A study of rural youth programs in the Americas (Except United States and Canada)
by Earl Jones

A-thesis submitted to the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree Of DOCTOR OF EDUCATION .
Montana State University

Abstract:
The research problem was:,to study the relationships between some socio-economic needs of rural youth and the functioning of existing rural youth programs In the Americas. The main procedure used was personal interviews with club members and health, agriculture, education,.extension,,and rural youth program officials in all the American countries except the US and Canada.

Some socio-economic problems discovered to be affecting rural youth were that most farms were small subsistence units, rural incomes were low, and high population growth rates prohibited most youth from remaining on the farms. Only 38.2% of the 7-19 age group were in school in 1960-and only 0.8% were participating in a rural youth program. .Rural family living was classed as inadequate by health and home economics specialists and they pointed to malnutrition, inadequate housing and furnishings, and poor sanitary conditions as urgent problems.

The 49 existing rural youth organizations were classified, in order of number of members, in the following types: primary school clubs, 4-H, vocational education, and cooperatives. Their objec-tives included raising levels of living,.increasing education,,and providing social activities. "Learning by doing" through meetings, demonstrations,classes,workshops, and home and farm projects was the chief education method employed.

Nearly $5,000,000 was spent on 36 programs in 1960 for an average of $21.67 each for 229,512 members. Eleven professional man-years were used per 1000 members and officials reported four voluntary leaders per club. Half the voluntary leaders were school teachers. Most programs offered in-service training for professionals in 1960 but only half gave training to voluntary leaders. The principal problems of the programs were shortage of funds and lack of professionals and voluntary leaders.

Interviewed club members said they joined to learn something useful for the farm and home,for companionship and social activities, and to advance toward urban careers. Individual projects and recreation were the activities liked most by members; collective projects and competitions least. Nearly 90% judged the club to be of much or some usefulness to them and every member had applied at home at least one skill he had learned.

Four general recommendations were: Every country should immediately begin investigations on the methods they are using. Both structural and impact evaluations should be continually in progress in all rural programs. More general, sociological, and psychological training should be provided for professional personnel and voluntary leaders. Rural youth programs need to make greater use of community leaders if their effectiveness and efficiency are to be measurably increased.

A STUDY OF RURAL YOUTH PROGRAMS IN THE AMERICAS (EXCEPT UNITED STATES AND CANADA)

by

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A thesis submitted to the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

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In 1960 the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences of the Organization of American States signed a contract with the American International Association to promote rural youth work in the Americas. The program was to be carried out through a special staff appointed by the American International Association and the members of the Department of Economics and Extension of the Tropical Center for Research and Graduate Instruction of the Institute in Turrialba, Costa Rica. This organization, with headquarters in San Jose, Costa Rica, and a regional office in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, was named the Inter-American Rural Youth Program.

Since little investigation had been conducted on rural youth programs in the Americas outside of the United States and Canada, the Inter-American Rural Youth Program announced a general survey of the existing programs as its first goal. The writer of this report, then an International Cooperation Center Carnegie doctoral fellow in the Department of Education of Montana State College, was designated as responsible for this research. The study was felt to fulfill the requirements for the doctoral dissertation of the fellow and after his assignment to the staff of the Institute in January of 1961, the investigation was begun.

The writer sincerely appreciates the work of the hundreds of persons who aided this study as interviewers, interviewees, advisers, informants, or in any other way assisted in its realization. Particular gratitude is owed to the following:

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Without their help, the wide scope of this research would have been impossible.

This study is dedicated to the rural youth of the Americas with the hope that the findings will contribute to greater progress and well-being.

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ABSTRACT

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Organized rural youth work is considered to have contributed significantly to the socio-economic progress of Great Britain, The Netherlands, Denmark, Germany, the United States, and other countries. Starting through bunds, agricultural societies, cooperatives, and rural schools, many of the movements have grown to mammoth proportions. During this century, and principally since 1917, the task of conducting these programs has generally passed to agricultural extension services and vocational education departments although a few, notably the British Young Farmers, still pertain to non- or extra-governmental entities. Since World War II the programs have been introduced to newly-developing countries all over the world.

The rapid expansion of this type of work has led to a whole new field of applied science and copious literature now appears from most of the organizations. Unfortunately, relatively little research has been conducted previous to program development and most organizations have necessarily based their work on the experiences of others and on experimentation within their own programs. The immense pressure of the job to be done plus serious gaps in the knowledge of such sciences as psychology and sociology have generally retarded the needed investigations.

Since 1945 considerable advance has been made in fundamental research and program methods and impact can now be tested more scientifically. Nevertheless, hundreds of new rural youth organizations have not even conducted their basic inventories which would pave the way for depth studies of the various program phases.

Many officials of rural youth programs are dissatisfied with their organizations, pointing to slow or sporadic growth, small reenrollments, parental and general public apathy, and the small number of tangible results as symptoms of inadequate adaptation of the programs to the needs of rural youth in their countries. Since few studies have been conducted on determining the extent and causes of the problems of the various rural youth programs, it was felt that an investigation of these would make a useful contribution to the field.

Statement of the Problem

This study was designed as an overall survey of the rural youth organizations and the conditions under which they operate as the basis for a better understanding of individual program difficulties. The central problem for this investigation was: to study the relationships between some socio-economic needs of rural youth and the functioning of existing rural youth programs in the Americas. The central problem was considered to have four phases:

1. A study of some general socio-economic conditions of the areas in which the rural youth programs exist.
2. A study of the functioning of rural youth programs.
3. A study of the opinions of some members of some of these organizations as to the objectives, operation, personnel, and benefits derived from belonging to them.
4. A determination of some relationships between program functioning and the socio-economic needs of rural youth.

It was hoped that the results of this investigation would assist rural youth programs in evaluating their work.

Procedures

Five basic procedures were employed in securing the data. These were:

1. Officials of government agencies were personally interviewed, with written questionnaires used as guides, in order to determine the socio-economic conditions affecting rural youth work.

2. Officials of rural youth organizations were personally interviewed with guiding questionnaires so as to understand the present functioning of the organizations.

3. A brief questionnaire over socio-economic conditions was administered to census bureau officials by mail in order to check data gathered in the previous steps.

4. Census publications and other literature on the Americas were studied so as to verify the information gathered in the first three steps.

5. Members, a random sample of 65%, of six clubs were interviewed personally to determine their opinions as to the functioning of the rural youth organizations.

In procedural steps one and two, data on the socio-economic conditions and on the rural youth organizations were secured from officials in 28 political entities[1] in the Americas.

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[1]These included all the political entities except the United States and Canada. For convenience of wording, each entity will be called a country in this report even though all the units do not qualify as such. The status of those that were not countries in 1961 was as follows:

Guadeloupe, Martinique, French Guiana: Departments of France.
Surinam, Netherlands Antilles: Parts of the Tripartite Kingdom of The Netherlands.
Jamaica: Member of the West Indies Federation but to become an independent nation in 1962.
West Indies: All British Caribbean islands now included in the West Indies Federation except Jamaica.
Puerto Rico: Associated Free State with the US.
British Guiana: Administrative unit with Britain.

Interviews with club members, step five in the procedure, were conducted in Jamaica, El Salvador, Costa Rica, and Panama.

Limitations

This study was restricted to 28 of the 30 political entities in the Americas. Both the United States and Canada have conducted considerable investigation in rural youth work and the need for greater knowledge of their programs was not as acute as for those countries included in this report.

Limitations of time prevented a study of all the factors affecting rural youth work. Therefore, this investigation included only the socio-economic factors of agriculture and rural family living. Such phases as industrialization, class structure, and political organization are important to rural youth work but were considered to be outside the possible scope of this research.

Only six clubs in four countries were used in the study of the opinions of members as to the functioning of the organizations. Both time and accessability limited expansion of this phase of the investigation.

Construction and Administration of the Questionnaires

The general plan for this investigation and the preliminary questionnaires were prepared with the assistance of the writer's advisers at Montana State College. Following this step, the questionnaires were revised and translated to Spanish with the assistance of the staffs of the Department of Economics and Extension of the Institute and the Inter-American Rural Youth Program in Costa Rica. This second draft was used

as a pre-test with the youth program in Costa Rica. After carefully analyzing the pre-test data, the questionnaires were again revised, incorporating the suggestions of the Extension Service of Costa Rica.

The investigator was unable to visit every country himself. He did, however, do entirely or extensively participate in administering the general questionnaire in nine of the countries and administered most of the questionnaires for members of all six of the interviewed clubs. Personnel of the Department of Economics and Extension of the Institute, the Inter-American Rural Youth Program, and the Costa Rican Extension Service assisted with or conducted parts of the research in the other countries. Careful instructions were given to each interviewer and the few problems that developed from the participation of the several investigators were resolved by correspondence.

Personal interviews could not be conducted in Belize[1] and Cuba. The cyclone of late 1961 prevented the interviews in Belize and permission could not be secured to conduct the study in Cuba. Information on these countries was secured entirely through mailed questionnaires and a study of available literature on them.

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[1]Belize is also known as British Honduras.

CHAPTER II

THE NATURE OF RURAL YOUTH WORK

Rural youth work has been conducted over a sufficiently long period that certain general concepts have been developed. The philosophies and educational bases of the various kinds of programs have been synthesized in this chapter in order to give the general background from which this study was planned.

Philosophy of Rural Youth Work

Jose Figueres (26, p. 6)[1], while president of Costa Rica, proposed, as a moral philosophy for rural youth movements, that the personal development of individual members was much more important than their economic advancement. Translated[2] from the Spanish, his appeal said:

> That which is worth most in this world is the human being. Especially when production methods advance and when progress brings greater results from brain and brawn, must we remember that man is first of all a moral being and that this man must be served before all riches. Thus the whole economic battle to produce more goods and the entire social struggle to better distribute the fruits of this labor, must necessarily be methods in the moral and intellectual formation of better educated man.

Long before these words were spoken, many rural youth organizations had attempted to implement this philosophy by a triad program of individual improvement, group development, and material enhancement. These are

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[1]Because of the number of bibliographic citations, permission was granted to number them consecutively and place all of them at the end of the dissertation.

[2]This and all other translations appearing in this report were done by the author.

still the guides for many older movements and have universally been adopted by the newly formed ones. The principal method for achieving these goals has been that of "learning by doing," stated in myriad ways but always emphasizing the active, voluntary participation of rural youth in its own educational process. Educational process is used here to describe rural youth programs because the phrase must form the basis for all planning, execution, and evaluation activities of the groups if they are to accomplish their aims.

Types of Rural Youth Organizations

Within the "learning by doing" framework, four chief types of organizations have developed: vocational education, 4-H type clubs, school clubs and cooperative associations. A fifth kind, association branches of parent organizations, has considerable acceptance in North America.

The first of these, vocational education, has found ample articulation in the Future Farmer and Future Homemaker chapters (clubs) in the United States, Japan, Mexico, Peru, and other nations. Here, first emphasis is placed on formal, in-school instruction, generally within secondary education, and adds home and farm projects for practice in the economic part of the goals. In addition, individual and group development are fostered through a chapter organization whereby social practice is provided.

Vocational education gives considerable training in techniques along with some knowledge of the theoretical bases and fundamental sciences from which the student should, with experience, be able to practice improved

agriculture or home living. While skills are emphasized, considerable background knowledge is also provided.

The second type of "learning by doing" organization is 4-H and its many counterparts such as 4-S in Colombia, 4-A in Argentina, and 4-C in Paraguay. In this type of program, weight is placed on the club organization within which vocational education is a part of the activity. 4-H, then, is chiefly an out-of-school education. It, too, depends upon home and farm projects for practice of what it teaches within the meetings.

4-H primarily aims to teach agricultural and home skills. Background knowledge, due to limits of time and facilities, is imparted to a lesser degree. 4-H uses the economic gain of farm and home projects as a stimulant to learning and to provide practice in the teaching process. It is expected that once satisfied that improved methods pay dividends, the individual will continue to seek knowledge through an extension service or other source of special information.

The third development in this series of organizations, usually for younger children, is the primary school club in which some simple vocational instruction is given by the primary teachers both in the classroom and during meetings. Practice is most often provided at the school plant, either with a common garden or cooking and sewing exercises. Home and farm projects are ordinarily encouraged but not required. Uruguay's Clubes Agrarios Juveniles are among the better known of this movement.

School clubs mostly attempt to give rural orientation, that is, it is hoped the children will learn enough to develop an affinity for home and farm improvement and through this, a desire to continue their personal

betterment. Because of the age of the members, the training of the teachers, and the time available, profundity of skills or knowledge is generally impossible although some movements have been able to incorporate greater amounts of both.

Cooperative youth associations are more prevalent in Europe than in the Americas but one group in Argentina has widespread membership. This type of organization attempts to teach the theory of cooperation and, in addition, gives practice in and inculcates the habits of mutual effort in the members. While youth under 19 are invited, this movement finds its fullest expression in those young farmers beginning in independent agriculture since these have a greater need for cooperative assistance.

The fifth kind of club is that formed as a youth branch of a parent organization. Grange, Farmers Union, and Farm Bureau in the United States and British Young Farmers, as a branch of the various agricultural societies in several parts of the Commonwealth, are well known examples. These groups chiefly provide prestige and other social benefits but some agriculture and homemaking is taught through lectures. No strong association of this kind is found in the Americas except in the US and Canada.

Justification for Rural Youth Work

All of the programs require relatively large expenditures of personnel, time, and money. Why, then, are these resources spent on individuals not yet able to put into full practice what they learn? Why not concentrate on the education of adults? While generally discussing rural youth work, Bechara (8) justified the effort in these restated terms:

1. Younger persons learn easier and faster.

2. Youth desires change and is willing to try new things.

3. Youth has more productive years left and thus the investment is potentially more efficient.

4. Few people are actually starving in the Americas today but unless production and utilization greatly improve, the new generation may well be faced with this disaster.

5. The social and psychological problems from multiplied personal contacts could worsen with increasing population numbers unless education can provide the means for meeting these problems and adjusting to them.

Precisely, then, effective and efficient rural youth work is very necessary if man is to achieve and progressively enjoy a good life.

Some Effects of US Rural Youth Organizations

Little definite research has been conducted on the total impact of rural youth programs in the US. Most studies have been of regional and topical character and give only a partial picture of any contributions of youth organizations, leaving the inference that the results are widely applicable. Nevertheless, these studies are of some utility in justifying program existence whether these be 4-H, Future Farmers of America (FFA), Grange, or Farm Bureau Federation. Since the first two have the largest membership, the present discussion will be confined to them.

Statistical reports from these two organizations demonstrate that some of their members have become successfully established in farming. In earlier years these occupied new lands and presently mostly replace retiring farmers. These new farmers are said to be more progressive than the former ones and the reasons are stated as follows:

1. The organizations stimulate greater individual member profit from, and longer continuance in, general primary, secondary, university, and out-of-school education such as extension (77).

2. These ex-members farm more efficiently because of the partial scientific and technical education they have received (79).

3. The combined formal educational activities with the active participation in farming with their parents provides a better equipped farmer (17).

As proof of progressiveness, Meaders (54), Schlutt (74), and Olson (63) cite greater adoption of improved farm practices among ex-members than among non-members.

Programs for girls are claimed to have similar results in improving home living conditions, that is, they make better use of their money and time resources (86) as well as participating more in outside activities. Both 4-H and the Future Homemakers of America (FHA) have developed extensive programs for this part of the rural family.

Apparently these organizations provide direction toward and partial training for rural-related occupations such as county agents, home economists, vocational instructors, supervised credit, marketing, and investigation (55). A part of this is credited to better performance in college (18) and in part due to the skills they obtained which are directly applicable to certain professions (62). Thomas (80) also studied ex-members performance in non-farm occupations and found a trend toward greater success.

Educational Bases of Rural Youth Programs

The educational bases of rural youth work are a peculiar mixture of

general societal education of learning at home, on the farm, from friends and associates, and the more formal brand of in-school education. It is expected that the first will provide:

1. Specific manual skills and techniques,
2. The consciousness of needs for education beyond society's teachings,
3. The proper setting for effective practice of what is learned in the more formal sessions, demonstrations, and trips.

The second part of the mixture, the formal techniques, is supposed to:

1. Provide some amount of background knowledge, thus making future change easier and more probable,
2. Engender a propensity to change from having observed the advantages of change,
3. Develop a change of general attitude toward change agents thus better enabling youth to profit from future developments in knowledge and techniques.

In essence what is proposed is that the student be kept inside his environment as much as possible and handfed information and opportunities for experiences so that he can materially and socially better himself within his present sphere of activities. A basic tenet of most rural youth programs is that of keeping the youngsters in their circumscribed positions, that is, on the farms and in the rural homes. Only a few organizations are intentionally preparing youths for off-farm employment.

Psycho-Social[1] Approaches to Programming

Education through rural youth organizations must be based on the

[1]The combined term "psycho-social" is used here to designate the use of group pressures to achieve changes in individuals.

needs and problems of the individual and the community. Out of this communal circumstance, then, a program is theoretically built that will make youth appreciate what they have but at the same time strive for some improvement. This striving has to be controlled so that the newly created desires are within reach, thus minimizing frustration and stagnation. Once the subject has achieved one objective, he can proceed onward to the next, progressing through a rational development.

Both the processes of keeping youth at home and of inducing them to change are sought through an intermediary, the voluntary leader. This leader is previously defined so that he remains a symbol of the community but still represents and probably fosters change by his own progressive outlook and actions. An amplification of the leader concept may be found on page 41.

Psycho-Social Approaches to Personal Development

The dual nature of programming concommitantly demands two foci in the approaches to development. These two can be described as working directly with the individual and aiming at him through group processes. The general literature about rural youth programs, particularly those conducted as a part of extension services, weights the group approach heaviest even though most of the methods used result in emphasis on the individual.

While the lack of personnel is most often used as justification for working with groups, the pressure of the group on the individual is considered to be a favorable factor. The necessity to conform is thus expected to play an important part in causing some members to change.

Working through the group's leaders in order to reach the followers is also an announced approach. While seldom proclaimed, a third benefit from clubs is that of allowing members to hide anonymously within the group until such time as they can perform separately.

Approaches to individuals are preponderant in youth work. Home and farm projects, club offices, member demonstrations, competition, home and farm visits, and most public presentations mostly concentrate on one person at a time. Many of these methods give preference to those youths who are physically, mentally, socially, or economically better able to perform. Regional organizational hierarchies, conventions, contests, and most other recognition devices serve to enunciate individual differences. Despite this difficulty, these activities are generally considered to be worthwhile because some members attain polish and poise through successive participation. Most youth movements emphasize the stimulus to greater local achievement, a feedback from these events, as an important effect of individual advancement. A relatively new and still not widespread stimulus method is that of recognizing an entire club rather than individuals within it.

In recent years, 4-H work in the US, Jamaica, and Costa Rica has been trying to develop a greater number of individuals through emphasis on the "growing up jobs" of adolescents. In summary, these are (59):

1. Dominate the physical environment.
2. Become sufficiently competent so as to earn a good living.
3. Achieve the ability to make friends and choose a mate.

4. Understand self in relation to community.

5. Gain emotional maturity, flexibility, and adaptability.

Working through these points, it is hoped that agents and leaders will be able to enter sufficiently into the adolescent world to help youngsters develop within their own framework of reference rather than in terms of a strictly adult world. Force is placed, then, on an orderly individual growth of all members rather than on the superachievement of the most able. Some evidence of success with this approach has been demonstrated through the US Citizenship Improvement Study of the National 4-H Club Foundation.

Educational Methods in Rural Youth Work

The body of educational methods used in rural youth work differs only slightly from those of general education and most of the difference that does exist is in emphasis given to a particular part of the learning process. This mental process of learning can be described as (a) basing instruction on, or awakening interest in, needs of youth, (b) following four organized steps of preparing the teacher and the student: presenting the material, giving opportunities to practice what was presented, and helping provide proof of utility, and (c) motivating the students to successively follow each of the learning process steps.

Theoretically the members of rural youth clubs make their own program through a study of the situation and a determination of their problems. If properly guided and trained in this procedure, the program cannot help but be within their interests. This, too, should provide some motivation

since they can see in the program, a solution to some of the problems they face. Additional motivation is thought to be added through contests in which certain levels of achievement are rewarded and the lower levels are punished by withholding recognition, thus stimulating greater effort. Grading systems, different color or size ribbons, material awards, and championships are common methods used as stimuli.

Teacher preparation includes the ordinary phases of dominating the subject matter, planning the presentation, obtaining those materials needed, and rehearsing if necessary. Since learning through youth organizations is thought to be somewhat more voluntary than in-school situations, many authors (10, 12, 17, 29, 88) have emphasized the need of adequately preparing the members for learning.[1] Principally, club preparation consists of convincing the members that they can dominate the material and that economic or social gain will follow application of what is learned.

Presentation of the lessons may be done by a professional teacher or agent, a voluntary leader, or by members themselves. Preference is given to the last two in teaching club members; agents should act through the leaders when at all possible. Physical demonstration of methods or results is demanded as an accompaniment to oral instruction. This is thought to provide greater possibilities of capturing the message, of facilitating future practice, and of reinforcing the preparation of members by convincing them that they, too, can carry out the action.

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[1]Gates (33) and Smirnov (78) view the learning process as always voluntary and individual and therefore there could be no difference in the need for 4-H club member or classroom pupil preparation or motivation.

Practice of any skill is conceived as having three phases. The first is mental and is provided by repetition of the oral expression, that is, mental participation with the instructor during the presentation. Secondly, when possible, the students should immediately have the opportunity to practice under supervision. Finally, it is expected that members will try what is learned at home or on the farm, either in helping their parents or through individual projects of their own. This step is designated as "learning by doing".

Proof should be offered in each of the previous three steps as well as emphasized in this final one. As previously mentioned, preparation, presentation, and practice should prove to the learner that he can accomplish the lesson and that the lesson is worthwhile. The results, if positive, of his having practiced, will now offer objective proof of his ability and the utility of what is learned, thus favoring retention and future application by guiding individual evaluation. The six factors -- interest, motivation, preparation, presentation, practice, and proof -- are seen then as indispensable parts of a carefully integrated process from which club members can learn.

Means of Implementing the Learning Process

Lectures, written literature, visual aids, demonstrations, and home, community, and farm projects are the principal means used in rural youth work. Since the first three are common in most educational programs, demonstrations and home and farm projects will receive the attention in this exposition. This does not indicate, however, that these latter are

exclusively youth club means but rather that greater relative importance to learning is attributed to them in this kind of education.

Demonstrations are explained as bringing the materials to be used in the lesson to the people or taking the people to the materials and then performing the function while orally explaining it to the members. Making a rope halter at the meeting in the club house, cooking a balanced breakfast in the community center kitchen, or pruning coffee trees on a neighboring farm illustrate demonstrations of methods, or the "how to do it" process. Each part of the process must be explained and shown as a separate step, insuring that everyone captures the idea. A final repetition and summary should provide an overall view of the process as one complete unit.

A second kind of demonstration is that of results, offering the proof of the possible benefits of any particular recommended action. The steps of how the recommended action was done are explained and those attending are then visibly offered the end results for examination. Better fit may be demonstrated following patterned dressmaking, more corn per acre resulting from fertilizers, or better speaking ability following mirror practice are customary examples.

Home and farm projects are important features of youth club education. In the ideal, a boy or girl owns the physical materials used in the project. plans the execution jointly with the leader and parents, does all or nearly all of the work, and retains the profit realized from the project. A girl might buy 100 chicks and the necessary feed, raise them herself, and finally sell them. From the profits she might buy additional

clothes, a radio, or save the money for her university education. That a project is, however, a cooperative one, is seen in the necessity of technical advice from the agent or leader; counsel, space, used of equipment, and marketing assistance from her parents. Both girls and boys are urged to carry out projects which will:

1. Be within the economic and educational possibilities of themselves and their parents,
2. Provide a vehicle for learning something useful and interesting to them,
3. Yield a visible profit, and
4. Contribute toward establishment in farming or homemaking.

Not every requisite can always be met but all project planning should attempt to fulfill them.

Record keeping is generally required of members of all types of organizations. This consists of narrative, chronological descriptions of what was done and how. Also, a simple accounting system is included to help demonstrate the real profits of the project, to help instill the steps of an economic venture, and teach elementary accounting. Record keeping appears to be difficult to teach and to execute but remains a desired phase of the project methods.

Two other types of projects, communal activities and community betterment, are often included. Communal activities may be recreation, a joint crop project, a cooperative, religious services, or any other group event. These usually have goals specific to each activity as well as the overall goal of fostering and developing mutual assistance. Community

betterment is conducted as a communal activity with most of the club participating. This type of project is planned to increase mutual assistance, show how youth can help the community, and demonstrate the club's worth to others.

In summary, rural youth movements are extramural programs designed to assist in the development of this important segment of our population through direct personal improvement, economic gain, and favorable attitudes. They approach this development by working with the individual and the group, basing all work on the problems of the members. Both professionals and voluntary leaders attempt to teach by an organized process of convincing members of the utility of improved home, community, and farm practices, principally through demonstrations and projects. The integrated program of planning, teaching, and practice purports to assist general education in developing active and intelligent rural citizens who can profit from their environment and live happily in it.

This chapter has summarized the nature of rural youth work as a reference from which rural youth organizations can evaluate their own functioning. One of the first concepts stated in this explanation is that organizations must attempt to help their members solve the problems existing in their daily lives. Following this recommendation, the next section of this report, Chapter III, presents the socio-economic conditions discovered in the studied areas and highlights some of the problems facing rural youth today.

CHAPTER III

SOME SOCIO-ECONOMIC FACTORS THAT AFFECT RURAL YOUTH WORK

Rural youth programs, as with any other educational organization, are social institutions and operate as dependencies of the general society while at the same time attempting to bring about improvements in that society. In order to understand the media in which these programs are conducted, a questionnaire was designed to aid in studying the socio-economic conditions prevailing in the various countries. This questionnaire was administered through personal interviews to officials of agencies concerned with agriculture, health, education, and welfare in the rural areas.

Several officials were interviewed in each country so that the best possible data could be secured. In addition, mailed questionnaires to census bureaus and available literature on the countries were used to check all information. This chapter presents the results of these studies of the socio-economic conditions in a description of the general setting and rural living.

General Socio-Economic Conditions of the Countries

The studied area is big and varied; so big and so varied that it is difficult to describe it without generalizing too much. The Americans comprise about 40,000,000 square kilometers which are inhabited by more than 404 million people, more than half of whom, 206,567,317, live outside of the US and Canada. The studied political units range from the

very tiny French department of Martinique, 2,849 square kilometers, to mammoth Brazil, nearly equal to the United States in size. Populations, too, show differences from 30,000 in French Guiana to more than 65 million in Brazil. Between these extremes fall the other 26 countries with their equally varying cultures, peoples, and topography (Table 1-A[1]).

Classically the Americans are considered as Spanish, Portuguese, French, or English but heavy influences are felt in most of them from other Europeans, Africans, or American Indians. British Guiana's population includes a high percentage of Asians. Each nation has its own cultural features which stem from a mixture of racial origins, neighbors, benefactors and enemies, the land, and history. Often the differences within a country are so great that some countries are but slowly developing a unified national type. Some differences will probably last for centuries.

The land is often thought of as rich but much of it has failed thus far to give to its inhabitants a high level of living. While some of the techniques and much of the necessary knowledge are yet lacking on how to produce the optimum from the land, thus limiting productivity, it is probable that much of it will never permit great intensification of the present livestock-cropping regimen. Cold Patagonia, the rainwashed tropics, the deserts, and the steep mountain slopes are prominent examples of these

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[1]To facilitate reading this report, all secondary information tables have been placed in Appendix I, which begins on page 83. All tables appearing in the Appendix will be marked with the letter A (for example, Table 1-A). Table numbers not appearing with the letter A will be found on a nearby page in the text.

problematic lands.

Of the 20 most important agricultural enterprises, 11 are primarily for export, indicating the extractive nature of this segment of the economy (Table 2-A). These are also characteristically produced on large-scale farms, indicating that much of the wealth is concentrated in a few hands in many countries. Many of the other enterprises are produced principally as subsistence items.

Despite the diversity among the countries, certain problems and symptoms of problems are generally felt throughout the area. For example, although the population per square kilometer ranges from one-third to 267 (Table 1-A), many of those countries with lower figures suffer because their arable land is scarce in relation to the total area. Obviously, those with the higher densities feel considerable pressure and are looking to pursuits other than agriculture to maintain the people. Puerto Rico's "Operation Bootstrap" has become a classic example of this search.

Most of the countries, 22 of the 28, have populations that are more than 50% rural (Table 1-A). This not only demonstrates the agriculturally based economies but also points to many problems that may arise from widely scattered populations. One of these problems is that services are necessarily higher in rural areas because of distance and often these services cannot be or are not being provided.

A high rate of population growth, estimated at 2.5%, is evidenced throughout the area and the preponderance of youth is particularly felt in the rural sections. The distribution of the age groups also presents

a problem to many countries. Some 26% of all people over 29 years of age live in rural zones but 30% of those under the age of 20 do (Table 3-A). Put another way, the generally accepted productive age of 20 to 60 makes up only 46% of the rural population and is supporting the other 54%. Approximately 80% of the urbanites maintain a younger 20%. The capacity, then, to pay for services is considerably lower in the countryside.

Even though there are some notable exceptions, primarily among the European-associated entities such as Surinam, Jamaica, and British Guiana, there is a very close inverse correlation among the percentages of rural population, literacy, and the 1960 enrollment, .72 for all countries and .80 excluding the dependencies. The correlation can be observed in Figure I. Many countries, such as Peru and Costa Rica, are waging literacy campaigns but in a few the educational authorities expressed the view that they were losing ground among the agrarian population.

Gross product per person appears to be closely tied to urban concentration. This is especially true if the canal and oil revenues are subtracted from the gross product figures of Panama and Venezuela. Obviously the combination of high rural population percentages and low literacy work in a "hard-to-break" cycle with low incomes (Table 4-A). The percentage of farms with areas of less than five hectares also shows a strong corollary tendency with gross product per person but curiously enough, the percentage of farm ownership seemingly has little relation to other factors (Table 5-A). The income figures available were for the

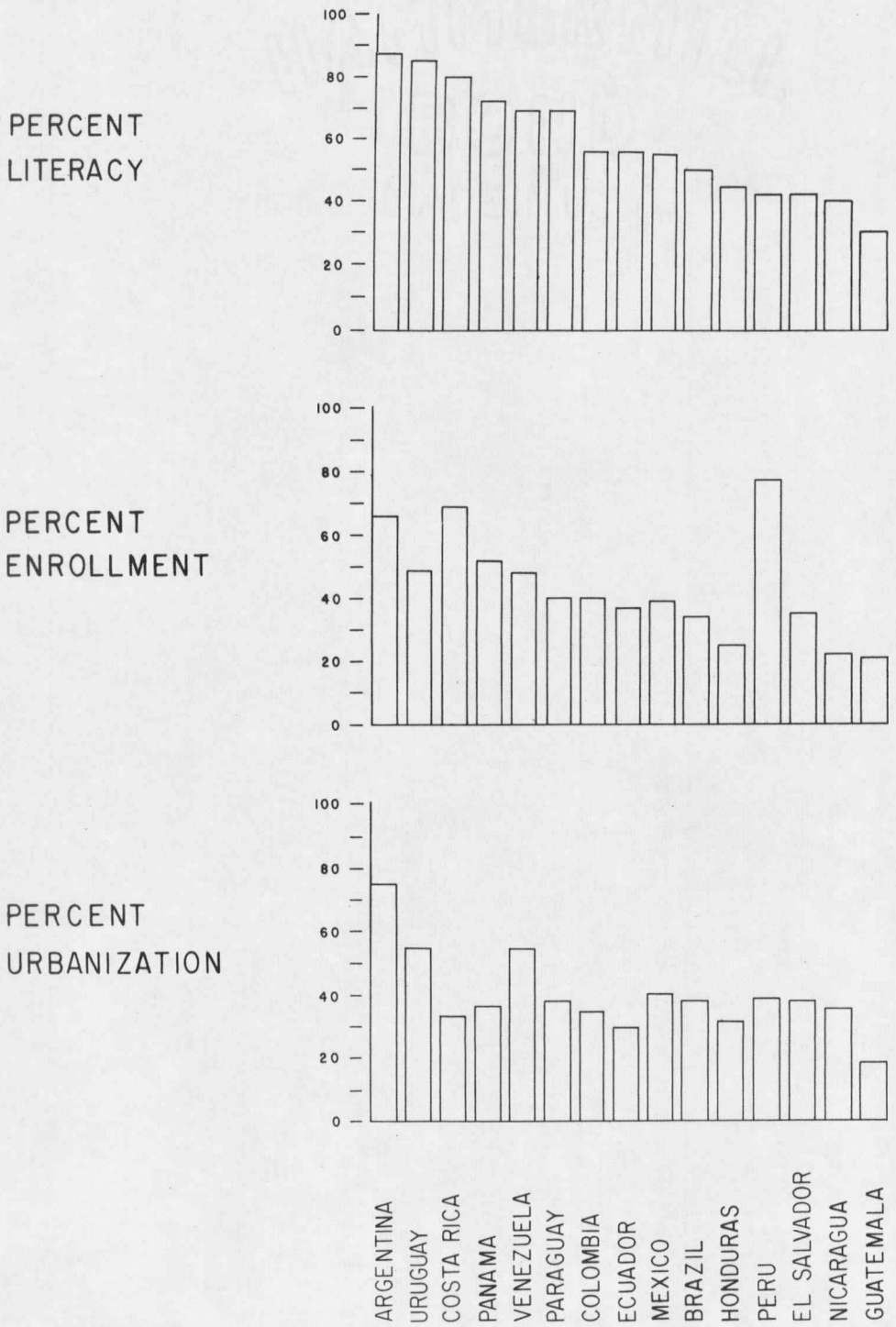

Figure I: Comparison of Percentages: Literacy, School Enrollment, and Urbanization in 1960

entire population of each country and it is maintained that the rural population earns considerably less than this average (47).

The educational job to be done is still tremendous. Only 38.2% of the age group 7-19 was enrolled in any kind of school in 1960 (Table 6-A). Estimates of educational officers in nine countries (Table 7-A) indicated a difference of from .7% to 80% in those who will complete primary school, and from .001% to .5% who will receive university diplomas. The rural element does not share equally in even these low figures (47).

Rural Family Living Conditions

Rural youth organizations try to improve the living conditions of rural families and generally give high priority to this in their work plans. Since this is given such importance, home economists and health specialists in every country were interviewed to determine what conditions prevail in rural areas. This opinion survey forms the basis for this section of the report.

Both national and international health programs have made progress in the farm zones but diseases of the digestive, circulatory, and respiratory systems are still prominent killers (Table 8-A). Malaria and cancer occur frequently but tuberculosis, reported separately from other respiratory diseases, and venereal diseases have been substantially reduced in most countries.

The officials reported a wide variety of rural living problems, many of which are inter-related or are cause-effect relationships rather than single problems in themselves. Malnutrition, for example, is listed as

the second most critical problem while giving the causal factors of economic resources, education, and hygiene a lower ranking. Similarly, general hygiene and malnutrition were listed with parasitosis while both contribute to, or make possible, the parasite problem (Tables 9-A and 10-A).

Sanitary conditions throughout most of the studied area were rated as deficient or very bad (Table 11-A). While the opinions varied as to what was good and not good, still it is obvious that there is an urgent need to provide education about the means for improving these conditions. The house itself is apparently inadequate in most respects as indicated by the fact that it does not provide the necessary requirements for ventilation, protection, light, and space (Table 12-A).

Malnutrition is chronic and serious in most of the rural areas. The problem is not, however, primarily that of insufficient quantity but one of quality and variety. Only Haiti listed food scarcity as a nutritional problem while 21 of 22 answering this section reported deficiencies of proteins, vitamins, and minerals (Table 13-A). The preservation of foods was considered poor or inadequate in quantity and methods by practically every country. Very few items were mentioned as being consistently preserved.

Low economic resources undoubtedly contribute to the malnutrition but the lack of education on balanced diets and the eating habits of the people probably are even greater factors. For example, two countries reported that yellow and green leafy vegetables are not produced for home consumption and 14 indicated insufficient production. Grain raising was

listed as sufficient or fair in every country (Table 14-A). Despite these opinions, enormous national and international programs are devoted to increasing the production of corn, wheat, and rice while relatively little attention is paid to vegetable gardens.

Rural home furnishings and equipment were judged poor and inadequate for nearly all the 25 countries filling out this section. Bathing, toilet, and storage facilities were particularly unsatisfactory (Table 15-A).

Despite recent advances in medicine, most rural areas of the countries under study will need a great deal more attention. Respiratory and circulatory diseases and malnutrition are prevalent and, according to specialists' opinions, are caused or aggravated by the poor sanitary conditions and low incomes.

Some reasons for the rural living problems are pointed up in the opinions of health and home economics technicians on the general knowledge and the skill of rural homemakers (Table 16-A). Half or more of the countries ranked these abilities as deficient or low in nearly every item. Education, then, has a huge task ahead and simple economic development will not entirely alleviate the poor living conditions.

In summary, several major problems face the rural areas. A majority of the farmers live on very small farms and are mostly producing subsistence crops. The high rate of population growth makes it nearly impossible to continue subdividing these farms so that everyone can earn a living from agriculture. Farm income is already too low to provide many things needed by rural families. Only about one-third of the rural youngsters are now receiving any primary education and even fewer are obtaining any

secondary or vocational education, thus making their entry into other occupations more difficult.

Rural family living conditions are generally inadequate. This is particularly pointed out in that according to the opinions of health and home economics specialists, home construction, household furnishings, general sanitation, and nutrition are inadequate for an acceptable standard of living. These same specialists rate homemakers' knowledge and skills to be very low.

This survey of the socio-economic conditions of the rural areas outlined some problems that could affect the work of rural youth programs. Chapter IV presents a description of the existing rural youth programs and an analysis of their activities so as to determine if there are some relationships between the socio-economic problems and the programs of the organizations.

CHAPTER IV

THE NATURE OF THE FORTY-NINE RURAL YOUTH PROGRAMS

This survey included the 49 rural youth organizations in 25[1] of the 28 countries. Personal interviews were conducted with the officials of the programs in order to understand the structure, objectives, quality of personnel, and the functioning of the organizations. This chapter is devoted primarily to the general problems and common program factors but it should be understood that each political unit stands independently and that the results of this study apply only in general terms to each program. Solutions to the problems would necessarily have to be worked out individually for the separate programs.

Types of Organizations and Membership

The 49 programs can generally be classified in four types: 4-H, primary school clubs, vocational education, and cooperatives. The first two, plus a combination of the two, are the most prevalent. Brazil's school clubs, with 64,474 members, alone make up 28% of the total American rural youth club membership, 229,512, excluding the United States and Canada (Taple 17, p. 43).

No attempt has been made to separate the 4-H type from the school clubs except by name because in almost every country considerable use is made of the rural school teachers and facilities in 4-H work. Sometimes, although called by a name similar to 4-H and administered by an extension

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[1]The Dominican Republic and the French Departments of Guadeloupe and Martinique did not have rural youth programs in 1960. Permission could not be obtained to conduct the study in Cuba.

service, the clubs are primarily an extramural school activity.

Formal vocational agricultural school connected clubs were found in Brazil, Mexico, Peru, Panama, and Puerto Rico, and vocational home economics clubs only in Puerto Rico. Panama and Argentina were the only countries listing clubs emanating from cooperatives.

Program Objectives

Three broad objectives[1] are common to all the groups: increasing education, raising levels of living, and providing social activities. The first of these, increasing education, is considered preeminent and generally receives the greatest attention. It is translated into the following specific objectives:

1. Acquiring agricultural and family living skills and knowledge
2. Develop knowledge, skills, and attitudes for cooperation and community improvement
3. Develop better citizens
4. Make wise use of leisure time
5. Foster a favorable attitude toward progress

The most common methods reported as used to implement these specific objectives were lectures, demonstrations, written materials, supervised practice, and home and farm projects.

The second objective, raising levels of living, was nearly always

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[1]The stated objectives of some programs included items that are often termed means or methods. The author reports these as objectives when so listed by the programs.

a desired product of the first, increasing education. Nevertheless, many listed as an immediate goal, that of producing food and fiber and physically improving the farm and home. Some countries with urgent food shortages have concentrated on the introduction of practices that would quickly add to the food supply. Haiti's farm fish ponds and Guatemala's rabbit projects are examples of this phase of work.

Many activities can serve as a means for acquiring social skills and also as diversion. Half the countries formally reported an objective of providing social activities for the club members and for the community. An analysis of the program activities, however, indicated that this is definitely one of the major benefits derived from the clubs. Obviously fairs, dances, trips, and sports have considerable value as fun in addition to their educational worth. Many club members reported they attend meetings for the enjoyment they receive and often named this as their first reason for joining.

Eight organizations listed a fourth general objective, that of equalizing rural youth with city youth. The US Future Farmers of America include it in their goals and it usually appears somewhere in those programs emulating this organization. The desire for status is developing quickly in most areas and it is not uncommon to hear some professional proudly say about his group, "You wouldn't know they were country boys," indicating that consciously or not, this objective is often a strong one.

Program Methods

"Learning by doing" was proclaimed by every program as it's chief

educational method. This method is put into action through individual home and farm projects, community projects, communal activities, demonstrations, and conducting of meetings. The vocational programs add shop and kitchen practices to this list.

As with these same types of projects in the United States, most programs require that each member manage and execute an individual project. The most common projects for boys were vegetable gardens, poultry, dairy, corn, hogs, beef, and soil conservation (Table 18-A). Girls projects of most importance were general sewing, embroidery, cooking, food preservation, general nutrition, and home improvement. Social activities, religious observation, and leadership were most often named in personal improvement while general community betterment, development of sports activities, and park beautification were popular in community activities. Mechanic and manual skills projects were mentioned by only a few organizations and these were generally the vocational schools. In practice, many countries have found it difficult to enforce projects for all members and they report lack of finances and lack of parental support as the principal causes. Sometimes school or community gardens, home economics centers, and other communal activities are substituted for individual projects.

Demonstrations by professionals, voluntary leaders, and members are widely used as an educational tool. Demonstrations by members seem to receive less attention than demonstrations by leaders and professionals. Most organizations reported that demonstrations were used primarily as an adjunct to the regular meeting but a few indicated that intensive training at especially provided centers, vocational schools, experimental

stations, and on farms.

Sponsoring Agencies

The rural youth programs are sponsored by a wide variety of agencies and with the collaboration of even more. These are: ministries of agriculture, ministries of education, US international agencies, credit institutions, ministries of labor, a ministry of social welfare, an agricultural society, a college of agriculture, and combinations of some of these. (For program descriptions see Appendix II.)

Inside these larger administrative units, smaller divisions frequently have more control of the youth program. Extension services, rural or agricultural education departments, the socio-educational divisions, agricultural institutes, community development sections, and nearly autonomous units generally fulfill the functions of routine control. Budgeting, however, is rarely entrusted to these smaller divisions and they ordinarily operate with an assigned amount of money from a larger administrative unit budget.

Program Budgets

The total investment by all sponsoring and contributing agencies amounted to $4,973,893[1] for 36 of the 49 programs listed in Table 17. This money chiefly came from national sources (62%), US government agencies (20%), and private international agencies (9%). A host of national and foreign agencies, churches, and private donors made up the

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[1]US dollars are used as the monetary unit throughout this report.

TABLE 17: NUMBER OF CLUB MEMBERS, PROGRAM BUDGET, AND BUDGET PER MEMBER FOR 36 PROGRAMS

Country	No. of Members	Budget ($US)	Budget per Member ($US)
1. Argentina, Ateneos Rurales	300	831	2.77
2. Argentina, Cooperativistas	12,000	4,575	.38
3. Argentina, El Chaco 4-C	360	2,285	6.34
4. Argentina, Misiones 4-M	512	14,937	29.17
5. Argentina, 4-A	2,160	251,372	116.38
6. Belize, 4-H	204	3,000	14.71
7. Bolivia, 4-S	3,087	57,477	18.62
8. Brazil, Clubes Agricolas	64,474	26,320	.41
9. Brazil, 4-S, 4-P, 4-H, CJR	6,252	35,682	5.71
10. British Guiana, 4-H and Young Farmers	2,979	35,353	11.87
11. Chile, 4-C	1,521	93,427	61.42
12. Colombia, 4-S	3,313	20,777	6.27
13. Costa Rica, 4-S	4,641	78,137	16.83
14. Ecuador, 4-F	1,694	52,798	31.16
15. El Salvador, 4-C	860	51,628	60.03
16. Guatemala, 1G	7,300	3,490	.48
17. Guatemala, 4-S	1,610	40,780	25.33
18. Haiti, 4-C	2,722	38,323	14.08
19. Honduras, 4-S	902	19,150	21.23
20. Jamaica, 4-H	23,855	84,605	3.55
21. Mexico, CJR	2,903	48,408	16.68
22. Mexico, FAM	2,107	69,664	33.06
23. Netherlands Ant. (various)	2,300	62,000	26.96
24. Nicaragua, 4-S	909	30,954	34.05
25. Panama, 4-S	3,374	114,625	33.97
26. Panama, FFP	110	4,121[a]	37.46
27. Panama, Cooperativistas	85	3,000	35.29
28. Paraguay, 4-C	3,140	23,583	7.51
29. Peru, CAJP	4,816	27,542	5.72
30. Peru, FAP	3,600	202,089[a]	56.14
31. Puerto Rico, 4-H	34,262	480,000	14.01
32. Puerto Rico, FFA	4,410	700,000[a]	158.73
33. Puerto Rico, FHA	16,222	900,000[a]	55.48
34. Surinam, 4-H	503	15,200	3.03
35. Uruguay, Clubes Agrarios	5,500	6,960	1.27
36. Venezuela, 5-V	4,525	1,370,800	302.94
TOTAL	229,512	4,973,893	21.67

[a]This includes the cost of formal instruction.

rest (9%).

The cost per member averaged $21.67 for all programs but varied from $.38 to $302.94. In general the school clubs cost the least per member and the vocational organizations cost most, with the 4-H types centering around the average. Notable exceptions were Venezuela's 5-V clubs which were the most expensive per member and Jamaica and Surinam's 4-H clubs which were among the least expensive. Vocational schools generally included the cost of formal instruction since the club organization was considered an inseparable part of the program.

While no exact figures for total US costs could be obtained, the Associated Free State of Puerto Rico stated that its cost of $14.01 per member was probably average for the US 4-H system. The ratios of club members to professional workers probably account for much of the variance between Puerto Rican and all-countries' average costs.

Types of Rural Youth Program Personnel

There are two types of personnel that work in most of the programs: professionals, both administrative and field workers, and voluntary leaders. The professionals are those who are paid directly by the sponsoring agency and whose outlined duties include full or part-time work with rural youth clubs. The voluntary leaders are those who assist with club functions without receiving money for their services.

Professional Personnel

Professional staff members have a pecular role in rural youth club work. In an ideally functioning organization they act through voluntary

leaders, training them and furnishing them information so that they, the leaders, can carry out practically all of the direct work with club members. They discover, train, and assist leaders and do not themselves directly teach rural youth.

Little research on the desirable characteristics of a rural youth professional has been conducted in Latin America but a few definitive reports have come from the US. One of the most thorough of these is by Nye (61), in which he constructed a predictive scale of county agent success[1]. He found that the four characteristics which contributed to a favorable opinion of an extension worker were:

1. Vocational interests
2. Personality
3. Attitudes
4. Background and training

He concluded that any one characteristic can, if very weak, eliminate the chances of the agent working successfully. Within acceptable limits of performance, however, the degree of success was found to be determined by a combination of all four.

Many authors (1, 36, 70, 82) have discussed professional leadership as a promotive function and have indicated that personality and attitudes must be those conforming to the expectancy of the community. Background,

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[1]Nye determined success through the opinions of administrators and farmers on the degree to which the agents were achieving the objectives of the extension service.

TABLE 19: PROFESSIONAL MAN-YEARS EMPLOYED IN 18 RURAL YOUTH PROGRAMS IN 1960

Program	Man-Years[a]			
	Administration[b]	Field	Total	Per Member
1. Argentina 4-A	5.45	113.40	118.85	.055
2. Bolivia 4-S	10.45	27.00	37.45	.012
3. Costa Rica 4-S	5.35	44.70	50.05	.011
4. Ecuador 4-F	3.60	21.20	24.80	.014
5. El Salvador 4-C	4.70	23.20	27.90	.032
6. Guatemala 4-S	3.75	13.15	16.90	.010
7. Haiti 4-C	24.58	81.50	106.08	.039
8. Honduras 4-S	5.15	20.45	25.60	.028
9. Mexico CJR	8.20	29.35	37.55	.013
10. Mexico FAM	3.05	9.50	22.55	.011[c]
11. Nicaragua 4-S	1.95	32.25	34.20	.037
12. Panama 4-S	2.15	37.45	39.60	.012
13. Paraguay 4-C	3.50	41.50	45.00	.014
14. Peru CAJP	11.45	17.50	28.95	.006
15. Peru FAP	4.00	160.00	164.00	.045[c]
16. Puerto Rico 4-H	36.65	71.50	108.15	.003
17. Puerto Rico FFA	6.60	99.30	105.90	.024[c]
18. Venezuela 5-V	5.65	67.50	73.15	.015
TOTAL	146.23	720.45	866.68	.011

[a] Calculated from the percentage of time each employee devotes to rural youth work.

[b] Includes directors, supervisors, administrative specialists and office workers who fulfill major responsibilities.

[c] Includes time spent in classroom, shop, field instruction, and club activities.

training, and interests seem to be less restrictive, depending to a large extent on the job to be done and the levels of these same factors within the group to be lead. It appears that both over-education and under-education can reduce the effectiveness of professionals, especially when working with groups with little education (52).

In 18 programs the employees of rural youth programs noted that a total of 866.68 man-years attended 81,722 club members[1]. This represents .011 man-years per member, that is, 11 professionals attend each 1000 members. As shown in Table 19, the man-years per member varied from .003 for Puerto Rico's 4-H to .055 for Argentina's 4-A. A part of this divergence may be due to the intensity of use of voluntary leaders and in part to lower club memberships. In a few organizations the ratio of administrative to field personnel is high, thus probably reducing the number of club members that can be assisted.

The formal educational levels attained by program personnel varied from primary school to postgraduate. Five of 12 reporting programs listed in Table 20 had professionals with only primary education and only Puerto Rico was exclusively using university or normal school graduates. A high percentage had completed agricultural or home economics vocational school training.

Research recently conducted by Flores in Colombia (27), Bidigorri in Costa Rica (9), Gordon in Panama (34), and the Department of Economics and

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[1]A man-year is calculated as one person giving full-time to the job for one ordinary work year. The percentages of part-time professionals devoted to rural youth work were added together to express all as full time.

TABLE 20. PERCENTAGES OF LAST EDUCATIONAL LEVEL REACHED BY PROFESSIONAL PERSONNEL IN 12 PROGRAMS BY 1960

Country	Primary		Secondary		Vocational		Normal		University		Postgrad.	
	Adm.	Field	Adm.	Field	Adm.	Field	Adm.	Field	Adm.	Field	Adm.	Field
1. Argentina	-	-	34	3	-	33	7	59	55	5	4	-
2. Bolivia	-	-	25	21	6	45	6	45	51	34	6	-
3. Costa Rica	-	48	-	8	9	4	27	2	74	38	18	-
4. Ecuador	-	-	25	12	12	44	-	-	63	44	-	-
5. El Salvador	-	-	-	30	71	70	29	-	-	-	-	-
6. Haiti	10	62	8	7	10	20	10	9	56	2	6	-
7. Honduras	-	-	-	-	39	89	11	11	39	-	11	-
8. Jamaica	-	6	17	12	17	50	66	27	-	-	-	-
9. Panama	-	3	-	63	-	6	20	-	70	28	10	-
10. Puerto Rico	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	27	95	73	1
11. Surinam	-	38	-	12	33	25	-	-	33	25	34	-
12. Venezuela	-	-	-	-	67	100	-	-	33	-	-	-

[a] Adm. is used here as an abbreviation for administration.

Extension staff in Argentina (22), Honduras (23), and El Salvador (21), agree with these findings on the educational level of professionals and point up the need for greater training for rural youth workers. Comparisons with earlier studies by Chaparro (16), del Rio (19), and Franco (30), indicate that the educational level of professional personnel has not risen appreciably in the intervening years.

The rural youth program officials generally stated that the vocational and university graduates were the best prepared in technical subjects and that those from teacher training institutions such as normal schools were better equipped in methods of conducting the work. Only a few have combined the two phases in their general education.

In 1960 very few schools offered formal classes in extension or vocational methods. The Escuela Agricola Panamericana in Zamorano, Honduras; the University of Panama in a special course in Divisa, Panama; the College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts of the University of Puerto Rico; and the Universities of Haiti and Sao Paulo, Brazil, were the only ones reporting this type of education for that year. Since that time, other classes have begun in universities in Colombia, Chile, Brazil, Bolivia, and Argentina.

Voluntary Leaders

Di Franco (20) described voluntary leaders in extension as community leaders who assist the process by directing clubs, meetings, programs and by helping diffuse improved practices or aiding in creating a favorable atmosphere for extension. These leaders may be drawn from farmers,

housewives, craftsmen, and professionals such as teachers, public health personnel, welfare workers, and safety officials.

Community leaders have been described by Nunez (60) as those persons who fulfill better than others the norms of their groups and gain greater affection and confidence for themselves among the members of their groups. Because of this greater affection and confidence, other members of the groups often follow their example, thus adopting more improved practices and assisting more with programs in which these leaders are involved.

The use of voluntary leaders in club work, then, is predicated on the following principles:

1. By working through leaders, professional workers can serve a greater number of club members.

2. Properly chosen and trained leaders often have greater success in achieving adoption of improved practices among club members than do professionals.[1]

3. Properly chosen and trained voluntary leaders, through home and farm visits, appear to favorably influence parents in the adoption of improved practices.

4. Greater leader participation seems to carry with it a greater community feeling of responsibility for youth work and thus more support for the activities.

All organizations reported in this study have incorporated the use of voluntary leaders, in one form or another, into their programs. The 4-H type clubs presumably work through adult and junior voluntary leaders; school clubs and vocational education try to use them as collaborators,

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[1]Kaehler (43), however, was unable to prove this difference in an experiment conducted in Michigan, USA.

members of advisory committees and supplementary teachers. (25, 32, 58, 65)

Despite apparent adherence to this theoretical program method, rural youth work has grown very slowly in the last few years and some programs, note Figure II, even reported a membership decrease. While no doubt many factors contribute to this slow growth, both youth organization officials and the Inter-American Rural Youth Technical Advisers stated that the problem in part is due to the fact that people arbitrarily selected by the club professionals are guiding the clubs rather than real community leaders (38).

The ratio of number of leaders to clubs, as listed by 16 programs, is higher than for the United States. The 2,845 clubs in the 16 programs are reported as having 11,577 leaders, a ratio of 4 to 1, while the US Department of Agriculture reports about 3 to 1 for the nation as a whole. Notable deviations from the average of the 16 programs were Surinam with 10:1, Chile and Puerto Rico with 6:1, and Costa Rica with less than one-third leader per club. The number and occupational distribution of voluntary leaders are detailed in Table 21.

Rural school teachers made up a large percentage of the leaders in some countries. The highest was 90% in Uruguay but one organization, Guatemalan 4-S, reported no teachers whatever. Farmers make up a larger share of the leaders than do homemakers. Other occupations provide only a small number. The rate of leaders who are or have been members of the clubs varied from none in eight systems to 78 and 85% respectively in Puerto Rico's 4-H and Uruguay's CAJ.

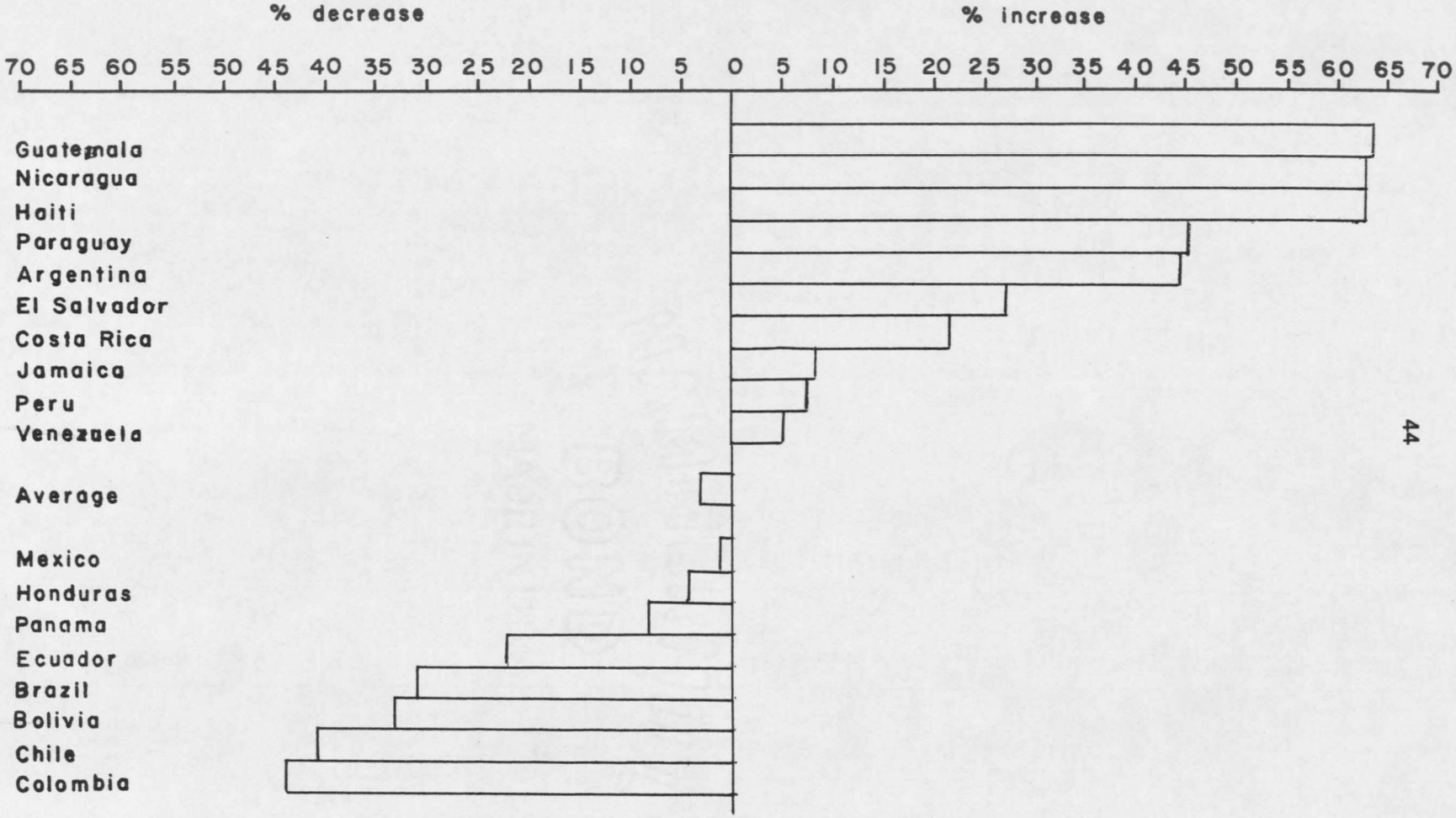

Figure II Comparative increase or decrease of 18 programs between 1959 and 1960

Training

Educational institutions such as secondary schools and universities primarily try to teach background knowledge and rarely attempt to provide the training necessary for conducting the daily routine of a job. In addition, some schools do not teach all the subjects basic to the special tasks of a particular organization. While some techniques are learned simply by working, many individual organizations provide their own special orientation through pre-service or in-service training.

Education for successful rural youth work covers a variety of subject matter specialities, including the following that fit all programs:

1. A sound basis in general education including mathematics, science, history, language arts, and civics. This basis is necessary for effective communication and to enable the person to further improve himself.

2. Technical education in agriculture, home economics, or craft industries so that he has practical knowledge to impart to youth.

3. A firm knowledge of the social sciences including anthropology, sociology, and psychology. Particularly useful are those directed toward the understanding and managing individuals and groups as they act and react in social change.

4. A sound grasp of pedagogical methods, both those involved in classroom, laboratory and shop work and "out of school" education such as extension or community development.

5. Specific training in the objectives, methods, administration, programming, and reporting devices of the specific organization. (2, 13, 29, 66)

This education is a large order, one which few American countries have been able to provide to date. Programs, then, furnish much of the necessary knowledge and skills through pre-service and in-service training.

TABLE 21. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF VOLUNTARY LEADERS BY PROFESSION AND MEMBERSHIP IN A CLUB IN 16 PROGRAMS IN 1960.

Program	No. of Clubs	No. of Leaders	% Distribution According to Occupation				% that are or were members
			Farmers	Housewives	Teachers	Others	
1. Bolivia 4-S	202	233	45	21	21	13	52
2. Brazil 4-S	a	330	52	30	16	2	30
3. British Guiana 4-H	45	231	20	30	48	2	33
4. Chile 4-C	21	150	23	2	57	18	0
5. Costa Rica 4-S	282	98	10	31	24	25	37
6. Ecuador 4-F	76	292	10	8	34	48	22
7. El Salvador 4-C	51	112	22	29	46	3	0
8. Guatemala 4-S	80	125	28	32	0	0	6
9. Honduras 4-S	59	69	35	55	8	1	0
10. Mexico CJR	145	275	20	18	62	0	0
11. Mexico FAM	72	72	69	21	7	3	0
12. Nicaragua 4-S	36	36	28	42	30	0	0
13. Paraguay 4-S	122	140	21	11	18	0	0
14. Peru CAJP	280	1,300	28	15	23	34	44
15. Puerto Rico 4-H	1,237	7,362	a	a	a	a	78
16. Surinam 4-H	45	470	1	1	68	30	0
17. Uruguay CAJ	92	612	10	0	90	0	85
TOTAL	2,845	11,907	-	-	-	-	-

[a] Not reported

Of 21 programs reporting on pre-service and in-service education in the present study, 19 provided some training for their professionals during 1960 and all indicated they had offered some in previous years. The amount of this supplementary effort differed widely. Three organizations offered no training in 1960 but one, Surinam, provided 56 days. Vocational programs offered a greater number of days of instruction for their personnel than did most 4-H or school clubs. Table 22 includes a tabulation of all training offered by the programs.

TABLE 22. DAYS ALLOCATED TO IN-SERVICE TRAINING OF PROFESSIONALS AND VOLUNTARY LEADERS IN 22 PROGRAMS

Program	Professionals		Voluntary Leaders	
	No.	Days	No.	Days
1. Argentina 4-A	156	20	0	0
2. Bolivia 4-S	0	0	120	4
3. British Guiana 4-H	50	10	900	5
4. Chile 4-C	79	3	260	3
5. Colombia 4-S	96	31	0	0
6. Costa Rica 4-S	4	15	0	0
7. Ecuador 4-F	40	5	16	5
8. El Salvador 4-C	0	0	67	1
9. Guatemala 4-S	43	2	0	0
10. Haiti 4-C	11	6	0	0
11. Jamaica 4-H	22	4	85	8
12. Mexico FAM	105	15	0	0
13. Nicaragua 4-S	30	4	10	4
14. Panama Cooperativa Juvenal	15	2	0	0
15. Panama 4-S	44	1	300	3
16. Panama FFP	30	18	0	0
17. Peru CAJP	7	6	140	5
18. Peru FAP	66	5	0	0
19. Puerto Rico 4-H	342	2	7808	2
20. Puerto Rico FFA	90	45	0	0
21. Surinam 4-H	132	56	63	9
22. Uruguay CAJ	0	0	704	66

All the programs recognized the need for training their voluntary leaders but only 12 of 22 had given courses in 1960. Most of this education was of less than a week's duration but Uruguay devoted 66 days to this task. Puerto Rico trained 7,808 voluntary leaders in a two-day session and British Guianan 4-H gave 900 a five-day course.

That the current level of education of both professionals and voluntary leaders is inadequate is reflected not only from the statistics but also from the opinions expressed by the officials. These repeatedly emphasized the need for additional training for all personnel levels. Further, the advisers to the Inter-American Rural Youth Program, internationally renowned youth professionals, recommended in December, 1961, that the highest priority for that organization be placed on training activities (38).

Despite the frequent mention of the need for more education, when the officials of rural youth organizations were asked to list those problems that limited the execution of the program, not one named lack of training. Yet, incongruously, when asked for suggestions on how to increase the interest of their personnel in youth work, 37 of 47 listed training or scholarships. This suggestion far outnumbered the next nearest ones: recognition with 17 and technical assistance with 13. It should be noted that the psychological and sociological bases were never specifically named as training needs although it may have been implied in such requests as "how to work with leaders," "how to handle discipline problems," and "how to motivate the members."

TABLE 23. PRINCIPAL PROBLEMS THAT MAKE EXECUTION OF THE PROGRAMS DIFFICULT AND OFFICIALS' OPINIONS ON THE ORDER OF SEVERITY OF THE PROBLEMS

Problem	Number of Entities Mentioning the Problem as of:			
	Greatest Severity	Second Severity	Third Severity	Total
1. Shortage of economic resources	9	6	4	19
2. Lack of professional personnel[a]	9	4	5	18
3. Lack of voluntary leaders	2	6	3	11
4. Lack of feeling for the importance of the work	2	3	2	7
5. Lack of general and social education of people	1	1	3	5
6. Lack of collaboration from parents, government	-	2	1	3
7. Lack of autonomy of direction	1	0	0	1

[a] Lack of professional personnel may sometimes be due to lack of resources but some programs mentioned both and therefore both items are included in the analysis.

Program Needs

Probably no program is carried out with maximum effectiveness regardless of the level of achievement. Higher goals, wider scope, and more efficiency should always impel any organization to look at itself and its resources with an eye to improvement. Inevitably this phase of structural

TABLE 24. FREQUENCY OF SUGGESTIONS OF OFFICIALS OF 47 PROGRAMS ON HOW TO INCREASE INTEREST IN RURAL YOUTH WORK

Suggestions	Number of Suggestions on How to Increase Interest of					
	General Public	Program Officials	Voluntary Leaders	Young members	Older members	Possible members
1. Publicity	38	-	-	-	-	17
2. Recognition	-	17	28	17	17	8
3. Training	-	25	26	8	11	-
4. Economic Help	-	7	3	22	24	-
5. Programs based on member interest	2	-	-	21	40	11
6. Technical assistance	-	13	3	-	6	-
7. Recreation	-	-	-	11	8	-
8. Greater participation in planning and activities	5	3	6	1	5	-
9. Home and farm visits	-	-	2	5	7	10
10. International exchanges	-	3	6	4	1	-
11. Tours within the country	-	5	3	3	-	4
12. National and regional committees	4	-	-	-	-	-
13. Competition	-	-	2	2	1	-
14. Reduce competition	-	-	-	2	3	-

self evaluation must be done by each organization if the greatest benefit is to be realized (13).

Some general needs are certain to be common to several organizations, however, and may lend themselves to external assistance. With this in mind, officials were asked to enumerate, in order of severity, three problems that make the execution of the programs difficult. Nineteen of 36 furnishing information for this section of the questionnaire named the lack of economic resources and placed it as of greatest severity nine times (Table 23). Sixteen mentioned the lack of professional personnel and 11 the scarcity of voluntary leaders. Fifteen complained of the lack of consciousness of the value of rural youth work under such categories as:

"lack of feeling for its importance"
"low general and social education"
"Little collaboration"

Most respondents considered that interest could be stimulated in the general public through regular mass communications media such as the radio, press, and attendance at public functions. These were also most often suggested as methods for recruiting new members. In addition, they named programs based on the interest of member and 10 listed home and farm visits. All of the suggestions are analyzed in Table 24.

More officials listed "economic help" as being of first consideration in increasing present members' interest but this was closely followed by "program based on interest of members," "recognition," and "recreation" in that order. Voluntary leaders were almost exclusively thought to be stimulated through training and recognition.

TABLE 25. OFFICIALS' ESTIMATES OF TECHNICIANS, VOLUNTARY LEADERS, AND ADDITIONAL FUNDS NEEDED TO EFFECTIVELY SERVE THE RURAL YOUTH OF EACH COUNTRY

Country	No. of Technicians Needed	No. of Voluntary Leaders Needed	Additional Funds Needed ($US)
1. Argentina	844	8,090	6,600,000
2. Belize	20	100	100,000
3. Bolivia	37	200	100,000
4. Brazil	3,800	30,000	11,000,000
5. British Guiana	160	5,000	35,300
6. Chile	-	150	100,000
7. Colombia	800	0	3,007,500
8. Costa Rica	80	1,800	300,750
9. Dominican Republic	30	300	500,000
10. Ecuador	80	600	200,000
11. El Salvador	10	1,190	400,000
12. French Guiana	10	100	25,000
13. Guadeloupe, Martinique	80	1,000	1,000,000
14. Guatemala	160	3,800	131,800
15. Haiti	120	620	115,000
16. Honduras	8	64	75,000
17. Jamaica	32	2,000	162,000
18. Mexico	1,250	5,300	6,600,000
19. Nicaragua	20	400	10,000
20. Panama	80	500	1,000,000
21. Paraguay	120	-	544,275
22. Peru	99	-	500,000
23. Puerto Rico	265	5,000	250,000
24. Surinam, Neth. Ant.	15	350	28,000
25. Uruguay	38	200	252,750
26. Venezuela	1,752	5,000	1,505,375
27. West Indies	20	200	42,000
TOTAL	8,930	71,964	30,690,250

Anticipating in advance that most programs had a scarcity of resources, the officials were asked to estimate how many technicians and voluntary leaders and how much additional money were needed to adequately serve all rural youth in their organizations. All countries but Chile reported insufficient professional personnel as can be noted in Table 25, and all but three needed voluntary leaders. Colombia added a note to its answer on not lacking voluntary leaders saying, "If we had the properly trained, hard working technicians we would get the leaders. There are plenty here; we just aren't making use of them." About $30,000,000 in additional funds was judged necessary to adequately expand rural youth work. Approximately 9,000 professionals and 72,000 voluntary leaders were estimated as necessary to fully complement the working force.

Role of Private and International Organizations

Many organizations are assisting with rural youth work throughout the Americas. The United States Agency for International Development; United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization; United Nations Educational, Social and Cultural Organization plus the Organization of American States are the chief government agencies operating in the field. Aside from these, several religious and philanthropic groups such as Ford Foundation, Rockefeller Foundation, Guggenheim Foundation, American International Association, CARE, Heifer Project, Friends Service Committee, the Mennonite Church, Catholic World Services, and the United Christian Board are making significant contributions.

Anticipating the categories of necessities that would be listed by

the countries, a series of eight questions was formulated to obtain the opinions of youth program officials on the role of private and international organizations in assisting rural youth work. These were asked in order to help obtain the maximum efficiency through such aid by establishing priorities in each phase.

The inquiry about how to help with training brought forth several suggestions, most of them of about equal strength (Table 26-A). These included offering scholarships for short training sessions, postgraduate courses, and workshops; provide teaching materials and professional advice; and coordinate whatever courses are offered in rational progression. This final recommendation was explained as necessary because many entities now give training but do it independently from each other, thus resulting in duplication and often illogical order. In specifying about offering scholarships (Table 27-A), most respondents suggested offering them for professional personnel to short and postgraduate courses, in that order. Only nine asked for scholarships for leaders and seven for "coordination of existing scholarship programs" and "financing trips to international meetings."

The lack of references to facilitate youth work was indicated as an immediate need. The officials felt that more should be available in their languages and asked that they be directly provided or an interchange of existing materials be organized among the countries (Table 28-A). The national offices usually had a good reference library but were often unable to adapt, translate, or publish materials in sufficient quantities for field personnel.

The only sharp division of opinion among the officials developed concerning tours and exchanges (Table 29-A). While 19 suggestions were made to organize international exchanges, 18 were just as skeptical of this function, stating that they were of limited value, too expensive, or that other program items were of greater importance. The advisory committee to the Inter-American Rural Youth Program considered this same question in late 1961 and unanimously recommended that international exchanges be relegated to a position of lesser program activity than training. They further recommended that the effects of an experimental program now operating in Central America be thoroughly studied before extending it to other countries (38).

Properly rewarding outstanding effort was noted as a necessary program item by many youth group officials and 15 suggested that international recognition be organized (Table 30-A). Some specified the types of recognition desired, mentioning economic remuneration most often. Publicity for rural youth work was thought best handled through an Inter-American magazine and an international information service (Table 31-A). The Ford Foundation has recently expanded its rural youth yearbook (28) to editions and supplements in Spanish and Portuguese as well as English. Obtaining symbolic club materials is often a problem for small organizations and the two chief suggestions concerning this possible function were to organize an international service or to help in some way to reduce the cost of such materials (Table 32-A). Five considered such a service unnecessary.

Only a few countries have so far organized national committees or foundations to forward rural youth work. Mexico, El Salvador, Costa Rica, Venezuela, Brazil, Peru, Paraguay, Uruguay, and Chile have recently formed such entities and, of course, Puerto Rico participates in the US National Committee for Boys and Girls Club Work and the National 4-H Club Foundation. Thirteen directors of the studied programs asked for information about forming such groups and 12 expressed the need for technical assistance in forming them (Table 33-A).

To sum up the needs of the programs as seen by the officials, economic resources curtail much of the advancement believed possible. Professional personnel and voluntary leaders are needed by practically every program and most club movements feel these can be secured if other problems were lessened. Most of the programs declared assistance to be necessary with training, publicity, recognition, materials, and the formation of national committees or foundations.

CHAPTER V

MEMBERS' IMAGES OF CLUB ACTIVITIES

Why youths join a club and why they continue to work in it or resign from the club, is of vital importance to persons working with these organizations. Rural youth programs are destined to educate rural youth and unless the young people are there to receive the benefits, education and resultant progress cannot be achieved. Kreitlow, Pierce, and Middleton, in Who Joins 4-H Clubs (46), stated categorically that those who join are those who hold a favorable image of the club and that this image must contain the element of opportunity for personal aggrandizement. To determine the images held by members, 115 boys and girls (65%) of six clubs in four countries were interviewed. This chapter explains the image concept and presents the findings from the interviews.

Definition of the Image Concept

The image of a program is the total picture held in a person's mind or the total perception he has of that program.[1] Palmes (64) defined it as the totality of what we remember of previous sensorial perceptions, the meaning given to them, and the accompanying or resultant emotions. Image may be both conscious and unconscious; it is always individual but is in part socially dictated. It is derived from experiences related to the program which may be in the form of direct physical contact, contact with similar programs, or indirect contact through the experiences of

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[1]Many terms are used for essentially the same concept: imagery (51), atmosphere effect (33), integrated perception (71), conceptualization of situations (76), mnemonic representation 978). For other studies on image, see Alers-Montalvo (2) and Jones (40).

others.

Organizations are complicated and besides the total program image, separate images will be built up of the personnel, the other members, the activities, and the individual's place, role and status, within each facet of the program. Attitudes derived from the images, such as personal conduct in an organization, the decision to remain a member or quit, whether to participate or not in an activity, depend upon two criteria: whether status with others is threatened and whether personal improvement can be expected (10).

Status may not necessarily be sought among those individuals fixed by adult standards; they may be parents, certain other club members, the other sex, or the person in charge, depending upon the importance the club member has placed on the person or persons. Personal improvement, sometimes called the development of creativity, is seen as an opportunity to enjoy, to learn, to accomplish, to gain, or to enhance status with others (85).

It follows then that a study of only the structure of an organization and of officials' opinions of it does not complete the picture. Two other phases can be studied: the impact of the program and the members' images of the program. Impact as a pure study involves before and after research so as to measure change. This phase was not possible in the present study. The second, however, was attempted and the images of 115 members are presented as they reported on the objectives, activities, benefits to themselves, and personnel advising their clubs. So that the opinions of the members can be assessed properly, some characteristics of the group

are included as an introduction.

Some Characteristics of the Clubs and Members

Of the 115 members whose program images were studied, 53 were boys. Only 18 (34%) wanted to be farmers when they grew up and 17 of these individuals were from one club. The other desired professions were: mechanic (26%), teacher (21%), engineer (15%), and others (4%). No boy over 13 years of age aspired to be a farmer although four thought they might not achieve their first choice and would have to follow agriculture. The 62 interviewed girls distributed their vocational preferences as: seamstress (61%), teacher (29%), homemaker (6%), and other (4%). Some 72% named homemaker as second choice.

Although the clubs were open to anyone between the ages of 10 and 21, only one club had members over 16 and two clubs had no members over 14. Five of the six clubs were lead by rural school teachers and met in the school building. The sixth group had a club house of its own in which to meet.

The staff doing the interviewing visited only 64% of the homes; the rest of the members were interviewed at school or at a club meeting. The members of one club lived in a very poor agricultural zone and not one farm exceeded three acres. The houses were constructed of cane or rough lumber and were mostly without floors. All the members were barefoot except three. Nevertheless, every member showed a project, most of which were worthwhile economic or home improvement enterprises.

All other clubs were located in fair to poor agricultural zones but showed less poverty than the one described. While none of the five demon-

strated as much enthusiasm and activity as the first, some members in every club exhibited pride in his and the club's accomplishments. Although a few excellent projects were seen, some members could show no project at all and some had only small ones such as a part in a school garden, embroidery work, or jelly making. Some of the better projects included plots of hybrid corn, a thriving rabbit enterprise, a half-acre of vegetables, food preservation, and many worthwhile home gardens. In one club a mute boy had a plant nursery.

Members' Images of the Club Program

The members' images of the club program were conceived as having three principal aspects:

1. The objectives of the program
2. The attraction of the program for members
3. Members' views of the various activities.

None of these is completely independent of the others; some mutual relationships probably always exist, particularly between attractions and activities.

Gates (33), Lacy (49), Willman (86), Rogers (69), and Nelson, Ramsey and Verner (59) have all stressed the educational importance of knowing what a program expected to accomplish and the acceptance of at least some part of the program as personal goals. They have concluded that without this understanding and acceptance, interest and participation will be shortlived and the project doomed to failure.[1]

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[1]Examples of the need to understand the program are Holmberg (35), Pucara case in Alers-Montalvo (3), Cimarron in Arce and Morales (6).

In the present study, only 54% gave an opinion as to what were the principal objectives of the club; the other 46% was composed entirely of 10-13 year olds. Of those who gave an answer, most stated the objectives in terms of personal improvement or learning something useful. A few mentioned community improvement and one saw the program as one of social activity. Table 34 includes the distribution of the opinions on objectives.

TABLE 34. FREQUENCY OF OPINIONS ON CLUB OBJECTIVES ACCORDING TO SEX AND AGE GROUPS OF MEMBERS

Objectives	Number of Mentions by[a]			
	Boys		Girls	
	10-13	14-21	10-13	14-21
1. Community improvement	3	4	4	5
2. Personal improvement	4	0	4	3
3. Useful learning for farm or home	12	12	10	10
4. Career other than farm or home	2	0	4	0
5. Social activity	0	0	1	0
6. Did not know	16	0	21	0
TOTAL	37	16	44	18

[a] A total of 115 members (65%) from six clubs were interviewed.

The members' reasons for joining the club are listed in Table 35 and it should be noted that these did not always coincide with the objectives. For example, no one said he joined to improve the community and the largest

group, 48%, became members to learn or otherwise improve themselves. Twenty members, including nearly half of those 14 and over, hoped to learn something that would lead to careers away from the home or farm. Twenty joined specifically to be with their companions and 10 more for general social activity. Only five manifested parental or teacher pressure as the reason for association with the club.

TABLE 35. FREQUENCY OF OPINIONS ON REASONS FOR JOINING CLUB ACCORDING TO SEX AND AGE GROUPS OF MEMBERS

Objectives	Number of Mentions by:			
	Boys		Girls	
	10-13	14-21	10-13	14-21
1. Community improvement	0	0	0	0
2. Personal improvement	8	2	4	3
3. Useful learning for farm or home	16	6	18	5
4. Career other than farm or home	0	8	6	6
5. Social activity	3	0	7	0
6. Adult pressure	2	0	3	0
7. Companionship	8	0	6	4
TOTAL	37	16	44	18

Examining the opinions on club activities, most were "liked very much" or "somewhat." It can be noted in Table 36 that the two most popular activities were individual projects and recreation. Only two, collective projects and competitions, showed tendencies toward lack of favor

and these were not strong. It should be observed, however, that no program activity was universally appreciated.

TABLE 36. MEMBER RATINGS ON DEGREE OF APPRECIATION OF VARIOUS CLUB ACTIVITIES

Activity	Degree of Appreciation				
	Liked very much	Liked somewhat	Undecided	Liked little	Not participated
1. Meetings	74	23	4	14	0
2. Recreation	86	14	0	15	0
3. Individual projects	92	7	4	12	0
4. Collective projects	23	44	21	17	10
5. Fairs	52	31	0	1	31
6. Competitions	37	29	20	13	16
7. Conventions	33	27	2	11	42
8. Achievement day	66	30	4	4	11

Members' Images of Personal Benefits from the Program

If a program is properly designed and executed, participants should feel that they have gained something toward what they needed and expected. Some concrete acquisitions should be noted by the members. If not, even younger children are unlikely to voluntarily remain (53, 57, 81). To ascertain whether the interviewed members were conscious of having accomlished anything, each was asked to name what he had learned through the club and if he had directly used any of these skills or knowledge on his

farm or in his home. Every member was able to name something learned and a few made long lists. Fewer applications of skills were mentioned but every interviewee could name at least one item.

Asked to rate the usefulness of the club program for themselves, 44% declared "much," 46% "some," and 10% "little." Table 37 is a tabulation of their replies. None completely negated club utility. Boys and girls 14 to 21 years old rated the program lower than did those younger.

TABLE 37. FREQUENCY OF MEMBERS' OPINIONS AS TO THE USEFULNESS OF CLUB PROGRAM

Degree of Usefulnes	Boys		Girls	
	10-13	14-21	10-13	14-21
1. Much	18	2	26	5
2. Some	15	9	18	11
3. Little	4	5	0	2
4. None	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	37	16	44	18

To a direct question as to whether the club had provided what was needed and expected, 69 answered "yes," 34 said "in part," and 11 declared "no" (Table 38). As in the case of appreciation of activities and program usefulness, the younger members were more satisfied than the older ones; only two (3%) of the young group answered no while nine (26%) of the older ones did.

TABLE 38. FREQUENCY OF MEMBERS' OPINIONS AS TO WHETHER THE CLUB HAD PROVIDED WHAT WAS NEEDED AND EXPECTED

Answer	Boys		Girls	
	10-13	14-21	10-13	14-21
1. Yes	28	1	36	4
2. In part	7	9	8	10
3. No	2	6	0	4
TOTAL	37	16	44	18

Members' Images of the Program Personnel

Certain personal characteristics of the staff of an organization can substantially affect the program image (14, 41, 45). This is particularly true when only one or two persons direct the activities for their influence then looms great in the total picture. A determination of the image of the administration of a program is important, then, in an analysis of that organization.

To discover images of personnel, the club members interviewed in this study were asked to name the persons they would like for a teacher in a practical course. A specific subject was named such as coffee growing, making a bee hive, or canning beets, depending upon the area and the sex of the club member. While the total number of mentions was about equal in each category, theoretically the voluntary leader should have been mentioned more frequently than the others and the technical personnel should have received more mentions than, for example, other teachers because the first two were in charge of the program. This was particularly true

since subjects were picked that both professionals and leaders had taught.

Considerable difference was observed among the clubs as to whom was selected. Clubs D and F, for example, almost completely ignored their directors while Club E almost exclusively chose these persons. The frequency of their choices is shown in Table 39.

TABLE 39. FREQUENCY OF MEMBERS' CHOICES FOR A TECHNICAL COURSE TEACHER

Club	Member Preferences[a]			
	Club professional	Voluntary leaders	Teachers, not leaders	Others
A	4	8	2	6
B	19	14	18	12
C	3	2	6	7
D	0	0	3	9
E	26	27	8	4
F	4	0	6	11
TOTAL	46	51	53	52

[a] The same 115 members were interviewed but they were allowed multiple replies.

After each person was named, the interviewees were asked why they chose him, in order to discover some of the characteristics desired in such a teacher. Younger children often had difficulty in answering but those over 14 usually mentioned three or more characteristics. Those

qualities named were, in order of frequency of mention[1]:

1. Good teacher
2. Knows the subject
3. Nice person
4. Wants to help
5. Patient

No appreciable difference was noted among the various clubs as to the qualities listed. Many children named both "good teacher" and "knows the subject," apparently discriminating between pedagogical and technical knowledge.

Considering all the factors investigated, the overall image appears to be favorable of both the club professionals and the voluntary leaders. This is true, too, with the generally favorable opinions on the program and on the individual activities. The programs apparently are more attractive to younger children than to older ones and this may in part be a reflection of their yearnings to leave the rural areas and find other occupations.

Summarizing the study of members' opinions on the program, five major points should be emphasized. To learn something useful for farm and home, companionship and social activities, personal improvement, and to advance toward an urban career were, in order of frequency, the principal reasons why members joined the clubs. Individual projects and

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[1]In a masters study by the author (40), with a group of boys 15 to 23 years old, the following characteristics were named, in order: knows coffee, hard worker, good teacher, intelligent, honorable, knows the people, "good guy," practical, wants to help, keeps his word, doesn't act superior. Nye (62) reported a similar list but with "cooperative" in second place.

recreation were the most favored club activities while collective projects and competitions were liked least. About 90% thought the program had been useful to them. Boys and girls 14 and older were more critical of the rural youth organization than were younger ones. Club professionals, voluntary leaders, teachers, and others in the community were about equally chosen as preferred persons to give a technical course to club members.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The central problem for this research was: To study the relationships between some socio-economic needs of rural youth and the functioning of existing rural youth organizations in the Americas. Personal interviews with guiding questionnaires were used to gather information on socio-economic conditions and youth organizations from the officials of health, agriculture, home economics, and rural youth agencies in all the political units of the Americas except the United States and Canada. Within these political units, the general functioning of 49 rural youth programs was studied. The members of six clubs in four countries were interviewed to determine their opinions on the club programs.

The findings of this investigation are summarized in this chapter. The summary is then followed by the conclusions and recommendations.

Summary

The summary is divided into two sections because of the extent of the findings. The first section, Some Socio-Economic Needs, briefly lists the principal problems facing rural youth. The second section, Nature of the 49 Rural Youth Programs, is a short description of the rural youth organizations and their functioning.

Some Socio-Economic Needs

One of the most pressing problems affecting rural youth is the heavy competition for farm land. While the average population density is only 10 per square kilometer, the Caribbean islands and El Salvador all have

more than 120 per square kilometer. Because there is relatively little arable land, the effective density of most countries is a pressing problem. Poor land distribution is chronic; latifundium, minifundium, and combinations of both, make farming as a vocation for youth difficult or nearly impossible in some countries.

Rural youth are handicapped by the lack of education when they seek non-farm employment. The average literacy rate varies from 11% to 87% in the 28 countries and the rate in the rural areas is even lower. The percentage of literacy shows a close corelation with the percentage rural and the percentage now enrolled in school. Only 38.2% of those from 7 to 19 years of age attended school in 1960 and only about 10% will complete primary school.

Rural living in the 28 countries is difficult and the main problems facing rural youth were stated as unsatisfactory family relations, malnutrition, and lack of economic resources. Parasites, poor hygiene, and many infectuous diseases plague the populace. General sanitation is rated as deficient or bad by country authorities. The house and its furnishings are generally described as inadequate. While food scarcity is reported by only one nation, a shortage of proteins, vitamins, and minerals is encountered in all. Homemakers' knowledge and skills are judged as fair to very deficient.

Nature of the 49 Rural Youth Programs

The second major part of the problem was to study the existing rural youth programs and their functioning. The 49 programs were classified in

four types: 4-H, primary school clubs, vocational education, and cooperatives. School clubs make up about 45% of the total membership of rural youth organizations and 4-H was the second largest group. The total membership was 229,512 in 1960 which comprised about 0.8% of the eligible youth population. Thirty-six programs spent about five million dollars in 1960 for an average of $21.67 per member, higher than the estimated $15.00 for US members. School clubs usually spent the least per member, as low as $0.38, vocational the most, up to $158.73, and 4-H in between. Venezuela's $302.94 per 5-V participant was the highest of all the programs.

Five social, educational, and economic objectives were universal with all 49 rural youth organizations. These were:

1. To acquire farming and home skills and knowledge.
2. To foster cooperation and community development.
3. To develop better citizens.
4. To make wise use of leisure time.
5. To foster a favorable attitude toward progress.

"Learning by doing" was emphasized among the employed methods of lectures, demonstrations, written materials, supervised practice, shop or kitchen and laboratory work, and home and farm projects. The latter were considered difficult for many club members because of the cost involved and so are not rigidly required.

Ministries of agriculture or education are most frequently the sponsoring agencies of rural youth work. Extension services and agricultural education departments generally are the direct administrators of rural youth programs.

In the study of the personnel of the rural youth programs, eighteen

organizations reported using an average of 0.11 professional man-years per member but the amount varied from .003 in Puerto Rico to .055 in Argentina. A majority of the technicians are vocational school graduates; others vary from primary to university postgraduates. Most university graduates are on the administrative staffs. Comparisons with previous studies indicate that educational levels of professional staffs have not risen appreciably in recent years.

Nearly all youth movements reported some degree of use of voluntary leaders. The average leaders-to-clubs ratio was 4 to 1, higher than for the US. The highest reported was 10 to 1 and the lowest was 1/3 to 1.

Pre-service and in-service training for professionals was offered by 90% of the informing groups in 1960 and 57% gave some instruction to voluntary leaders. Vocational education usually provided more days of classes for professionals than did the other types but Uruguay's school club program devoted 66 days to the task. Officials often urgently requested assistance with training but in listing items limiting program progress, not one included the lack of training.

Functional limitations of the programs most often encountered were the lack of economic resources, professional personnel, and voluntary leaders. It was felt that interest could best be stimulated in the general public and potential members through mass communications media; in present members by economic help, interesting programs, recognition. Additional assistance necessary to effectively reach most of the young people was $30,000,000, 9,000 professionals, and 72,000 voluntary leaders.

Of 115 interviewed members of six clubs in four countries, 40% expressed interest in farming or homemaking as an occupation. Girls preferred to be seamstresses or teachers and boys, mechanics or teachers. Boys made up 46% of the sample and only 28% of the interviewees were over 13 years of age even though the eligible bracket was 10 to 21. Five clubs were led by rural primary school teachers and all six were located in from fair to poor agricultural areas.

In determining the members' images of their club programs, it was discovered that 46% did not list a principal objective for their club. Of those who did answer, most thought it was to learn something useful and 48% said they joined for that reason. Twenty members joined specifically to help themselves toward a career away from the rural areas and 28 joined because of companions or social activities. Individual projects and recreation were the most popular of the club activities now being conducted; collective projects and competitions were the least popular.

In an open question as to whom they would like to teach a technical course, club professionals, voluntary leaders, and teachers received about equal mention. Considerable difference was noted among clubs, with one almost exclusively naming the leader and club agent while in two clubs these were hardly mentioned. Qualities declared as desired in these people were, in order of frequency: good teacher, knows the subject, nice person, wants to help, and patient.

Conclusions

The conclusions presented in this section were drawn from the results of the study as listed in Chapters III, IV, and V. For clarity, the conclusions have been grouped into two parts, Rural Youth Needs and Rural Youth Program Needs.

Rural Youth Needs

Nearly 30 million rural youth in the studied countries are at the age, 10 to 19, when they should be trained for adult participation in national life. Only 30% of these youngsters were enrolled in any kind of school in 1960 and only 0.8% were members of a rural youth organization. Interviewed boys and girls were vitally interested in learning something useful but to many, the necessary facilities were unavailable or what was available did not appear satisfactory to youth (53, 81, 84).

Agricultural production and rural incomes were low; concomitantly, rural living conditions were frequently inadequate for basic health standards, comfort, and personal satisfaction. Farms are already quite small and it appears highly unlikely that all rural youth will be able to remain there even though agricultural techniques are greatly augmented. No organization was discovered to be intentionally preparing people for the transition from rural to urban life.

Most of the countries are experiencing rapid economic and social change; both will increase in the future. Even though industrialization is being speedily introduced, agriculture will continue to play a leading role in the national economies. All levels of education, primary

secondary, vocational, and university should be improved and amplified rapidly. It is believed that rural youth clubs can serve well in helping reach national educational goals because some clubs are producing results. Their expansion should keep pace with that of other educational forms if more clubs can be made effective.

Program Needs

There is a great deal yet to be learned about all phases of rural youth work and all agencies, public, private, national, and international, should devote considerable effort to the planning, execution, diffusion, and application of research on program structure, methods, and impact.

In the opinion of most club officials and members, rural youth programs are not progressing adequately. All the reasons for this inadequacy are not clear. It is expected that they might be found in the following general classifications:

1. The organizational structures are not sufficiently culturally compatible.
2. The structures are not satisfactory for promoting proper program execution.
3. The personnel are not performing effectively.
4. The program is not sufficiently based on the needs of youth.
5. Youth and the public in general are not sufficiently aware of possible benefits.

If the programs as they now exist were or are operating effectively but not expanding, the lack of adequate financing, available personnel, and some other physical limitations could have been added to the list.

Inadequate financing was encountered and was most often due to the general lack of ministry resources and not to preference for other organizations. A few countries, however, have elaborate experiment stations, top-heavy administration or supervision, or many subject matter specialists while the educational phase lacks personnel and equipment. A case in point is that of an information service preparing a one million dollar film explaining an extension service whose annual budget was less than that.

No overall evidence is available on cultural compatibility. Individual successful clubs apparently indicate that with some adaptation this should not be a limiting factor. Studies should be conducted, however, to investigate this factor.

The organizational structures seem to be at least partially satisfactory. A few cases may to some degree be program deterrents such as when those responsible for program planning have no voice in budget, when the structure permits appointments of unqualified personnel, when personnel is moved too frequently from one area to another, when youth clubs are divorced from the farm-home-youth complex, when youth work is subjugated to, rather than cooperating with, other parts of the rural education program, or when the entire education program is relegated to auxiliary status rather than being recognized as an equally important link in the research, teaching, production, and distribution system.

Ineffective personnel can result from many factors. Some particular complaints of program officials included the selection of personnel who lacked inclination, interest, or proper training for the job or who

were overburdened with other duties. Apparently a great deal of in-service training is still necessary. Most professionals expressed not knowing how to conduct the work. While lack of training and heavy load can be remedied, the lack of inclination and interest can be lethal. Fortunately, most directors reported only a few with these characteristics and a general enthusiasm and desire to accomplish were noted in most of the technicians. A common problem found by the author was that of lack of training. Others included an orientation toward supplemental activities such as fairs, contests, concentrating on easily accomplished rather than basic goals, and working primarily with the more responsive children. A considerable effort through supervision and training courses is still necessary to properly equip professionals for their jobs.

The numbers of personnel appeared to have been at least adequate for the numbers of youths they were attending. In probably no country were the professionals loaded beyond their capacities even though roads and other communications often slow down the work. Generally the professionals could attend many times more members were they using effective methods, properly using leaders, and planning carefully. More personnel are needed in every country but these were required for extending the work into areas not now being covered.

A severe problem of professionals appeared to be that of over-performing or performing functions properly belonging to others. In one country the investigator visited nine clubs without being introduced to a voluntary leader of the club president. The meetings were entirely

conducted by the supervisor or the club agent. In several countries farms and homes were visited without notifying the leader and in some the professionals were found to be conducting all the instruction.

Every nation complained about the lack of voluntary leaders and yet most reported 3 to 10 per club. Some observed that the persons heading the clubs were not community leaders, did not know their work, were too occupied to properly guide the club, did not treat members in such a way that progressive responses were forthcoming, or that their functions were being mostly performed by the professionals. This last problem was mentioned by some program officials as having stagnated the work because the professionals could not hope to complete all the jobs necessary and the superseded leaders felt discouraged and disinterested.

Projects should at least in part, reflect and help fulfill member needs and since large numbers were reportedly not carrying a project, it must be assumed that the program either had been unable to help members secure projects or had not properly stimulated this aspect. Assuredly many poor homes and farms have difficulty in purchasing anything extra, nevertheless, in some of the poorest areas, projects were proudly displayed by members and parents. These suggest that orientation and encouragement might be more important than physical resources.

Every program considered that youth and the general public were not sufficiently aware of the value of the organization and most considered that mass communications media would be useful. Without doubt these can be used to call attention to programs and even induce people "to try" them.

Permanent conviction, however, comes in a voluntary organization only when objective proof of usefulness is properly presented. If a program is effective, the need for propaganda is greatly reduced but this does not negate the need for effective publicity on success stories, recognizing member and leader effort, and cooperation. What this does mean is that publicity is ineffective if the program is not producing community-desired, demonstrable results.

Considerable importance was given to recognition through competition, awards, exchanges, and expositions as publicity methods. These can serve to attract notice and with careful management, give results. Two countries with long experience with these events questioned the relative value of them. The officials of these countries and recent studies (42, 67, 72, 73, 81) indicated that these are supplementary aids to a sound program and that disproportionate funds and time should not be spent on them. A trip for one individual to the United States, for example, might easily cost enough to pay the annual salary of another technician, thus serving hundreds instead of one. The important thing is to recognize when publicity events are needed and when something else has priority.

Recommendations

The 49 programs vary so much in structure, personnel, methods, objectives, and apparent results that few recommendations can be made. The author recognizes that general recommendations will not immediately rectify pressing lacks. They can, however, furnish the base from which sound

programs can be built or rebuilt, thus making many other kinds of problems easier to solve. Without attention to these basics of rural youth work pointed out in the recommendations, it is improbable that the programs will have the desired impact.

In order to outline some activities that could increase program impact, recommendations are made for most organizations:

1. There is a decided lack of knowledge about most phases of youth work. Every country should immediately allocate some funds and time to research designed to contribute information to this field.

2. Evaluation should be a continual process and those organizations not now applying this tool should plan and execute both structural and impact studies. The latter are particularly necessary as a base for long range programming.

3. Lack of proper training, especially in the sociological and psychological principles related to youth work, is reducing effectiveness and should be provided. This training should include theory and practical field work for both professionals and leaders.

4. Programs need to make use of community leaders if their effectiveness and efficiency are to be measurably increased. Skills in discovery should be developed as an early priority.

Long range planning for youth work should include these vital features. With a small amount of systematic training and research each year, considerable progress can be made toward these goals.

In addition to these general recommendations, the following more specific ones would aid in achieving better balanced programs:

1. The percentages of rural youth now being educated by any institution are low. Both the percentage of general school and out-of-school training should be increased immediately. Rural youth organizations are helping the members in their personal development and need to be increased in scope until they are reaching at least those not attending regular school and preferably also the majority of those who could profit from this type of training.

2. Agriculture cannot hope to encompass all the youth now being reared in the rural areas. Rural youth organizations should plan definite education to help those who do go to the cities by providing some vocational and special skills that will enable them to better adjust to the new environment.

3. The low levels of rural income indicate that a majority of the club activities should be devoted to improvement of the economic situation.

4. Rural family living is poor in comparison with that of the urban sections. Many of the dangers and inconveniences could be removed or lessened without great expenditures of money. Emphasis should be placed on these activities, for boys as well as girls.

5. Community projects and campaigns for better sanitation could well be undertaken by clubs. These could serve their educational purposes and still materially improve general living conditions.

6. Programs should look for ways to give more emphasis to individual projects as an educational method. Although already the most numerous of the various individual projects, home gardens need an even greater impulse. There are very few areas that cannot decidedly improve general nutrition through well directed garden projects. Small animal and poultry projects could also help to augment the home produced protein supplies.

7. Rural youth clubs are not well known to rural people in most of the countries. One of the most effective ways to build prestige and at the same time guide members toward individual improvement is by arranging for well trained youngsters to give worthwhile demonstrations to other youth and adult groups. Care should be taken that the demonstrations are on subjects that will raise the living and/or economic levels of the adults.

8. All activities must be within the interest and development of the youngsters for many current activities are beyond the economic, social, and psychological levels of club members. Teaching planning methods and allowing them to plan their own programs will help solve many of these difficulties.

9. The psychological competition now presented to many youngsters in club work may do them more harm than good. There are many who cannot compete in any group. A member who is able to excel through his own resources or those of others becomes for the underprivileged a degradation. Much of this competition is found in regular club activities and not just in contests.

> The individual must receive attention as a person and not just as part of a group if he is to develop as a contributing member of society.

While even the specific recommendations are somewhat general, if they were followed by the rural youth programs, many organizational and methodological changes would result. These changes would bring about greater efficiency in the operation of the programs and could measurably increase the effectiveness of rural youth work in helping solve some of the socio-economic problems of the Americas.

APPENDIX I

SECONDARY INFORMATION TABLES

TABLE 1-A. AREA AND POPULATION OF 28 COUNTRIES STUDIED, UNITED STATES, AND CANADA IN 1960

Country	Area, Km^2	Population	Population per Km^2	% Rural
1. Brazil	8,513,844	65,743,000	8	63
2. Argentina	2,790,485	20,959,800	8	25
3. Mexico	1,965,890	34,625,903	18	60
4. Peru	1,295,843	10,923,000	8	62
5. Colombia	1,138,338	14,132,959	12	66
6. Bolivia	1,098,581	3,462,000	3	85
7. Venezuela	912,050	6,709,000	7	46
8. Chile	741,767	7,665,261	10	35
9. Paraguay	406,762	1,768,292	4	65
10. Ecuador	270,670	4,393,000	16	71
11. British Guiana	212,480	560,620	3	69
12. Uruguay	186,926	2,800,000	15	50
13. Nicaragua	184,000	1,474,549	10	65
14. Surinam, Netherlands Antilles	146,934	496,056	3	64
15. Cuba	114,524	6,744,000	59	48
16. Honduras [a]	112,008	1,976,044	17	69
17. Guatemala	108,627	3,759,000	35	82
18. French Guiana [b]	90,000	30,000	1/3	40
19. Panama	76,932	1,053,000	14	64
20. Costa Rica	50,900	1,173,537	23	67
21. Dominican Republic	47,825	4,135,872	84	76
22. Haiti	27,750	3,504,263	126	87
23. Belize	22,696	82,000	4	60
24. El Salvador	21,393	2,613,367	122	63
25. Jamaica	11,284	1,554,000	137	65
26. West Indies	8,816	1,411,000	160	73
27. Puerto Rico	8,793	2,349,544	267	59
28. Guadeloupe and Martinique	2,849	468,250	164	73
TOTAL	20,568,967	206,567,317	10	56
Canada	9,976,177	17,814,000	2	34
United States	9,936,387	179,647,000	19	23
TOTAL	19,339,564	197,461,000	10	25

[a] The area of Honduras does not include the Department of Gracias a Dios, recently added to that country. It is estimated at about 8000 Km^2.

[b] French Guiana was not added to the other French departments, Guadeloupe and Martinique, because of the differences in population density and development.

TABLE 2-A. FREQUENCY OF IMPORTANCE OF AGRICULTURAL ENTERPRISES AS REPORTED BY 28 COUNTRIES

Enterprise	Frequency	Weighted Frequency
1. Cane or beet sugar	22	156
2. Corn, sorgo, milo	23	154
3. Coffee	17	138
4. Rice	19	122
5. Bananas, plantains	14	104
6. Cattle	26	103
7. Beans, peas	16	90
8. Bulbs, roots	14	76
9. Citrus, others	9	56
10. Swine	12	53
11. Wheat	9	50
12. Cocoa	7	49
13. Sheep, goats	10	47
14. Cotton	7	42
15. Vegetables	8	40
16. Other grains	8	38
17. Tobacco	8	35
18. Coconuts	5	34
19. Poultry	6	15
20. Hemp	2	11

TABLE 3-A. DISTRIBUTION BY AGE GROUPS OF THE RURAL POPULATION IN THE 28 COUNTRIES

Country	Less than 10		10 to 19		20 to 29		30 or more		TOTAL	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1. Argentina	1,110,869	5	1,011,310	5	916,991	4	2,200,780	11	5,239,950	25
2. Belize	12,792	16	11,808	14	7,872	10	16,728	20	49,200	60
3. Bolivia	879,216	25	556,692	16	516,280	15	990,512	29	2,942,700	85
4. Brazil	10,804,036	17	13,272,312	13	5,497,943	9	9,085,158	15	38,659,449	63
5. British Guiana	112,263	20	84,361	15	59,723	11	130,960	23	387,307	69
6. Chile	697,538	9	563,396	7	456,082	6	965,822	13	2,682,838	35
7. Colombia	2,714,950	20	1,969,918	15	1,532,309	11	2,654,737	20	8,871,014	66
8. Costa Rica	203,814	20	156,257	15	115,494	11	203,814	20	679,379	67
9. Cuba	753,816	12	646,128	10	575,361	9	1,101,494	17	3,076,799	48
10. Dominican Republic	992,609	24	744,457	18	537,663	13	868,533	21	3,143,262	76
11. Ecuador	755,320	17	730,351	17	558,688	13	1,076,801	24	3,121,160	71
12. El Salvador	461,441	18	361,979	24	270,099	11	494,310	20	1,587,829	63
13. French Guiana	1,500	5	1,500	5	2,000	7	7,000	23	12,000	40
14. Guadeloupe, Martinique	100,426	21	67,916	15	51,485	11	121,992	26	341,819	73
15. Guatemala	924,714	24	708,947	19	554,282	15	893,890	24	3,082,379	82
16. Haiti	823,151	23	640,228	18	518,280	15	1,067,048	31	3,048,707	87
17. Honduras	374,414	20	286,236	15	214,578	11	427,068	23	1,302,296	69
18. Jamaica	273,841	16	219,073	15	186,212	11	416,239	25	1,095,365	65
19. Mexico	6,232,680	18	4,570,632	13	3,531,852	10	6,440,436	19	20,775,600	60
20. Nicaragua	354,629	24	220,445	15	172,522	12	210,860	14	958,456	65
21. Panama	222,393	21	134,784	13	107,827	10	208,915	20	673,919	64
22. Paraguay	302,606	17	428,038	12	138,361	8	280,484	16	1,149,489	65
23. Peru	2,058,767	19	1,442,491	22	1,103,878	10	2,167,123	20	6,772,259	62
24. Puerto Rico	442,735	20	246,631	11	189,973	8	436,551	20	1,315,890	59
25. Surinam, Neth. Ant.	60,319	13	60,320	16	44,446	9	152,388	30	317,473	64
26. Uruguay	366,000	12	47,320	1	25,200	1	1,008,000	36	1,416,520	50
27. Venezuela	766,452	15	515,359	10	355,181	7	688,502	14	2,352,494	46
28. West Indies	270,320	23	253,176	16	159,048	10	361,596	25	1,044,140	74
TOTAL	33,043,611	16	29,951,165	14	18,400,176	9	34,677,741	17	116,072,693	56
% of Rural Population	-	28	-	26	-	16	-	30	-	100

TABLE 4-A. GROSS PRODUCT PER PERSON AND PERCENTAGES OF RURAL POPULATION AND LITERACY

Country	Percent		Gross Product per Person ($US)
	Rural	Lit-erate	
1. Argentina	25	87	496
2. Chile	35	81	303
3. French Guiana	40	90	292[a]
4. Venezuela	46	69	550
5. Cuba	48	76	296
6. Uruguay	46	85	382
7. Puerto Rico	59	74	1,248[a]
8. Mexico	60	55	210
9. Belize	60	78	148[a]
10. Peru	62	42	126
11. El Salvador	63	42	152
12. Brazil	63	50	195
13. Paraguay	63	69	145[a]
14. Panama	64	72	324
15. Surinam, Neth. Ant.	64	82	312[a]
16. Jamaica	65	80	273[a]
17. Nicaragua	65	40	158
18. Colombia	66	56	206
19. Costa Rica	67	80	235
20. Honduras	69	44	159
21. British Guiana	69	80	240[a]
22. Ecuador	71	56	125
23. West Indies	73	71	230[a]
24. Guadeloupe, Martinique	73	60	213[a]
25. Dominican Republic	76	43	163
26. Guatemala	82	30	168
27. Bolivia	85	31	103
28. Haiti	87	11	74

[a] Gross product per person is taken directly from Preston James' third edition of Latin America except for Paraguay and the dependencies. The direct report from the country is quoted for these. All gross products are for 1955.

TABLE 5-A. GROSS PRODUCT PER PERSON, PERCENTAGES OF FARM OWNERS, LITERACY, AND FARMS OF LESS THAN FIVE HECTARES IN 21 COUNTRIES

Country	Gross product per Person ($US)	Percent		
		Farm Owners	Literate	Farms less than 5 H.
1. Puerto Rico	1,248	94	74	10
2. Venezuela	550	42	69	54
3. Argentina	496	40	87	16
4. Uruguay	382	54	85	14
5. Panama	324	16	72	52
6. Surinam, Neth. Ant.	312	22	82	81
7. French Guiana	292	-	90	99
8. Jamaica	273	85	80	92
9. British Guiana	240	51	80	78
10. Costa Rica	235	76	80	44
11. West Indies	230	-	71	92
12. Mexico	210	60	55	83
13. Colombia	206	-	56	65[b]
14. Brazil	195	79	50	66[b]
15. Guatemala	168	68	30	89
16. Honduras	159	28	44	77[b]
17. Nicaragua	158	-	40	80[b]
18. El Salvador	152	62	42	80
19. Paraguay	145	53	54[a]	64[b]
20. Peru	126	-	42	93
21. Ecuador	125	-	56	73

[a] Percentage of those who have attended or are attending school according to the Ministry of Education of Paraguay.

[b] Includes subsistence plots not officially classified as farms.

[c] All other figures represent official census bureau or ministry of agriculture data as taken from government publications of the individual countries.

TABLE 6-A. TOTAL SCHOOL ENROLLMENT OF CHILDREN AGED SEVEN TO NINETEEN AND RURAL POPULATION OF THOSE AGES IN 1960

Country	Population 7-19 years	School Enrollment[a]	Percent Enrollment
1. Argentina	5,526,067	3,636,082	65.8
2. Belize	26,785	20,210	75.4
3. Bolivia	999,723	190,987	19.1
4. Brazil	26,062,094	6,662,041	25.6
5. British Guiama	176,495	111,746	63.3
6. Chile	2,274,028	1,212,308	53.3
7. Colombia	4,354,546	1,707,713	39.2
8. Costa Rica	334,620	230,737	68.9
9. Cuba	1,869,583	829,900	44.4
10. Dominican Republic	1,042,340	454,452	43.6
11. Ecuador	1,383,275	509,675	36.8
12. El Salvador	818,720	289,800	35.4
13. French Guiana	7,333	7,316	99.8
14. Guadeloupe, Martinique	138,964	126,677	91.3
15. Guatemala	1,240,470	257,741	20.8
16. Haiti	1,051,279	157,234	15.0
17. Honduras	595,712	149,402	25.1
18. Jamaica	477,467	276,968	58.0
19. Mexico	11,080,320	4,366,312	39.1
20. Nicaragua	521,007	113,499	21.8
21. Panama	326,430	168,626	51.6
22. Paraguay	813,704	319,480	39.3
23. Peru	1,944,961	1,501,263	77.2
24. Puerto Rico	659,141	595,533	90.3
25. Surinam, Neth. Ant.	125,667	100,071	76.6
26. Uruguay	588,000	287,308	48.9
27. Venezuela	1,582,977	755,177	47.7
28. West Indies	463,896	346,125	74.6
TOTAL	66,485,304	25,384,383	38.2

[a] Enrollment based on census of ministries of education and includes primary, secondary, and vocational schools.

TABLE 7-A. ATTENDANCE AT THE VARIOUS EDUCATIONAL LEVELS IN 1960 ACCORDING TO PAST RECORDS

Country	Percent			
	Attended Primary School	Completed Primary School	Completed Superior School[a]	Completed University
1. British Guiana	98	80	9	0.5
2. Costa Rica	89	15	0.8	0.2
3. El Salvador	30	12	1	0.1
4. French Guiana	100	25	3	0.5
5. Honduras	65	17	0.75	0.15
6. Mexico	80	67	15	0.2
7. Nicaragua	28	0.7	0.4	0.001
8. Paraguay	54	6	0.04	0.004
9. Venezuela	34	6	3	0.5

[a] Includes secondary, vocational, and normal schools of less than college grade.

TABLE 8-A. FREQUENCY OF PRINCIPAL CAUSES OF MORTALITY OF THE PEOPLE IN 28 COUNTRIES IN 1960

Cause	Frequency	Weighted Frequency
1. Digestive tract diseases	16	39
2. Circulatory diseases	10	22
3. Respiratory diseases	10	20
4. Tuberculosis[a]	4	9
5. Malaria	7	13
6. Cancer	9	15
7. Venereal diseases	3	5
8. Parasitosis[a]	1	3
9. Natal difficulties	1	3
10. Typhoid	1	1
11. Typhus	1	1
12. Malnutrition	1	1

[a] Reported separately from more general headings that usually include them by some countries.

TABLE 9-A. FREQUENCY OF PRINCIPAL RURAL FAMILY LIFE PROBLEMS AS REPORTED BY HEALTH AND HOME ECONOMICS SPECIALISTS IN 23 COUNTRIES

Family Problems[a]	Frequency	Weighted Frequency
Inadequate:		
1. Education	15	22
2. Economic resources	13	29
3. Nutrition	11	27
4. General level of living	9	17
5. Hygiene	7	12
6. Family relations	5	14
7. Farm tenancy	3	7
8. Means of communication	2	5

[a] Listed as reported by the officials of the countries even though some of the items are interrelated.

TABLE 10-A. FREQUENCY OF PRINCIPAL HEALTH PROBLEMS IN 23 COUNTRIES AS REPORTED BY HEALTH SPECIALISTS.

Health Problems[a]	Frequency	Weighted Frequency
1. Inadequate general hygiene	14	33
2. Malnutrition	14	31
3. General diseases	12	24
4. Parasites	8	20
5. Scarcity of medical facilities	7	14
6. Inadequate living facilities	3	4

[a] Listed as reported by the officials in the countries even though some of the items are interrelated.

TABLE 11-A. DEGREE OF SANITARY CONDITIONS OF RURAL FACILITIES IN 23 COUNTRIES AS REPORTED BY HEALTH AND EXTENSION SPECIALISTS

Rural Facilities	Rating			
	Very good	Good	Deficient	Very bad
1. Potable water	0	4	13	6
2. Toilet facilities	0	0	12	11
3. Garbage disposal	0	1	10	12
4. Insect control	1	3	9	10
5. Housekeeping	0	6	14	3
6. Community cleanliness	0	2	16	5

TABLE 12-A. FREQUENCY OF ADEQUACY OF VARIOUS ASPECTS OF THE RURAL HOME AS REPORTED BY HEALTH AND EXTENSION SPECIALISTS OF 26 COUNTRIES.

Aspects of the Home	Frequency of Rating	
	Adequate	Inadequate
1. General protection	8	18
2. Ventilation	6	20
3. Light	4	22
4. Available space	2	24
5. Accident protection	2	24

TABLE 13-A. RATING OF PRODUCTION OF FOOD CROPS FOR HOME CONSUMPTION AS REPORTED BY EXTENSION SPECIALISTS IN 21 COUNTRIES

Food Elements	Rating by Countries			
	Suffi-cient	Fair	Insuf-ficient	Not Produced
1. Yellow and green leafy vegetables	1	4	14	2
2. Other vegetables	6	6	9	0
3. Grains	14	7	0	0
4. Poultry	3	9	9	0
5. Eggs	3	6	12	0
6. Pork	2	8	11	0
7. Rabbits	0	3	5	13
8. Other meats[a]	2	5	11	3
9. Milk	1	5	13	2
10. Fruit	5	11	5	0

[a] "Other meats" includes that from cattle, sheep, and goats.

TABLE 14-A. FREQUENCY OF PRINCIPAL NUTRITIONAL DEFICIENCIES IN 22 COUNTRIES AS REPORTED BY HEALTH AND HOME ECONOMICS SPECIALISTS

Deficiencies[a]	Frequency	Weighted Frequency
1. Proteins	20	54
2. Vitamins	18	42
3. Minerals	12	17
4. Carbohydrates	1	2
5. Food preparation	1	1
6. Quantity of food	1	1

[a] Eighteen countries had regional study results. Their opinions were based on these studies.

TABLE 15-A. ADEQUACY OF THE RURAL HOME FURNISHINGS AND EQUIPMENT ACCORDING TO THE OPINIONS OF HOME ECONOMICS SPECIALISTS IN 23 COUNTRIES.

Home Activities	Frequency of Rating		
	Adequate	Poor	Inadequate
1. Food preparation	1	13	9
2. Eating	0	16	7
3. Sleeping	1	9	13
4. House cleaning	2	15	6
5. Social activities	1	13	9
6. Laundry	2	5	16
7. Bathing	1	3	19
8. Toilet	0	7	16
9. Storage	0	9	14
10. Sewing	2	7	14

TABLE 16-A. OPINIONS OF HOME ECONOMISTS IN 22 COUNTRIES ON THE AMOUNT OF GENERAL KNOWLEDGE AND SKILL OF RURAL HOMEMAKERS ON CERTAIN ACTIVITIES.

Home Activities	Frequency of Rating				
	Very high	High	Fair	Low	Very low
1. Planning and cooking meals	0	2	7	11	2
2. Food preservation	0	2	3	7	10
3. Gardening	0	2	12	6	2
4. Child care	0	0	9	8	5
5. Housekeeping	0	2	12	7	1
6. Laundry	0	5	7	7	3
7. Sewing	1	2	12	6	1
8. Homecrafts	1	1	7	7	6
9. Use of time	0	0	6	11	5
10. Making home attractive	0	1	6	10	5
11. Community activities	0	2	7	8	5

TABLE 18-A. FREQUENCY OF MEMBER PROJECTS IN 1960 ACCORDING TO OFFICIALS OF 39 RURAL YOUTH ORGANIZATIONS

Project	No. of Organizations	Project	No. of Organizations
Animal Husbandry		Mechanic and Manual Arts	
General	5	General	4
Beef cattle	12	General carpentry	5
Dairy cattle	31	Building construction	6
Sheep	4	Construction of sanitary facilities	7
Goats	3	General home industries	2
Poultry	36	Making fiber articles	1
Hogs	18	Carving	1
Rabbits	8	Weaving	3
Fish	2	Electrification	4
Parasite control[a]	2	Tractors	3
Plant Industry		Personal Improvement	
General	5	Leadership	14
Soil conservation[a]	11	Health	3
Insect control[a]	9	Recreation	5
Vegetables	36	Religious activities	12
Corn	29	Social activities	27
Wheat	6	Cooperatives	5
Rice	4		
Potatoes	4	Home Economics	
Fruit crops	2	General nutrition	18
Minor fruits	2	Cooking	31
Coffee	4	Food preservation	19
Flowers and shrubs	1	General sewing	39
Forestry	7	Clothing construction	21
Plant nurseries[a]	2	Embroidery	30
Community		General home improvement (interior)	18
General	18	Home beautification (exterior)	2
Community centers	7	Kitchen improvement[a]	11
Child centers	1	Dining room improvement[a]	9
Club houses	8	Living room improvement[a]	19
School improvement	4	Bedroom improvement[a]	16
Sports facilities	12	Home equipment[a]	3
Road improvement	3	Child care	2
Church construction	4		
Park beautification	10		
Community cleanup	1		
Vaccination campaign	1		

[a] These same projects may have been included within more general ones listed. However, if a country listed them as separate projects, they have been listed separately in this tabulation.

TABLE 26-A. SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES OF PRIVATE AND INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS IN HELPING WITH TRAINING, ACCORDING TO OPINIONS OF RURAL YOUTH ORGANIZATION OFFICIALS.

Activities	No. of Times Mentioned
1. Offer scholarships to existing courses	23
2. Provide teaching materials	18
3. Professorial advice	16
4. Offer short courses	16
5. Coordinate offered courses in a rational progression	16
6. Offer postgraduate courses	11
7. Organize rural youth workshops	6
8. Did not answer	3

TABLE 27-A. SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES OF PRIVATE AND INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS IN PROVIDING SCHOLARSHIPS FOR ADVANCING RURAL YOUTH WORK, ACCORDING TO OPINIONS OF RURAL YOUTH ORGANIZATION OFFICIALS.

Activities	No. of Times Mentioned
1. Offer technical personnel scholarships to short courses	22
2. Offer technical personnel scholarships to postgraduate courses	16
3. Offer courses for voluntary leaders	9
4. Coordinate existing scholarship programs	7
5. Offer scholarships to international meetings	7
6. Offer scholarships for international exchanges	4
7. Provide information about existing scholarships	4
8. Offer scholarships based on merit	3
9. Offer scholarships for club members	3
10. Offer scholarships for tours within the country	1
11. Did not answer	2

TABLE 28-A. SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES OF PRIVATE AND INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS IN HELPING WITH WRITTEN REFERENCES TO FACILITATE RURAL YOUTH WORK, ACCORDING TO OPINIONS OF RURAL YOUTH ORGANIZATION OFFICIALS

Activities	No. of Times Mentioned
1. Provide materials on club work	19
2. Organize an interchange of materials	11
3. Publish materials from other countries	7
4. Publish information on the psychology of youth work	6
5. Publish technical material on club work	5
6. Publish materials on recreation	3
7. Did not answer	8

TABLE 29-A. SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES OF PRIVATE AND INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS IN HELPING WITH TOURS AND EXCHANGES, ACCORDING TO OPINIONS OF RURAL YOUTH ORGANIZATION OFFICIALS

Activities	No. of Times Mentioned
1. Organize international exchanges	19
2. Do not organize international exchanges (exchanges are of limited value or not of primary importance)	18
3. Only organize tours within a country	4
4. Organize an international congress or encampment	4
5. Did not answer	7

TABLE 30-A. SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES OF PRIVATE AND INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS IN HELPING WITH RECOGNITION OF OUTSTANDING WORK WITH RURAL YOUTH PROGRAMS, ACCORDING TO OPINIONS OF RURAL YOUTH ORGANIZATION OFFICIALS

Activities	No. of Times Mentioned
1. Organize international recognition program	15
2. Offer recognition in money, equipment, or better posts	13
3. Provide prizes or money for existing recognition programs	9
4. Offer scholarships as recognition	4
5. Coordinate the work of organizations now offering recognition	4
6. Provide international publicity for existing recognition	3
7. Did not answer	7

TABLE 31-A. SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES OF PRIVATE AND INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS IN HELPING WITH PUBLICITY ON RURAL YOUTH WORK, ACCORDING TO OPINIONS OF RURAL YOUTH ORGANIZATION OFFICIALS

Activities	No. of Times Mentioned
1. Publish an Inter-American magazine	18
2. Provide an international information service	16
3. Provide means of publicity within each country	5
4. Prepare films or slides	3
5. Offer courses on publicity	2
6. Increase the number of articles on youth work in the magazine "Extension en las Americas"	2
7. Did not answer	5

TABLE 32-A. SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES OF PRIVATE AND INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS IN HELPING PROVIDE SYMBOLIC MATERIALS, ACCORDING TO OPINIONS OF RURAL YOUTH ORGANIZATION OFFICIALS.

Activities	No. of Times Mentioned
1. Organize an international service	16
2. Help to reduce costs	9
3. Provide funds for buying materials	6
4. Assistance not necessary	5
5. Did not answer	9

TABLE 33-A. SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES OF PRIVATE AND INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS IN HELPING WITH THE FORMATION OF NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEES OR FOUNDATIONS, ACCORDING TO OPINIONS OF RURAL YOUTH ORGANIZATION OFFICIALS.

Activities	No. of Times Mentioned
1. Provide information about forming committees	13
2. Help with personal consultation	12
3. Help or strengthen existing committees	4
4. Organize an international committee with members of national committees	4
5. Did not answer	8

APPENDIX II

RURAL YOUTH PROGRAMS INCLUDED IN THE STUDY

Argentina

CONFEDERACION DE ATENEOS RURALES DE LA JUVENTUD ARGENTINA
Address: Avenida Leandro Aleman 36, Piso 13, Buenos Aires
Organization responsible: autonomous
Symbol: Argentine crest
Area: Provinces of Santa Fe, Corrientes, Entre Rios and the Federal District
Membership: 8 clubs, 300 male members

CONFEDERACION DE JUVENTUDES AGRARIAS COOPERATIVISTAS
Address: Reconquista 468; 1º Piso, Buenos Aires
Organization responsible: autonomous
Symbol: Two pines on Argentine crest
Area: 6 provinces
Membership: 100 clubs, 8400 males, 3600 females

4-A
Address: Rivadavia 1439, Buenos Aires
Organization responsible: Instituto Nacional de Tecnologia Agricola
Symbol: Clover leaf with 4 A's
Area: Entire country
Membership: 97 clubs, 1276 males, 884 females

4-C
Address: Resistencia, El Chaco, Argentina
Organization responsible: Ministerio de Agricultura, El Chaco
Symbol: Clover leaf with 4 C's
Area: Province only
Membership: 10 clubs, 140 males, 220 females

4-M
Address: Calle San Lorenzo y Bolivia
Organization responsible: Ministerio de Asuntos Agrarios, Misiones
Symbol: Clover leaf with 4 M's
Area: Province only
Membership: 27 clubs, 410 males, 102 females

Belize

4-H
Address: Belize, British Honduras
Organization responsible: Ministry of Agriculture and Lands
Symbol: Clover leaf with 4 H's
Area: Entire country
Membership: 4 clubs, 204 members

Bolivia

4-S
Address: Calle Agustin Aspiazu 356, La Paz, Bolivia
Organization responsible: Extension Agricola, Ministerio de Agricultura
Symbol: Clover Leaf with 4 S's
Area: Entire country
Membership: 202 clubs, 2284 males, 803 females

Brazil

CLUBES AGRICOLAS
Address: Ministerio da Agricultura, Rio de Janeiro
Organization responsible: Secao de Extensao Agricola
Symbol: Each club chooses
Area: Entire country
Membership: 584 clubs, 64,474 members

CLUBES AGRICOLAS ESCOLARES
Address: Ministerio de Eduacacao, Rio de Janeiro
Organization responsible: Secao de Educacao Rural

4-S
Address: Rua Pedro Angelo 105, Fortaleza, Ceara
Organization responsible: Assoc. Nordestina de Credito e Assistencia Rural do Ceara
Symbol: Clover leaf with 4 S's
Area: State of Ceara
Membership: 1 club, 6 males, 12 females

4-S
Address: Edificio Getulio Vargas, Rua Joao Caetano, Vitoria, Espirito Santo
Organization responsible: Assoc. de Credito e Assistencia Rural de Espirito Santo
Symbol: Clover leaf with 4 S's
Area: State of Espirito Santo
Membership: 15 clubs, 165 males, 192 females

4-S
Address: Rua da Bahia, 1065/7º Andar, Belo Horizonte, Minas Gerais
Organization Responsible: Assoc. de Credito e Assistencia Rural
Symbol: Clover leaf with 4 S's
Area: State of Minas Gerais
Membership: 113 clubs, 1195 males, 1058 females

Brazil (continued)

FEDERACAO DE CLUBES AGRICOLAS DO ESTADO DE SAO PAULO (4-H, 4-S, Club Agricola Escolar, Club Agricola, Club Juvenil Rural)
Address: Avenida Angelica 752, Sao Paulo, Sao Paulo
Organization responsible: Autonomous
Symbol: Each kind of club has its own
Area: State of Sao Paulo
Membership: 42 clubs, 450 members in 4-H and 4-S

British Guiana

4-H and YOUNG FARMERS
Address: Department of Agriculture, Georgetown
Organization responsible: Department of Agriculture
Symbol: Clover leaf with 4 H's
Area: Entire country
Membership: 45 clubs, 2979 members

Chile

4-C
Address: Agustina 853, 2º Piso, Santiago
Organization responsible: Ministerio de Agricultura
Symbol: Clover leaf with 4 C's
Area: 22 provinces
Membership: 841 males, 680 females

Colombia

4-S
Address: Carrera 10 #20-30, Bogota
Organization responsible: Ministerio de Agricultura
Symbol: Clover leaf with 4 S's
Area: Entire country
Membership: 186 clubs, 1317 males, 1996 females

Costa Rica

4-S
Address: Ministerio de Agricultura, Extension Agricola, San Jose
Organization responsible: Ministerio de Agricultura y Ganaderia
Area: Entire country
Membership: 282 clubs, 2104 males, 2537 females

Brazil (continued)

4-S
Address: Rua Elisen Cesar 40 1º Andar, Joao Pessoa, Paraiba
Organization responsible: Assoc. Credito e Assistencia Rural do Estado da Paraiba
Symbol: Clover leaf with 4 S's
Area: State of Paraiba
Membership: 5 clubs, 41 males, 45 females

4-P and FUTUROS FINQUEROS DE PARANA
Address: Secretaria de Agricultura, Curitiba, Parana
Organization responsible: Servico de Orientacao Tecnica
Symbol: Clover leaf with 4 P's and FFP shield
Area: State of Parana
Membership: 14 clubs, 800 males

4-S
Address: Rua 13 de Maio 450, Curitiba, Parana
Organization responsible: Assoc. de Credito e Assistencia Rural do Estado de Parana
Symbol: Clover leaf with 4 S's
Area: State of Parana
Membership: 4 clubs, 33 males, 30 females

4-S
Address: Servico de Extensao Rural, Recife, Pernambuco
Organization responsible: Assoc. Nordestina de Credito e Assistencia Rural de Pernambuco
Symbol: Clover leaf with 4 S's
Area: State of Pernambuco
Membership: 1 club, 8 males, 12 females

4-S
Address: Rua Siqueira Campos 1184, Porto Alegre, Rio Grande do Sul
Organization responsible: Assoc. Sulina de Credito e Assistencia Rural
Symbol: Clover leaf with 4 S's
Area: State of Rio Grande do Sul
Membership: 24 clubs, 214 males, 288 females

4-S
Address: Caixa Postal 502, Florianopolis, Santa Catarina
Organization responsible: Assoc. de Credito e Assistencia Rural do Estado de Santa Catarina
Symbol: Clover leaf with 4 S's
Area: State of Santa Catarina
Membership: 26 clubs, 276 males, 283 females

Ecuador

4-F
Address: Carrera Guayaquil 1914, Quito
Organization responsible: Servicio de Extension Nacional
Symbol: Clover leaf with 4 F's
Area: 18 provinces
Membership: 1025 males, 669 females, 51 clubs

El Salvador

4-C
Address: Santa Tecla, El Salvador
Organization responsible: Departamento de Divulgacion Agropecuaria
Symbol: Clover leaf with large C in center
Area: 3 departments
Membership: 51 clubs, 450 males, 410 females

Guatemala

1G
Address: Educativo Rural, IIa Ave. 9-70 Zona 1
Organization responsible: Desarrollo Socio-Educativo Rural
Symbol: Corn, quetzal, sun, plow
Area: Entire country
Membership: 75 clubs, 5000 males, 2300 females

4-S
Address: Division de Extension, La Aurora
Organization responsible: Instituto Agropecuario Nacional
Symbol: Clover leaf with 4 S's
Area: 19 of 22 departments
Membership: 80 clubs, 1610 members

Haiti

4-C
Address: Service de Production et de Vulgarisation Agricoles, Damien, Port-au-Prince
Organization responsible: Department de l'Agriculture
Symbol: Heart with large C
Area: Entire country
Membership: 235 clubs, 2722 members

Honduras

4-S
Address: Apartado 309, Tegucigalpa
Organization responsible: Servicio de Extension Agricola
Symbol: Clover leaf with 4 S's
Area: Entire country
Membership: 59 clubs, 513 males, 389 females

Jamaica

4-H
Address: 10 North Parade, Kingston
Organization responsible: Jamaica Agricultural Society
Symbol: Clover leaf with 4 H's
Area: Entire country
Membership: 564 clubs, 8931 males, 14924 females

Mexico

CLUBES JUVENILES RURALES
Address: Balderas 94, Mexico 1, D. F.
Organization responsible: Secretaria de Agricultura
Symbol: Boy sowing, girl irrigating
Area: Entire country
Membership: 145 clubs, 2465 males, 438 females

FUTUROS AGRICULTORES DE MEXICO
Address: Brasil 31, Mexico, D. F.
Organization responsible: Secretaria de Educacion Publica
Symbol: Youth figure
Area: 18 states
Membership: 72 clubs, 1308 males, 797 females

Netherlands Antilles

(various clubs)
Address: Department of Culture and Education, Fort Amsterdam 11, Curacao
Organization responsible: Autonomous
Area: Curacao and Aruba
Membership: Estimated 2300

Nicaragua

4-S
Address: Servicio de Extension, Edificio Berner, Managua
Organization responsible: Ministerio de Agricultura y Ganaderia
Symbol: Clover leaf with 4 S's
Area: Entire country
Membership: 42 clubs, 694 males, 315 females

Panama

COOPERATIVE JUVENIL
Address: Escuela Nacional de Agricultura, Divisa, Panama
Organization responsible: Instituto Nacional de Agricultura
Membership: 1 club, 85 members

4-S
Address: Divulgacion Agricola de Panama, Panama
Organization responsible: Ministerio de Agricultura, Comercio e Industria
Symbol: Clover leaf with 4 S's
Area: Entire country
Membership: 135 clubs, 1630 males, 1744 females

FUTUROS FINQUEROS DE PANAMA
Address: Servicio Cooperativo Interamericano de Educacion, Panama
Organization responsible: Servicio Cooperativo Interamericano de Educacion
Symbol: Sun, plow, corn
Area: 3 departments
Membership: 3 clubs, 110 males

Paraguay

4-C
Address: Casilla de Correos 819, Asunsion
Organization responsible: Servicio Tecnico Interamericano de Cooperacion Agricola
Symbol: Clover leaf with C
Area: 10 departments
Membership: 122 clubs, 2040 males, 1100 females

Peru

CLUBES AGRICOLAS JUVENILES DE PERU
Address: Servicio de Investigacion y Promocion Agraria, Avenida Salaverry, Lima
Organization responsible: Ministerio de Agricultura
Symbol: Clover leaf with CAJP
Area: Entire country
Membership: 280 clubs, 3281 males, 1535 females

Peru (continued)

FUTUROS AGRICULTORES DE PERU
Address: Servicio Peruano-Interamericano de Educacion, Lima
Organization responsible: Departmento de Educacion Agropecuaria
Symbol: corn shield with FAP
Area: 21 of 23 departments
Membership: 37 clubs, 3600 members

Puerto Rico

4-H
Address: Box 607, Rio Piedras
Organization responsible: Servicio de Extension
Symbol: Clover leaf with 4 H's
Area: Entire state
Membership: 1237 clubs, 17137 males, 17125 females

FUTURE FARMERS OF AMERICA
Address: Agricultura Vocacional, Hato Rey
Organization responsible: Departamento de Instruccion Publica
Symbol: Corn, plow, sun, owl
Area: Entire state
Membership: 104 chapters, 4410 males

FUTURE HOMEMAKERS OF AMERICA
Address: Division de Economia Domestica, Hato Rey
Organization responsible: Departamento de Instruccion Publica
Symbol: Home held in couple's hands
Area: Entire state
Membership: 504 chapters, 16222 females

Surinam

4-H
Address: Cultuurtuinlaan, Paramaribo
Organization responsible: Ministry of Agriculture
Symbol: Clover leaf with 4 H's
Area: Entire country
Membership: 45 clubs, 238 males, 265 females

Uruguay

CLUBES AGRARIOS JUVENILES
Address: Buenos Aires 462, Montevideo
Organization responsible: Movimiento de la Juventud Agraria
Symbol: Three circles with letters MJA
Area: Entire country
Membership: 92 clubs, 3000 males, 2500 females

Venezuela

5-V
Address: Centro Simon Bolivar, Caracas
Organization responsible: Ministerio de Agricultura
Symbol: Five V's inside each other
Area: Entire country
Membership: 254 clubs, 1570 males, 2955 females

West Indies

4-H beginning with Ministries of Agriculture in several islands.

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