in Peru, government technical schools under the Ministry of Education are unsatisfactory and need to be re-organized. Secondly, the trend in favour of the liberal professions is a relic of colonial times, and sociologists and anthropologists therefore, could begin the job of changing this traditional family mentality which has such an effect on young people's choice of work.

Sports, scouting and youth clubs are excellent ways of helping youth; the State must fully support the private initiative being carried out in this field. Physical education in schools is at present inadequate and not of a sufficiently high calibre.

It is a fundamental task to bring about changes in the country within the concepts of liberty and dignity. As development is a process, youth must be ideologically equipped accordingly; for the continuation of today's actions depends on tomorrow's leaders. Sweeping changes must be made in the paternalistic, submissive, anecdotic and devout approach to the teaching of history, religion, and moral and civic education.

Finally, if the life of the nation is based on representative democracy, and development is therefore a national mission from which no one is excluded, the church, the armed forces, entrepreneurs, trade unions, and cultural organizations must all be made to participate with traditional government bodies in achieving common goals and targets.

The support of local government, elected by free and universal suffrage, is also an important factor in a healthy decentralization of decisions and community and family work.

Policies and objectives without the means of execution or specific norms to guide them, do not produce concrete results. A high-ranking and versatile central organization is therefore required which can gather criteria, set out plans of action, and supervise and examine family, mother, and children and youth programmes concerning education, health, nutrition, employment, justice, entertainment and culture.
The private sector with its many organizations must also have share in the above. It is worth noting that the type of assistance given by many private groups, especially by ladies of high society, will have to change. Development requires drive, optimism, a creative impulse, and therefore does not admit of paternalistic attitudes or any sense of charity or similar actions that offend and degrade a modern society. Only people who are morally strong can rapidly achieve better living conditions. To create this spirit is the task and responsibility of national leaders.

Legal guideposts are always useful. At the same time as compulsory regulations are laid down therefore, ethical standards for the family, children and youth must also be set out. Renewed appreciation of lost values and the setting up of new principles will permit better guidance for the achievement of objectives.

In short, efforts for physical, concrete, and tangible achievements are desirable, but besides this, a philosophic and moral basis must be created which inspires confidence and permits material welfare to bring with it spiritual satisfaction.

Peru is determined to redirect national life according to the principles already mentioned. For this reason the general objectives of the 1967-1970 Development Plan, which have already been announced by the Government, are the following:

- Redistribution of income through agrarian reform and the adoption of suitable policies in taxation, social security, salaries and wages, and employment.

- Larger national production, by stimulating private initiative, in particular, in order to satisfy a greater home and foreign demand.

- Improvement of rural and urban employment levels with a view to satisfying the needs of population growth, to control migration preferably through local investment, and to reduce unemployment.

- Reduction of external vulnerability, by promoting traditional exports and encouraging new exports of raw materials and manufactured products.

- Promotion of imports of capital goods with the aim of gradually achieving a process of import substitution, mainly in respect of essential food items.

Within the framework of these principles, expressed through over-all general, sectoral, and other specific plans, the action to be taken in the field of children and youth may be clearly defined.
Chapter 5

PERSPECTIVES: THE PLACE OF THE CHILD AND YOUTH IN NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND PLANNING

As stated previously, complete information for a full-scale evaluation of the problems of children and youth is lacking. Fragmentary information has been given throughout this report, but no real conclusion has been reached, or analysis provided, of the problems, hopes, and prospects of youth. Children and youth carry considerable weight in national life, not only because they form such a high percentage of the population but because of their positive and negative attitudes, which are more noticeable every day. No psychological and sociological studies exist which provide a clear guidance to a national children and youth policy. However, Governments, economists, educators, etc. are all concerned with the problems of guiding youth along new lines, and a potential exists which should be used more advantageously.

It has already been said that this disequilibrium is due to lack of public sector action and to family disruption. In other words, new lines of thought which are quickly but haphazardly assimilated by youth, are causing the State and the family serious problems.

Disturbances of different kinds and for different motives have occurred among youth from lower classes as well as from those whose families are in high social positions. Dissatisfaction does not originate in the individual but is probably due to the inborn tendency of youth to want to solve the problems afflicting the world in their own way. This has been the case throughout history, but in modern times it has reached such a large scale that it often comes into conflict with youth's own interests and with existing laws which are not always representative of a modern age.

Considerations concerning the attitudes and requirements of youth

During primary and secondary education the psychological problem of the correlation between degree of intelligence and normal development of personality in its individual and social aspects must be considered. For this reason adaptation of education to the intellectual capacity of the student is particularly important and necessary. School curricula are overloaded and are unsuitable for the great majority of students. Too many schoolchildren repeat their school year in the erroneous belief that they have to study harder, when the real problem is that the content of some courses or the teaching method is beyond their grasp. Demanding more than can be reasonably given in this respect is harmful to the child's health.

The sense of failure diminishes self-respect and the desire to improve as far as capacity and interests allow, and might lead to anti-social conduct as a means of regaining self-confidence.

/Teaching methods
Teaching methods and syllabuses must be adapted to the average capacity of students. This makes it necessary to carry out widespread surveys to find out what the average capacity in the country is. The practical problem that different mental capacities present might be solved by scaling syllabuses: a preparatory programme, then different scholastic and vocational gradings. A prime requisite for a more homogeneous grouping of students and for a more effective guidance must be a reduction in the number of students per class.

The need for civic, social, and vocational guidance is of extreme importance during adolescence. In the fight to understand his rôle in life, to acquire maturity and independence, to adapt himself to a wider world of new reality, and to take his place in that world, a youth requires careful guidance not only to adapt himself to the material world he lives in but to his spiritual environment.

A detailed and conscientious survey of the needs of adolescents shows that guidance work must be professionally and efficiently organized. Youth is suffering from all kinds of serious problems which must be dealt with in the school.

It is important to stress the value of aesthetic or artistic aspects in the education of adolescents, when emotions play an extremely important rôle in the life of the individual. Artistic experience also has the advantage of being more widespread than intellectual experience. What is meant by "aesthetic aspect" in education is the expression of the sense of beauty in things, in actions, and in life. In this way social ideas can be implanted.

The importance of emotions during adolescence merits a special paragraph. In the process of trying to find a balance, the adolescent can hardly control his emotions successfully. His emotional life therefore, is intense and tiring. For this reason a youth delights in looking for experiences which are sometimes beyond his capacities. For this reason too, this period of intense emotional energy offers a first class opportunity to imbue the student with social ideas and encourage effective social action. While implanting noble and elevated ideals, it is also necessary to stress the importance of active individual participation in achieving such ideals. Schools, in their role of small societies, should become the stage for the practice of social virtues. The student should be given a share in maintaining discipline for he will thus learn to appreciate the meaning of team loyalty. From his experience in such a small group the student can pass on to similar experiences in other groups in society, in the nation, and in the world.

Personality is considered to be representative of the values of an individual's era and of his society. The personality of the Peruvian youth, his impulses, attitudes, habits, adaptability, in short everything that governs individual and social conduct, inevitably reflects the culture of the country in which he was born and in which he lives. Peruvian boys and girls were born into a society in a process of integration. These children are experiencing the conflict of the demands made by social inheritance, by idealistic impulses, and by the influence of a modern positive society.

/Peruvian youth
Peruvian youth has grown accustomed to a purely verbal reaction to economic, social, and political problems, considering them merely the "responsibility of the Government". This attitude, which is considered as a highly important intellectual product, is sometimes distorted into a utopian and noisy radicalism which has a strong attraction for youth deprived of real ideas, and wishing to indulge in their vital impulses. Political parasitism and demagogic influence, with their apparent idealism and noblesse, constitute a serious danger for a young person who has not yet acquired a complete and realistic view of the possibilities of the Government and of the limits of the country.

Geographical contrasts, the long period of regional isolation, lack of leadership, and poor education, have all contributed to form a provincial character, highly unsuitable for national and international co-operation.

Youth in the coastal region has been labelled as frivolous, arrogant, ready to adopt foreign customs rather than understand their own culture; culture is frequently considered as a thin veneer, as instrument for social success; and exaggerated desire to appear well dressed irrespective of financial circumstances; all this shows a poor scale of values in Peruvian youth.

Although it is not true everywhere, female labour is generally underpaid, and is often considered as temporary.

The young farm girl on the other hand, is hard working and loyal and even works for the fun of it. The land is demanding, and its cultivation not only requires adults and young people, but even little children. Child labour in Peru is chiefly a problem in rural areas. The 1940 census showed that a large number of children went to school for the first time at the beginning of adolescence. Children begin farm work sometimes before they reach seven years of age.

In spite of the fact that the Peruvian social climate is hardly favourable for integrated programmes among city dwellers, youth is desperately looking for opportunities in which to act. A large majority of young people work during the day and attend evening schools in a praiseworthy effort to improve and progress. Young people from rural areas come to the cities in search of knowledge and of better opportunities and only need suitable guidance and instruction in working together, for them to be ready to answer the call for co-operation.

We must stress here the importance of local government co-operation in the social evolution of Peruvian youth. The local communities' share in the lives of youth, their understanding, and interest in youth problems, offer an excellent opportunity for the social training of youth. Local co-operation is a source of hope for those who fear for the future of the country.

Human experience teaches that progress begins in a small nucleus and is propagated towards greater centres in a way that could be called concentric. The social sensibility that a person expresses, evidently has its roots in family co-operation.

/Prospects
Prospects

The present situation concerning children and youth appears to be clearer in the sense that measures which are now being taken may lead to institutional improvement in organization of health, employment, justice, and even in the modification of primary and secondary educational programmes.

The critical and uncertain points are the level of technical training and of university teaching, the former, because re-planning would mean changing technical education to bring it into line with development, and the latter, apart from the aspect of teaching standards, because of certain principles accepted in university faculties.

In Peru, apart from the dangerous tendency towards proliferation of universities, there is the pressing political question of university autonomy and student government. Both concepts are theoretically sound, but must be revised with a view to making them compatible with the needs of national development, so that universities do not become the battle-grounds of political factions. In the organization of their students, Peruvian universities need to acquire the maturity of Peruvian trade unions, which do not call frequent political strikes and disturb the economic expansion that social development relies on.

Acknowledgements

The National Planning Institute wishes to express its thanks for the collaboration given in the preparation of this report to the following people: Dr. Carlos Castillo, Secretary-General of the National Minors' Council, who supplied information and authorized the collaboration of Dr. Gloria Becerra and Miss Marietta Baldárrago. To Dr. Manuel Salcedo Fernandini, Social Welfare Adviser to the Ministry of Public Health and Social Welfare, Dr. Marta Pajuelo, Director of Moral and Civic Education, Ministry of Education, who provided information and edited the first rough copy. To Miss Rosa Regalado, student of the Faculty of Education, Universidad Nacional Federico Villarreal, who worked in the compiling of statistics.

Note: This report was prepared by the Sectoral Planning Department of the National Planning Institute, Peru.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1960</th>
<th>1960-62</th>
<th>1962-64</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gross national product</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imports</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total supply and demand</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total consumption</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total investment</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exports</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2

GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT: SECTORS OF PRODUCTION

(Annual cumulative growth rates)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sectors of production</th>
<th>1960</th>
<th>1960-62</th>
<th>1962-64</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fishing</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining and quarrying</td>
<td>59.0</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing industries</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport, warehousing, and communications</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banking, insurance, and real estate</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous services</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: See Table 1.

Considering all sectors together, it is clear that 1962-64 was the period of least growth, and the sector with the highest rate (8.7) was Construction.
Table 3
AGRICULTURE: EXPORTS AND IMPORTS
(Millions of soles at 1960 prices)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total exports</td>
<td>4,206</td>
<td>4,726</td>
<td>5,181</td>
<td>5,049</td>
<td>4,635</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total imports</td>
<td>1,832</td>
<td>2,294</td>
<td>2,457</td>
<td>2,502</td>
<td>2,747</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
<td>1,586</td>
<td>1,898</td>
<td>2,135</td>
<td>2,266</td>
<td>2,489</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crops</td>
<td>1,198</td>
<td>1,381</td>
<td>1,324</td>
<td>1,366</td>
<td>1,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Cereals and cereal preparations</td>
<td>911</td>
<td>1,015</td>
<td>961</td>
<td>885</td>
<td>972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Vegetables and vegetable preparations</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Fruit and oil-nuts</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Vegetable oils and fats</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Sugar and confectionary</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Beverages</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Coffee, cocoa, tea, and manufactures thereof</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Tobacco</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Spices</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Animal feed</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Livestock Products</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>316</td>
<td>312</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>289</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Live animals</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>326</td>
<td>425</td>
<td>467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Meat and meat preparations</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Dairy products, eggs, and honey</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>279</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Animal oils and fats</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial raw materials</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>306</td>
<td>322</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>258</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: I.N.P.
Table 4

AGRICULTURE

(Growth rates of imports, exports, and of production of a group of basic food items)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>1960</th>
<th>1960-62</th>
<th>1962-64</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural exports</td>
<td>-3.0</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>-5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural imports</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crops</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Livestock</td>
<td>-14.7</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial raw materials</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>-10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic production of certain food items</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potatoes</td>
<td>-5.9</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meat</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>-0.6</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milk</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wheat</td>
<td>-4.5</td>
<td>-0.6</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maize</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oils and fats</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>-1.4</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: I.N.P.
Table 5

DISTRIBUTION OF INCOME IN PERU IN 1963

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Monthly remuneration</th>
<th>Working population</th>
<th>Thousands of sales</th>
<th>Cumulative percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Percent- age</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Up to 2 000</td>
<td>3 154 200</td>
<td>90.5</td>
<td>3 154 200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 2 001 to 4 000</td>
<td>237 000</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>711 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 4 001 to 8 000</td>
<td>65 500</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>393 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 8 001 to 20 000</td>
<td>21 200</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>296 800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 20 001 to 120 000</td>
<td>7 500</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>525 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 485 400</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>5 080 000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: See Table 1.
Table 6

DISTRIBUTION OF PERSONAL INCOME BY BRACKET

(Southern Region of Peru, 1957)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Income bracket scale in soles</th>
<th>Working population</th>
<th>Income</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Total in thousands of soles</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern Region</td>
<td>1 274 200</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>2 920 121</td>
<td>180.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Up to 1 000</td>
<td>789 757</td>
<td>62.0</td>
<td>571 777</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 001 to 2 000</td>
<td>156 070</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>204 360</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 001 to 5 000</td>
<td>207 707</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>684 201</td>
<td>23.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 001 to 10 000</td>
<td>69 206</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>436 477</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 001 to 25 000</td>
<td>42 252</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>606 858</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 001 to 50 000</td>
<td>7 450</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>243 357</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 50 000</td>
<td>1 758</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>145 091</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Regional Plan for the Development of the South of Peru, Vol. XXVII.

Notes: (1) Settlers and smallholders.
(2) Settlers and smallholders.
(3) Sundry independent entrepreneurs, semi-skilled workers, and domestic servants.
(4) Skilled workers, white-collar workers, and independent entrepreneurs.
(5) Medium-scale entrepreneurs, government and employees.
(6) Small landowners, professionals, administrative personnel, and specially qualified employees.
(7) Large-scale landowners, merchants, miners, industrialists, and government and private executives.
Table 7
ECONOMIC CLASSIFICATION OF PUBLIC SECTOR SPENDING
IN PERU
(Millions of soles at 1960 prices)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2,773</td>
<td>11,870</td>
<td>24,832</td>
<td>37,218</td>
<td>27,205</td>
<td>24,009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. General services</td>
<td>2,842</td>
<td>3,293</td>
<td>3,953</td>
<td>4,605</td>
<td>4,774</td>
<td>5,049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Social services</td>
<td>2,460</td>
<td>4,704</td>
<td>5,185</td>
<td>6,267</td>
<td>7,092</td>
<td>2,468</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Education</td>
<td>1,467</td>
<td>1,944</td>
<td>2,274</td>
<td>2,670</td>
<td>3,118</td>
<td>3,689</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Health</td>
<td>436</td>
<td>569</td>
<td>732</td>
<td>1,333</td>
<td>1,744</td>
<td>1,963</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Housing and Community</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Services</td>
<td>396</td>
<td>944</td>
<td>818</td>
<td>732</td>
<td>881</td>
<td>1,420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Labour</td>
<td>1,161</td>
<td>1,247</td>
<td>1,361</td>
<td>1,652</td>
<td>2,149</td>
<td>2,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Economic services</td>
<td>2,611</td>
<td>1,006</td>
<td>1,866</td>
<td>2,833</td>
<td>4,571</td>
<td>5,120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Agriculture</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>944</td>
<td>439</td>
<td>629</td>
<td>946</td>
<td>1,103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Power</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>576</td>
<td>422</td>
<td>488</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Industry</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>884</td>
<td>1,098</td>
<td>1,635</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Transport and communications</td>
<td>547</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>709</td>
<td>684</td>
<td>795</td>
<td>1,258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Public co-operation Programmes</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Other economic services</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>510</td>
<td>406</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Unclassified expenses</td>
<td>2,510</td>
<td>2,277</td>
<td>3,808</td>
<td>3,993</td>
<td>3,568</td>
<td>4,272</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: I. N.P., Public Sector Bureau.

a/ Includes: General Administration, Defence, Justice, and Police.
b/ Includes: Interest, Costs and Remunerations in Government Enterprises, Amortization and Payment Transfers.
Table 6

ECONOMIC CLASSIFICATION OF PUBLIC SECTOR SPENDING
IN PERU

(In percentages)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. General services a/</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>8.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>B. Economic services</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>- Other economic services</td>
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Sources: INP, Public Sector Bureau.

a/ Includes: General Administration, Defence, Justice, and Police.
b/ Includes: Interest, costs and remunerations in government enterprises, amortization and payment transfers.
<table>
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<tr>
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<th></th>
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<td>100.0</td>
<td>122.8</td>
<td>151.8</td>
<td>176.2</td>
<td>227.0</td>
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<td>A. General Services a/</td>
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<td>139.1</td>
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<td>168.0</td>
<td>177.7</td>
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<tr>
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<td>184.6</td>
<td>228.2</td>
<td>273.6</td>
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<td>155.0</td>
<td>182.0</td>
<td>212.5</td>
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<td>117.2</td>
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<td>C. Economic Services</td>
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<td>196.3</td>
<td>234.8</td>
<td>275.1</td>
<td>522.8</td>
</tr>
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<td>390.9</td>
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<td>349.5</td>
<td>570.3</td>
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<td>875.0</td>
<td>2455.6</td>
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<td>5097.3</td>
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<td>125.0</td>
<td>145.3</td>
<td>235.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Public Co-operation Programmes</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Other economic</td>
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<td>200.0</td>
<td>171.4</td>
<td>1457.2</td>
<td>1164.0</td>
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<td>100.0</td>
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<td>151.7</td>
<td>135.2</td>
<td>158.2</td>
<td>174.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: I.M.P., Public Sector Bureau.
a/ Includes: General Administration, Defence, Justice, and Police.
b/ Includes: Interest, costs and remunerations in government enterprises, amortization and payment transfers.
Table 10

The Population of Peru According to Age Groups
(1961 Census)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age level</th>
<th>Total in thousands</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Children</td>
<td>0 - 14</td>
<td>4,597</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth</td>
<td>15 - 24</td>
<td>1,915</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adults</td>
<td>25 - 64</td>
<td>3,430</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People 65 or over</td>
<td></td>
<td>377</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>10,319</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Bulletin of Demographic Analysis (revised figures)
Table 11

THE POPULATION OF PERU ACCORDING TO AGE GROUPS, COMPARED WITH SOME OTHER LATIN AMERICAN COUNTRIES

(Percentages)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Groups</th>
<th>Peru 1961</th>
<th>Mexico 1960</th>
<th>Costa Rica 1960</th>
<th>Chile 1960</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 - 14</td>
<td>44.6</td>
<td>45.4</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>39.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 - 24</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 - 34</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>37.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65 or over</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Bulletin of Demographic Analysis, Peru, Nov. 1964.
### Table 12

**DISTRIBUTION OF FARMS ACCORDING TO SIZE, NUMBER, AND AREA**

(1961 census)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Size of farms</th>
<th>Total number of farms</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Total area of farms</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 ha.</td>
<td>230,900</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>127,869</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 1 and 5</td>
<td>417,957</td>
<td>49.0</td>
<td>926,851</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 5 and 20</td>
<td>107,199</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>879,305</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 20 and 50</td>
<td>17,414</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>506,745</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 50 and 100</td>
<td>7,214</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>473,313</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 100 and 500</td>
<td>8,081</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1,624,643</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 500 and 2,500</td>
<td>2,701</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>2,723,793</td>
<td>14.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Over 2,500</td>
<td>1,091</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>11,341,191</td>
<td>61.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>851,957</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>18,504,500</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
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</table>

Table 13
AVERAGE FOOD INTAKE PER PERSON

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Peru</th>
<th>Coastal Region</th>
<th>Sierra</th>
<th>Selva</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Calories</td>
<td>2,015</td>
<td>2,264</td>
<td>1,780</td>
<td>2,003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proteins (gr)</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fats</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calcium (gr)</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vitamin A (U.I)</td>
<td>3,754</td>
<td>3,709</td>
<td>1,856</td>
<td>5,702</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thiamine (mgr.)</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Riboflavin</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Ministry of Public Health survey of family groups and selected areas, 1951.
### Table 14

**Percentages of Families Consuming Less than 75 Percent of Normal Requirements**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Coastal Region</th>
<th>Sierra</th>
<th>Rain Forest</th>
<th>Observations</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calories</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proteins</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calcium</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iron</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vitamin A</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thiamine</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Riboflavin</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niacin</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>25</td>
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<tr>
<td>Vitamin C</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>35</td>
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</table>

Source: "Food and Nutrition Situation in Peru", Nutrition Institute, Lima 1960.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Causes of death</th>
<th>Total deaths</th>
<th>Infants under 1 year</th>
<th>Between 1 and 4 years</th>
<th>Between 5 and 14 years</th>
<th>Between 15 and 24 years</th>
<th>Total deaths under 25 years as a percent of the general total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>114,605</td>
<td>24,655</td>
<td>25,425</td>
<td>6,117</td>
<td>5,674</td>
<td>71,902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Without doctor's certificate</td>
<td>63,332</td>
<td>15,510</td>
<td>15,627</td>
<td>3,786</td>
<td>3,130</td>
<td>42,053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With doctor's certificate</td>
<td>51,273</td>
<td>9,145</td>
<td>9,808</td>
<td>2,328</td>
<td>2,544</td>
<td>29,850</td>
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<td>1. Tuberculosis of the respiratory</td>
<td>3,168</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>482</td>
<td>955</td>
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<td>2. Tuberculosis in other forms</td>
<td>8,379</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>509</td>
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<td>3. Syphilis</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>26</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Typhoid fever</td>
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<td>26</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>457</td>
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<td>5. Cholera</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Dysentery</td>
<td>1,056</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>148</td>
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<td>7. Scarlet fever and pharyngitis</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>70</td>
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<td>8. Diphtheria</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
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<td>9. Whooping-cough</td>
<td>7,138</td>
<td>318</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>706</td>
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<td>10. Meningococcal infections</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>17</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>12. Poliomyelitis</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>6</td>
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<td>55</td>
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<td>13. Smallpox</td>
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<td>222</td>
<td>555</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>146</td>
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<tr>
<td>14. Measles</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Typhus</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Malaria</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. All infections parasitical diseases</td>
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<td>148</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>863</td>
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<tr>
<td>18. Malignant tumours, including neoplasms</td>
<td>2,568</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>163</td>
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<td>19. Mild and unspecified tumours</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Diabetes</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>21. Anemia</td>
<td>460</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>258</td>
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<tr>
<td>22. Vascular injuries</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>60</td>
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<tr>
<td>23. Non-venereal meningitis</td>
<td>606</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Chronic rheumatic fever</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Rheumatic diseases</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Arteriosclerosis</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Other heart diseases</td>
<td>596</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Hypertension with cardiac diseases</td>
<td>2,049</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Hypertension without cardiac diseases</td>
<td>1,539</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. Influenza</td>
<td>1,278</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>233</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>516</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Pneumonia</td>
<td>1,570</td>
<td>880</td>
<td>452</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1,049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. Bronchitis</td>
<td>582</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. Duodenal and stomach ulcer</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. Appendicitis</td>
<td>457</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. Intestinal obstruction and hernia</td>
<td>5,070</td>
<td>2,069</td>
<td>2,036</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4,969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. Gastrointestinal diverticities</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. Liver cirrhosis</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. Nephritis and nephrosis</td>
<td>595</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. Hypertrophy of the prostate</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. Death or other pregnancy complications</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. Congenital defects</td>
<td>462</td>
<td>418</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. Injuries sustained at birth, suffocation</td>
<td>746</td>
<td>745</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>746</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. Infection of the new-born</td>
<td>1,815</td>
<td>1,815</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1,815</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. Other infant ailments, unclassified</td>
<td>2,860</td>
<td>2,860</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2,860</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45. Scentility without indications of psychosis</td>
<td>4,190</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>857</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>1,411</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. Other diseases</td>
<td>4,713</td>
<td>407</td>
<td>1,023</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>1,943</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47. Motor-vehicle accidents</td>
<td>452</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48. Other accidents</td>
<td>2,064</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>1,018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49. Suicide and self-inflicted injuries</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50. Malignant tumours, including neoplasms</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medically certified</td>
<td>56,673</td>
<td>15,145</td>
<td>2,758</td>
<td>2,363</td>
<td>2,544</td>
<td>29,850</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 15**

**Numbers of medically certified deaths occurring among children and youth by classified by principal causes, 1960**
### Table 16

**PERU: PERSONS REGISTERED AT EDUCATIONAL ESTABLISHMENTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1 673 054</td>
<td>1 763 026</td>
<td>1 841 481</td>
<td>1 991 302</td>
<td>119.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-school and primary</td>
<td>1 440 000</td>
<td>1 495 047</td>
<td>1 553 755</td>
<td>1 682 365</td>
<td>116.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordinary</td>
<td>198 259</td>
<td>227 827</td>
<td>242 131</td>
<td>255 872</td>
<td>129.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical</td>
<td>39 359</td>
<td>42 978</td>
<td>46 885</td>
<td>50 986</td>
<td>129.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher education</td>
<td>34 795</td>
<td>40 152</td>
<td>45 595</td>
<td>53 673</td>
<td>154.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Peru - Standard of education services.*

### Table 17

**PERU: TEACHING STAFF**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>59 983</td>
<td>65 710</td>
<td>68 448</td>
<td>72 325</td>
<td>120.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-school and primary</td>
<td>40 700</td>
<td>43 553</td>
<td>45 502</td>
<td>48 405</td>
<td>118.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordinary</td>
<td>15 848</td>
<td>18 390</td>
<td>18 651</td>
<td>18 651</td>
<td>117.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical</td>
<td>11 017</td>
<td>13 200</td>
<td>12 574</td>
<td>13 010</td>
<td>118.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher education</td>
<td>4 831</td>
<td>5 390</td>
<td>5 487</td>
<td>5 641</td>
<td>116.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: See Table 16.*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15,258</td>
<td>15,736</td>
<td>16,617</td>
<td>17,589</td>
<td>115.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-school and primary</td>
<td>14,440</td>
<td>14,860</td>
<td>15,585</td>
<td>16,410</td>
<td>113.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary education</td>
<td>775</td>
<td>880</td>
<td>954</td>
<td>1,054</td>
<td>141.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordinary</td>
<td>524</td>
<td>619</td>
<td>699</td>
<td>761</td>
<td>145.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>325</td>
<td>333</td>
<td>130.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher education</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>197.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: See Table 16.
Table 19

ITEMS FROM PERU'S 1964 GENERAL BUDGET THAT DIRECTLY BENEFIT CHILDREN AND YOUTH

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Budget Item</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Health</th>
<th>Justice</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3 122 376.9</td>
<td>44 753.5</td>
<td>17 168.1</td>
<td>3 184 578.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>3 093 813.0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3 093 813.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration g/</td>
<td>1 029 966.5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary, secondary, and technical education</td>
<td>1 674 138.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher training and physical education</td>
<td>113 058.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy programme</td>
<td>10 111.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural diffusion and special education</td>
<td>26 493.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction and installation of school buildings</td>
<td>206 720.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government education bills</td>
<td>35 364.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Health</td>
<td>2 650.0</td>
<td>43 653.2</td>
<td>1 857.2</td>
<td>49 161.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Mother and Child Programmes&quot; administration</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>35 361.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funds transferred to universities and colleges</td>
<td>1 600.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother and Child centres, hospitals, etc.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6 272.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children's homes, orphanages</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 837.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International organizations</td>
<td>2 050.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Justice and Culture</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>15 590.6</td>
<td>15 590.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>10 642.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homes, schools, child guidance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>137.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meals, clothes, medicine</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4 810.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government and Police</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>32.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funds transferred to GUC/L, Prado</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>18 019.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>18 019.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutions, universities</td>
<td>18 018.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>18 018.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development and Public Works</td>
<td>6 565.5</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 100.0</td>
<td>7 665.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleges, university institutions</td>
<td>6 565.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother and Child centres</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: National Budget of Peru, 1964.

g/ Included funds transferred to universities and other bodies from public and private sectors.
### Table 20

**PROGRESS OF AGRARIAN REFORM**  
*(at May 21st, 1965)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Districts Involved</th>
<th>Hectares</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central Region, Departments of Pasco and Junín</td>
<td>500 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expropriated</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reverted to the State</td>
<td>500 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergoing expropriation procedure</td>
<td>200 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern Region, In La Convención and Lares</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergoing expropriation procedure</td>
<td>220 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern Region, Department of Puno</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergoing expropriation procedure</td>
<td>500 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coastal Region, All departments, plus Jaén, Laguna Aparízco (Paudarios)</td>
<td>200 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 000 000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. **Re-distributed land:**

- In Pasco and Junín, to communities and peasants            | 207 000  |

3. **Loans (sols):**

- To Tenant Farms in the Coastal Region                      | 51 000-000|
- To Tenant Farms in Pasco and Junín                          | 50 000-000|
- To Co-operatives in La Convención and Lares                 | 6 000-000 |

4. **Tenant Farms:**

- **Title Deeds**
  - Distributed at 21 May 1965                                | 5 000    |
  - Distributed at 31 Dec. 1965                               | 50 000   |
  - Names on register (empadronados)                          | 120 000  |

*This official, Peru, 22 May 1965.*
### Table 21

**PERUVITA COMPARED TO FRESH MILK, AND BEEF**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Peruvita</th>
<th>Fresh milk</th>
<th>Beef</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Proteins</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calcium</td>
<td>633.00</td>
<td>104.0</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iron</td>
<td>9.00</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thiamine</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Riboflavin</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vitamin A</td>
<td>3 000.</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calories</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


### Table 22

**DEVELOPMENT OF "FEED THE CHILDREN" CAMPAIGN**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Departments</th>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>School meals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1962</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1,414</td>
<td>182,755</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2,470</td>
<td>311,558</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3,975</td>
<td>458,567</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>6,000</td>
<td>725,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Ministry of Public Health and Social Assistance, Department of Food, 1965.*