SCOUTING: AN ADAPTABLE NONFORMAL EDUCATION ALTERNATIVE TO PROMOTE DEVELOPMENT AMONG CHILEAN YOUTH

LUIS E. GONZALEZ

A THESIS PRESENTED TO THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION OF HARVARD UNIVERSITY IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

1982

Each human being should build a piece
of history.

Some could do it in the hills among
beatiful meadows. Some should dry the
swamp before first stone comes. After
a while some swamps became fertile
land and some meadows badly erosionated.
This is the challenge.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

ABSTRACT

This paper is concerned with the idea of provoking social change and impelling development through nonformal education. It focuses on youth movements in developing countries, and considers these movements to be a valid alternative in promoting growth through an organizational structure capable of easily installing educational programs.

This study analyzes one of these youth movements, The Chilean Association of Girl Guides and Boy Scouts, in order to determine its ability to promote a particular model of development. The Chilean Scouting Association has been chosen for several reasons:

- It is the largest and most established youth movement in Chile.
- It is politically independent from the government.
- It is comparatively less expensive due to the large number of adult volunteers.
- Successful activities can later be adapted for several million young people involved in scouting throughout the world.
- Presently, international and domestic scouting leaders are interested in changing the "middle class oriented" activities to activities more relevant to poorer youths in developing countries.
- The author's close familiarity with Chilean scouting.

After presenting the values underlying the particular model of development to be promoted through scouting, this paper analyzes the following:

- the current characteristics of the organization members and leaders within a Chilean context;
- the needs and preferred activities of members from different social classes; and
- the experiences in the field of socioeconomic development recently incorporated by scouting in Chile.

Data were collected through a survey, through interviews and meetings with local leaders, and through numerous observations of scouting activities.

This paper concludes that the current environment of scouting and the recently incorporated experience in development makes the following possible:

- extend scouting among poorer youth;
- introduce activities which are useful to improve youth living conditions and;
- increase youth awareness of a new strategy for development.

Guidelines for a plan to implement scouting for development are also suggested.

I. INTRODUCTION

Among planners today there is a consensus that no educational plan, even at the local level and with the most rationalistic approach, can be established with a neutral perspective. The goals of an educational program cannot be set without a general idea of planning for the society which will be built. The idea of aspiring to this society serves as a normative guide to test the effectiveness of any program to include educational programs designed for development. This suggests three fundamental sets of issues that educational planners should face.[1]

- The First Set of Issues -- is the need for coherence between education and the ideology underlying the society to be built. Ideology is the set of values, beliefs, traditions, and principles accepted by people involved in a social organization which makes possible the coherence of a social structure. This coherence is what Gramsci called hegemony.[2] This ideology describes the alternative to be implemented, and these alternatives could be considered as different strategies for development.

- The Second Set of Issues -- is the selection of the ends and purposes of education. That is, from the hundreds of possibilities, the educator should define those purposes of education and the effects that the educational programs are going to have in the society.

- The Third Set of Issues -- is ethics which are the criteria for good and evil of the goals of education. These goals could be set by politicians or decision makers, or by the individual planner as in the case of this thesis. It is important that educators seek an agreement between these sets of values and the goals to be achieved through the educational programs.

Since the objective of this thesis is to articulate a framework to facilitate the increase of the impact of scouting as nonformal education for development, it will be introduced

in this chapter in an overview of these three issues. A
general presentation on nonformal education will follow and
a brief discussion of world scouting. is also-included in the
first chapter. The second chapter introduces scouting in the
Chilean context and supporting data displaying characteristics,
needs, prefereed activities, and new trends in the Chilean
Association of Girl Guides and Boy Scouts is presented in
Chapter IV, V, and VI. Collected data is analyzed in Chapter
VIII, and guidelines suggesting a plan on scouting for
development is included in Chapter VII.

1. Coherence Between Education and Strategies for Development

1.1 Different Strategies for Development and Their Underlying Ideological Assumptions

The purpose here is not to introduce a comprehensive
analysis of different theories of development, but rather to
provide summative information for the reader in the following
paragraphs on the existence of various possible strategies for
development. For that purpose, a schematic and oversimplified
presentation of the strategies for development is considered
sufficient for purposes of this thesis.

The problem of development has been increasingly discussed
during the past two decades in literature written by economists
and social scientists. A. Lewis (1955), P. Baran (1964), C.E.
Black (1964), G. Myrdal (1969), A. Hirschman (1972), E. Owens
(1973), F. Harbison (1973), S. Amin (1974), R. Vlyanosky (1974),
D. Seers (1977), and J. Weaver (1978), all have worked
in broad perspectives. However, on the other hand,

D. McClelland (1961), A. Gunder Frank (1969), C. Hoffman
(1971), D. Goulet (1971), A. Inkeles (1974), and S. Cole
and H. Lucas (1979), who have emphasized some specific aspects
of development. All these authors discuss the same problems
and issues, yet their proposed solutions are completely
different depending upon the underlying ideologies. Some
authors, I. Adelman (1961), Argawala and Singh (1975), G.
Meier (1976), M. Todaro (1977) and H, Chenery (1979), for
example, have been included to provide a comparison of different
strategies. On the other hand there is also a great amount of
available comparative data such as CEPAL (1980) for Latin
America and the World Bank Report (1980).

More recently, some educational planners have expressed
concern about the linkage between educational changes and the
strategies for development. For that purpose, they have built
typologies which permit classification of various strategies
and produce some common characteristics. Among these char-
acteristics three are of note.

One of these typologies was elaborated by G. Rama in 1975.[3]
He proposed economic, political, and social dimensions to be
analyzed for each strategy for development. In addition, he
distinguished five types of strategies:

- traditional, based on old fashioned agricultural
  production;
- social modernization, based on the growth of middle
  class increased production for domestic consumption;
- cultural participation, characterized by economic
  abundance, political pluralism, and well-defined
  social class;
- technocratic, based on openness to external markets;
- political restricted, based on military repression.

He explicitly avoided socialist and marxist strategies.

Another typology was elaborated by R. Paulston in 1978.[4] Mr. Paulston uses two classification categories labeled as "Paradigms":

- "Equilibrium Paridigm" -- under this paradigm is classified the following strategies labeled as "theories" -- evolutionary, neo-evolutionary, structural functionist, and systems.
- "Conflict Paradigm" -- under this paradigm is classified the following strategies: Marxian, neo-Marxian, cultural/social movements, and Anarchistic/Utopian.

A third typology was originally elaborated by Mr. Noel McGinn (1978) and was later used in part by the author of this thesis for a Unesco project in 1981.[5] This typology has also been used in this thesis to present different strategies for development because it was useful in analyzing educational innovations in 12 Latin American countries and also because the strategy for development, which is intended to be promoted by scouting, can be better shown using this typology.

This typology considers development from the viewpoint of social and individual change. It assumes that today's society can be modified and that reality can be controlled.[6] This typology uses two criteria to classify different strategies for development: (a) the stability of the change, and (b) the agents of the changes.

The stability of change includes two categories: "Rolling Equilibrium" and "Permanent Change." "Rolling Equilibrium" implies that a normative new society is to be built. This new society will be characterized by harmonious relationships among people and social groups. At the conclusion of the "Rolling Equilibrium" change, only small adjustments will be required to maintain and ensure a smooth running society. The category "Permanent Change" implies

self defining society exists.

Two categories of social agents of change are defined: (a) "Individuals", and (b) "Collectives." "Individuals" implies that each person should adapt to a given social structure. This social structure could be defined by an elite or by the government (top to bottom). "Collective" implies that the new social structure is generated by massive groups (bottom to top).

From the various possibilities of strategies for development, the following four have been selected for discussion in this thesis:

1. Growth of the Modern Sector in a Liberal Market Economy
2. State Controlled Industrialization
3. Social Control
4. Liberation in a Social Context

These specific strategies have been chosen because the first three have been emphasized in Latin America, and particularly in the case of Chile over the three last governments (strategy 1 has been applied since 1973, strategy 2 between 1970-73, and strategy 3 between 1964-70). The fourth, the liberation strategy, has not been widely applied in Chile, but it has been selected because it has been strongly promoted by the Catholic Church and is the strategy most central to the author's concern with issues of development. According to the previously presented typology, these four strategies for development can be classified as follows:

CLASSIFICATION OF STRATEGIES FOR DEVELOPMENT		
Social Agents / Stability	Individuals	Collectives
Rolling Equilibrium	Strategy 1 Strategy 2	Strategy 3
Permanent Change		Strategy 4

Strategy 1 (growth of the modern sector) and Strategy 2 (state controlled industrialization) are similar under the criteria of this typology, but they differ concerning state participation in the economy and production.

Several general approaches to development can be identified. As mentioned previously, these can be manipulated according to a chosen ideology, thus giving rise to different strategies of development. Authors working in the development field usually refer to the following "General Approaches" as most relevant:

- Economic Growth
- Employment, Income Redistribution, and Equity
- Modification of Attitude
- Dependence on Foreign Countries

From these general approaches, it is clear that presently economic approaches as well as political or personal approaches are important. For example, most of the authors refer to the necessary modification of attitudes. That is, the creation of favorable attitudes toward the new society which will be built. These general approaches will be used as the framework for presenting the four strategies for development described in this thesis. The framework also includes the ideological assumptions underlying each strategy. Educational patterns for different strategies are presented later in this chapter,

STRATEGY 1: GROWTH OF THE MODERN SECTOR IN A LIBERAL MARKET ECONOMY

IDEOLOGICAL ASSUMPTIONS -- There is one reality external to indi-
   viduals. Individuals adapt to controlled reality in order to survive,
   and reality is controlled until equilibrium is achieved. The result
   is that what is useful in controlling reality is also good for indi-
   viduals. Thus, epistimological criteria derives from positivism and
   ethical criteria derives from pragmatism.

GENERAL APPROACH

Economic Growth

Capital accumulation is achieved by concentrating it in the hands of the more efficient entrepreneurs who obtain higher rates of investment return. These new entrepreneurs belong to the modern sector of the conomy. This is a result of a capital flow from the traditional entrepreneurs (usually landowners) to the modern sector in a competition of free market. The accumulation of capital is possible by paying subsistence wages during high levels of unemployment and underemployment in developing countries.

Employment, Income Redistribution, and Equity

Capital growth makes it possible to enlarge modern enterprises to incorporate additional workers and to improve salaries. This implies that consumption would increase which would consequently increase production. Inevitably, more and more workers would be hired and salaries would gradually improve unitl greater social equity existed. On a long-term basis, it is feasible in this way to get redistribution of income.

Management and Power Control

The government should facilitate the growth of the modern sector by providing the necessary services and support. Thus, it is necessary that government authorities possess good networks with the modern sector entrepreneurs. Moreover, to avoid problems derived from differences in the standards of living between businessmen who concentrate capital and workers with subsistence wages or those who are impoverished, usually an authoritarian government is required during the initial start-up period.

Modification of Attitudes

A positive attitude towards the modernization process is required. On the one hand, this means to encourage order, responsibility and readiness to adapt new innovations by the workers. On the other hand, it means to promote acceptance of initial sacrifices of the low income populace in order to achieve a better quality of life in the future.

Dependence on Foreign Countries

External economic dependence is not considered a problem for this model, although foreign elements could be positive for modernization. There is no problem in incorporating foreign entrepreneurs and technology if they are more efficient than domestic ones.

Some examples of selected authors who can be classified as supporting this strategy are A. Lewis, A. Hirschman, W. Rostow, A. Inkeles, and C.E. Black.

IDEOLOGICAL ASSUMPTIONS -- There is one objective reality external to individuals to which they should adapt to survive. The pragmatism and positivism is also used in seeking a rolling equilibrium in a controlled society. However, instead of a free market, the state is viewed as the provider of socioeconomic control. Thus, what is useful for the state to control reality is considered good for the individual.

GENERAL APPROACH

Economic Growth

Economic growth is achieved by concentrating it in the hands of the state. The state invests, making compatible both the criteria of increasing the rate of return as well as improving social benefits. The state also concentrates capital by means of expropriations and forcing massive savings through low salaries. Thus, large investments are targeted to improve structure and to install modern industries.

Employment, Income Redistribution, and Equity

On a long-term basis, economic growth makes it possible to increase salaries, Moreover, the state guarantees full employment and equal salaries, resulting in short-term redistribution of income. Social criteria implys that state savings are used to directly benefit all members of society, and results in free public services. An effort is also made to reduce differences between urban and rural workers, and between blue- and white-collar workers.

Management and Power Control

This strategy implies the centralization of power in the hands of a strong central government utilizing a top-down structure for decision making. Although there is local community participation, planning is centralized nationally. Therefore, local decisions are submitted to the central government for approval in order that the national plan may function more efficiently.

Modification of Attitudes

State ownership of production implies new labor relations and a need for attitudinal changes, The populace must support the idea that state goals are more important than individual ones. Thus, it is necessary to establish a favorable attitude toward an initial personal sacrifice in order to achieve a better communal future, It is also necessary to increase individual responsibilities in the care of collective use of production goods.

Dependence on Foreign Countries
    Control over international relations would imply
    avoiding any long-term dependence of one country on another,
    and supporting free interaction.

    Some examples of selected authors who can be classified

as supporting this strategy are S. Amin, P. Baran, R. Ulyanovsky,

and V. Pavlov.

STRATEGY 3:   SOCIAL CONTROL

IDEOLOGICAL ASSUMPTIONS -- This strategy portrays reality outside
  the individual but able to be controlled in a cooperative way.
  In this strategy, a new society is defined, based on values
  derived from national traditions and from the ideology of the
  current elites. All that is in agreement with these ideals of
  the new society is acceptable. This strategy is frequently
  found among countries seeking a national identity in order
  to achieve economic and political independence.

GENERAL APPROACH

Economic Growth
    It assumes that low income people can generate savings
    in the same way as high income earners. Therefore, through
    the redistribution of income, the aggregate national savings
    increase. This redistribution of income is achieved by
    expropriations and taxes, with the state assuming a role
    in orientating the investments. There is a mixed economy
    with participation from both the state and private
    enterprise.

Employment, Income Redistribution, and Equity
    The redistribution of income achieved implies short-term
    social equity. An effort is made to incorporate all people
    in production and consumption, full employment is promoted
    and the state guarantees basic goods, usually by means of
    subsidies and taxes.

Management and Power Control
    Leadership is emphasized, and usually there is a national
    leader who is widely supported. Local leaders make efforts
    to obtain the best participation possible in order to
    implement decisions at the local level which are made by
    national authorities.

Modification of Attitudes
    Loyalty and political commitment play a primary role,
    as people are taught to sacrifice themselves for the
    collective good.

Dependence on Foreign Countries
    All that is not in accordance with traditions and national
    culture is rejected.

Some examples of selected authors who can be classified

as supporting this strategy are J.M. Keynes, D. Seers, E. Owens,

R. Shaw and R. Harbison.

STRATEGY 4: LIBERATION IN A SOCIAL CONTEXT

IDEOLOGICAL ASSUMPTIONS -- This strategy assumes that reality
  exists within people and that it is in permanent transformation.
  People are aware of reality acting on reality in such a way
  that man and his reality becomes transformed. Dialectical
  knowledge increases through group discussion and criticism,
  and through a process of action-reflection (praxis).
  Ignorance is a limitation, consequently knowledge permits
  humans to free themselves, at least partially. Man is not
  an isolated being. As an individual, he is incomplete. All
  these which liberate man and woman from their limitations is
  conceived as the criteria of good.

GENERAL APPROACH

Economic Growth
    This strategy assumes that distribution of the goods of
    production results in an increase of total national savings.
    For example, the collective ownership of goods of production
    gives people the opportunity of investing according to
    both local and national needs. Production is oriented to
    domestic consumption utilizing appropriate simple technology
    which provides abundant employment.

Employment, Income Redistribution, and Equity
    The aim of this strategy is that people will share sacrifices
    and benefits derived from production. Full employment is
    a central goal, and no differences are made between blue
    and white collar workers, or between rural and urban workers.

Management and Power Control
Decisions are made on a grass roots level following a
bottom to top strategy where full participation, self-
organization, and cooperative production are encouraged.

Modification of Attitudes
An openness to permanent personal improvement is promoted
by insisting on self analysis, collective criticism, and
an innovative approach. The capacity of building a future
based on past experience is encouraged at all levels.

Dependence on Foreign Countries
External dependence is rejected, and a build-up of self-
sufficient communities is encouraged.

Some examples of selected authors who can be classified
as supporting this strategy are J. Weaver, M. Todaro, and J.
Myrdal.

1.2   Educational Patterns for Different Strategies for Development

Strategy 1: Growth of the Modern Sector

Educational patterns for the strategy for development which
emphasize the growth of the modern sector in a liberal economy
are similar to those conceptualized by authors such as J. Dewey
and B.F. Skinner.

- Education is conceived as pragmatic and functional,
  where its main goal is to adapt the person to survive
  individually in the current society. Furthermore,
  people should be educated according to social
  requirements, each person receiving only enough
  instruction for his/her role. Thus, educational
  planners determine curricula, and formal education
  becomes selective. The elite are carefully prepared
  to become entrepreneurs of the modern sector or to
  achieve higher socioeconomic levels.

Strategy 2: State Controlled Industrialization

Educational patterns for the strategy for state controlled
industrialization are similar to those proposed by Anton Makarenko,
one of the best known educators who could be classified as

supporting this strategy.

- Education is a key element in helping individuals
  adapt to the controlled environment. In this strategy,
  education would be provided according to an individual's
  capabilities and the requirements of the central plans.
  Full employment and the criteria for redistribution of
  income mandate that illiteracy be abolished and the
  standards of formal education be improved. The latter
  can be accomplished by incorporating a common level of
  education and by adapting uniform standards for the
  quality of urban and rural education. In this strategy,
  human resources are determined by a central plan. The
  goals depend on professional profiles which are
  utilized in determining program curricula for training
  manpower. The state has institutions to provide general
  training; industries provide specialized training as
  needed.

Strategy 3: Social Control

Educational patterns for the strategy which emphasizes social

control are similar to those proposed by J. Nyerere and M.K.

Gandhi, who could be classified within this strategy of social

control.

- Education is a key element in creating a new model
  of man. In this model, man's character formation, self-
  support, loyalty, and self-discipline are encouraged.
  Body strength, sports, and physical education are
  important activities. Here, education is a valuable
  ingredient in providing skills that permit the
  satisfication of basic needs. Formal and nonformal
  education is extended especially in rural areas to
  permit incorporation into the production process.
  Education is also used for leadership training.
  National history and domestic heroes are widely
  publicized to promote a personal commitment with the
  new society. The role of the teacher is to be an
  example, a model of commitment to the new society,
  and should be imitated. Teachers have an additional
  role in communicating the cultural traditions to youths.
  The state assumes an important role in training human
  resources by providing general training. More specialized
  training is handled jointly by the state and private
  institutions. Manpower training has a dimension of
  social commitment with the new society and aspects
  related to this are included in all programs, but
  preference is given to rural areas for technical-
  agricultural training programs.

Strategy 4: Liberation in a Social Context

Educational patterns for the strategy which emphasizes liberation in a social context are similar to those proposed by P. Freire and R. Tagore, who could be classified under this strategy.

> • The main goal of education is to increase an individual's capabilities to explore, to become critical, and to share knowledge and experiences. The aim of education is one of liberation. It should not be selective, but ought to maintain access to different levels of education. The role of the teacher generates questions, and supports an active and creative classroom. In this strategy both students and teachers learn and teach simultaneously. Curricula is flexible, and can be elaborated according to student interests within a cultural perspective. The methodology utilized is essentially a discussion of the various personal interpretations of reality (gestalt). Analysis, experience, and interaction are unified in the learning process (praxis). Human resources are planned according to the necessities of the local community which is responsible for training and employment. On-the-job training is accomplished through a mutual interchange of experiences between experienced workers and trainees. This training emphasizes creativity, use of appropriate technology, and practical experience, in addition to participation in decision-making and responsible self-management.

2. Ends and Purposes of Education: A Case on Education for Development

Since its beginning, this thesis has chosen one specific purpose of education: to promote a particular strategy of development. However, while it is necessary to depict the chosen purpose in relation to other strategies among the numerous alternative purposes of education, it is also necessary to be explicit about the meaning of education for promoting development.

2.1 Alternative Ends and Purposes of Education

Davis and Hudson[7] have initially reviewed different purposes of education from a historical standpoint. They researched

education in ancient China, Greece, Rome, and recent trends in the United States. Following their historical overview, they presented two typologies of philosophical purposes in education. The first typology is from Brameld[9] and classifies the ends of education according to the alternatives offered to the recipients. For the Essentialists, the purpose of education is to keep the essentials to preserve the culture and society. For the Perennialists, the purpose of education is to emphasize the eternal principles of truth, goodness, and beauty. For the Progressivists, the purpose of education is to teach people to analyze, to criticize, to select among alternatives, and to venture toward the development of solutions. And lastly, for the Reconstructionists, the purpose of education is to help people to exercise power in order for the culture to come under the control of the majority.

A second typology by Simmons[10] considers the Progressivist and Reconstructionist alternatives, but also considers a third alternative: the "Human Capital Theory" for which education has the purpose of "producing cognitive learning that leads to enhanced economic performance."

Davis and Hudson[11] also discuss the setting of goals for education in developing countries. The set of goals they mention is more appropriate for a national educational plan prepared for the Ministry of Education. For that reason this selection of goals is not useful for this thesis. Moreover, Davis and Hudson propose a comprehensive typology of purposes of education as follows:

- To create a harmonious development of individual, or universe;

- To make individuals or societies more moral and virtuous;
- To shape knowledge and attitudes for social and political living;
- To increase equity and equality;
- To aid self-expression and to lead to a self-actualization and freedom;
- To contribute to individual or group survival;
- To provide knowledge, skills, and arts useful for production of goods and services and earnings;
- To transmit and conserve the funded wisdom and culture;
- To teach how to learn and acquire knowledge through reason and science;
- To promote enjoyment and worthy use of leisure;
- Education as an end in itself.

Some of these purposes are direct, addressed to individuals or groups, and refer to present society, future society, and society beyond human life. Another purpose considers education as an intermediary to achieve more complex ends.

2.2   The Educational Purposes and Effects of Scouting for Development

This review of the different purposes of education was presented to provide the reader with a more complete understanding of the scope of this thesis.

Scouting for development has a twofold purpose. On one hand, it refers to the future society to be built, and on the other hand it refers to present society.

Firstly, there is a set of educational purposes oriented to a future society and addressed to the Chilean youth. That is, to transform today's Chilean society in order to more closely approach the ideal society promoted by the strategy of development called Liberation in a Social Context. The first four types of goals of

education mentioned in the Davis and Hudson typology are similar to those being achieved by the eudcational program of scouting for development. This advocates harmonious development of individuals and society, making individuals or society more moral, shaping attitudes for social and political living, and increasing equity. Examples of desirable effects for these are: to enlarge solidarity, fraternity, and community participation; to increase responsibility in sharing benefits and sacrifices derived from work equity in labor relations; and to create a collective need for achievement.

Secondly, there is a set of purposes also oriented to a future society and addressed to individuals. The liberation strategy for development requires that individual transformation occur simultaneously with group organization and group commitment to achieve the new societal goals. The fifth type of goals mentioned in Davis and Hudson's typology is similar to these, and should be emphasized by the educational program of scouting for development. This educational program would aid self expression and lead to self actualization and freedom. Examples of desirable effects of education would include creating a self-confident person capable of taking the steps necessary to improve his/her way of life and to satisfy basic needs. Moreover, educational effects are creating a favorable attitude toward hard work, innovation, responsibility, honesty, thrift, critical analysis, democrary, and the acceptance of people with different ideas. In addition, educational effects also include promoting creativity and leading people to discover their own capabilities and limitations.

There is a third set of purposes of education for develop-
ment. These purposes refer to a present society because an
immediate effect is desired, and addresses individuals. These
purposes are similar to the sixth and seventh types of goals
mentioned in Davis and Hudson's typology which provide knowledge
skills and arts useful for production of goods and services,
and to increase earnings of poor youths. Thus, to contribute
to individual survival in Chilean society today, the educational
effects seek to upgrade work skills and to organize production
or service teams among youth which will increase family incomes.
Additional effects include: increasing knowledge; and promoting
actions oriented to satisfy survival needs such as food, health
and shelter.

The other types of goals included in the Davis and Hudson
typology are not emphasized within the educational purposes of
scouting for development.

With regard to the purpuses of transforming today's Chilean
society, historical experience leads one to differentiate three
effects of deucation for individual stages of implemention
concerning one new strategy of development:

- <u>Awareness Stage</u> -- This takes place when a
  society is structured according to a strategy
  of development which is different from the
  one desired. Some contradictions appear
  from the perspectiye of the current strategy
  (the strategy does not work effectively)

or from the perspective of another strategy (the new society desired by a group is contradictory). At this point, a group of educators become aware of the use of education to raise consciousness about problems and to promote a change in the current strategy of development. Education has an effect of awareness.

- Start-up or Transformation Stage -- At the beginning of implementing a new strategy, important changes take place (i.e., revolution). Therefore, education is used by the government to support transformation and to accelerate the process of change on a large scale. Education, in this stage, has an effect of transformation.

- Stage of Stability -- Stability occurs when the strategy of development has been functioning for an extended time period (i.e., 9 years of the present strategy in Chile). A dynamic stability of the current strategy is a core goal of the people who support it. Education, in this stage, has an effect of preserving hegemony.[12]

For this thesis, the most important effect is education for awareness. In this sense, education has a key role in promoting a new strategy of development because it not only can change people's mentality, but it can also transform people's values, attitides and behaviors. A good example of education in this role is military training which prepares people to kill others and to sacrifice themselves for symbols such as flags. Why isn't it possible to educate people to fight against more realistic enemies such as poverty? Education for awareness is a sensible way of increasing knowledge through pilot experiences which can be reproduced on a larger scale when the desired model of development is generalized in the entire society.

Moreover, in whichever stage education takes place, it ought to be methodologically coherent with the strategy for development it supports. For example, it would be impossible to promote the Liberation Model using a Dewey or Makarenko approach to education because the methodology itself facilitates the change.

3. The Ethical Criteria: Some Personal Value Judgments About Development

As mentioned previously, there should be an agreement between educational planners' values and the goals to be achieved through the educational program. Thus, given this value judgment a sum of the author's values in relationship with the concept of development will be provided.

An overview of different strategies of development concludes that development has diverse meanings for different people. Despite coincidential factors, manipulation of identical data implies inharmonious conclusions. Regardless, in the interest of creating an educational program oriented toward development, it is important to clarify the type of development one plans to promote.

The strategy of development which most closely identifies with the author's values, beliefs, and backgrouns, is "Liberation in a Social Context." However, additional clarifications of this strategy are necessary.

From the author's viewpoint, development is the process by which people, both individually and collectively, advance from one present standard of life to. a new aspired standard. of life. This implies full achievement of individual capabilities in harmony will the collective (without interfering with the achievement of other people), while maintaining the ecological environment for the future. Three assumptions are implied:

1. The consummation of development is the human being,
2. The process of development is a collective task in which all mankind is involved,
3. The process of development must be concerned with the environment.

If the reader remains in agreement with these assumptions, it would be possible to suggest some developmental goals for a new society. This new society will be built based on the strategy of liberation in the social context. These goals express some of the author's values underlying the educational purposes of scouting for development.

The developmental goals are organized beginning with the individual, and proceeding to the local and universal environments as follows:

PERSONAL   Each person should be able to:

- satisfy basic needs (food, health care, shelter);
- be free to associate with peers and express ideas;
- share work responsibilities and benefits;
- have access to culture, education, and public services.

FAMILY   The family should provide:

- a stable environment where children can achieve emotional, physical and mental growth, and can learn from the example of parental love to love other people in society.

LOCAL COMMUNITY   The local community should:

- be organized to strengthen community understanding;
- provide a channel to transmit information to and from the government. (The government should function as a central coordinator.)
- reinforce solidarity among people through production goods, technology, and labor relations.

WORLD ORGANIZATION   World Organization should:

- be oriented toward an international community, in terms of power, trade, and welfare.

ENVIRONMENT   The earth environment should be:

- intensively conserved with concern for future cultivation;
- utilized by technologies which support environmental preservation;
- supported to reach a natural ecological equilibrium, with the exception of dangerous plants or animals (i.e., pests and plagues).

As will be mentioned later in this thesis, these goals are not contradictory with the principles of scouting.

4. Scouting, a Nonformal Education Alternative

Scouting today has not bee adequately considered by many educators. Most educators tend to view scouting as a recreati nal activity for children, and they have not evaluated the educational potentials of scouting.

The following paragraphs are intended to introduce scouting as a youth movement and as a case of nonformal education, including previous advantages and criticisms of nonformal education in Latin America.

Education, is a broad sense, can be provided in different alternative ways which can be classified in three categories: formal, nonformal, and informal. Formal education is usually provided by the school system on the primary, secondary, and higher levels, and includes academic and vocational, public and private schools. Formal education is grade structured and certificate oriented.[13]

Nonformal education is any organized, systematic, educational activity carried on outside the framework of the formal system which provides selected types of learning to particular subgroups in the population. Nonformal education applies to adults as well as community development, agriculture extension, family planning, technical or vocational training, literacy, basic education, and youth movements.[14]

Informal education can be casual or intentional.[15] It has been defined as "the life long process by which every person acquired and accumulates knowledge, skills, attitudes and insights from daily experiences and the exposure to the environment."[16] Informal education is difficult to control and, when it is systematically manipulated, it is transformed into nonformal or formal education. Moreover, when nonformal education exists, informal education is also present.

Of course, formal education is the most important alternative as it has a large number of people incorporated and a wide range of ages considered. However, nonformal education is also important in developing countries where the school system is accessible to the poor for a limited number of years, and does not drastically alter the possibilities of change in living conditions. Promoting development is easier and more relevant if done through formal schooling: this is because of coverage. Where access to formal education is very difficult for educators who do not agree with the strategy of development current in the country, nonformal education becomes a good alternative for them. For that reason it is important to increase the coverage and to have a semi-massive experience in nonformal education to promote a new strategy for development within large organizations.

- Additional Advantages of Nonformal Education --
  Nonformal education is not only valuable to promote
  a new strategy of development, but it is important
  in itself. That is, because of its pragmatism,
  versatility, adaptability, and diversity, nonformal
  education has a great deal to offer in developing
  areas.[17] For example, La Belle and Verhine[18] point
  out that nonformal education makes an important
  contribution to the economic growth in Latin America
  through specific and practical skill training programs.

● Some Criticisms of Nonformal Education --
  As previously discussed, nonformal education has limited
  coverage compared with formal schooling, but it
  also has additional problems. One problem is that
  programs often depend heavily on the performance of
  individual educators and can be abandoned when these
  persons leave the program. In order to reduce this
  risk of programs becoming abandoned, it is important
  to have a large organization supporting the programs
  which exceeds the efforts of individual educators.

Another problem derives from certification. Authors such

as Weber, Carnoy, Randall, and Coleman[19] suggest that in Latin

America employers still place more value on formal education

credentials.

Despite these setbacks, nonformal education will remain

as important complement to formal education in Latin America.

In fact, only 55% of 22.8 million people aged 6 to 24 are in

the formal system.[20] Education is very important for these young

people because they are going to remain in the economically

active population during the next 40 years. Because of the lack

of sufficient schooling for the entire youth population, it is

feasible to use youth organizations for educational purposes.

One type of this organization is the youth movement.

For Unesco, a youth movement is a voluntary association whose

members must explicitly join it. Members may take part directly or

indirectly in its management and in the formulation of its

program. It is further distinguished by a tendency to compre-

hensiveness in its conception of education, with no restrictions

of programs to specific activities. The final requirement for

its recognition as a movement is coverage in a wide geographic

area.[21] According to this definition, scouting is a valid youth

movement. Moreover, according to our previous definition, it is also an alternative in nonformal education.

In sum, scouting is an educational alternative because it is a social activity intended to promote youth's individual achievements towards the ideal of man. Since it is an out-of-school program and non-grade oriented, scouting is also nonformal education. As a youth movement, it is a voluntary association whose members take part in management and planning. It also has worldwide coverage. Therefore it is interesting to study the feasibility of introducing educational programs within scouting which are oriented toward the Liberation strategy for development.

5. Scouting

5.1 Some Historical Roots

Scouting was founded in England by Robert Baden-Powell as a result of his experience utilizing boys during the siege of Makefing in the Boer War in South Africa. Influenced by his own experiences as a student, by readings on education in Sparts, ancient Britain and Ireland, and Japan's Bushido,[22] and later by his experiences as a military officer, he organized the first scout camp in 1907. In 1908, he published a book entitled Scouting for Boys, which he initially thought would be used by the YMCA and the Protestant-Brigades.[23] Nevertheless,

his book became popular among educators and Englishmen. In fact, English nobility, including the King of England, became involved in scouting, and the Prince of Wales later became President of the English Boy Scouts.[24]

Baden-Powell was concerned with the possible decline of the British Empire. He saw a parallel between the British and the Roman Empires which fell he thought due to a lack of good citizenship and energetic patriotism, the growth of luxury and idleness, and the exaggerated importance of local party politicians. In British cities, he did not find the virile and generous character he had seen among primitive people who could fight against a hostile nature.[25] He noticed that youth had become selfish and lacked ideals. Moreover, he observed the inefficiency of schools.[26] He also wanted to avoid the influence of German philosophers, particularly Nietzsche, and the values of urban modernization among young people. In his opinion, these influences were destroying the traditions and values of the Englishman who he viewed as healthy, strong, a good sport, a man with a sense of honor, and a knight.[27]

Consequently, Baden-Powell considered it necessary to provide out-of-school education for youth which would emphasize character formation, physical strength, and contact with nature. He sought a scout education that would:

- reinforce a youth's sense of honor and the traditional values of chivalry;
- transform each youngster into a strong individual who would sacrifice himself for others (i.e., a potential hero);

- prepare youth to take risks;
- allow youths to explore new ways of others and;
- develop into a moral person of "boundaries".

5.2 Scouting Organization Around the World

Scouting became popular around the world in a few years, and became a bonafide international movement. Today, it has recognized associations in 110 countries. The organization is led by the World Committee headquartered in Geneva, and five additional regional committees. Each country has one official association or federated association organized according to geographic distribution. International communication is promoted by the movement of international scout meetings or Jamborees.[28] A fraternity is also established by the Scout Law:

> The scout is friendly, courteous, kind to other people and a brother to all scout members.

This international fraternity was also pointed out by Baden-Powell who wanted "a league of nations and not a league of governments."[29]

The Scouting Movement is organized by branches according to age and sex. Membership usually starts at age 8 in Cub-Scouts[30] or Brownies where development of fine motor skills and play activities are emphasized. From ages 11 through 16, youngsters become Boy Scouts or Girl Guides, and from ages 17 through 21, they may join the Explorers or become Senior Guides where the focus is on community service. In several countries, there are separate organizations for girls despite similar objectives.

In some countries, for example the USA, only the Explorer
groups are coeducational.[34] A Scouting group is constituted
by one or more branch units usually called troops or communities.
Scouting units are most often organized in patrols, with four
to six patrols per unit. A patrol is a small and permanent group
consisting of four to eight members, united by similar
interests and working together under the responsible leadership
of a patrol leader.

5.3   The Aims of the Scouting Movement

The general objective of scouting, as defined by the World
Organization, is:

> To contribute to the development of young people
> in achieving their full physical, intellectual,
> social and spiritual potential as individuals,
> both as good citizens, and as members of their
> local community.[32]

The aim of the movement is represented in the Scouting Law,
which presents both a code of honor to be carried out, and
individual goals to be achieved. The law is as follows:

> The scout is trustworthy, loyal, helpful, friendly,
> courteous, kind, obedient, cheerful, thrifty, brave,
> clean, and reverent.

The Scout Law is comprehensive and central to the member's
life. In a ceremony called The Promise, members promise on
their "honor" to obey the Scout Law and to always be prepared
to help people in all circumstances.[33] This ideal is represent-
ative of good citizenship.

Scouting is a nonpolitical, interdenominational, and inter-
racial movement. However, underlying this ideal of good citizen-

ship can be instilled a different set of values, depending on
the regional traditions, the national regimes, and the socio-
economic, religious, and cultural background of leaders and
scouting members.[34] That flexibility makes the unity of the
scouting organization possible despite the large diversity of
its members. Good citizenship is achieved in scouting by
encouraging physical health and good character formation
through self-discipline. This concept is clearly explained by
Baden-Powell. For him, character meant: reverence, sense of
honor, self-discipline, unselfishness, self-reliance, intelli-
gence, enjoyment of life, and energy.[35]

5.4 Scouting Educational Methods

The scouting method is based on four fundamental elements:

1. Scouting is Child-Centered -- Scouting intends
   to meet the real needs of children during their
   adolescent stage by using youths' spirit of
   adventure, their environment, and their cultural
   organization in to pursue constructive activities
   most perferable to youth. Through small groups
   guided by a leader, scouting intends to promote
   full participation and allow individual education.
   A child is considered to be a responsible person
   who should be trusted.

2. Hands-on Learning Experience -- Learning by doing
   is central to the scouting experience. Members
   not only read about building a camping sit, but
   they build a real one. By simulating injuries,
   they learn how to bandage injuries and prepare
   for emergencies.

3. The Patrol System -- The idea of the patrol is
   derived from the observation of "youth gangs."

4. Role Models -- Closely related to the patrol
   system is the education through role imitation.
   Adult leaders provide guidance by becoming
   citizen models who can be imitated by patrol
   leaders and members. Patrol leaders are also
   role models for their patrol members.

The scouting organizational structure is designed to support these four fundamental elements as the basis for all scouting activities. Many scouting activities are realized in a natural outdoor setting. Camping and contact with nature is promoted by the youth movement, not only for health reasons, but because nature constitutes a good environment for brotherhood and advocates a simplistic lifestyle. Play is the most frequent activity in scouting because it is the activity that children most prefer. Games remain priority activities, but honest participation and the honor of fair competition are very important. Social cooperation is also encouraged, and daily services is a tradition among scout members. In addition, because of their organization and activities, members are prepared to assist in the event of emergencies and natural disasters, such as earthquakes and war. The scouts are trained to establish provisional camps, to provide first aid, to dispense food, and to assume public services such as messengers, firemen, and policemen. Senior members participate in community service activities such as literacy campaigns, tree plantings, and nutritional programs. An expected outcome is that scouting has been successful in reducing delinquency among youth.[36]

In recent years, scouting has become involved in community development by assisting communities in organizing themselves, especially in rural areas in developing countries. They help people to improve their capacity to satisfy basic needs such as food and sanitation through simple technology.[37]

Scouting has a well organized strucutre with well-defined tasks at each level, starting from the World Committee and concluding with the patrol leader. However, because members are volunteers, authority exhibits special characteristics. For instance, the relationship between a leader and a member resembles the parent-child relationship; a relationship which encourages a mutual trustworthiness. All military-like authority is avoided.[38] Scoutmasters and patrol leaders constitute the "leaders' patrol" where the main focus is educational. The leaders' patrol is an example of participatory authority.

There are three grades or "classes" which can be obtained, usually through tests of increasing difficulty on various scouting techniques such as camping, signaling, knotting, etc. Moreover, merit badges are awarded to outstanding members who exhibit abilities to serve others, such as first aid, communications, etc, and these badges provide a hierarchy among scouting members. Scouting groups usually have an umbrella institution which provide adult leaders with support. Among those institutions are the schools, the Catholic Church, nonprofit organizations, and the local neighborhood.

5.5 Why did the Scouting Movement Grow so Fast

Scouting spread rapidly around the world. Ten years after its foundation there were 315,000 Boy Scouts active in the United States along.[39] The total number of male scout members worldwide was estimated at 2.2 million in 1933; 3.3 million in 1939[40] and is over 40 million currently.[41] That growth and the

increasing importance of scouting can be explained through
several viewpoints of people involved: boys and girls parents,
and educators, or through a historical perspective.

> • The Point of View of Children -- Scouting may
> have become attractive because scouting methods
> are based on the normal desires of children.[42]
> It responds to a child's adventurous spirit and
> integrates the present and the future (i.e., by
> permitting children to act like adults, play roles
> as soldiers, firemen, and nurses). These are not
> only attractive child play activities, but they
> are also reflective of an attitude of the movement
> which considers boys and girls as real persons and
> offers them a world of their own design.[43]

The patrol system in scouting corresponds to the ways youths
organize themselves in play and other activities. It permits
children to interact closely with older young people and
adult leaders. Scouting offers competitive outdoor games and
activities which satisfy and channel youth aggressiveness.
That has a large advantage over schools which provide boys and
girls with an artificial environment of rigid discipline where
quiet is encouraged and play is forbidden, except for short
periods outside the learning process. Baden-Powell characterized
the situation as follows:

> The code of the teacher is in favour of silence
> and safety and decorum. The code of the children
> is in favor of noise, and risk and excitement, fun,
> fighting and feeding. These are the three indispensable
> elements of the children's world.[47]

Thus, scouting is attractive to boys and girls because it is
a "naturally organized" child centered movement where educators
and pupils are oriented congruently.

- The Point of View of Parents -- Scouting is
  desirable because the outdoor scout activities are
  considered important for the childrens' health, in
  a period where sports have national significance.[45]
  At the beginning of this century, "rudeness" or
  rough-and-readiness, was considered a positive
  value for young people, and scouting reinforced
  not only "rudeness" but also chivalry.[46] In
  addition, scouting provides an inexpensive
  recreational activity for youth and a rural way
  of life. This is especially valuable for youths
  who live in close urban housing.

This activity was also supported by earlier movements,

such as the Woodcraft League of America.[47] In addition, since

both parents are usually employed, especially in middle class

families, parents need to be able to share their child's

educational responsibilities with organizations. For parents,

scouting reinforces and complements the values of the school,

the church, and the home.

- The Point of View of Educators -- Scouting has
  been highly recommended as a complementary activity
  to the school. For instance, in 1917, James Russell,
  a well-known American educator stated: "the Scouting
  Movement is the most significant educational
  contribution of our time.[48] Scouting courses were
  once taught in several American universities.[49]
  In addition, many people in Europe and the United
  States were particularly concerned with youth.
  These people saw important concepts of individuality,
  honor, and religion slipping away, and several of
  these people acted as leaders to guide children in
  redefining these concepts.[50]

Various denominations such as the Masons, consider scouting

to be an attractive way to promote their doctrines, principles

and values among youth. This also explains the large amount of

volunteer work contributions by leaders. In some countries,

high ranking government officials are directly in scouting,

and some are former scoutmasters. However, almost all governments

have seen scouting as a helpful educational movement which

promotes patriotism and good citizenship among youth and, consequently, governments often provide public support for scouting.

The process of industrialization in some developing countries occasions an increasing need for education outside the home. At the same time, the concept of the youngster as an individual person differs from that of a "small adult". As Baden-Powell pointed out:

> The boy or girl is not a small edition of a man or woman, not a piece of blank paper of which the the teacher could write, but every child has his own peculiar curiosity, his inexperience, a normal mysterious frame of mind which needs to be tactfully helped, encouraged, and molded or modified or even supressed."[51]

Moreover, because of increasing urbanization, people in urban areas often feel a restless nostalgia for the outdoor life. Scouting offers an alternative to bring children to the countryside. It is also relevant to recognize the prestige of Baden-Powell as a national hero in England during a colonial period when Britian exerted a considerable worldwide influence. Scouting was initially extended to the British colonies. The First World War was crucial in reinforcing the importance of scouting, and in extending the movement. For example, 50,000 English boys were prepared within four days to provide urban public service[53] and American scouts produced food for soldiers by cultivating 12,000 gardens.[54]

5.6 Educational Research on Scouting

Given the historical importance of scouting, one would expect to find a good deal of published research, but relatively little exists. Why is research on scouting so scarce in comparison with the number of people involved? There were 5,318,070 children involved in Boy Scouting in the United States during 1975[55] yet only three dissertations have been written in this decade.[56] Some possible reasons are the following:

- Little Money is Involved in Scouting -- most of the adults involved work without remuneration. It is more important to evaluate and spend money for research in formal educational systems, which are expensive and where decisions are costly in terms of money.

- Volunteer Leaders have Little Time -- there is insufficient time to promote research or even simple evaluations. In addition, many volunteers lack the necessary research and evaluation skills.

- Scouting has been Viewed as primarily Recreational -- most decision makers view scouting as a recreational rather than an educational activity.

- Scouting for Development is Just Starting -- traditional scouting does not directly affect the economy of the country, whereas the school system has a large effect on government spending.

5.7 Advantages and Criticisms of Scouting

In addition to the general advantages of nonformal education, such as its flexibility, versatility, and adaptability, scouting presents other advantages which make it a good educational alternative:

- An extended coverage of youth, aged 8 through 22 (considering the alternatives which the movement offers);

- An international reputation which permits it to act independently of national governemtns;

- Volunteer work which makes scouting economical when compared with other possible alternatives;
- Stability because of its structure which goes beyond individual leaders;
- Converges community, parental, and educational interests concerning child education;
- Success with hard-to-reach youth and the handicapped because of the relationship between adult leaders and members, and confidence in children's capabilities.

Some criticism have been directed at scouting. A frequent criticism is the militarism of the movement. Ostreicher[57] recognizes the influence of the world wars on some scoutmasters who pretend scouting is a paramilitary organization not compatible with an educational approach. However, Levy[58] recognized contradictory criticisms between militarists, on the one hand, who criticized scouting because of its pacifism, and pacifists, on the other hand, who criticized scouting because of its militarism. Baden-Powell stated that:

> Scouting is not drums and flags but life in the woods, and the movement is for character formation.[59]

Another criticism results from different interpretations of good citizenship by countries, regimes or ideologies.[60] For example, in 1929 the English Teacher Labour League condemned the scouting movement:

> The militarists and nobility in control who provide the funds all alike agree with the aims of the scouting. These are to train working class children, to be ready to serve as common fodder in the approaching war which modern imperialism is leading.[61]

The Catholic Church also criticized scouting because weekend camping impeded youth attendance at Sunday services. Baden-Powell

himself criticized scouting in Russia under the Tsarist regime because of the excessive discipline,[62] and the Balilla, or Mussolini youth movement in Italy because its obligatory nationalism lacked spiritual balance and insisted on mass cohesion rather than individual character.[63]

This implies that scout law and principles represent an ideal for individuals, a voluntary promise and not a compulsory guideline to guide a nation's youth. Moreover, the law and principles are tied to a historical context, to be understood depending on the socioeconomic, political, cultural, and religious background of people. This allows for flexibility or contraditions in practice among scouting members. However, the honesty of the personal search for that ideal makes scouting universal, and explains the desire of the movement to be independent of political parties, religions, and other influences.

Another criticism relevant to this paper is that scouting has developed more among the upper and middle classes. Trends along class lines are displayed in Table I-1 included in the appendix, and includes information from different world regions. Although the regions are not identical in terms of tradition and cultural environment, the figures represent general trends, leading to the conclusion that scouting worldwide is more extensive among higher income, urgan formally educated people. Differences in Africa could be explained by the English Colonialism. Moreover, studies in the

United States by Kimball[64] and the University of Michigan[65] confirmed that scouts had a higher socioeconomic status than non-scouts in this country. This situation explains the concern of the Scout World Bureau which seeks to serve people in all sectors, and it explains the Bureau's efforts in promoting scouting for development through seminars and international conferences.[66]

3.8 New Trends in Scouting

When Baden-Powell created scouting in the beginning of this century, he presented an open and flexible ideology. However, adult leaders became reluctant to incorporate the activities that the founder of the movement advocated. This situation continued until 1970 when the international conference in Tokyo concluded that, based on a study done by Lazlo Nagy[67], the movement should adapt more to local needs, especially in developing countries. Later, Mr. Nagy was elected as world leader of the male branches.

In Latin America, an interesting study was done by Mateo Jover.[68] He recommended that scouting adapt to the regional reality. For this purpose, and International Seminar on Community Development was held in 1977 to formulate the priorities for basic needs and essential services.[69]

The emphasis on scouting activities oriented toward development also represents a change from the traditional kind of community service activities of the scouts to community development activities. As previously mentioned, the latter are not

intended to solve the community problems directly, but rather
to help people organize themselves to solve their own problems.
Examples of this kind of scouting activity in Latin America
can be seen in the insudtrial and agriculture cooperatives
in Peru, a poultry project in Las Minas, Panama, and a program
for training community leaders in Chile.

This chapter has provided an overview of the different
strategies of development and has selected one of these strategies
which emphasizes nonformal education. Scouting has presented a
nonformal education whose values can be consistent with this
selected strategy. More detailed consideration concerning the
development of education and scouting in Chile is presented in
the following chapter.

II. DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION AND SCOUTING IN CHILE

1. Some Geographical and Historical Data

Chile is located in south-west South America. It has a
surface of 756,626 square kilometers. It is 4,270 kilometers
long with an average width of 188 kilometers. The majority of
its surface is mountainous; approximately 20% of the land is
flat. Because of Chile's geographic length, it is possible to
differentiate geographical areas with special characteristics.
The northern part of the country is the driest desert in the
world with a very low population density of 3.6 people per
square kilometer. The central zone is a long narrow valley
1,000 kilometers long. This zone has the highest Chilean
population density where 87.9% of the people reside.[71] The most
important Chilean cities are in the central zone: Santiago,
the capital with 4.2 million people; Valparaiso with 1.2
million; and Concepcion with 706,000 people. The southern area
of Chile has many islands which extend to the south pole.
Approximately 76% of the total population live in urban areas[71]
and 40% live in the five largest cities.

Today the country is divided into provinces grouped into
12 regions in addition to the Capital Region (Region Metropoli-
tane). Each province is divided into cities or districts
(Comunas). Authority is hierarchical, and trickles from the
central government to the mayor at the district level. Presently,
there are no elected authorities.

Until 1818, Chile was a Spanish colony. Consequently, most of Chile's population is European in descent, with small groups of native indians living in isolated places. Following independence, Chile has enjoyed political stability, most often under a democratic governemnt. With independence, the country gained access to international markets. While national agriculture satisfied domestic consumption, the economy, based on exporting raw materials, especially nitrates, raised income to import manufactured products. However, most of the mines were exploited by foreign capital and income distribution was inadequate.

The Chilean economy became heavily dependent on external markets. As a result, during the international crisis of 1930, per capita income diminished and imports decreased drastically. Consequently, it was necessary to promote industrialization in order to substitute for loss of imports and to create new jobs. The country continued to export mostly copper, which replaced nitrates as Chile's most important product (artificial nitrate was discovered at that time).

The state became increasingly active in the industrialization process. State participation in the economy reached its zenith between 1970 and 1973 during a transition into socialism. Between 1930 and 1960, per capita industrial production doubled its initial value[72] and per capita income slowly increased. Industrialization produced a high concentration of people in large cities. For example, urban population increased 3.2% while rural population decreased 0.4%. Today, urban population is 75% of the total population. However, industrial-

ization did not have an effect on employment equal to the magnitude of the state's investment. For instance, between 1965 and 1970, employment in the industrial sector grew 2.1%, while since that time total employment grew 2.7%.[73]

Since 1940 the state had supported industrialization by creating infrastructure: that is, roads, bridges, and electric power plants. A state corporation, CORFO, promoted industries. In addition, labor unions became more powerful and obtained more benefits for their members with the state guarenteeing workers' rights and promoting social equity. In the mid 1960s, land reform was also implemented with strong state support in order to promte equity. Between 1970 and 1973, land reform was extended throughout Chile. Mines, large factories, and important financing organizations were expropriated in order to build a socialist society. Unemployment was practically eliminated, the country became highly politicized, and political parties became involved in a multitude of activities. The fight for control of the government was generalized and the country experienced considerable conflict. Leftist parties within the government controlled 44% of the constituency, while Christiam Democrats (center) had 33%, and the right has 20%.

At that time, the military was excluded from the political activites, at least externally. However, starting from a crisis in October 1972, the military became involved in government activities to guarantee support for the center and the right sectors. These political solutions only worked for a few months

The socialist government ended with a coup d'Etat on September 1973 and a Military Junta assumed control. Initially, the Junta had support from right and center political groups, but the Christian Democrats later became part of the opposition. It is important to note that officially the Junta has the support of 60% of the constituency.

2. Some General Data Concerning the Current Situation

Once in power, the Junta abolished all political parties, and political activities were forbidden. Hundreds of leftists were killed, jailed or exiles, and politicians from the center later experienced similar treatment. In addition, some of the mass media were forced to close, and the remaining media suffered under rigorous governmental control. Within the Junta supporters, there were two groups with different ideologies; the nationals (less important but with some support from within the military), and the neo-liberals (the most important group with links to economic power with the ability to exert influence on current political decisions).

The military government follows the "modern sector" strategy of development. As previously mentioned, this strategy intends to increase capital by placing it in the hands of the most efficient entrepreneurs, while at the same time forcing massive savings by keeping salaries low and unemployment high until the accumulation of capital is large enough to redistribute it. As a consequence of the development strategy, unemployment is

of the main problems that has arisen. In 1978, unemployment was 21.6%.[74] It later decreased, but it remains over 10% without taking into account 200,000 people enrolled on the Work-fare Program (PEM) with a salary of $40 a month. The total labor force of the country is 3.4 million people.[75] Presently, 12.7% of the total labor force is less than 21 years old, and in rural areas this percentage increases to 19.4%.[76] After Law 18.018 of 1981, the government abolished the operating legislation allowing youth workers to be hired for a salary below the minimum wage or hired as training workers for only 67% of the minimum wage.

Chile has a relatively good economic standard among Latin American countries. Its GNP is $8,784,500 in U.S. dollars[77] and per capita GNP is $833 U.S. dollars. However, the income is very poorly distributed, as 20% of the population receives only $225 U.S. dollars annually.[78] Moreover, official data indicates that 21.3% of the total population live in substandard conditions, based on housing and sanitation indicators.[79] Because of the strategy of development, this data indicates that today, 9% of poor families are unable to adequately provide for any of their basic needs (food, health, education, and housing) and 45% have difficulty in meeting some of their basic needs.[80] Authors such as Martinic[81] and Valentine[82] mention that the poor are realistic in attempting to satisfy urgent needs without any planning for the future. These authors describe the poor as conformists who are resigned to their fate.

That makes change extremely difficult given current conditions. However, Cortazar et al[83] found that only 30% of the people in slum areas exhibit those characteristics. Other people are dissatisfied with their situation and have an accurate insight into the possible causes of their current situation. Moreover, Porter[84] was able to establish that poor people are not a homogeneous group, and he mentions that the place where the poor reside presently and the background could cause differences. Magendzo and Gazmuri[85] support this idea. They found that income and level of formal education do not necessarily affect the interest of a poor family in the education of their children. However, those families whose environment has been seriously damaged are less interested in their children's education. This data should be taken into account when attempting to establish educational programs for the poor.

The Catholic Church has a great influence in Chile where 90% of the people are Christian. Today, most of the Church hierarchy do not agree with the current development strategy because it has increased poverty. The Catholic Church in Chile has been greatly influenced by the latest Latin American meetings of Bishops Medellin and Puebla, and thus, their major concern remains focused on the poor. The Church is committed to the educational system. It has several expensive schools and a number of free private, primary schools. Moreover, after the coup d'Etat, Catholics have increased their nonformal educational programs, specifically those for the poor. Among those programs are leadership training, manpower training mothers' clubs, and youth working groups.

3. Education

3.1 Formal Schooling

Educational standards in Chile are passable when compared with other Latin American countries. Average schooling is about five years (primary education has eight grades and secondary school has four grades). Illiteracy among youth aged 6 to 15 is less than 6.5%; most illiteracy is in rural areas.[86] Illiteracy among the current labor force is 4.8% but there are strong differences between urban and rural (2.7% in urban areas and 13.9% in rural areas) and between regions. For example, the XII Region has 1% illiteracy in urban areas and 3.9% in rural areas, but the VIII Region has 4.1% illiteracy in urban areas and 19% in rural areas. The unemployed labor force has similar levels of illiteracy. For urban areas, it is 3.2% and 15.2% in rural areas.[87]

Schooling grew drastically in the second part of the 1960s. From 1967 to 1973, 870,000 new students were admitted into the school system resulting in an annual increase of 5.5%.[88] Increased schooling could explain the high educational levels of the unemployed labor force. For instance, in urban areas, 50% of the unemployed have secondary schooling and 3.5% have had some level of university studies.[89] Selectivity of the school system is strong. A child's schooling is closely related to his parent's schooling and socioeconomic status. In fact, only 3% of the children with illiterate parents end secondary schooling, yet 100% of children whose parents have university studies end secondary school.[90]

Since 1981, important changes have occurred in the structure of the formal system. Traditional state ownership and control of the school system has been transferred to cities, and vocational schools are being transferred to private entrepreneurs. Curricula has become more flexible for secondary schools and completely open for vocational schools. The state invests money only where absolutely necessary. Although these procedures could have many advantages, it also implies added risks for poorer districts.

3.2 Nonformal Education

Until recently, nonformal education has been mainly a state activity related to national development plans. Nonformal education also developed dramatically in the second part of the 1960s. For instance, the main institute for manpower (INACAP) was created in 1966 to provide human resources quickly for modern sector industries. In 1975, it trained 76,030 workers.[91] A similar institute (DUOC) was created in 1968 in a state financed university and, in 1976 DUOC trained 25,000 workers.[92] Today, those institutions are self-financing and there are plans to transform them into higher education institutions. Consequently, the student body in undergoing a number of changes.

In rural areas, several manpower institutions were created since 1965 to provide technical support for land reform. Since 1973, when land reform was ended, some of the expropriated land was returned to the previous landowners. After discontinuing the

land reform, most of the manpower institutions were closed.
Moreover, considering vocational education in the formal
system, there are formal schools for adults aged 18 and older.
Some of these schools also have non-certificate vocational
studies for about 10,757 students in the Capital Region
(75% of those are 16 to 25 years old).[93] However, there is
no coordination in vocational, adult formal education, or
state nonformal education institutions. Another important state
institution which has a formative and supervisory role in
manpower programs is the National Service for Training and
Employment (SENCE). This service provides 53,000 fellowships
for training programs to poor people, and operates with a
total budget of approximately $5 million (dollars).

Educación Extraescolar Formal, out-of-class programs within
the school, can be included as nonformal education. Some of
these programs are recreational, but they are conceptualized
as permanent education with the goal of complementing schooling.
These programs intend to create a personalized education through
establishing different relations between teachers and students.
Since 1977, they have been financed by a weekly public soccer
"pool" (Concurse Polla Gol) with a $1 million weekly prize.
Understandably, member activities and participation grew
rapidly from 25,064 in 1974 to 950,000 in 1980.[95]

4. Youth and Scouting

4.1 Youth Organizations and Institutions

Youth in the scouting movement aged 7 through 24 total
4,055,207 people. This is 37.1% of the total country's popu-
lation.[96] Of this total, 49.4% are female, and 50.6% are male.
Youth organizations, youth movements and institutions working
with young people could be classified into two categories:
those which have some links with the state (public or private)
and those without links to the state.

4.1.1 Organizations with Some Links to the State

Among organizations with some links to the state are
the school system, the government organization, and the non-
government organizations. All these organizations can receive
state support, but they are not necessary public organizations.

- The School System -- is the most important of
  the organizations. It has 3,078,287 young people
  which represents 83% of the total population aged
  6 through 19.[97]

Within the school system there are public schools which belong
to the state and public schools which are managed by the mayors.
Private schools are ruled by the state and receive some state
financing support.

Since 1969, the Ministry of Education runs an office
for out-of-program activities. Activity was relatively scarce
until 1976, when the budget grew drastically because of funds
coming from the concurso Polla Gol. Today, almost all public

schools have a Center for out-of-Program Activities coordinated by a specialized teacher. This implies that one million school students annually are involved in activities such as sport clubs, art concourses, scientific clubs, and red cross groups. Scouting groups under school sponsorship could also be incorporated within a center for out-of-Program Activities. That situation is not frequent today, but it represents an excellent possibility to expand scouting in the near future.

- The Government Organization -- are sponsored and controlled directly by the government. The most important is the National Organization of youth (Secretaria Nacional de la Juventud)(S.N.J.). The S.N.J. depends on the Division of Civil Organizations, which is part of the Ministry Secretary of President (Ministerio, Secretaria General de Gobierno).

The S.N.J.'s role is to promote government support among young people. Officially it has the following objectives:

- to unify youth through activities which are beneficial to youth development;
- to serve as a communication link between youth and the President and;
- to influence the interests of youth.

The S.N.J. has nationwide coverage and is hierarchically organized at regional and district levels. It is active in schools and in neighborhood organizations where there are young people. Among the different kind of activities, the S.N.J. sponsors the following:

- recreation;
- career guidance;
- labor training;
- cultural and artistic activities;

- technical and financial support for youth organization and;

- organization of meetings and public events.

However, the S.N.J. has not achieved significant success as an organization able to transform domestic youth into a strong government support movement. (Examples of radical youth transformations are evidenced by the achievements of Hitler, Mussolini, and the Russian communist youths.) However, national leaders estimate they have 120,000 young people annually participating in youth activities, and approximately 400,000 annually who are partially involved in these activities.

- The Non-Government Youth Organization with State Links -- These organizations receive state financial support, but are not necessarily controlled by the government. The most important of these organizations is the Olympic Committee (Comite Olimpico de Chile -COCH), and also the National Office for Sports and Recreation (Direccion General De Deportes y Recreacion DIGEDER). These are not only youth organizations, but most of the constituency are young people.

The COCH is a private institution which establishes rules, selects, and prepares people for the 22 sports in the Olympic Games. There is a Federation of Clubs in each sports category. In soccer, the most popular sport in Chile,[98] there are also intermediate level organizations of clubs called associations. By law, the COCH received state fundes totaling $7.4 million per year. The DIGEDER is an office of the Ministry of Defense. Its objective is to promote massive sport and recreation activities for the population. To achieve this objective, it establishes policies, channels state funds, provides technical support to build stadiums, and coordinates relevant activities.

One committee within the DIGEDER, the National Sport Committee, works together with the COCH to promote participation in the 22 Olympic sports. It is provided funds totaling approximately $23 million annually by the Polla Gol to build sports facilities and to promote intensive recreational use of the existing facilities. The other committee within the DIGEDER, the National Recreation Committee, provides funds and coordinates recreations field activities and those sports not included in the Olympic games. Today, there are 18 Federations of Clubs, brigades or groups financed by the committee. Examples of these clubs are the Chorus Federation, the YMCA, the Federation of Radioamateur Clubs, and the Association of Guides and Scouts. As estimated 290,000 people participate regularly in these activities. Most of them are young people, but official data to validate this fact is not available.

DIGEDER works through five channels; schools, universities, armed forces, labor organizations, and neighborhood associations. In schools, one position serves two functions, that is the Director of DIGEDER's school channel and the Director of Out-of-Program Activities within the Ministry of Education is by law the same person.

4.1.2   The Organizations Without Links with the State

These organizations do not get direct state support, although they qualify for indirect support, such as tax reductions. Among these organizations with a large youth participation are the

religious and specifically Catholic organizations (90% of
Chile is Catholic). There is no aggregate data concerning
youth participation in the activities of the Catholic Church.
This can be partially explained because each Catholic Bishop
acts independently. The Catholic youth organizations can be
classified into three types; pastoral, social action, and
studies or research.

- Youth Pastoral Activities -- are organized as the
  national level for various organizations such as
  the national commission for pastoral, and the
  institute of rural pastoral. At the local vicariate
  in Santiago, education, youth, solidarity,
  university, and workers have separate youth
  programs. Moreover, other Catholic youths as
  Youth Christian Communities, Young Workers
  Organizations (JOC), and youth parish groups
  exist.

- Social Action for Young People within the
  Catholic Church -- is done at the national level
  for organizations such as the National Institute
  for Social Action (INDISO) and at the local level
  in Santiago by the youth Service Organization
  (ESEJ). Peace and Justice Service Institute
  (SERPAJ), the Institute for Rural Education (IER),
  and the Office for Social Actions (DAS) are also
  active.

- Organizations within the Church working on Studies
  and Research -- studies and research on the field
  of youth, and pilot programs involving hundreds
  of young people are conducted. At the national
  level, the most important of these organizations is
  the Higher Institute of Pastoral for Youth (ISPAJ),
  and on the local level are the Catholic University,
  the Interdisciplinary Program on Educational
  Research (PIIE), and the Center for Research and
  Development of Education (CIDE).

Among youth organizations without links to the state are
the youth groups from other churches, the National Commission
for the Rights of Youth, and the Nationalist Young People's
Group. The Nationalist Young People's Group is comprised of
government supporters, most of them affiliated with the S.N.J.

4.2 A General Approach to Youth Needs in Chile

This general approach to youth needs is a result of the combination of the theories elaborated by D. Lemke[99] and A. Maslow.[100] The first author was selected because he related the needs of young people to the problem of curricula implementation, which proved useful for purposes of this thesis. Lemke proposed that the school curricula should be totally flexible, and it should be addressed to fulfil the individual needs of the students. He considered needs to be the results of personal unbalances. Therefore, the role of the teacher is to detect these unbalances and help the students to explicitely communicate their needs. Thus, the definition of needs, the concept of unbalances, and the incorporation of the intellectual unbalances used here are based on this theory.

On the other hand, Maslow was selected because his "humanistic-psychological-approach" fits with the educational approach of this thesis. He considers the individual as an integrated organized whole. Each human begin has his/her own potentials which can be developed depending on the environmental conditions. The better these environmental conditions, the greater the individual will grow. Using this criteria, he ranked the needs. When the basic or instinctive (internal) needs are satisfied, then other needs appear depending on environmental conditions (external). These needs are "organized into a hierarchy of relative prepotency." His classification of the needs from bottom-to-top includes the following needs: physiological, safety, belongingness, esteem, and self-actualization.

A similar classification was used for this thesis, but instead of needs, the concept of unbalances was used as classificatory criteria.

The Maslow categories of safety, belongingness, and esteem needs were classified in a common category labeled affective unbalances. That was because of difficulties in differenciating these needs through responses to the applied mailed questionnaire addressed to very young people.

Maslow established that self actualization needs are not possible to be achieved by youths because they do not have the necessary life experience. However, the personal development of young people was important for this thesis, and consequently it was necessary to incorporate a new category labeled psychological unbalances adapted to the personal developing state of this target youth population.

Finally, according to the previously mentioned D. Lemke theory, the intellectual desires from Maslow were incorporated in the rank of intellectual unbalances.

For this study, needs are considered requirements to satisfy tensions or unbalances which become established within individuals. Tensions or unbalances can be endogeneous, that is arising from within, or exogeneous, that is, due to external causes. People do not necessarily perceive these needs, or the needs are perceived by their cause or consequence. These perceptions are included in this study as indicators of needs. Moreover, in spite of needs being similar for young people, the possibilities of obtaining an adequate level of satisfaction depends on various individual factors such as socioeconomic level.

4.2.1 Endogenous Unbalances

Endogenous unbalances are caused usually from psychochemical reactions within the human body. These unbalances cause what is called basic needs.   Some of these needs are; the need for air, food, shelter, and reproduction. A minimum level of satisfaction of these needs is of primary importance for survival.

Due to scarce resource availability and poor resource distribution, young Chilean people cannot adequately satisfy their basic needs. As previously mentioned, 9% of Santiago's total urban population experiences serious difficulties in obtaining minimal foods for survival.[101] Moreover, 21.3% of the total Chilean population lacks adequate shelter and must live with bad sanitation conditions. Currently, approximately one million children and young people live in these conditions.[102]

Among them, only a very few, about 1 in 6,000 are involved in scouting.

4.2.2 Exogenous Unbalances

Exogenous unbalances come from the interaction of people with their environment. These unbalances can be affectives, psychological, or intellectual. Affective unbalances come from the search of stable and rewarding relationships with other people. These unbalances cause the needs of aggregation, reference or affiliation, protection or stability, and valoration.

The need of aggregation is expressed as the desire to give and receive love from others, such as parents, friends, and spouses. The need of affiliation is expressed in the desire to have a reference group to belong to, such as a family, a country, or a community. The need of protection or stability is expressed in the desire to have support from a group, to participate, and to share power. The need of valoration is expressed in the desire to be considered, and to have self-confidence.

For young people, specifically adolescents, needs derived from affective unbalances are very important. However, today there are difficulties in satisfying these needs. Young people in Chile recognize the need for organizations to give them opportunities to meet, to channel their inquietudes, and to establish friendships. In an unpublished study done by the Catholic Church in Santiago[103] 3.5% of young people reported

not having any friends, and 20% stated they had only one friend. Most of these youths (84%) said they would like to have more friends, however, only 22% were affiliated with youth organizations. Approximately 30% of those studies stated that they had difficulties communicating, feared rejection by other people, and did not know how to have good relationships with their peers. Some scholars believe that this might be because the government does not facilitate youth organizations out of fear that organized youth groups will become politically critical of the government. However, this cannot be accepted as the general situation because youth organizations already exist within the Catholic Church with the participation of non-government supporters. Consequently, scouting could help to organize youth. Current scouting encourages friendly relation-ships among patrol members, which could be a good solution to the loneliness of young people. Thus, this is a field of youth work which can be considered an extension of the scouting movement in Chile.

Another source of obstacles in satisfying needs is derived from affective unbalances in youth family relationships. The number of separated parents has increased. In addition, there are communication difficulties between parents and children. On one hand, adolescents seek independence in order to affirm their personalities while, on the other hand, parents do not share enough time with their children to try to understand them.

For instance, one study[104] of a sample of a poor neighborhood
of 22,000 working families concluded that disruption of families
is one of the three most important youth problems. In another
study[105] a sample of 233 poor young people from 13 cities
around the capital area indicated that 40% do not leve with
both parents, and 85% of them would like to improve their
family relationships.

Psychological unbalances arise from disonance between
consciousness people have from past experiences about the roles
they ought to play in the society and the roles that they actually
play. The need for psychological maturity is expressed in reinforcing
personality and in character self-definition. The need of achieve-
ment is expressed by searching for personal improvement toward
preset life-goals. Satisfaction of needs derived from psychological
unbalances also presents difficulties for young people today.

Young people in Chile usually do not have adequate criteria
to analyze their reality. Moreover, they have not been trained
to reflect about their reality and to assume responsibility to
make their own decisions. The social environment is considered
more important than personal reflection in defining individual
life goals. Moreover, reality becomes increasingly more complex,
and relativistic. Different patterns define what is bad or good;
and what is false or true. Therefore, it is hard for
young people to define a coherent set of values, and then to
act according to those values.

For the poor young people it is even harder to set goals to improve their living conditions and to try to achieve these goals because their social status places them in the labor force in a disadvantageous position. Their cultural and educational handicaps increase competition for the few available positions. (Official unemployment data shows unemployment has affected over 10% of the labor force.) Consequently, they receive the worst jobs which usually influences their labor trajectory,[106] and which further diminishes future expectations.

The poor young people are conscious of this situation, however, their reactions to the situation differ. Some youths seek independent lifestyles, others try to promote a social change by incorporating it into the blue collar unions, while still other groups assume a fatalistic hand-to-mouth existence. One way youths avoid responsibilities is indicated by the level of drug and alcohol abuse. One study by the Ministry of Education of a sample of 84,000 students indicates that for different zones in the country, between 5% and 11% of the youths are habitual drug users.[107] Another study indicates that over a sample of 1,334 students from public schools, 12% became drunk at least once a month.[108] A third study indicates that 1.6% of youths under age 15 from poor neighborhoods had deprivation syndrome.[109] That is, they are non-recuperable alcoholics.

It is hard to demonstrate scientifically, but after many discussions with many poor people one can summarize the popular "feelings" during the past two governments. During the social

democracy and transition to socialism during 1964 to 1973
period, the poor were more optimistic about their future. It
appears that at that time the poor began to set up future
goals to improve their living conditions. However, during that
period there was a more positive environment for planning;
lower rates of unemployment, good training facilities which
included state financed apprenticeship programs, and blue
collar access to power and bargaining positions. This leads
us to think that a generalized improvement of expectations
for the future of the poor is apparently difficult without a
total change of the current strategy of development in the country.
In the period before this change takes place, however, some small
scale improvements could be started (scouting helping poor youth).

In order for poor young people to set realistic life
objectives and work hard to achieve them, a labor training
program could be implemented by scouting for Explorers and
Senior Guides. This training program could be installed to
provide technical training, information about the labor market,
and support for installments/commercialization that would help
to incorporate better conditions into the labor market.

Intellectual unbalances are the disonance a person senses
from reality (physical, social, or insight) and what that
person can understand about this reality. Those unbalances
generate the need for knowledge and control of the reality.
The need for knowledge and control over reality is expressed
through curiosity and the desire for learning, and the desire
to find a model to explain and to act upon the reality.

Some problems in satisfying youth needs derives from intellectual unbalances resulting from teaching methods at schools. Those methods overemphasize memorization as well as the purely descriptive aspects of learning, and fail to provide children with adequate tools for analysis and synthesis.

4.3 Scouting in Chile

· This general background of Chilean youth organizations and a taxonony of the needs of young people has been presented to introduce more important issues of scouting in Chile, including scouting roots, objectives, structures, and coverages.

Scouting was created in Chile by Alcibiades Vicencio in 1909, two years after Baden-Powell created the first scout troop in England. In the mid 1950s, Father Robert Polain organized the Catholic Scout Federation. At the end of the 1960s, some scout members created scouting for the Reform, and in 1974, those three scouting organizations were unified to create the Association of Scouts of Chile. The Girl Scouts was created by Sara Vasquez and Irene Morales in 1913. In the 1950s, the Association of Girl Guides was officially founded, and in 1978, it merged to form a coeducational group which is the present Association of Guides and Scouts of Chile (AGSCH). Today, the AGSCH has international recognition by the World Scout Bureau, however, there are some scouting groups in Chile which, for various reasons are not officially registered in the AGSCH.

Presently, scouting groups in Chile are usually sponsored by some institutions such as schools, parishes, or neighborhood organizations. Scouting in Chile has the following educational objectives:

The scouting member will be able to:

- go beyond the material world searching for the spiritual values of life;

- assume his/her responsibilities in the Chilean society, being loyal to the country under the perspective of the international understanding, and participating in social development by protecting the dignity of each person and the dignity of the ecological environment;

- assume responsibility for his/her personal development by increasing his/her capabilities.

The AGSCH has established that its educational methodology is based on a progressive and permanent self-education. As is written in the official documents, this means:

- Utilizing group training. Group leaders will teach through their individual example. The group also serves to share personal experiences;

- Learning through experience, play activities, and public assistance;

- Using various flexible programs established in the interests and needs of group members;

- Utilizing a personalized curriculum, which given each member an opportunity to establish his/her own set of goals according to individual capabilities, and to achieve their goals with support from leaders and peers. This is called the Progression Plan;

- Frequenting nature and the outdoors to achieve a simple style of life an an adequate equilibrium among the psychical. affective, intellectual, and spiritual aspects of life.

Chilean Scouting has the same branches as the international scouting: Cub Scouts, Brownies, Girl Guides, Boy Scouts, Explorers and Senior Guides. The two latter constitute only one coeducational branch. In Chile, scouting groups are organized by districts. A set of scouting districts within a region of the country constitutes a scouting zone, and the highest authority of the scouting movement is the National Assembly (Asamblea Nacional) constitued by delegates elected by members. This National Assembly meets once annually, and it appoints the National Council for a three year period. That Council consists of 13 members. Among those members are : the National President (an honorary position) the Nacional Commissioner or National Leader who is the highest executive, one Commissioner for each branch, the treasurer commissioner, and the the training commissioner. Each Commissioner is also a department head of the treasury or training department, or a committee head of the Boy Scouts or Girl Guides Committee. Most of the Commissioners are volunteers. There are also zone councils and district councils with organizations structured like the National Scouting Council. The National Assembly also appoints a small group of leaders who have a role of "Honour Court" (Corte de Honor).

In addition to this hierarchical structure, there are offices for special services such as General Secretary, accounting office, international commissioner's office, printing office, and scouting newspaper office. Many of these offices have paid employees on their staffs.

The National Leader has authority to create extra offices, or new committees according to specific needs and funding capabilities. Today, there is an office for scouting for development, a committee for the international ecology project (PANDA), and a committee for studies and projects.

Scouting coverage is compared with total population and ages of scouts in Table II-1 included in the appendix. This table displays scouting coverage by branches, and indicates that, in Chile, there are strong differences in coverage for the different regions. The first and tenth regions have little or no scouting, while the twelfth and Capital Regions have extensive coverage. The branch with the largest coverage is the Boy Scouts, with 7.6 members per 1,000 boys aged 11 through 16. Girl Guides are the second largest branch, with 3.3 members per 1,000 girls aged 11 through 16. Explorers are 1.8 per 1,000 aged 17 to 22, and Senior Guides are less than 1 per 1,000 girls aged 17 to 22.

Compared with international standards, Chilean scouting has a similar coverage to other Latin American countries which estimates 3 scout members per 1,000 young people of scouting age. However, the Chilean standars are included under North American scouting (USA and Canada) which has 148 members per 1,000. European scouting has an estimated coverage of 23 members per 1,000.

III. HYPOTHESES AND METHODOLOGY

1. Antecedents

A summary of previously mentioned information has been incorporated as antecedents in order to facilitate an understanding in the reader concerning the context where the hypotheses and expected results originate.

This study views education as a way of promoting or accelerating a process of development. Four strategies for development have been presented, and each one has an ideal type of human being and type of society it wishes to form. Thus, given these different strategies, it is necessary to be explicit about the kind of person desired, and the kind of society to be built. The strategy called Liberation in the social context was selected to be promoted by this thesis and some development goals were specified.

In Chile, the strategy called "Growth of the Modern Sector" has been implemented by a military junta since the coup d'Etat in 1973. After nine years, the implementation of this strategy has reached what is called the period of stability. Therefore, the purpose of education for development in this thesis has become that of creating awareness for the new strategy of liberation in the social context. The outcomes expected are long-term. In seeking alternatives for this "awareness education" one must utilize the nonformal system of limited access to schooling.

This awareness education is most relevant when applied to youth, who constitute 60% of Chile's total population, because educational action with youth will have a prolonged effect. Educational actions would first be targeted for implementation through youth organizations which already have large youth memberships and are structured to facilitate management of educational programs.

Among Chilean youth organizations, scouting provides an excellent educational vehicle for several reasons:

- it has more members enrolled than other youth organizations;
- values promoted by scouting are coherent with this thesis' model of development.
- scouting is an educational youth organization as well as politically independent, and;
- international and domestic leaders are interested in incorporating new educational activities oriented toward helping poor communities to improve their socioeconomic situation.

Therefore, an in-depth study of scouting in Chile will permit, from the standpoint of this thesis' model of development, conclusions to be reached concerning educational actions which are attractive and applicable to young people. These conclusions will lead to generate educational actions which are more oriented towards development within scouting.

Short-term equity is an important goal in this strategy of development. Consequently, a major effort should be oriented toward poor youth, and knowledge should be developed concerning how poor prople have been successfully incorporated into scouting. It is also necessary to receive youth input defining their needs so that more effective educational activities can be developed.

To increase awareness through scouting concerning this strategy of development, it is necessary to answer the following three sets of questions:

First Set of Questions
- What are the characteristics of scouting today in Chile?
- What are the differences, if any, between groups from different socioeconomic levels?

Second Set of Questions	● What are the most urgent needs for young people and scouting members?
	● What are the preferred activities of scouting members?
	● How do the current activities of scouting interface with member's preferred activities?
Third Set of Questions	● What educational activities which promote the model of development can be introduced into scouting, and how can they be best implemented?

Each set of questions suggests a set of hypotheses as possible answers. Data to test these hypotheses are later organized in Chapters IV, V, and VI.

2. Hypotheses

These questions suggest three sets of possible answers. Some of them are hypotheses logically derived from a theoretical approach. Others are simple statements refering to expected results coming from contexual facts. It will not be difficult for the reader to make the distinction in each case.

First Set of expected results	Main Characteristics of Scouting in Chile
	● A large percent of members of scouting groups are urban and from middle and upper socioeconomic levels.
	● A large percent of the groups are sponsored by schools or the Catholic Church.
	● Presently, scouting remains primarily recreation-oriented. However, there are some community service and community development scouting activities.

Differences Between Groups from Different Socioeconomic Levels

● Geographic locations -- middle or high socioeconomic level groups have their scouting headquarters in buildings owned by sponsoring organizations in more wealthy neighborhoods.

● Middle and high socioeconomic level groups have a larger membership retention rate than low socioeconomic level groups.

● Low socioeconomic level groups are involved more in theoretical than practical activities. For example, they are less involved in camping activities

compared with middle or high socioeconomic level groups.

- Low socioeconomic level groups have more authoritarian patterns and they are more dependent on scouting leaders.

- Leaders in low socioeconomic level groups are less experienced and are more "pastoral" oriented.

Second Set of Hypotheses and expected results

The Most Urgent Needs for Young People and Scouting Members

Basic and/or survival needs are not adequately satisfied for only a very few scouting members. Following satisfaction of basic needs, the following needs are more frequent in rank order; affective, psychological, and intellectual.

Preferred Activities of Scouting Members

Camping and outdoor activities are preferred by scouting members.

Current Activities of Scouting

Camping is the most frequent Chilean scouting activity because the interest in camping is so strong among members. However, youths from high socioeconomic groups tend to camp most frequently. In contrast, youths from low income groups are more critical about the usefulness of current scouting.

Third Set of Hypotheses and expected results

Educational Activities which Promote this Model of Development

It is possible to introduce programs into scouting to increase youth awareness in accordance with the model of development. This will require modifications in scouting, especially among low socioeconomic level groups. These modifications will effect the type of activities and the leaders' capabilities.

For this thesis, socioeconomic level will be linked with the type of job held by the family breadwinner as related to income and culture standards in Chile. (This socioeconomic indicator was also better understood by youth who completed questionnaires used in this thesis.) The ranking of needs used in this hypotheses is derived from the work done by Maslow.[110] It implies that basic needs are those which are required to be met at a minimum level of satisfaction to allow a person to survive.

The possibilities of introducing new programs for development
into scouting will rely on:

- potential program capabilities;
- available resources, and;
- feedback concerning valuable ongoing youth experiences.

3. Methodology

Data was collected to test these hypotheses through mailed
questionnaires, a series of structured interviews, on-site
observations of scouting groups, numerous discussions with
scouting personnel, conferences with the National Leader
and his staff, and in-depth research of available materials
printed by scouting association. Data collected by survey
was initially tested in a pilot sample and then mailed to a
sample of scouting groups in Chile. The questionnaire format
differed for unit leaders and members. (See Appendix B.)
Non-structured interviews were conducted with scouting leaders,
and many of the group leaders within the Metropolitan Region[111]
contributed to the data sample. All leaders involved in
experiences advocating scouting for development were interviewed,
and follow-up site visits were made to their projects to
gather additional data. In addition, the author participated
in some group and association activities, such as meetings,
camping trips, and leadership training sessions. Ongoing
experiences and proposed experiences were extensively discussed
with all leaders involved in the study. A seminar was held to
provide additional information from other experiences which

might be useful to scouting for development. All area youth
organizations were invited to attend.

Research concerning Chilean youth is scarce. Most of the
work has been done on a very local level, but little aggregate
data exists concerning youth values, needs, use of free time,
and activities of school dropouts. Therefore, in order to
obtain information about youth not involved in scouting, it
was necessary to interview 20 leaders and officers of youth
organizations such as the YMCA, the National Recreation and
Sports Bureau, the National Youth Organization, the Institute
for Nutrition, the Narcotics Department, and Church organi-
zations working with low income youth.

Discussion meetings were held with the national leader
and staff members every two weeks to review collected data.
A few months following the initiation of this study, a
permanent committee was formed by the national leader to
provide technical support, consisting of two permanent staff-
members from the office of the National Leader and the author
of this study. This study is partially an outgrowth of the
research and information generated by that committee. In
addition, this committee organized a three year plan for
the model of development, and held the already mentioned seminar
on education, scouting and development. The committee was able to
provide immediate feedback on the information collected, which
was a breakthrough in making timely use of that information
possible.

Data was analyzed for various income levels in order to establish the characteristics of low income scouting. Thus, in addition to quantitative information, this paper includes a number of case studies to provide further researched information concerning introducing educational programs for development within scouting. Guidelines for a three year plan is included later to illustrate how those programs could be implemented in the current Chilean Scouting Association.

4. Sample

This thesis began at the end of 1979, when scouting in Chile had 249 enrolled groups. Three of these groups were atypical, and were not considered for this study; the pilot sample group was also not included. Although a complete scouting group vay have five branches, a group is permitted to have only one branch. For purposes of this thesis, a scouting group is considered as a sample unit regardless of the number of branch units.

In order to achieve a stratified sample representative of of Chilean scouting according to geographical distribution, the country was divided into nine zones, as suggested by the national leader. For each of these geographical zones, the required number of groups was determined considering a 5% sampling error. The sample was increased by 40% in order to maintain representation in spite of group attrition.

Questionnaires were mailed to 49 groups, and 27 replies were received. Two groups indicated that it was not possible to apply the questionnaires to its members, no response was

received from the north of Chile, and few were received from the south and Valparaiso (two groups answered in each one). Satisfactory answers were received from the Metropolitan Region which included three scouting zones and 46% of the total scouting population in Chile. The Central and the Concepcion zones were proportionally statistically represent- ative, but only three groups in each zone responded to the questionnaire. Some explanations for the lack of response to the questionnaire included the following:

- This kind of questionnaire is unusual in Chilean scouting.

- The questionnaires were sent close to the school holidays (December 15 - March 15 in the southern hemisphere). The questionnaires were mailed in early December in the capital's zone, and in April for the other zones. Because of project timing, it was not possible to delay questionnaires further. Most group leaders applied the questionnaire within their groups in April 1980. However, April is a month of reorganizing and planning annual activities, and is also a period of staff turnover for leaders.

- There are some differences in membership figures between April 1980 and 1979 due to attrition and changes of sponsor institutions.

- There are few available resources for visiting groups outside the capital area, and thus establishing a personal commitment with groups and leaders. This accounts for a number of differences between the answers from the Metropolitan Region groups and other groups.

Therefore, 40% of "over dimension" was not adequate to produce a representative sample of scouting in Chile despite the fact that this percentage was above the recommendation of National Scouting Leaders to achieve satisfactory results. However, the sample is representative of 2/3 of the zones,

particularly those zones where scouting is more developed,
such as the capital area, where there is a greater variety
of scouting. In addition, because no previous data are
available for the rest of the country, any gathered information
is interesting to analyze, regardless of its lack of represent-
ation. Moreover, there are few differences in results
among zones. Therefore, aggregate data could also be considered
as a good estimation concerning current scouting groups in
Chile.

Within each group, the number of member answers is less
than the number of officially enrolled members. The percentage
of the members' answers within those groups which sent back
questionnaires were 64.1% of Explorers, 72.1% of Boy Scouts,
and 61.4% of Girl Guides. It is important to note that many
questionnaires were applied during group meetings when some
members were absent, and follow-up by leaders did not produce
sufficient results. A total of 702 member questionnaires were
processed from 93 Explorers, 486 Boy Scouts, and 123 Girl Guides.
Questionnaires were also received from 24 group leaders and
39 from unit leaders. (See Table III-1.)

5. Questionnaires

Draft questions were first developed from the hypotheses,
and then revised by social scientists and scout leaders.
The questionnaire was field tested in a pilot group from the
lower middle class. The Member Questionnaire had 26 questions,
ten of which were open-ended and grouped by individual data,
family data, opinions concerning personal needs, personal history

within scouting, and opinions about scouting activities and scouting leaders. The Leader Questionnaire had two parts. Part one consisted of 15 questions on personal data, and 10 questions relating to the role of scouting leader. Part two consisted of 12 questions concerning activities to be answered by the leader together with his/her staff. Group leaders received four additional queries requesting information about the group and its sponsor organization. Group leaders were responsible for the administration of the questionnaires to all branches of their groups. Each group leader received a set of instructions for distribution the questionnaires which included the following:

- Leaders should prefer enrolled members when there are fewer questionnaires than membership on hand.

- Members are not permitted to take the questionnaire home.

- All questionnaires must be submitted before the specified deadline date.

Data which was gathered was processed by hand due to a lack of resources.

1. Characteristics of the Scouting Groups

1.1 Average Socioeconomic Level of the Groups

In Chile, it is possible to use the father's job as an indicator of the family's socioeconomic level. According to Berrios, Jaque and Ruiz[113] it is posible to rank jobs in seven categories, each of which can be associated with a corresponding score. Thus, a job category of "1" represents a president of a large enterprise, while a category of "7" is an unskilled blue collar worker. Through utilizing questionnaire scores of members' fathers occupations, an average score was calculated for each scouting group to estimate that group's average socioeconomic level.

Data indicates that 34.6% of the groups have an average score of 3.0 points or less; indicating high socioeconomic average level groups. Similar percentages of scouting groups are between 3.1 and 4.9 points (middle socioeconomic level groups), while 30.8% of the groups have an average score of 5.0 or more (low socioeconomic groups).

1.2 Constitution of the Scouting Groups

As previously mentioned, Boy Scouts and Girl Guides are grouped into only one coeducational association. The movement is divided according to sex and age across all branches. Only branches for older members are considered here. (Boy Scouts, Girl Guides, and Explorers or Senior Guides; Explorers and Senior Guides constitute only one coeducational branch.) Each scouting group can be constituted by one or more units in

these three branches. However, data shows that only 27% of the groups have members in these three branches; 46% have units in two branches; and 27% have units in only one branch. Scout troops are the most frequent units, and are included in 96% groups. However, only 50% of the groups have Explorers Communities or Girl Guide Troops. (See Table IV-1.) It is of note that non-coeducational schools have coeducational scouting units which is a reflection of an openness of these sponsoring schools. Data indicates that it is important to complete scouting groups with the whole set of possible branch units.

1.3 Registration

Group registration has had a large variation. During the 1970s, 707 different groups registered with a maximum of 408 groups registered in 1974, and declining to 249 groups officially registered in 1979. The variation in registration can be explained as follows:

- In 1974, scouting united the three organizations. Each one could attempt to increase group membership to have more influence in the mergins Scouting Association. Some of these groups were short-lived, and either merged with other groups or continued without later official registration.

- Rotation of the group registration could be important, as some groups disbanded at the end of the year, took another sponsoring organization, or changed their name.

- Group registration requires payment of yearly membership dues; an additional burden for poor groups who must petition an application for free registration.

Some alternatives which can improve registration standards are:

- Separate registration from the annual fee;
- Establish a sliding-fee scale registration according to economic level of the groups;
- Increase fund raising campaigns by individual and group scouting members.

1.4 Starting a Group

The start-up group process is similar for all socioeconomic levels. Approximately 30% of the groups start because of former leader initiative, and others want to extend scouting to more young people (for example, 11% of the leaders are religiously or pastorally motivated to create scouting groups). Some groups are started by parents and teachers who are interested in a complementary education for children. Only 15% of the groups were youth initiated, and many of these were already existing groups who wanted a clearer meaning to their activities. This last situation indicates that it is possible for boys and girls to self-organize according to their own interests. However, the low frequency of youth-intiated groups indicates that the Scouting Association lacks the adequate mechanisms to promote them, and that Chilean young people might lack sufficient initiative and self-organization capabilities.

1.5 Location

All Chilean scouting groups are urban; rural scouting and sea-scouting groups are nonexistent. This is because 76% of Chile's population live in urban areas, with 40% of the total

population living in the five larger cities. Consequently, most scouting members reside in these five cities. The absence of scouting in rural areas should be taken into serious consideration in future planning because there are few activities ouside of work for youth in these areas which have more high, and early dropout rates.

1.6 Longevity of the Groups

Analyzed data indicates that 33% of the scouting groups were created in the early 1970s during the time that discussions began concerning merging scouting into one Chilean Association. On the other hand, 26% of the groups are much older, implying that the longevity of Chilean scouting averages 13 years. Although group creation declined in the late 1970s, branch units with groups expanded. This implies that following the merger, groups which came under the jurisdication of the new association tended to become more established and experienced an "inner expansion." Girl Guides should be considered separately because they later merged with Boy Scouts in 1978 and were completely restructured. Consequently, Girl Guide units have an average longevity of only three years.

In analyzing group longevity according to average socioeconomic levels, it is clear that lower income groups were created after 1970. Two possible explanations can be offered:

- because of political change in the country, the leaders became more aware about extending scouting among poorer people;
- the lower socioeconomic level groups have a lower membership retention rate than the upper socioeconomic groups.

1.7 Sponsoring Institutions of Scouting Groups

The Catholic Church is the most important supporting institution of scouting in Chile. A total of 81% of scouting groups are associated with the Church, 45% of them with parishes and 36% with Catholic schools. This is due to the following factors:

- 90% of Chilean people are Catholic;
- the Catholic Church has seen scouting as a good alternative to promote its values;
- it is easier to find Catholic adults than other adults to work as volunteers with youth and;
- the Church has resources of people, organizations, and facilities to offer scouting activities.

Current Chilean scouting has not been successful in obtaining sponsorship from other organizations such as unions, rural cooperatives, and neighborhood organizations. This should be taken into account if scouting leaders wish to plan an extension of the movement in rural Chile.

In Santiago, 52% of scouting groups are sponsored by parishes, while in the provinces 55% are sponsored by schools. There is an evident association between the socioeconomic level of the group and the sponsoring institutions. Scouting groups from high socioeconomic levels are more frequently sponsored by schools (88%) and lower socioeconomic level groups are usually sponsored by parished or other institutions (67% of moddle socioeconomic level groups and 78% of low income groups). However, there are no differences in schooling rates of members from the groups sponsored by schools and groups sponsored by other institutions. In both cases, grades are according to the

normal age standards of the country (see Table V-2). Also,
although no regulations exist specifying formal relationships
between scouting groups and sponsoring institutions in Chile,
most institutions usually provide some kind of support for
scouting activities. Data generated by the questionnaire
indicated the following:

- Building Space -- 80% of the group leaders mention
  the "scouting room" as the most frequent
  contribution from the sponsoring insitutions. It
  seems that scouting leaders have given high
  importance to the scouting room than necessary.
  For example, some scouting groups were discontinued
  because they lacked building space for meetings or
  storage. It should not be necessary to have building
  space to maintain an active scouting group, nor
  is exclusive building space for scouts always
  possible, especially in poor neighborhoods.
  Future group leaders should be trained to run a
  scouting group efficiently without need of building
  space.

- Adult Leaders -- some schools hire teachers to
  handle scouting as an extra-curricular school
  program activity. This situation will probably
  occur more frequently in the near future because
  public schools now have funding from the Concurso
  Polla Gol. This situation will require clarifications
  because scouting is a voluntary organizations and
  is not permitted to distribute salaries except to
  permanent staff. A possible solution for teacher/
  leaders is to organize activities within schools
  which can also benefit scouting members, such as
  environmental science, first aid, etc. Specific
  activities for the scouting group should be done
  on a voluntary basis.

- Food for Camping -- a few sponsoring institutions (20%)
  provide food for camping trips and some provide
  financial support (13%). However, others (6%)
  provide very little or no support for scouting
  groups.

The diversity of relationships and the various kinds of support
that sponsoring institutions provide for scouting make it
necessary to establish minimal regulations for the future.

1.8 Scouting Costs and Financing

Scouting is often criticized because poor people do not
have the necessary money to finance uniforms and camping
equipment, and parents are asked to supply most of the
necessary funds. In evaluating the actual per member cost of
scouting, costs of volunteer leaders, rental of scouting
rooms, camping equipment depreciation, and other items
necessary for consideration, it is impossible to arrive at
an accurate estimate because no adequate data exists. Many
groups do not keep records or use efficient budget controls.
Some groups ask members for weekly payments ($.25 - $.75)
to help raise money for summer camping. Groups from higher
socioeconomic levels usually ask parents for annual membership
payments to cover regular expenditures, and additional
money as needed to finance camping or specific activities.

In addition to parental support, 77% of the groups initiate
fund raising campaigns, and 29% solicit funds from sponsoring
insitutions. Among the most frequent member activities fund
raisers are bingo and films (30%) and selling bottles and
newspapers (20%). Although adequate information concerning
the percentage of total budget financed by these methods is
minimal, it can be estimated that it approaches less than 30%
of the operating budget. However, there are some innovative
member initiatives. For example, in Santiago a group from a
low income neighborhoos were able to balance their group
budget by selling jam and hand crafts without parental support.
(More information about this group is provided later in this
paper as a case study.)

It seems that little has been done to explore alternative financing for scouting for low income youth other than sales activities. For instance, private service activities such as cleaning, home repairs, and art crafts have been done on a limited scale. Moreover, financed public services such as woodworking, daycare helpers, public or school recreation event organizers have not yet been initiated. These public services will be more possible today because Mayors have available state funds to begin these types of activities within their cities, and scouting members provide an available labor pool to provide service, either for-profit or as volunteers.

With the possibility that scouting could become financially self-sufficient and that poor members could receive financial support, it will be necessary to organize a special office within scouting. This office could depend on the current department of Scouting for Development and could create an information resource center including employment office, workshops, distribution networks, and other programs. Financial self-sufficiency is not menat to transform the scouting movement into a large commercial enterprise, but merely to provide an alternative for low income people without financial resources to enter scouting.

1.9 Educational Goals fo the Scouting Groups

Educational goals as formulated by group leaders are diverse. Approximately 44% of educational goals are oriented towards personal development (providing integrated education and counseling), 26% of the goals are oriented towards youth and

adult social roles (becoming a good parent or good citizen),
and only 11% are formulated specifically towards religiously
oriented goals despite the large number of Catholic groups.

There was no difference in goals between groups sponsored
by schools and groups sponsored by parishes and other
institutions. We could expect to find more goals oriented
towards social roles for Explorer communities, as that branch
should be more involved with socially oriented activities. However,
troop leaders placed more emphasis on goals oriented for the social
role of members in society. In the higher socioeconomic level
groups, the objectives oriented towards the social role
are more frequent than in the lower income groups.

1.10 Participation of Members and Their Parents in Group
    Management

Since its creation, scouting has been based on the
philosophy that young people organize themselves with the
support of adults, and this has become part of the scouting
method. Thus, democratic participation of members is very
important in group management. In Chile, despite a lack of
democratic participation, 54% of the scouting groups promote
some kind of participation of the members in programming their
activities. Member participation is indirect because the patrol
leaders provide input from members at council meetings where
programs planning decisions are made. Sometimes, more direct
member participation is encouraged. For example, unit leaders
might ask members for ideas and plan the program jointly with

those members, or members themselves might discuss and decide on the program. This last alternative is done in only 5% of the groups. There is more direct participation (11%) in the high socioeconomic level groups.

Within Boy Scout Troops and Girl Guide Troops, member participation in planning programming activities for the year is mostly done indirectly through partol leaders. However, 30% of Explorer and Senior Guide Communities have direct participation of members in programming activities, but none of these units are from low socioeconomic level groups.

If we assume that the family exerts a strong influence on the education of their children, and that parental support is a necessary ingredient in the smooth running of the scouing movement, it would be valuable to increase parent involvement as collaborators in scouting groups. Today 17% of the groups do not have any parental involvement, despite scouting association written communications with parents through registered member materials, and mailing to parents of the scouting newspaper. In 50% of the scouting groups, there are parent committees which assist scouting leaders; 7% have parent delegates on the Group Council, and 3% of the groups have periodical meetings with the parents of the members. Other groups have occasional parent activities. There is less participation of the parents in the school-sponsored groups (70%) than in the groups sponsored by parished and other institutions (89%). However, the groups sponsored by schools have more permanent participation, probably because schools in

Chile, especially private schools, require more commitment of parents with the school organization. There is more participation of the parents from low socioeconomic level groups (87%) but the participation of higher socioeconomic level groups is better organized, probably because they are more frequently sponsored by schools.

1.11 Relationships between Leaders and Members

According to current scouting regulations, patrol leaders should be elected by the patrol members, and then have their position confirmed by the Council of Leaders of that branch unit. However, most often it is the unit leader who proposes to the council that a person be selected as a patrol leader without input from patrol members.

As previously discussed, all kind of military patterns of authority should be avoided within scouting, and a friendly relationship between leaders and members should be maintained to achieve good educational results. That is because method-ology is child-centered and based on a personalized education.

In general, members and leaders establish good relationships. Only 11% of Boy Scouts experience trouble with their patrol leaders, and most often those problems are results of the authoritarianism. These troubles are slightly more frequent among higher socioeconomic level groups. Generally, 2% of Boy Scouts have some problems with the troop leaders, although 22% have little direct contact with troop leaders because of the patrol system. Thus, one adult educator can work with several

members by using the patrol leaders as collaborators. Of the Girl Guides, 23% consider their patrol leaders as their "best friend" and less than 17% experience problems. Problems are more frequent among lower socioeconomic level groups. Relationships between members and troop leaders are very similar to the Boy Scouts, where only 2% have some trouble, but 29% consider that they have little direct contact with troop leaders. Only 3% of Explorers and Senior Guides have some trouble with community leaders, and 15% of them consider the community leaders as friends. Similar to the Boy Scouts and Girl Guides, 26% of Explorers and Senior Guides have little direct contact with unit leaders. Troubles are more frequent among higher socioeconomic level groups.

2.   Characteristics of Scouting Leaders

2.1 Personal Data

Half of the group leaders also hold positions as leaders of a branch unit within the group. This frequently implies a deterioration in one of their positions as well as a shortage in adult leaders involved in scouting. Scouting leaders are relatively young; 35% of them are between the ages of 18 and 23, and only 6% are above 50 years old. The minimum age to become a scouting leader is 18 years old. Group leaders are always males, except in those groups with only female members. Data displays the difficulties of older people to become involved in scouting because of work and family responsibilities.

Group leaders are generally older than unit leaders. In addition, higher socioeconomic level groups have older leaders because these groups are most frequently sponsored by schools, with scouting leader positions filled by teachers, nuns, or priests. Most scouting leaders (81%) are single, but among Girl Guide Leaders, a greater proportion are married (62%). In spite of the fact that the majority of leaders are young people, the rate of single leaders is higher than the domestic standards for single people of their age (only 6% of leaders under 29 years old and 37% of them over 30 years old are married). This might suggest that scouting leaders (priests, nuns, teachers, and lay people) postpone their personal interests to work with young people. On the other hand, that also suggests the difficulties of older and married people to continue their work with scouting. Due to the apparent shortage of trained leaders, it might provide a partial solution for those experienced leaders to work in specific leader positions for a few hours per week.

Of scouting leaders, 98% are Catholic, and 86% are active members of the Catholic Church. These percentage are higher than those for the nation as a whole. Scouting leaders are well-educated; 33% have four years or more of university study, and 68% have completed secondary school. Understandably, leaders from high socioeconomic level groups have completed higher levels of academic study (59%) than leaders from lower socioeconomic level groups.

There are more leaders who hold full-time jobs than leaders who are students. Among group leaders, 71% work full-time, while among Girl Guide leaders 62% are students. Leaders from high socioeconomic level groups are usually working professionals or people with university training, or attending university (27%). Leaders from low socioeconomic level groups are frequently students (71%); some of them are in secondary level.

Of the total leaders, 14% study education at the university, 50% work as teachers or school officers, and 39% are white collar workers. Most scouting leaders are from middle class backgrounds. Only 5% of scouting leaders come from blue collar working families, and a similar percent come from high income families. In addition to their regular work or study activities, 50% of scouting leaders participate as volunteers in other organizations , most often through the Catholic Church (45%).

Leaders tend to hold scouting positions because they like leadership involvement with youth (41%), while others participate as part of their vocation as educators, or to extend the scouting concept. In summarizing qualities of scouting leaders, it can be established that they are idealistic, generous, motivated to help other people, and with a strong commitment to their responsibilities.

2.2 Experience of Leaders

Alternatives related to leadership training include pedagogical studies outside of scouting, and regular training courses within scouting. Some leaders (42%) have had formal education studies, most often as secondary teachers. (Primary teachers usually work with Cub Scouts and Brownies who are not considered within the scope of this study.) Leaders from high socioeconomic level groups have more formal education than leaders from low income groups (72%). This situation might suggest the necessity to concentrate more effort in training leaders from low income groups.

The Scouting Association in Chile has a well-organized training system, and usually trains in excess of 1,000 leaders per year. In addition, the association requires leaders to take a three level course and to successfully pass at least the first level to become a scouting leader. In addition, complementary courses are offered for each scouting branch in the time lapses between filling course requirements for the three levels. Each course level includes the following:

- intensive three day seminar;
- tutorial work over four or more months (depending on the level);
- additional project work at the third level; and;
- follow-up teaching courses for leaders who want to be involved as supervisors on the training staff.

Data indicates that the training system has been successful, as 92% of the leaders complete at least minimum level course level requirements, and 22% complete the third level. However, Girl Guide leaders complete less course work than other branches. This is probably due to the relatively recent merger with male branches, and a subsequent reorganization of leader training. Leaders from groups with high socioeconomic levels usually have obtained higher course level (29% achieve 3rd level) than leaders from low socioeconoic level groups (11% achieve 3rd level). This difference can be partially explained because leaders from low income level groups are younger.

There are no differences in achieved course levels between leaders from Santiago and from the provinces. Questionnaires indicated that only 5% of the leaders felt that courses were irrelevant, 26% felt courses were beneficial and suggested improvements, and 36% indicated that courses were extremely helpful.

In addition to course work, 73% of the leaders are interested in improving their capabilities by pursuing extra courses or outside readings, mostly in the field of education and psychology (29%) or pertaining to scouting (22%). Most scouting leaders (80%) were previously scout members, at least 50% in excess of five years. Among Girl Guide leaders, 50% have had previous experience as members. Leaders who have come directly into scouting without member experience have proven successful in getting adults from outside the movement involved in scouting.

This information may be important in future planning to extend the scouting movement.

Scouting leaders provide service for an average of 4 1/2 years. However, among unit branches 88% of Girl Guide leaders and 48% of the Boy Scout leaders work less than two years as scouting leaders. On the other hand, group leaders usually have more experience with 67% averaging more than seven years, and 37% averaging more than nine years. As expected, this presents a coherence between age and experience of leaders. In summary:

- Girl Guide leaders were incorporated into scouting as adults, probably after merging male and female branches;
- Boy Scout leaders are former members who became leaders when they were in the later grades of secondary school or beginning their university studies;
- Group leaders are the oldest and most experienced people within scouting.

Leaders work on scouting activities approximately eight hours per week. Group leaders work slightly longer hours, probably because several group leaders hold more than one position. Leaders from groups sponsored by schools work less hours than leaders from groups sponsored by parishes and other institutions. This is probably because schools have better organized youths, and therefore, it is easier to perform the leadership job.

Current leaders probably could reduce the time they spend on scouting if they delegated more responsibilities to patrol leaders and members, and/or if they asked former leaders for assistance. In that event, it would be necessary to equip leaders with cooperative management skills.

2.3   Reluctance to Change

Traditional scouting has strong roots among leaders, most of which have received training under rigid rules, and are not accepting of new efforts to introduce flexibility. Several of these leaders are cognizant of members' problems. However, they continue to seek solutions within scouting instead of reaching outside the movement. They could be characterized by the following:

- They usually are not very knowledgeable about Chilean youth at the macro level.
- They usually do not conceptualize their role as youth educators, but rather as scouting educators.
- It is difficult for several group leaders to work together with other youth movements.

Moreover, because of volunteer leadership it is necessary to proceed slowly and carefully introduce changes in order to not create resistance. However, because of the openness of national leaders, the values promoted by scouting, and the religious background of leaders, it is possible to promote attitudinal change and activities coherent with scouting and christian values. For example:

- participation in a three-year plan;
- seminar on scouting and development;
- diffusion on community development experiences within scouting -- introduced in 1981 and successful in increasing an openness for innovation among leaders.

3. Characteristics of Scouting Members

3.1 Personal Data of Members

Over 80% of Boy Scouts and Girl Guides are between ages 12 and 15. Most Explorers and Senior Guides (74%) are aged 16 through 21, and 8% are above 21 years old. It is of note that men, especially non-students, enroll in the Chilean army at age 18 for one year's service.

As mentioned previously, almost all scouting members except a few Explorers are students. Moreover, their grade levels are appropriate for their ages according to domestic patterns for urban areas. (See Table IV-2.) This suggests that the scouting movement is not a recipient of school dropouts or those who delay schooling who might be in need of scouting services.

Some possible resasons for scouting members being good students might be the following:

- Parents see scouting as more of a recreational than an educational activity. Therefore, they only allow their children to remain involved with scouting if the children maintain good academic performance.
- Scouting encourages members to become more responsible with their studies and helps them to increase their self-esteem.

Only 5% of Boy Scouts are in secondary school, and the majority are concentrated between 7th and 8th grades of primary education. Of Girl Guides, 69% are between the 7th grade of primary and the first grade of secondary education. Over 90% of Boy Scouts and Girl Guides have good academic performance records.

Most (89%) explorers and Senior Guides have achieved secondary school levels, while only 5% have university or completed secondary studies. However, a small group (6%) have only completed primary education.[114] The latter group are from low income or low to middle class families, which shows that it is possible for the scouting movement to recruit talented young people and to provide different program activities which meet their needs (i.e., to help prepare young people to enter the labor market). Some members (16%) came into scouting as Explorers or Senior Guides without previous experience as Boy Scouts or Girl Guides. although all of them entered with a secondary school education.

Occasionally scouting members participate in activities other then their studies or work; 50% of Boy Scouts are involved in additional activities. Most of them (33%) participate in sport activities, mainly those boys who belong to groups sponsored by schools. Girl Guides also participate in sports (28%) and artistic activities (14%). However, Explorers and Senior Guides are only minimally involved in additional activities (5%) which involve sports.

3.2 Some Data About the Family of the Members

Documentation of data on the families of the members is important, not only because parents are involved in scouting, but also for educational purposes, because the family environment in Chile strongly influences children's behavior. Although divorce is not legal in Chile, the number of separated couples

has increased. As a result, it is necessary to provide special care for children of separated parents who might otherwise be provided a type of home environment in a scouting patrol. Thus, it is not only important to work with these children, but it is also important to utilize the scouting structure to implement programs which are oriented to support the family as a social institution.

Data collected for this study indicates that 15% of scouting members live in a one-parent family, and approximately 10% of them have separated parents.[115] This is relatively common across all socioeconomic groups.

As previously mentioned, the jobs of fathers of the members were used as a socioeconomic indicator of the scouting groups. Among the fathers of Boy Scouts who are presently employed, 26% are top managers and professionals, 66% are technicians and skilled blue collar workers, 8% are unskilled blue collar workers, and 4% are unemployed. Mothers of Boy Scouts usually do domestic work (66%). Other mothers work in middle rank positions such as primary teachers and secretaries (19%) or in specialized blue collar jobs (5%). A small percent are employed as professionals or as unskilled workers. Mothers from low income families are more frequently involved in domestic work.

Fathers of Girl Guides are concentrated among technical and skilled blue collar jobs (67%). An additional 23% of the fathers are professionals and top managers, 10% are unskilled blue collar workers, and 1% are unemployed. A large portion (76%) of the mothers of Girl Guides do domestic work, and some work as middle rank employees (14%).

While 74% of the fathers of Explorers and Senior Guides
are presently working as technicians and skilled blue collar
workers, and another 21% are top managers and professionals, 5%
are unskilled blue collar workers, and 6% are unemployed.
In these families, 64% of the mothers are employed doing
domestic work.

A comparison of data with job distribution in Chile is
presented in Table IV-3. This clearly shows that fathers of
scouting members are more frequently top managers and professionals,
and are less frequently employed as unskilled blue collar
workers. Moreover, rates of unemployment are lower among
fathers of scouting members when compared to the national
10% unemployment rate. This data indicates that scouting is
biased toward middle and upper classes Chilean families.

3.3 Length of Stay and Progress of Members Within Scouting

Boy Scouts and Girl Guides provide service within their
branch for an average of two years. This average is adequate
considering that the maximum period of service is four years.
Boy Scouts from low income groups remain an average of 25.8
months, while those from high socioeconomic levels remain an
average of 24.5 months. However, scouts from school sponsored
groups remain 42 months; while parish-sponsored groups remained
only 21 months. Girl Guides have similar patterns whatever
their socioeconomic level or sponsored institution.

It is important to note that there is a high dropout
rate of Boy Scouts and Girl Guides during the first two years,
(40% of the Boy Scouts dropout the first year, 21% in the
second, and 15% in the third.) These figures are the same across
the different socioeconomic levels. High attrition rate after
the first year is common among youth movements. However, some
additional causes might effect dropouts in scouting:

- Children join scouting while in a critical
  period of adolescence (aged 13-14);

- Many students graduate from primary level and
  pursue secondary education. (Academic performance
  in secondary school is competitive for students
  who aspire to attend university in Chile.)

This situation suggests that additional branches with a different
approach to programming and youth activities might be considered
between Boy Scouts or Girl Guides, and Explorers or Senior
Guides.

Explorers and Senior Guides can stay within scouting for
six or seven years, starting at age 16. However, only 25%
have remained longer than 3 1/2 years, and 56% remain 2 1/2
years or less. Dropouts from Explorer and Senior Guide groups
can probably be explained by the incorporation of secondary
students into the university; usually the first grade of the
university is academically difficult for students. Another
reason is that the army recruits 18 year old males.

As mentioned before, the scouting promise implies a
commitment of the member to the values promoted by the scouting
movement. To date, 50% of the Boy Scouts and Girl Guides have

not taken their promise due to differences between the group leaders concerning the promise. Some leaders consider the promise to be a starting point which should be promoted and taken as quickly as possible. Other leaders consider the promise to be the culmination of a long process and should be postponed until the member is fully ready. This situation necessitates a clarification of the promise from the national leaders.

Explorers and Senior Guides also take a promise, which for some, implies a renewal of their original promise as Boy Scouts or Girl Guides. Over 77% have taken their promise, usually when initially joining the Explorer or Girl Guide groups. Within Chilean scouting, there is a personalized curriculum by which each member makes his/her own "Progression Plan." This plan assumes that leaders and patrol fellows help the member to progress through each stage of his/her plan. However, often the leaders lack the necessary flexibility for individualized education. They fail to consider differences in education or culture of the members. Thus, instead of being "helpers" the leaders at times become "controllers." This is reflected in the small number of members who reach the higher stages of their Progression Plans.

For Boy Scouts, the Progression Plan has three stages: Hawk Scout, Eagle Scout and Condor Scout. These stages include physical strength, camping skills, and historical knowledge about Chile and scouting. It is assumed that leaders will adapt

available written materials to reality of their group. In total, 41% of Boy Scouts have not reached any stage in their plans, and only 22% have attained the eagle stage.

Girl Guides also have three stages in their progression plan; Daybreak Clover Guide, Dawning Clover Guide, and Light Clover Guide. (Clover is the international symbol of the guides.) Today, 51% of the Girl Guides have not achieved any stage in their progression plans.

Explorers and Senior Guides also have three stages; Alfa (10% of the membership), Walker (35%) and Explorer or Senior Guide (20%). At the conclusion of the third stage, the members serve the community and become incorporated as adults into the society. This is considered the last stage of scouting, which is called the Scouting Citizen. However, 16% of the Explorers and Senior Guides are not in any stage of their progression plans.

In addition to progression plans, there are merit badges, which are certifications of technical skills for scouting members who achieve additional expertise in first aid, photography, knotying, etc. There is a genuine problem concerning scouting merit badges in Chile, as 80% of the Boy Scouts, 83% of the Girl Guides and 88% of the Exploreres and Senior Guides do not have any merit badges at all. The few scouting members with badges have received them through camping activities. Thus, badges reflect expertise rather than applicable use in daily living. Since little has been done to promote merit badges,

it is a good time to establish some criteria:

- it would be better to create families of badges instead of specific badges;
- badges could be created for providing public services, home services, or labor training.

A new trend in merit badges would imply expanding the administrative structure to provide new services such as preparing learning materials and training course supervisors.

In addition to the merit badges, patrols have specific roles such as patrol first leader, second leader, guardian of the treasure (treasurer), guardian of the legend (secretary), and camping equipment keeper. Except for patrol leaders, few troops have well defined roles. Consequently, it is necessary for domestic leaders to adopt these roles because they educate children to assume responsibilities for their patrol fellows.

V. NEEDS AND PREFERRED ACTIVITIES OF THE MEMBERS

One of the most important aspects of the scouting curriculum
is that it is based on the needs and interests of young people.
As mentioned before, the goal of its founder was to organize
young people in small groups to play and engage in the
activities of their choice, while maintaining a commitment
to personal development and community service. For this
reason, it is interesting to identify and examine the most
urgent needs of scouting members and their preferred activities.

1. Opinions About the Scouting Members Needs

As previously stated, people are not necessarily conscious
of their own needs, but instead are aware of the causes,
consequences, or problems derived from the needs themselves.
Therefore, the following information summarizes the opinions
of leaders and members concerning what they consider to be
their urgent needs (see table V-1). These opinions were organized
using the framework derived from Maslow[116] and previously stated
in this thesis.

A few scouting members (2.5%) find it difficult to satisfy
their minimum basic needs. However, because of the present
model of development, it is impossible for blue collar and
middle class families to maintain current living standards
because real salaries have been reduced by approximately 50%
since 1972.[117] Consequently, balancing the monthly family budget
is becoming an increasingly serious problem.

Of the leaders, 21% mention family economic stability
as an urgent need of members. However, that problem is more
frequently mentioned among leaders from middle socioeconomic
level groups (22%) than leaders from low socioeconomic level
groups (19%). Of Boy Scouts, 25% mentioned family economic
stability as an important needs. Boys from low socioeconomic
level mentioned this more frequently (35%) than those from
middle (28%) or high (10%) socioeconomic levels. Consequently,
23% of the Boy Scouts stated that they have difficulty paying
membership dues. These difficulties were reported more
frequently among scouts from zones where poorer members live
(Chacabuco 46%, and Maipo 30%).

Of the Girl Guides, 10% mentioned that family economic
stability was an urgent needs. This percentage was higher (18%)
for those from blue collar families; 20% of the Girl Guides
stated that they had problems paying their membership dues.
Among Explorers and Senior Guides, 22% mentioned that economic
stability is an urgent need, and 38% reported difficulties
in paying membership dues.

Needs derived from affective unbalances are most important
for scouting members; 43% of the members indicated explicitly that
some of their affective needs were most urgent. However, leaders
apparently have little concern about these needs, as only 6%
mentioned affective needs. The most frequent problem
that members have in satisfying affective needs are related
to family troubles, to desires to establish more friendships,

and with needs to improve communications with peers. Females, and members from low socioeconomic levels stated that these problems were more severe.

Needs derived from psychological unbalances are very important for scouting leaders; 73% of leaders mentioned them. However, those needs did not appear important for members, as only 5% considered them to be urgent needs. Leaders expressed concern about formation of personality and character in members (43%). Leaders felt that members require a structured orientation taught from the leaders' perspective about right and wrong approaches to citizen life. Leaders are also concerned (30%) about how young people use their free time. They believe that youths should be more involved in recreation, sports, cultural activities, and hobbies, and less involved in watching television and loitering with friends on street corners. Leaders feel that recreation and sports activities are useful for members' character formation. Leaders feel that some activities are detrimental to character formation, such as loitering on on corners and in streets, which encourages young people to experiment with drugs, alcohol, and sex. However, a few leaders mentioned the lack of job possibilities for youth, and the difficulties of providing optimistic future perspectives for youth, especially those in the streets. The reality is that recreation probably "covers a hole" but does not solve the actual problem. No members or leaders considered the needs derived from intellectual unbalances as urgent.

If we assume that there is a ranked scale from basic to affective, psychological and to intellectual needs, we can establish that there is a rationale behind the opinion of the members concerning their needs. Once the basic needs are satisfied (as most members have already done) the next concerns are for affective needs, and little concern is expressed for psychological needs, and no concern is expressed for intellectual needs. However, leaders do not have the same rationale. (We can establish that Chilean schools have exactly the opposite scale for their teaching priorities.) This indicates that there is a poor match between perceptions of leaders and perceptions of members concerning needs.

Of scouting members, 16% explicitly stated that they do not have any urgent needs. Most of these responses were from upper and middle socioeconomic levels. Most scouting members do not know how to satisfy their needs. Among Boy Scouts, 53% do not know how to improve satisfaction of their needs, 5% advocate massive social change, and 42% propose individual action including helping to increase family income, helping the family to improve their relationship, and learning how to better communicate with and understand their peers. Girl Guides experience a similar situation which proposes individual change (42%) such as spending more time with their parents, making an effort to overcome shyness, and making new friends. Approx- imately 33% of the Girl Guides suggested promoting social change. Only 4% of Explorers and Senior Guides suggested social changes

to satisfy their needs. Others suggest individual actions such as collaboration to improve family relationships and make more friends.

2. Opinions About Members Activities

To be consistent with the scouting method, it is necessary to look at the current activities of different branch units and determine if they match with the preferred activities of members.

2.1 Most Frequent Activities

Leaders indicate that camping and one-day-trips are the most frequent activity (42%), meetings are the second (31%), and games are third (13%). Shows, workshops, and participation in sponsoring institution activities are less frequent. Most Boy Scouts indicated that camping and field trips are the most frequent activities. However, these activities are more frequent among upper socioeconomic level troops and groups sponsored by schools. Approximately 50% of troops from upper socioeconomic levels take at least seven one-day or weekend trips, and three camping trips during the year, while low income troops only take three one-day or weekend trips and one camping trip per year. Innovative scouting activities, such as workshops, city-research-games, or projects are also done occasionally by scout troops, but occur more frequently among lower socioeconomic level troops.

Girl Guides go on camping trips only twice a year. Only 20% of Guide troops have more than seven trips per year, and 40% have three trips or less. This tendency is similar across all socioeconomic levels. Meetings are more frequent than campings for Explorer and Senior Guides. The one-day trips or weekend campings are only frequent among high socioeconomic level units. Usually, Explorers and Senior Guides go camping twice a year. Those units sponsored by schools go camping more frequently than those sponsored by parishes and other institutions.

Sometimes, scouting member activities also involve input from other people such as community services, recreation activites, and activities related to the sponsoring institutions. According to leaders' opinions, 76% of the scouting units are involved in community service activities, most frequently to collaborate with sponsoring institutions (30%). Other examples of these actitivites are collaborations with Church Soup Kitchens, promotion of recreation activities for the elderly, and participation in tree planting campaigns. According to opinions expressed by members, 40% of the Boy Scouts, 60% of Girl Guides, and 83% of Explorer and Senior Guide units include community activities during their yearly programs. Within Boy Scouts, community service activities are more frequent among higher socioeconomic level troops, but for Girl Guides, Explorers and Senior Guides, they are more frequent among middle and low socioeconomic level units. A better coordination of these activities could probably enhance the contribution of scouting to the communities.

2.2 Preferred Activities of Members

Of the various scouting activities, it is interesting to note which activities are most preferred by members. Over 50% of leaders, Boy Scouts, Explorers and Senior Guides agreed that camping trips and outdoor activities are preferred by members. On the other hand, only 25% of the Girl Guides held that opinion, while 45% of Girl Guides expressed interest in increasing the number of field and camping trips, Boy Scouts, Explorers and Senior Guides also stated that they would like to go camping more frequently. Leaders indicated that other popular member activities include acting in plays around the campfire (16%), games (11%), and innovative activities such as workshops and projects (11%).

For Boy Scouts, games (12%) and innovative activites (9%) are also preferred. In addition, they would also like to introduce more sports and learn more about making friends and camping techniques. Boys from upper socioeconomic level troops are more interested in camping, while those from lower socioeconomic level groups are more interested in games. In addition to camping, the Girl Guides enjoy games (17%), and conferences and group discussions (11%). They expressed a desire to increase the frequency of games, sports, and group encounters.

Explorers and Senior Guides stated that they were interested in seminars, groups discussions (9%), and in spending more time in joint activites. For most Boy Scouts (57%), the scouting experience has been very useful for personal development (32%), in learning to help people (29%), in inproving inter-personal relationships, in enhancing school performance and,

for recreation. On the other hand, 22% of Boy Scouts stated
that they do not consider their scouting experience useful.
Boys from higher socioeconomic levels (23%) were more critical
than boys from the lower socioeconomic levels (14%) in comment-
ing on the usefulness of scouting.

Of the Girl Guides, 85% stated that the scouting experience
has been useful, and 14% stated that scouting had not been
useful. Girls from middle socioeconomic levels were more
critical (16% do not consider scouting useful) than girls from
lower (9%) or upper (8%) socioeconomic levels. Those who
considered scouting very useful felt that scouting helped to
improve their relationships with others (28%), was beneficial
to personal development (28%), and provided a learning experience
in helping people (25%).

Of the Explorers and Senior Guides, 87% considered scouting
as a useful experience, but 11% did not. Explorers and Senior
Guides from low socioeconomic levels tended to be more critical.
Those who had a positive opinion about the usefulness of scouting
stated that it improved relationships with people (32%), helped
personal development (31%), and taught how to assist those
in need (15%). None of them indicated that scouting had served
primarily as a recreational activity. Most of the members
indicated that new activities should be introduced, or changes
should be made in the frequence of current activities. On the
other hand, 47% of the leaders felt it is not necessary to
introduce any changes at all into scouting in Chile.

2.3 Changes Proposed by Leaders

Some Leaders did comment that they would like to introduce changes (29%) into the content of programs to given more importance to religious formation, to incorporate more activities with local communities, and to introduce modifications in the patrol leaders' training programs. Of the leaders, 8% suggested new activities be introduced, such as financing (for low socioeconomic level groups) and sports; and to increase service contributions to the community. Also 16% of the leaders stated that changes in the management of scouting are needed, such as improving both district administration and the communications system within the Scouting Association, and increasing the building space allocations for scouting rooms.

Among leaders who advocate changes, 27% stated subjective reasons, and 17% indicated changes are necessary because of problems within scouting (i.e., misunderstanding of scouting methodology) and differences between branches.) Only 6% indicated that changes are necessary due to external reasons, such as the economic situation, individualism of the current society, or because of local community needs.

Data indicates that most adult leaders believe that their educational role is limited to the boundaries of scouting, but do not encompass a wider perspective as educators of Chilean youth. Some leaders are concerned about religious problems which face young people, and a few are concerned about the most serious domestic problems such as unemployment and

the condition of living of the very poor. This means that current leader training should be restructured to reflect World Scouting Leaders' and National Commissioner' interests in promoting a new scouting which is open to all youth, and which closely relates to the problems of developing countries.

Presently, 30% of the leaders have initiated some changes. The most frequent innovations relate to pedagogic techniques such as improvements in participation, or adoption of activities for Girl Guides. Some of them have introduced changes in scouting merit badges, and a few have started programs, such as local community development. These few programs suggest that innovative programming activities are possible with today's scouting in Chile.

VI   SOME CHILEAN EXPERIENCES IN SCOUTING FOR DEVELOPMENT

The objective of this chapter is to present some of the activities that scouting is able to do for development. This chapter discusses three different experiences in this field.[118] Two of these cases are linked with experiences of low income young people. The third experience illustrates how it is possible to increase awareness of socioeconomic problems among university students and, simultaneously, among young people living in the slums. From the perspective of this study, these are important to promote in this model of development in the country.

Undoubtedly, the experiences presented are linked not only with scouting, but also with the Catholic Church, because the majority of scouting leaders and the members are Catholic. Moreover, the Catholic Church is increasing its commitment to poor people, and is also promoting equity in Latin American countries.

1.   Handcrafts and Food Production Workshops

A. The Environment Where the Experience Takes Place

The experience is organized in the South of Santiago in the "Barrio La Granja," a neighborhood of low income and low-middle class people. Most of these people are blue collar families, specialized blue collar workers, or immigrant-paysans who have come to the city from southern rural areas. According to the 1970 census data, this zone of the Metropolitan Region has a high concentration of poor people (sector de extrema

pobreza). This is a large industrial zone of
Santiago, and although there are many factories, unemployment
there is estimated at 20%.

Parents from la Granja usually exert a large effort to
send their children to school. Although it is difficult to
send children to school every day for various reasons (lack
of shoes or clothes, assisting at home with care of siblings, etc.)
most children are at least registered. However, when many of
these children reach 18 years old and ought to leave school
(some of them upon completion of secondary level) there are
low expectations for their future. They are anxious to get a
job or to postpone job hunting by continuing study.
One example was a group of young people from a parish in La
Granja who, in 1979, organized a preparatory course for
university study. Approximately 400 young people paid tuition,
most of these acknowledging that it would be almost impossible
for them to be accepted into the university. A few months later,
less than 50 still attended, and two who were excellent students
went on to the university. The following year, the parish
young people received another 400 enrollments with the same
results. It became clear that young people need more career
counseling and job hunting skills than theoretical preparation
courses for the university.

What do the poorer young people do if they do not pursue
a third level education? There is no statistical data to answer
this question for a neighborhood such as La Granja. However,

some information is available:

- some of the girls stay at home and help their mothers;

- some girls take short technical courses such as beauty care or sewing and they install small home shops which have few clientele;

- some of the boys enter the army for one year's service;

- other groups from both sexes become job hunters, utilizing information sources, such as relatives and friends. Some obtain full-time positions, but the majority only receive temporary jobs.

B. Description of the Experience

The experience was initiated by Father Guido-Blanchet, a former Scouting leader from Canada who came to Chile as a parish priest for La Granja. Because of his scouting experience, he created a scouting group within his parish. Once the group was created, he realized there were a lot of members dropping out due to financial reasons. Consequently, his initial goal was to establish a self-financed group. One year later, he also realized that he could offer working opportunities for young people. Thus, his second goal became to provide jobs for unemployed Explorers and Senior Guides.

In 1979, he started researching simple work possibilities for scouting members. He decided to make and sell blackberry jam to the people of his parish. Blackberries grow wild in Chile, but they require a lot of work to collect. That summer, the scouts organized the bkackberry jam campaign, inviting relatives and friends to pick berries in the mountains near Santiago. Each member provided a little sugar, sometimes from their home,

or the home of a neighbor. Mothers of the members provided

pots and the children prepared the firewood in the backyard

of the parish. This provided both hard work and fun for

members and their families, as songs and dances were part of

the "cooking ceremony." Cheap plastic bags were used for

canning the jam, and selling it was not at all difficult. The

Sunday sermon proved useful in promoting the product, and the

parish school was interested in buying in quantity because

the jam was offered cheaper than in the community store.

The campaign was so successful that someone suggested that

122

the scouts make "tortilla bread" and "empanadas" every Sunday.

This would require an industrial oven which was beyond the profit

made from the jam purchases. However, one member mentioned that

his grandfather had a mud oven in his farm house and that his

father would probably know how to use it. Thus, the members

proceeded to learn about mud ovens, and three months later, the

Sunday's empanadas and tortilla bread sale started. In this way,

the scouting group financing quickly increased.

A few months later, people from the scouting group were so

enthusiastic that Father Guido offered them some space in the

backyard of the parish. Group members began planning activites,

looking for materials, and then began building a house. Parents

also provided a lot of support. Four shops were installed in the

house; carpentry, ironwork, binding and loom work. Some used

tools were purchases, others were lent by scouting members and

parishioners, other simple tools were built by members. Training

was done by parishioners who had experience in these areas, except for loom work which was taught for free by someone from outside the village.

In 1981, Father Guido proposed that the Explorers and Senior Guides consider the possibility that some of them who were job hunters could use the shops, not for the scouting group incomes, but for themselves. A group of Explorers and Senior Guides accepted the offer and they became involved as permanent staff. Today, members, their parents, and the parishioners expressed happiness with the experience. There are approximately 100 members in the group which included Cub Scouts and Brownies, and 12 Explorers and Senior Guides are involved in productive work, 50% of them full-time. The group dropout rate was drastically reduced, financial support was provided for acouting activities, and, last summer in addition to the already traditional jam campaign, the group was able to take a 10-day camping trip at a minimum expense to parents. Camping equipment and knapsacks were made by members, and they are now provided to other group members. The group also provides uniforms to scouts, as needed. 123

C. Some Comments About the Experience

That experience is remarkable for the purposes of scouting for development because it demonstrates what a strong commitment can accomplish even when faced with limited financial resources, but using available resources in the community. Some aspects

of this experience can be taken into consideration and/or
modified in future ventures:

- The members have not yet reached autonomy from
  Father Guido. For example, he is the only person
  who has keys to the shops, access to tools, and
  knowledge of the accounting and the banking
  process. From the perspective of this thesis
  young people whould be trained to assume
  control of the full production process, including
  management and commercialization.

- The limited growth potential beyond the parish
  boundaries should be of concern. These youths
  lack information about the labor market, and do
  not know how to train others. For example, Father
  Guido exhibited surprise when leaders spoke of
  the state fellowships. He felt that there were
  many obstacles to expanding production outside of
  the parish and did not know of tax benefits for scouting.

- Members do not analyze the work itself or think
  about their future job possibilities. For
  Explorers and Senior Guides working in the shops
  is viewed as a regular job, and they do not see
  it as a training process to prepare them for
  independent jobs or to face the reality of their
  lives.

2.   The Scouting-Home Experience

A. The Environment Where the Experience Takes Place

Puerto Varas is a small town of about 20,000 people on
Lake Llanquihue, 2,000 kilometers south of Santiago. It is
a beautiful city surrounded by meadows, woods and lakes.
Agriculture, cattle raising and milk industries are the most
important economic activities of the zone. That area of the
country was colonized 100 years ago by German settlers who
have since become wealthy. The country is inhabited by many
poor farmers and petty traders. Some of these poor share the
harvest with landowners (medieros), have very primitive housing

facilities in the farms where they work (inquilinos),
or are migrant workers who move from one farm to another
looking for jobs (afuerinos). All these farm workers
live in isolated areas far from access to primary and
secondary schools. Most of them have large agricultural families
(five or more children) who usually assist in planting and
harvesting.

Schooling rates in rural areas are lower than in urban
areas in Chile. However, today the campesinos are aware that
education can help their children to attain better paying jobs
in the cities. For this reason, some of them send their children
to internships available in public secondary schools, such as in
Fresia, a small town not far from Puerto Varas, which offers a
free internsip school.

B. Description of the Experience Itself

Brother Paul Oden is a German member of the Congregation
of the Divine Word (Verbo Divino), a congregation which runs
expensive private schools such as the "Germany School" in
Puerto Varas. Since the mid 1960s, Brother Paul has been
deeply involved in Catholic scouting in Santiago. He is a
practical and eneregic man who is experience in printing
practices and in making camping equipment. In 1975, his
congregation sent him to work in the Germany School, where he
began working with the Boy Scouts. Shortly thereafter, he was
elected the Zone Leader, a position which he still holds today.

Although, he found his work quite interesting, he became increasingly concerned with the lack of commitment from the poor people. It had been suggested by the Latin American Bishops after Vatican II that the Church become more involved with the poor. In 1977, a scouting leader from Fresia told Brother Paul that the internship of the public secondary school (a school for males) was due to close because of a lack of state funding, and this would hurt scouting members coming from poor campesino families. Brother Paul felt that as a Zone Leader and as a member of the Church, he should help these boys to remain in school. He also saw a good opportunitity to increase his commitment with the poor. Brother Paul then asked his congregation authorities for housing space to live with the boys who would be forced to leave their internships in Fresia's secondary school. His request was granted, and he received a small room in a run down parish house owned by the congregation in Puerto Varas. He renamed this the "Scouting House" and he began creating the scouting group for poor compesino children from the zone. Free lodging, food, and a home environment were provided to these children to educate them according to scouting values and methods.

With this goal in mind, Brother Paul went to talk with the boys from the internship. Eight of them with the most serious financial hardships were incorporated into the Scouting House experience, although some who were not already scouting members but exhibited economic hardships were

accepted. During the summer, this group repaired the Scouting House and prepared the home for the following academic period. Resources for the survival of the group were obtained: food, beans and potatoes were brought by the boys from their homes; the scouting farm was cultivated in the yard of the building; fish were caught weekly at the local lake; and food surpluses were collected from area schools. Used clothes were obtained from German and Catholic people, and, in fact, more clothes were collected for the boys and their families than they were able to use. In order to raise money, Brother Paul brought his printing facilities into the Scouting House, along with tools to make camping equipment. Each day after their school work, the boys spent time producing printing materials, such as merit badge , booklets, and song books, and making camping equipment for the scouting and church associations. Thus, they were able not only to finance their home budget but to earn indiviual income themselves.

The patrol system worked very well for the group, making the boys well-organized and self-sufficient. Each day they held a 1/2 hour discussion period to talk about what they had done during the day and how to improve efficiency. They called this the "daily prayer time." Brother Paul was a resourceful person, but was not the leader of the group. The following year, Brother Paul visited some families of campesinos and recruited five more children for the Scouting House. As the house achieved a local reputation, vagabond children started to go to the house asking for clothes and food.

In 1980, Brother Paul went to Germany and received a grant from a Catholic Foundation to buy more modern printing equipment, to install a bakery, and to upgrade building facilities. As he became well-known in the city, the mayor asked to meet with him to discuss the problem of youth in the city and to ask Brother Paul for assistance. Brother Paul provided used clothes and agreed to incorporate additional youths when more roon became available, but in turn, he asked the mayor for materials and technical support in building a new house. With a commitment from the mayor and the grant money from Germany, he received a low interest loan to buy a piece of land near Puerto Varas to install a small farm for the Souting House.

Today, approximately 50 boys from urban and rural areas live there. They have complete printing facilities, and provide a lot of work for the zone. For example, they make jam to export to Germany, bake bread in an industrial bakery which is provided to almost all local private schools and church organizations, and pick-up rubbish from area schools to feed pigs and hens which they can then sell. They also cultivate the land. One of the boys of the first group completed his secondary school, became a Volkswagen mechanic, and is now running his own garage on the farm.

In March 1982, an alternative internship school begins. The boys will spend 15 days at school and 15 days assisting their parents with work on their land. Moreover, there are plans to

expand the experience into Chile's southern zone to reach the children of fishermen families who live in isolated islands. Today, the city of Puerto Varas is proud of what Brother Paul and scouting has accomplished.

C. Some Comments About the Experience

The experience itself has been extremely well-organized and is based completely on scouting methods. For example, the patrol system has been correctly applied, and the boys take responsibility for running their organization. (Brother Paul went to Europe for three months to petition for grant money and the Scouting House continued running without problems.) Moreover, the intention is clearly that of an educational, and not a charitable, program. For example, the daily discussions provide a group review of what each boy has done during the day and how to improve it.

Brother Paul has exhibited an outstanding insight in utilizing available resources, in establishing good relations with city authorities, in assuming his role as a scouting zone leader, and in creating a model example of what the scouting movement can accomplish. Although this experience initially depended too much on foreign aid, in the future it would be possible for the Scouting Association to provide support or low interest loans for those types of experiences.

3.   Explorer's Anti-Alcohol Center in the Slum

A. Environment Where the Experience Takes Place

Concepcion is one of the five larger cities in Chile,
located 700 kilometers south of Santiago on the coast. This
is a highly industrialized area with coal mines, iron factories,
fishing industry, and glass, wool and pottery factories. Some
of these industries are in poor economic shape due to the
increase in competition with international markets. For
example, most of the coal mines closed last year, the iron
factory works at 50% capacity, and the wool factory is in
operation only a few months annually.

The poor slum areas of Concepcion have been hard hit by the
industrial troubles, because most of the families have lost
their jobs. One of the slums is the Alto Concepcion which is
inhabited by about 400 families. Understandably, alcoholism is
a major problem in Alto Concepcion, with 60% of males above 15
years old drinking excessively (one or more liters of wine daily)
and 20% with more severe alcohol problems. Consequently, family
problems have increased. Drugs are also a common problem among
young people. The most frequent is called "neoprene", which
is a cheap chemical cement easily available in every hardware
store. The drug effect is gotten by smelling the cement. The
"cement smellers" are more frequent among families of alcoholics.

On the opposite side of Concepcion is a wealthy neighborhood
where the University of Concepcion is located. This is one of
the most prestigous universities in the country. Before the

The goal of the experience was to reduce the abuse of alcohol and drugs in the slum of Alto Concepcion. The Explorers learned from past experiences that it would be impossible to cure the patients only by individual treatment without incorporating the whole family in the therapeutic process. Therefore, they organized group meetings for families of alcoholics, and separate meetings for mothers or "spouses." They also organized a permanent group discussion program on drugs and alcohol abuse for adolescents and young people.

It became increasingly difficult for the explorers to continue traveling from the university to the slum. They felt more commitment to the people in the slum and wanted to spend more time there working. At that time, they had a caseload of 30 patients in treatment. Moreover, two of the explorers were not from this area and were paying for costly lodging facilities. They discussed this problem with the community, and in 1981 they decided to live as a group in a small house in the slum.

This program has not yet been evaluated, but apparantly alcohol and drug abuse have been somewhat reduced in Alto Concepcion. Eduardo, the leader of the Explorer group stated that young people also want to improve their socioeconomic situation but lack a clear perception of how to begin. Thus, the rehabilitation center could offer, in the future, support not only to reduce drug abuse, but also to increase income.

C. Some Comments About the Experience

This experience presents a different perspective of the activities that Explorers and Senior Guides could provide for community development and personal growth. In this experience,

the group spent a daily time analyzing current activities and planning how they could improve. Thus, the group helped to support personal growth.

The experience also shows that a group of people from different socioeconomic environments and backgrounds, such as university students and young people from the slums are looking for a different strategy of development than the present strategy imposed by the military junta in Chile. It is also clear from this experience and other experiences, that, in spite of some conservatives within the Catholic Church, the majority of priests and several young Catholic people are impelled to change the social structure of the country. Because of the power and the number of constituents, the Catholic Church and organizations closely related to it have a tremendous potential for promoting social change. One thing which can be improved for the future is the ability of Explorers to better organize young people in the community to work for themselves. Moreover, we can learn that it is necessary to provide initial external support before people from the slums become self-sufficient.

4. Some Comments About the Experiences

This thesis has presented three experiences of what is possible to accomplish within scouting. Nevertheless, much still needs to be learned outside scouting. For this reason, as previously mentioned in November 1981, the Scouting Association held a Seminar on Youth Scouting and Development [124] to share the results of field experience throughout Chile. More than 20 works were submitted. Some of them were linked with Scouting such as building a curriculum which uses community resources for vocational training; or

results of a group of teacher-Explorers who organized a school based on scouting methods. Most of the youth experiences were linked to the Catholic Church such as:

- Programs for training young blue collar worker union leaders (FOLICO):

- Youth Cooperative Production Project (TAFOLA) and;

- Youth working on prevention of school dropouts.

Some of these experiences were very successful, others were not.

However, from these experiences presented in the seminar, it is possible to arrive at a number of conclusions of importance in future planning in scouting for development:

- It is necessary to have an established and well-organized sponsoring institution to support the youth experience to provide a support base which can back the experience regardless of staff turnover.

- It is necessary to bear in mind that children from very poor families sometimes have poor expectations for their future. Consequently, they tend to be pragmatic in short-term job opportunities and might appear irresponsible concerning long-term projects.

- Children often assume a passive role in the educational process, perhaps because traditional school education is structured in this way. Therefore, it is usually difficult for educators working in nonformal education to motivate young people to assume more active roles in their formation.

- Working with volunteers is different from working with schools or private enterprise in that people always have additional responsibilities and must often make commitments with their time, which consequently results in more time to implement projects.

- Young people from poorer families usually need to provide some familiy income. Consequently, in long-term experiences, such as training, stipends are necessary to reduce the dropout rate.

VII. GUIDELINES FOR A PLAN TO PROMOTE DEVELOPMENT THROUGH SCOUTING

Through the experiences presented in the preceding chapter, it has been shown that Chilean scouting activities can promote the assertions of this thesis' strategy of development. Guidelines for a plan presented here displays the kind of activities and how those activities might be implemented. Most of those guidelines were discussed and approved by the National Leader and his staff. Moreover, they also relate to recent international trends of the World Scouting Movement.

1. Aims and Goals of the Plan

As mentioned in the beginning of this thesis, the aim of this project is to build a society according to a particular strategy of development. This would imply an agreement with the assumptions underlying this strategy, that is:

- The end of development is the human being;
- The process of development is a collective task in which all mankind is involved; and
- The process of development must be concerned with the care of the environment.

Those long-term goals, some of which could be affected by education, and their level of achievement are:

- To improve the satisfaction of the basic needs of poor people;
- To increase equity, democracy, and participation;
- To improve the family relationship;
- To improve organization of poor local communities;
- To promote a cooperative production;
- To increase consciousness about the care of the environment;
- To promote justice and world order.

Consequently, the goals for a plan for scouting for development are an outgrowth of the goals of the particular strategy of development this thesis wishes to promote. However, this plan realistically establishes goals in terms of what can be achieved in Chile today. That is, from a perspective of "education for awareness." Moreover, the plan also considers problems of the organization, members, and leaders; the needs of young people, and the kind of activities scouting members are interested in. That is, based on the diagnosis of the Scouting Association included in this project. The framework used for this plan is an elementary one, in order to simplify application for scouting leaders. The framework includes setting goals and objectives, the necessary actions to achieve those goals, the list of resources necessary to implement those actions, and the way those resources might be obtained. A three year period is recommended for the plan because this is the length of time for the natioal leaders' position in office, and provides a good period to make a summative evaluation.

As presented below, the goals arise from necessary changes which are needed to improve the relevance of scouting for development according to the information gathered from various sources in this work. To implement the plan, each goal can be considered as a separate program, and a domestic scouting leader can be appointed as head of the program (like P.P.B.S., the Planning Program Budget System). This can facilitate the management of the plan for the national scouting leader. As presented at the end of the plan, the total budget cost is high, but relatively little additional monies will be required because of the available resources and the volunteer work of adult leaders.

For accounting purposes, extra monies required would be
included in a line item labeled "Special Budgeting Funds (SBF). That
money should be obtained by activities which provide a cash
surplus; primarily grants from scouting friends. (A new foundation
should be created for this purpose.)

INSTITUTIONAL GOALS

A. Because:

- The number of scouting members is still low compared
  with youth of scouting age;
- A large constituency will increase the effectiveness
  of promoting development;
- There are few scouting among poor youths;
- There are poor groups which do not become registered
  in the scouting association.

It will be necessary:

TO EXTEND THE SCOUTING ASSOCIATION, ESPECIALLY AMONG
POOR YOUNG PEOPLE

B. Because:

- There are poor people who cannot adequately satisfy
  their basic needs;
- It is hard for poor youth to obtain jobs;
- Poor youth do not have optimistic expectations
  for their future;
- Traditional scouting, financed mainly by parents,
  is too expensive for poor families.

It will be necessary:

TO ADAPT ACTIVITIES OF CURRENT SCOUTING IN ORDER TO
BECOME MORE RELEVANT FOR POOR YOUNG PEOPLE

C. Because:

- Few youth organizations meet the needs of rural and sea shore areas;

- Those areas have lower schooling rates and less training opportunities for young people;

- No scouting exists in rural and sea shore areas.

It will be necessary:

TO START WITH SCOUTING IN RURAL AND SEA SHORE AREAS

D. Because:

- A large proportion of young people feel isolated and experience loneliness;

- Young people usually do not have many friends;

- Young people would like to communicate more effectively with their peers;

- Few opportunities exist to meet other youths in adequate environments for communications and recreation.

It will be necessary:

TO PREVENT LONELINESS OF YOUNG PEOPLE IN THE NEIGHBORHOODS WHERE SCOUTING GROUPS ARE PRESENT

E. Because:

- The family unit is deteriorating and some scouting members are part of one-parent families;

- Several families of the members have communication difficulties between parents and children;

- Sexual maturity is an important characteristic of adolescents;

- Little has been dome within scouting to communicate knowledge about sex and love.

It will be necessary:

TO REINFORCE MEMBERS' FAMILIES AND TO PREPARE ADOLESCENTS TO BE GOOD PARENTS IN THE FUTURE.

F. Because:

- Democracy and participation are limited in Chile;
- Scouting leaders are sometimes authoritarian, and they do not allow members to participate in programming scouting activities;
- There are failures in the implementation of the Patrol System, especially in the election of the Patrol Leaders.

It will be necessary:

TO PROMOTE A POSITIVE ATTITUDE TOWARD DEMOCRACY AND PARTICIPATION AMONG SCOUTING MEMBERS AND LEADERS

G. Because:

- Neighborhood organization is scarce today in Chile;
- Public services in poor neighborhoods can be improved through community organizations;
- Scouting groups can be useful in providing linkages between large sponsoring insitutions (i.e. Church) and people in the communities.

It will be necessary:

TO PROMOTE COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION IN POOR NEIGHBORHOODS WHERE THERE ARE SCOUTING GROUPS NEARBY

H. Because:

- The analysis capacity and reflection about their reality is not well provided by schools;
- The individual "Progression Plan" frequently does not fit the kind of personalized education that scouting should provide.

It will be necessary:

TO DEVELOP A FLEXIBLE "PROGRESSION PLAN" TO BECOME MORE USEFUL IN IMPOROVING THE CAPABILITY OF MEMBERS TO ANALYZE THEIR REALITY

I. Because:

- Most current scouting members are students;
- Some scouts experienced difficulties in school or used to be school dropouts.

It will be necessary:

TO PROMOTE MUTUAL SCHOOL SUPPORT AMONG STUDENT MEMBERS OF A SCOUTING GROUP

J. Because:

- Today, few people in Chile express concern about the environment;
- Scouting is strongly involved with the outdoors, and promotes a relationship with wide life and nature.

It will be necessary:

TO RAISE CONSCIOUSNESS AMONG YOUTH ABOUT CARE OF THE ENVIRONMENT

K. Because:

- There are struggles between and among countries;
- Scouting is an international movement with worldwide extensions promoting brotherhood.

It will be necessary:

TO PROMOTE INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING

L. Because:

- Several scouting leaders hold more than one position;
- Few groups have well-organized and active parent committees;
- There is not a rich interchange of ideas among different scouting groups;
- Trouble sometimes occurs between the scouting group and the sponsoring institutions.

It will be necessary:

TO IMPROVE THE ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT OF THE SCOUTING ASSOCIATION

2. Objectives, Activities, and Resources

These goals are translated into a set of objectives which represent the outcomes; that is, changes in scouting following the three year plan. The objectives, activities to achieve those objectives, and required resources, along with suggestions on obtaining those resources are included on the following pages. For most of the activities, the responsible person, department, office or committee is indicated. The S.B.F. as appears in the plan is representative of special budgeting funds mentioned previously in these guidelines. An estimate budget is also provided.

The Guidelines of this plan are presented in a simplified format which includes the goal (top of page), objectives (first column), and activities, resources, and suggestions on obtaining those resources (also in column format). A horizontal line separates each objective. To simplify the presentation, the introductory phrases are omitted. They are as follows:

Objectives: At the end of the third year there will (be)...

Activities: In order to achieve this objective the following action will be done...

Resources: To do this activity (   ) is necessary to get the following resources...

Getting Resources: The necessary resources will be gotten as follows...

The last column was used to produce cost figures which are included in the estimate total budget which follows the plan, but individual budget line items are not included in the column framework.

GOAL: TO EXTEND THE SCOUTING ASSOCIATION, ESPECIALLY AMONG POOR YOUNG PEOPLE

	OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITIES	RESOURCES	HOW TO OBTAIN RESOURCES
1.	50% of groups with complete branch units	● The National Leader will organize a campaign among the incomplete groups. He will send letters to group leaders of incomplete groups asking them to complete their groups.	copy and mail 175 letters	surplus from increasing number of members with increases due
		● The Training Department will develop a booklet with suggestions on how to create new branch units.	175 booklets	surplus from increase in amount of dues charged
		● District leaders will meet with group leaders and initiate a personal invitation to join the campaign.		
		● The Training Department will provide a basic leader course for 450 adults (former members or parents of current members)	450 sets of course materials for basic leader course, 50 course fellowships, 30 course supervisors	400 course fees S.B.F. (fellowships)
2.	50 nonregistered groups incorporated	● The general secretary will check registration files since 1975.	copy and mail 500 letters	S.B.F.
		● The National Leader will send letters to all nonregistered groups on file.		
		● District Leaders will invite nonregistered groups to join the association.		
		● The general secretary will separately assess registration and member fees		
		● The National Leader will offer sliding fee scale memberships to lower socio-economic level groups.		

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITIES	RESOURCES	HOW TO OBTAIN RESOURCES
3. 21 new groups from poor urban neighborhoods incorporated	• The District Leader will invite teachers from poor public schools, leaders from blue collar unions, and Christian leaders from poor parishes to observe scouting activities, and to participate in a regular basic course for leaders. • The District Leader will follow-up those interested in scouting, and they will be asked to create a group.	63 sets of basic course materials	63 course fees
4. 15 new groups in rural areas and 6 new groups in coastal areas.	• (Same activities as objective #3) If there is not a scouting district nearby, the zone leader will assume this role.	63 sets of materials	63 course fees

	OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITIES	RESOURCES	HOW TO OBTAIN RESOURCES
5.	Activities for 200 Explorers and Senior Guides which will allow them to receive incomes over twice the minimum wage	● The Office for Scouting for Development, based on current experiences, will start the following projects:	200 fellowships for technical courses. All will be considered as merit badges	Fellowships are available for poor youths at the ministry of Labor (SENCE Program)
		-- Explorers and Senior Guides from poorer groups will receive labor skills training through utilizing free course alternatives.	Group training and supervision for 20 groups over a three year year period	Teachers and psychologists currently volunteer as scouting leaders
		-- Explorers and Senior Guides will organize labor groups for cooperative shops or to provide services.	40 fellowships for cooperative management courses	Additional fellowships through church organizations
		-- placement offices and commercialization network will begin among members' families and former scouting leaders or members.	20 rooms for shops	Spaces for scouting are provided by sponsoring institutions
			booklets and other support materials	booklets will be sold
			5,000 pamphlets distributed by members	S.B.F.

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITIES	RESOURCES	HOW TO OBTAIN RESOURCES
		newspaper advertising	scouting month‑ly newspaper
		Interviews for local news‑papers	asking local newspapers
		500 letters to former scouts	S.B.F. Addresses on file
		phone	available at the national and zone scouting headquarters
		stores to dis‑play scouting merchandise	stores in large cities
		information files for scouting mailings	organized by the zone leaders and their staff
		study about the labor market	available at a Research Center (PIIE)

OBJECTIVE	ACTIVITIES	RESOURCES	HOW TO OBTAIN RESOURCES
6. 42 groups which have only minimal parental financial support	• The National Leader will authorize non-compulsory uniforms for poor groups (only neckerchiefs) and a sliding-fee scale for membership fees.	Financing or balancing the sliding fee scale for poor members	Increase member fees for wealthy groups
	• The National Council will start with a foundation of "scouting friends" who provide financial support.	Print invoices	solicit donations from "scouting members"
	• District leaders will organize money collections in their area using names of former leader and members. Local companies and institutions will also be visited. They will also organize weekly sales in parishes, and will improve organization of newspaper and bottle collection and sales	Print invoices	solicit donations from "scouting members"
	• Scouting Association will provide free camping equipment in those camping sites of its own	Provide 10 sets of used camping equipment to provide on loan to poorer members	Rent camping sites to families during the summer to provide surplus funds
7. 20 Kitchen-Soup programs (comedores populares) run by the scouts	• Each district will be responsible for raising foods and organizing kitchen facilities. These programs will be coordinated with sponsoring institutions.	kitchen facilities food	kitchen facility to be provided by sponsoring institution; food to be raised by scouting members

GOAL: ESTABLISH SCOUTING GROUPS IN RURAL AND COASTAL AREAS

	OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITIES	RESOURCES	HOW TO OBTAIN RESOURCES
8.	15 groups in rural areas and 6 groups in coastal areas	(See objective #1)		
9.	A permanent support mechanism for rural and coastal groups	● Scouting training department will design a set of merit badges in farming, fishing, and boat carpentry	Committee to prepare material for merit badges Booklet for merit badges	Volunteer work can be provided by scouting leaders at the Rural Education Institute (IER). Some materials are available at FAO, Unicef, and the World Scouting Bureau. S.B.F
		● The international commissioner will initiate efforts to seek support from volunteer institutions such as 4H, Peace Corps, or European Scouting Association which has previous experience in rural work.	Letters to those institutions	
		● Office of Scouting for Development will obtain fellowship for training courses in these fields	50 course fellowships	Free courses will be support-ed by the Ministry of Labor (SENCE) and IER.

GOAL: TO PREVENT LONELINESS OF YOUTHS THROUGH SCOUTING

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITIES	RESOURCES	HOW TO OBTAIN RESOURCES
10. A recreational program for youth in each scouting district	• Each troop will organize at least one campfire (acting, dance, singing) per year. This event will be open to youth in the troop's neighborhood. • Each Explorer and Senior Guide unit will organize discussion group programs to talk about subjects in which young people are interested (sex, religion, drugs, loneliness, etc.) • Each group will organize a "one-day scouting experience" (field trip) for youths in their neighborhood) • When possible, each group will organize monthly events in their neighborhoods, such as parties, group meetings, and youth masses. • Districts will support the creation of sports clubs at the district level. • The training department will include activities for communities in all leader training courses	250 booklets on ideas of implementing recreation activities Prepare training manual for leader training courses	A special commission of scouting leaders will prepare Sales of the booklet will generate income Regular budget allocations of the scouting training department

GOAL: TO REINFORCE THE CONCEPT OF THE FAMILY AND TO PREPARE MEMBERS TO BE PARENTS

	OBJECTIVE	ACTIVITIES	RESOURCES	HOW TO OBTAIN RESOURCES
1.	A nationwide program for parents and families	● The scouting newspaper editor will provide a special section on parent education in the monthly scouting newspaper.	Articles will be provided by public and	Newspaper ads
		● The National Leader will ask people working in family programs such as the "Family Catholic Movement" and "Marriage Encounters" to work together in the program for the parents of the scouting members, and to encourage use of available services	People from those institutions willing to work with scouting	Organize the scouting leaders who are currently involved in institutions working with families. These leaders will constitute a national commission to work within scouting.
			Need discussion materials for workshops and discussion groups	Discussion materials will sold to parents
		● District leaders will organize workshops and discussion groups for parents at the scouting district level	A group of parents from the district interested in coordinating these groups	

	OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITIES	RESOURCES	HOW TO OBTAIN RESOURCES
12.	Sex education included as part of the "Progression Plan" for boys and girls	• The scouting training department will prepare a set of materials to support the "Progression Plans."	Materials for the Progression Plan (see Objective 19)	Adapt a package prepared by UNESCO on this subject. This package will be sold to members.
		• The subject will be included in the basic course for leaders	Materials for leader training	Basic course fee
13.	A committee at the zone level for sex and love education for Explorers and Senior Guides	• The National Commissioner of Explorers will prepare educational materials to be used at the zone level	15 packages of seminar materials	A national committee of volunteer leaders from the Explorer Branch will compile and adapt the materials. The materials will be sold.
		• Zone Leaders will be responsible for organizing committees. District Leaders will encourage Explorer and Senior Guide Units to organize seminars and group discussions based on the materials prepared for the Scouting Association. These seminars and groups would be open to neighborhood youths. (See Objective 4)	Training materials for unit leaders	Some of these materials will be prepared by the National Committee. These materials will be sold.

	OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITIES	RESOURCES	HOW TO OBTAIN RESOURCES
4.	A program for youths from one-parent families	● The training department will train Unit Leaders through the basic course to deal with one-parent youths and show them how to provide more personalized attention and advisory supervision to them. This will be incorporated in their progression plan.	Training materials for unit leaders	Fees from the basic course for leaders
		● The training department will prepare a booklet for children from one-parent families	2,000 booklets for children of separated parents	Materials will be provided by family counseling institutions This booklet will be prepared for a group of scouting members who are from one-parent families, and will be supported by scouting leaders involved with family counseling. Booklets will be sold
		● District Leaders will encourage Unit Leaders to start with discussion groups for youths with family problems in their neighborhoods.		

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITIES	RESOURCES	HOW TO OBTAIN RESOURCES
15. adolescent scouts more aware of their own process of development	• The training department will add a complete chapter about adolescence and its problems to the progression plan materials, including suggestions about how to improve communications with parents	Prepare and edit materials All materials for the progression plan will be reedited. (See Objective 19)	Permanent staff from the department of training at the scouting association will prepare these materials

GOAL: PROMOTE A POSITIVE ATTITUDE TOWARDS DEMOCRACY AND PARTICIPATION AMONG SCOUTING LEADERS

	OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITIES	RESOURCES	HOW TO OBTAIN RESOURCES
16.	All patrol leaders elected by members	● The training department will reinforce this subject at the basic course level for leaders, and will be supervised by district leaders.		
17.	Reducing authoritarian patterns	● The training department will increase efforts to advise and to council all domestic leaders (zone leaders, district leaders, group leaders, and unit leaders) to avoid authoritarism. Specific participation techniques will be included in all leaders' courses.	Training materials for leaders courses	cost of resources will be included in course fees
		● The training department will prepare a booklet on how to be a participatory patrol leader.	5,000 booklets	booklets will be sold
		● District Leaders will organize courses on participatory techniques for patrol leaders on the district level	60 course supervisors	volunteer scouting leaders will be used as supervisors

	OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITIES	RESOURCES	HOW TO OBTAIN RESOURCES
8.	A community organization program supported by Explorer and Senior Guide Units in 10 poor neighborhoods	● The Office of Scouting for Development and the National Leader of the Explorer and Senior Guide Branch will promote and provide materials to organize community services such as daycare, first aid centers, sewing clubs, tree planting campaigns, and alcohol and drug rehabilitation centers. ● The head of the Office of Scouting for Development will establish linkages with other private and public institutions in the area. ● The Zone Leader will organize a seminar for Senior Guides and Explorer Unit Leaders.	150 sets of materials for Explorer and Senior Guides 10 sets of teaching materials for the seminar	Materials are available from the World Scouting Organization, and also from church organizations working with poor communities. The seminar materials are available at the Office of Scouting for Development

	OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITIES	RESOURCES	HOW TO OBTAIN RESOURCES
19.	A new edition of the progression plan booklet	● The scouting training department will prepare a member booklet for the progression plan for each branch.	A committee to prepare the booklet. Printing of 20,000 booklets	Volunteer scouting leaders working in the training department.
		● The progression plan will include additional information on love and sex education (see objective 12) and about adolescent problems (see objective 15)		Explorers and Senior Guides could use the available booklet entitled "Personal Life Plan"
		● A set of questions to stimulate observations and reflections about reality will also be included. These questions will be based on the scout law, but will also include contradictions of the values promoted by scouting and current Chilean society.		
20.	The patrols functioning as a support group to help achieve personal goals proposed by scouting members in their "Progression Plans"	● District Leaders will provide training courses for patrol leaders to prepare them as group advisors for this personalized education within scouting	Training materials	S.B.F.

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITIES	RESOURCES	HOW TO OBTAIN RESOURCES
1. A better application of personalized education	● The scouting training department will include personalized eudcation in all leader courses; unit leaders will be encouraged to establish an individualized progression plan for each member using a personal "contract form"	Training materials	Include fee for meterials in leaders course fee Progression Plan forms to be sold
2. A new set of merit badges and merit badge booklets	● The national leader will appoint a committee to prepare the new badges. ● This set of badges should include technical skills and cooperative techniques (see objective 5), community organizer (see objective 18), farming, fishing, and boat carpentry (see objective3) and student partners (see objective 24).	Materials Write, edit, print 5,000 booklets	Volunteer scouting leaders will collect and organize the materials Booklets will be sold

GOAL: TO PROMOTE MUTUAL SCHOOL SUPPORT AMONG STUDENT MEMBERS OF SCOUTING GROUPS

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITIES	RESOURCES	HOW TO OBTAIN RESOURCES
'3. A program for student partnership support	• The Scouting Association will create a teaching partnership merit badge. This badge will help a classmate or younger school child to improve his academic performance.	Develop a merit badge booklet (see objective 22)	Booklets will be sold

GOAL: TO RAISE CONSCIOUSNESS AMONG YOUTH ABOUT CARE OF THE ENVIRONMENT

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITIES	RESOURCES	HOW TO OBTAIN RESOURCES
:4. The Scouting Movement assuming a leadership position concerning environmental protection	• The Chairperson of the PANDA project in Chile (worldwide scouting program for the care of the environment) will prepare a set of materials that could be used by schools. ("School Green Clubs") • The National Leader will ask the ministries of education, agriculture, and public health for support in organizing a national campaign for the care of the environment.	Materials for this campaign	Volunteer scouting leaders and members working in the PANDA project. Available written materials. If the campaign is accepted by the authorities it should be financed by state funds. If not, the campaign will be only implemented at the local level and with simple materials provided by group members.

GOAL: TO PROMOTE INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING

	OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITIES	RESOURCES	HOW TO OBTAIN RESOURCES
5.	A permanent communication network with world scouting	• The commissioner for international scouting will organize, domestically, the interchange of letters with other scouting members throughout the world.	Addresses from scouting associations around the world	Available at international scouting office
			Mail	S.B.F.
			A group of leaders to prepare inter-change of letters	Volunteer leaders working on inter-national scouting
		• The commissioner for international scouting will organize an annual show about youth in different countries in the major cities of the country.	Rooms and transportation for annual shows	Local scouting quarters for accommodations for annual show
		• The editor of the scouting newspaper will include, in each issue of the monthly scouting newspaper, an article about scouting and youth in foreign countries.	Monthly articles	Existing infor-mation will be adapted for monthly scouting articles (i.e., youth programs for development in Europe)
		• The Scouting Association will support international organizations for peace.		
		• The International Commissioner will make efforts to get support for youth living experiences abroad, and to receive youth at members' families.	Financial resources for travel abroad	Seek support at embassies and international foundations for youth abroad programs

GOAL: IMPROVE ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT OF THE SCOUTING ASSOCIATION

	OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITIES	RESOURCES	HOW TO OBTAIN RESOURCES
26.	Few leaders holding more than one position	• The National Leader will provide specific regulations about leaders holding more than one position.	500 letters outlining regulations	S.B.F. funds for letters and pamphlets
		• The National Leader will encourage former leaders to return to help scouting in less time consuming positions.		
		• District Leaders will organize recruitment campaigns among parents of scouting members, school teachers involved with extra-curricular activities, workers, union and community organizations. The recruited will be invited to join the basic course for leaders.	1,000 pamphlets concerning the recruitment campaigns. (See objective 1 and 3)	
27.	Better relationships between the national leader, zone leader, and district leader	• National Leader will meet annually with zone leader	Traveling expenditures	S.B.F.
		• National Leader will visit each district at least once per year to obtain a more personalized commitment from the district leader.	Traveling expenditures	S.B.F.
		• The General Secretary will send a monthly informative letter to District Leaders and zone leaders.	40 letters per month	S.B.F.

	OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITIES	RESOURCES	HOW TO OBTAIN RESOURCES
28.	Better parental organizations for all groups	• The training department will train Group Leaders in how to create a parent organization	250 booklets for training	Booklets will be sold
29.	Better performance of District Leaders and Zone Leaders	• A brief report will be sent by District Leaders twice a year.		
		• The National Committee will prepare a detailed description of the role of Zone Leaders and District Leaders.	Committee to prepare role description	Volunteer leaders from the National Council
		• The training department will establish a short training course for District Leaders and Zone Leaders.	Training Materials	S.B.F.
		• The Editor of the scouting newspaper will include information about district activities in the monthly newspaper.		
30.	Minimal regulations for establishing agreement between scouting groups and sponsoring institutions	• The National Council will appoint a special committee to define the regulations with sponsoring organizations.	300 booklets stating regulations	Booklets will be sold

BUDGET ESTIMATE

INCOME		EXPENDITURES	
Additional members' fees	$ 5,128	Mail	$ 1,763
Booklet sales	38,462	Booklets and materials	53,045
Course fees	2,374	Courses and training	101,272
State fellowships	25,128	Rental building and facilities	434,605
Additional volunteer work	82,949	Transportation and traveling	7,692
Available building and facilities	434,605	Studies and research	2,564
External research support	2,821	Poor member fee reducations	2,566
Scouting newspaper ads	513	Advertisements and pamphlets	2,308
Rent for scouting campsite	4,615	Food program	128,205
food program	128,205		
Scouting foundation grant	9,220		
TOTAL	$ 734,020		$ 734,020

VIII   ANALYSIS OF CURRENT SCOUTING IN CHILE

This chapter attempts to answer the questions presented at the beginning of this thesis. Moreover, it will analyze how these answers fit with the proposed sets of hypotheses.

1. Analysis of Current Characteristics

The first set of questions this paper intended to answer were:

    1.1   What are the characteristics of scouting today in Chile?

    1.2   What are the differences among groups from different socioeconomic levels?

1.1   Some General Characteristics of Scouting Groups and Members Today

This thesis hypothesized that the main characteristics of scouting were:

    A.   Most of the scouting members are urban middle class people;

    B.   Most groups are sponsored by a school or the Catholic Church;

    C.   The most frequent activities are camping-oriented.

A.   Most of the Scouting Members are Urban Middle Class

It was concluded that there are no scouting groups for the 24% of the total population living in rural areas. There is no expertise in Chile to implement rural scouting units because these units are totally different from urban scouting. Moreover, groups are usually created by former scouting leaders who reproduce their own experiences, and rural scouting implies the need to create a new kind of scouting. That is

especially important in Chile where communications in rural areas are difficult.

A score based on the fathers' employment, was used as an indicator of the socioeconomic level of members. Calculating the average score of each scouting group, it was shown that 69% of groups are from middle or high socioeconomic levels. Nevertheless, because low socioeconomic level groups have fewer members (or fewer members who responded to the questionnaire) it became clear after analyzing member's data that scouting is biased towards higher socioeconomic levels.

Data also shows that 23% of Explorers and Senior Guides 25% of Boy Scouts and 23% of Girl Guides are children of professionals and top managers, which represent only 3% of the labor force in Chile. However, the rate of growth of low socioeconomic level groups within scouting has been greater than in other socioeconomic levels between 1975-1979. One possible explanation of this "higher class bias" of scouting is its cost. Many scouting activities are camping-oriented which require costly equipment, and a compulsory uniform. In addition, ad hoc expenses are difficult for 24.6% of the current membership to pay. It was not possible for this study to determine the real member-per-year cost because of the variety of activities realized by different groups, and lack of available information concerning budgeting. However, a rough estimation on average yearly member expenses is approximately $100, while a minimal monthly salary for a blue collar worker is $150. Given these circumstances, it is difficult for a low income family to finance scouting. Moreover, current scouting activities

are not useful in increasing income, or in improving living conditions except in a few isolated cases.

Scouting members engage in some fund raising activities, but these activities are not sufficient to provide scouting self-support. However, as presented in the case studies outlined in Chapter VI, a few groups have been able to balance their entire budget. Although it is possible to have less costly scouting for low income youth, current scouting is more feasible for middle or high income youth.

An important deficiency was detected concerning scouting badges. Over 80% of members do not have any badges, and most badges are presently oriented towards camping activities instead of activities which can promote daily self-sufficiency through earning income and saving money. Such badges, if related with providing labor skills or home repairs, would be more useful.

B. Most Groups are Sponsored by a School or the Catholic Church

It is clear that scouting in Chile is most often sponsored by schools and Catholic parishes. For example, in a sample of 28 of 249 groups in the country, 45% were sponsored by Catholic parishes, 44% by public and private schools, and only 11% by other institutions. Because 90% of Chile's total population is Catholic, it is reasonable that 81% of the scouting groups are sponsored by Catholic institutions, either schools or parishes. The interest of the Catholic Church in promoting

scouting could also be explained by the availability of leaders among Catholic lay people. (The Church also used to run a scouting association of its own.) In fact, 98% of the scouting leaders are Catholic and 86% participate as active members of the Church.

Schools also provide a good environment for scouting because many educators seek an out-of-class teaching experience which allows personalized and flexible relationships with children. The current change of public schools from the state to the cities will increase the possibilities of expanding scouting because the schools will be able to move away from rigid national regulations, and the cities are interested in using funds from the Concurso Polla Gol in developing extra-curricula activites. On the other hand, private schools are also interested in promoting extra-curricula activities in order to increase their enrollments and, consequently their incomes. This situation should be considered carefully by scouting leaders because it presents the risk of drastic extension of scouting in schools under pressure by local authorities and business people. That could result in over-emphasizing recreation and game actities, and a loss of the formative perspective of scouting. This "recreational scouting" is not relevant for our purposes of promoting development. This risk could be diminished by providing adequate training for the new scouting leaders.

C. The Most Frequent Activities are Camping-Oriented

Leaders and members agree that camping and other outdoor activities are very frequent scouting activities. Among leaders, 42% indicated these activities were most frequent, while other activities, such as meetings and scouting games were frequent, and workshops, expositions and project games occured least frequently. The predominant frequency of camping and outdoor activities can be explained by the preferences of the members to engage in and to pressure leaders to increase these activities. In addition, some children join scouting specifically for camping and field trips. Therefore, it is important to continue these types of activities which are attractive to urban youth across all socioeconomic levels, particularly low income youths who experience economic difficulties and are less likely to vacation outside of the city with their families.

1.2 Differences in Scouting for Different Socioeconomic Levels

This thesis hypothesized that there are differences between low income groups and other scouting groups, and stated that low income groups have:

A. Their headquarters in poor neighborhoods;

B. Higher rates of desertion;

C. More theoretical than practical scouting activities;

D. More rigid discipline patterns and;

E. Their leaders are less experienced.

A. Scouting Headquarters in Poor Neighborhoods

Most scouting groups are sponsored by schools and parishes, and therefore, membership depends on the kind of people involved in these institutions. Most often, people involved in parishes or school youth organizations are from the local neighborhood. Consequently, the socioeconomic level of scouting members is consistent with the socioeconomic level of the neighborhood where the group headquarters is located. In addition, groups sponsored by schools have a higher socioeconomic level than groups sponsored by parishes and other institutions.

B. Higher Rates of Desertion

In spite of the fact that low income groups are younger than other groups, there is no empirical data to support that low socioeconomic level groups have lower retention rates. For example, among Boy Scouts, the low income members tend to remain in the troop longer than members from higher socioeconomic levels (25.8 months versus 24.5 months). Among Girl Guides, the retention rate is similar for all levels, but middle socio-economic level girls are a little less stable.

The similarity in retention rates can be derived from the fact that almost all members are good students. [125] Overall, members from parishes have better schooling standards than members from schools. Therefore, it is easier for them to remain in the scouting movement while in school. In fact, dropout rates are very high for members finishing secondary schools.

C. More Theoretical than Practical Scouting Activities

There are differences in activities and goals between low and high socioeconomic levels. For example, it is clear that camping and activities outside of the city are less frequent among lower socioeconomic level groups because of the difficulty in financing. In addition, it should be noted that groups sponsored by schools have better socioeconomic levels, and it is easier for schools to organize camping and out-of-the-city activities during the academic year. For instance, 50% of Boy Scouts from higher socioeconomic levels mentioned these activities as occuring frequently, while only 31% of lower income troops mentioned them. Lower socioeconomic level groups frequently play games and enjoy campfire activities.

Regarding community service activities such as literacy campaigns and tree planting campaigns, differences are not clearly identified for the various socioeconomic levels. However, those activities are more frequent among higher level Boy Scout troops, among middle and lower level Explorers and Senior Guides, and among low socioeconomic level Girl Guide troops. There are four ongoing experiences in community development within scouting which are operating only in low socioeconomic level groups.

Educational goals are relatively similar for different socio-economic levels. However, low socioeconomic level groups emphasize personal growth, and higher socioeconomic level groups gave more importance to preparing for a social role.

D. More Rigid Discipline Patterns

There were also some differences between low socioeconomic level and higher socioeconomic level groups concerning management and discipline patterns. Democracy is exercised within scouting groups through councils, and in most cases through Patrol Leader Councils and Unit Leaders Councils. However, in most cases those leaders are not appointed through the regular election process. Moreover, member participation in programming year activities is low and participation in programming is even less frequent among low socioeconomic level groups.

Parental involvement in activities, organization or management is frequent among scouting groups. Parents from low socioeconomic level groups exhibit more active participation but it is less constant. It was not possible to ask (in the mailed questionnaire) a question concerning authoritarianism within groups. However, observation of group activities led the author to conclude that discipline patterns depend more on the leader than on the socioeconomic level of the group. It should also be noted that authoritarianism is very frequent today in most Chilean institutions.

On one hand, relations between patrol leaders and members could provide an accurate reflection of discipline and relationships within groups. In this sense, relationships are usually very good. However, Explorers, Senior Guides, and Boy Scout relations are better in low socioeconomic level groups. On the other hand, among Girl Guides, the higher the socioeconomic level, the better the relationships between leaders and members.

E. Leaders are Less Experienced

Of the leaders, 80% stated that they had been former scouting members. It appears that all of the leaders are idealistic and generous, but there are differences in leader experience and training across socioeconomic level groups. This could derive from the relative consistency between the socioeconomic level of the leader and the group, probably because several leaders were former members of the same group that they lead today.

The consistency between the socioeconomic level of the leaders and their groups rectifies the previous theory that leaders of low socioeconomic level groups are middle or upper class people with a church background who want to help young people in poor neighborhoods. This probably had some validity years ago, but today low socioeconomic level groups have leaders from their own neighborhoods. This is important in scouting for development because if it is possible to provide good training for those leaders, they can better understand the problems and the cultural needs of the poor and thus become more helpful.

Today, leaders in lower socioeconomic level groups are younger and have less formal education; some leaders among low socioeconomic level groups have only achieved a secondary education level. On the other hand, there are more professionals and leaders with university degrees among groups from higher socioeconomic levels. It is also necessary to consider that groups from higher socioeconomic levels are more

frequently sponsored by schools, which also explains one

reason why there are fewer leaders with formal education

training among low socioeconomic level groups. Moreover, the

reason why low socioeconomic level group leaders have not

completed as many training courses within the Scouting

Association is probably because they are the youngest leaders.

2. Analysis of Member Needs and Preferred Activities

The second set of questions this study intended to answer were:

2.1 What are the most urgent needs for young people and scouting members?

2.2 What are the preferred activities of scouting members?

2.3 How do the current activities of scouting fit with members' preferred activities?

2.1 Needs of Members

It was hypothesized that:

A. Basic needs are not adequately satisfied for only a few scouting members; and

B. The affective, psychological and intellectual needs are, in that order, the most frequent needs of scouting members.

Before commenting on these proposed questions, it is of

interest to note that many of the people responding to the

questionnaire did not always have a correct perception of their

own urgent needs or problems. For example, 16% of scouting

members, especially from middle-socioeconomic levels, mentioned

that they did not have any needs at all. On one hand, that

could reflect a "holistic way of life" of this particular

group of members, but on the other hand, it could imply a failure

of scouting to stimulate analytical thinking about members'

reality. It is also necessary to take into account that people do not always speak directly to their needs, but rather to the problems which generate thoses needs. For instance, a typical response to undernourishment might be "to increase family income" instead of "to obtain foods to satisfy hunger." For purposes of this study, those problems are used as indirect indicators of needs.

A. Basic Needs are Not Adequately Satisfied for A Few Scouting Members

In Chile, a few members experience serious difficulties in adequately satisfying their basic needs. We can estimate that one in every 6,000 children living in extreme poverty becomes a scouting member in Chile. Consequently, today scouting members have an adequate level of satisfaction of their basic needs. However, some scouting members feel that it is important to improve the level of meeting their basic needs. These members (2.5%) are included among low socioeconomic members who consider increasing family incomes as their most urgent problem. An additional 19% of scouting members consider family economic difficulties as their most urgent problem. Although these members should be included in programs for development, they probably have already reached minimal satisfaction of their basic needs.

Predictably, data shows that the lower the socioeconomic level of members, the higher the frequency of economic problems mentioned.

From the perspective of extending scouting outreach in the future to poor young people, it is important to clarify the target population. Of Chile's total population, 21% live in poverty conditions, and 8.3% are unable to meet minimal nutritional standards in their daily diets. These statistics represent 236,000 young people aged 11 through 22.

B. Affective, Psychological and Intellectual Needs

There is an apparent logical pattern among members in perceiving needs.[126] After satisfaction of basic needs, the most frequently mentioned needs are, in order, the affective and psychological needs; intellectual needs were not mentioned. Thus, the rationale of the members was consistent with the proposed taxonomy. On the other hand, leaders exhibited a different ranking scale, stating that psychological needs are overemphasized, and the affective needs deserve more consideration. Opinions of leaders and members were in agreement concerning basic and intellectual needs.

Of affective needs, the most frequently mentioned were to make friends and to improve family relationships. Probably making friends is less difficult within scouting because of the patrol system. As mentioned previously, data collected from a poor urban neighborhood indicated that about 1/4 of young people do not have friends at all, and more than 80% would like to make additional friends. This might indicate that loneliness contributes to drug and alcohol abuse among youths, and thus, must also be an important area for future scouting to assist youth .

The need to improve family relationships has not been seriously considered by scouting in spite of the fact that 10% of members have separated parents. The frequency distribution of affective needs is not homogeneous for the different socioeconomic levels. (See Table V-1) Affective needs are more frequent among low income members, and are also more frequent among females.

The importance that members attribute to affective needs should initiate action by scouting leaders to provide a wider base of encouragement and support. On the other hand, leaders are concerned about psychological needs of members, although members themselves exhibit only a mild concern. This is probably because most leaders think that their leader role is to educate young people on good character and personality formation. Moreover, those two subjects are highly promoted by scouting literature, and this combination has diminished the education work done by scouting in other fields. Both leaders and members did not exhibit much concern regarding needs derived from intellectual unbalances.

2.2 Preferred Activities of Members

The hypothesis was that:

> Camping and outdoor activities are preferred
> by scouting members.

Analyzed data indicates that leaders and members agree that campings, field trips, and outdoor adventure activities are most preferred by members. In addition, members ask to increase these activities regardless of income level. Scouting groups from lower

socioeconomic levels are less likely to participate in camping
trips because they lack financial resources.

Other preferred scouting activities include campfires,
games, group discussions and recently introduced activities
such as city-project games, workshops and community development.
Members from various branches all preferred camping and outdoor
activities. Boy Scouts and Girl Guides also stated that they
were interested in increasing outdoor game activities, including
sports games (which are usually considered inappropriate by
leaders). They also expressed an interest in introducing group
encounters. Explorers and Senior Guides stated that they are
primarily interested in seminars and group discussions about
youth problems.

2.3 Matching Between the Activities Preferred by Members and Present Scouting Activities

The hypotheses were:

    A.   Camping activities are the preferred activities
        of members and are also the most frequent activities
        in current scouting. There is a better match
        between preferred and frequent activites among
        higher socioeconomic levels.

    B.   Members from low socioeconomic level groups are
        more critical about the usefulness of today's
        scouting.

A. Preferred Activities

The various programming methods of scouting leaders in
structuring program activities makes it difficult to compare
activities preferred by members with activities participated in
by members. For example, if scouting units have direct partici-
pation of all members in programming, this should help to produce

a better match between desired activities and programmed
activities.

Comparing aggregate data, most of the members from different
socioeconomic levels considered camping and outdoor trips as
their favorite activities. On the other hand, although members
and leaders agree that those activities occur most frequently,
members from low socioeconomic level groups have less camping
opportunities. Consequently, for low income groups there is more
of a gap in matching preferred activities and those performed.
Although recreation activities are frequent, most members are not
completely satisfied with the present situation, and would like
to increase camping opportunities and outdoor activities.
Undoubtedly, these types of activities will constitute the core
of present and future scouting. Moreover, members from different
scouting branches are interested in activities which increase
friendships and provide opportunities to better satisfy their
affective needs. Therefore, future programming should design
activities which can provide these types of opportunities to
young people.

B. Low Socioeconomic Level Groups Critical of Scouting

Most members considered their scouting experience to be
useful. In fact, 57% of Boy Scouts; 85% of Girl Guides, and 87%
of Explorers and Senior Guides agreed that scouting had provided
a good influence on their lives. For them, scouting has been
useful for personal growth and development, and in improving
human relations, especially among lower socioeconomic level
members.

Of lower socioeconomic level members, Explorers and Senior
Guides were the most critical about the usefulness of scouting,
but across all branches, most low income groups felt that
scouting had been a beneficial experience. That might indicate
that younger boys and girls from low income families like fun
and recreation, and have a need for more friendships which are
met through current scouting, whereas Explorers and Senior
Guides from low socioeconomic levels are more concerned with
entering the job market. They must face the problem of finding
a job and the financial responsibility of contributing to the
family income. Thus, they become critical about scouting's
orientation toward recreation. Moreover, the shortage of scouting
members among poorer young people implies a criticism of today's
scouting in Chile.

3. Feasibility of Scouting to Promote Development

The last set of questions this study intended to answer
was:

> What kind of educational actions which promote this
> thesis' strategy of development can be introduced in
> scouting, and how could they be implemented?

The hypothesis was:

> It is possible to introduce programs within scouting
> for increasing awareness according to this thesis'
> strategy of development. This will require modifications
> in scouting, especially among low socioeconomic level
> groups in terms of the type of activities, and the
> leader's capabilities. No changes will be necessary in
> the scouting law, the patrol system, pursuit of fun,
> or readiness to help others.

Supporting statements concerning the feasibility of intro-
ducing programs for this thesis' strategy of development are presented
below. Ideas about how those programs could be implemented are
also included as guidelines for a three year plan for the
Scouting Association in Chile. As previously mentioned, in
today's situation in Chile, education for awareness is possible
through pilot experiences, and in preparing groups of people
for long-term changes. Therefore, introducing changes within
scouting should be accomplished under the current restrictions
of the country.

New trends concerning scouting are exhibited by world and
domestic leaders who are interested in extending scouting among
poorer youth and in increasing community development activities.
Moreover, there are some ongoing experiences and facts which
support the concept of scouting for development in Chile.
These experiences and facts will be discussed in this chapter.

At the national level, since January 1981, the Office of
Scouting for Development has staffed a full-time leader to
provide promotion and coordination activities for low income
youth. This position is filled by a social worker who has
extensive experience working with young people from the slums
and shares many of the ideas for development expressed in this
study. Within the Chilean Scouting Association, there are
presently four ongoing experiences similar to those which
promote this thesis' strategy of development. Three of these
experiences were presented in Chapter VI as case studies. The
fourth experience began August 1981 with the organization of
productive workshops for poor young people from Conchali, at

the north of the Metropolitan Region. A fifth experience also closely related with scouting, but managed from outside the movement, was started by the former National Leader of Catholic Boy Scouts, which merged in 1974 into the Chilean Scouting Association. However, scouting members' contributed to part of the constituency (from the Zone of the Puente Alto in the Metropolitan Region) of this experience which utilized community resources for the labor training of poor young people.[127] There are three projects to implement similar experiences within Chilean scouting in the near future:

- A community of Explorers will open a school in March 1982 in a poor neighborhood of Santiago. The curriculum of the school will be based on scouting law and principles.
- A project is being planned to improve living conditions of an indian rural community in the south of Chile. This project is presently being discussed with local authorities.
- A project related with yough labor training and poor community development was submitted by the National Leader to the World Scout Bureau in order to get funds for large scale implementation.

In addition to these projects, the national leader created the National Committee for Studies and Special Projects to advise him on decision making. This committee consists of the head of the Office of Scouting for Development, and the head of the International Project of Ecology (PANDA) and the author of this study. In 1981, that committee organized the seminar on scouting youth and development, and prepared a participatory plan to be implemented during 1982 which was derived from the strategy of development this thesis intends to promote. Initial steps are being made at a higher decision making level for acceptance of the plan.

The national leader was recently reelected for a three
year term and is interested in promoting this plan. Usually
the national leaders are reelected or are chosen from the
permanent staff of the former leader.

Another element which could support the possibility of
education for development within scouting is the consistency
between the values promoted by scouting and the assumptions
underlying this thesis' strategy of development. For example, the
importance of scouting to each individual boy and girl and the
use of personalized education are in agreement with the assumption
of this thesis' strategy which focuses on the person as the end
product of development. The readiness to help other people, as
promoted by scouting, is closely related to the proposed
assumption of collective commitment with the task of development.
Ecological environment is another proposed assumption for
development, and is also an aim of scouting.

The coherence between scouting values and the assumptions of
this thesis' strategy of development means that programs for develop-
ment within scouting do not intend to modify the aims of the
movement, but rather to diversify its activities and improve its
methodology.

4. Some Issues and Problems to Promote This Study's Model of
   Development Through Scouting

From the perspective of promoting development, issues and
problems already presented within scouting can be grouped into
the following categories:

       A. relevance and growth;
       B. organization and methods;
       C. financing and resources, and;
       D. leaders.

A. Relevance and Growth

In spite of the fact that scouting has more members than other organized youth movements in Chile (23,000 members in all five branches), this is a small portion of the total population of scouting age (4,055,207) in Chile. Taking into account worldwide data, it is necessary to reach 400,000 members in order to be relevant to domestic youth. (This figure can be reached in 20 years given a 20% annual growth rate.) Data from the Asian Region indicates that this rate is possible to attain, and even to exceed, but will require considerable effort.

Membership expansion can be accomplished through:

- Completing the groups with the five branches (approximately 1/2 have Explorers and Senior Guides, and 1/2 Girl Guides);
- Increase the size of troops and communities by incorporating new members;
- Keeping current members active for longer time periods;
- Creating new groups;
- Decreasing group dropout rates.

However, regardless of which growth alternative is chosen attitudinal changes of leaders and innovations in leader training program will be necessary. In addition, two biases of current scouting should be corrected for future growth; concentration among middle income youth, and lack of rural scouting.

B. Organization and Methods

Scouting is currently too self-contained, as it looks for solutions for all youth problems within the movement and lacks receptiveness to outside innovations. Experiences in community development have broken this tradition somewhat, but to develop

a more open frame of mind will require time. For example, some groups have been dissolved because a traditional scouting room was not available.

Some organizational problems exist. For example, communications require improvement, and tasks are not always accomplished in a timely manner. Moreover, groups often lack coordination efforts with districts and zones. However, it must be noted that a lack of organizational efficiency is partially a result of working with volunteers with little free time. Another evident problem concerns some failures in the application of personalized education. For example, there is sometimes a rigidity in the application of tests for badges without taking into account that badges should be oriented to promote individual capabilities.

C. Financing and Resources

The dependency on parents to finance scouting activities is an especially difficult problem to overcome to extend scouting among poorer youth. As mentioned previously, there have been some experiences of self-supported groups. However, success on a large scale requires a good system of coordination. On the other hand, to reduce scouting activity costs, such as the full coordination of camping equipment, simplifying the uniform, and paying yearly dues on a sliding-fee scale, will require attitudinal changes of members and leaders.

D. Leaders

All scout leaders are volunteers. Overall, leaders realize that they are doing a favor, and that they can act independently. Consequently, it is difficult to put a leader under pressure to perform, and thus, close coordination is necessary. Approximately 50% of the leaders hold two or more roles within scouting, which results in a lack of time and undoubtedly affects their jobs. Consequently, some of them do not have the necessary time for program innovations, and they tend to repeat what they have learned in scouting training courses. About 30% of current leaders have not initiated any innovations, and 38% do not have plans for future innovations.

Traditional scouting is difficult to modify given current leaders; 47% of current leaders think that no change chould be introduced in today's scouting. Those who desire changes have reasons that are more subjective rather than based on an accurate analysis of reality. Moreover, most of them do not view the reality outside scouting, with the exception of some Catholic priests and nuns. As mentioned, leaders recognize their role as "scouting educators" but they do not consider themselves as educators of Chilean youth. Thus, these leaders have a biased vision of youth reality which will require in-depth person-to-person meeting to generate attitudinal changes.

5. Expected Outcomes

In spite of present problems and issues, good conditions exist for Chilean scouting to be considered as an appropriate environment to provide education which extends this thesis' strategy of

development among young people. These favorable conditions
are as follows:

- After 10 years since the scouting conference in
  Tokyo, new trends in scouting during the 1980s
  imply an openness to innovations among domestic
  and world scouting leaders.

- Most domestic leaders agree that there is no contra-
  diction between values promoted by scouting and
  values underlying this thesis' strategy of development.

- After two years working in the field, it is
  evident that ongoing experiences provide good
  project models on scouting for development.
  Several leaders became interested in these types
  of experiences, and they are currently seeking
  additional information and support.

- Most scouting leaders in Chile are Catholic, and
  follow the Church's direction of Medellin and
  Puebla. These ideals should be promoted in the
  actual implementation of the proposed strategy of
  development.

- The theory that government authorities wish to
  control scouting in Chile probably lacks truth.
  The National Leader and his staff receive strong
  support from the members. Moreover, to intervene
  in scouting would imply additional troubles between
  the government and the Catholic Church, and the
  disapproval of the world scouting movement.

Scouting outcomes discussed in this paper are both short-term
and long-term (which will require considerable planning). One
important result of this paper is that domestic scouting leaders
have available information for decision making which is necessary
for implementing a national plan. The guidelines of this plan are
also provided.

If the plan is successful in its achievement of proposed
goals, the next step will be to generalize scouting for develop-
ment and to extend it as far as possible among Chilean youth.
Moreover, there are several million people involved in scouting
worldwide and their ideas or concrete experiences can be taken

and adapted to local requirements. For the Catholic Church,
at least in Chile, this work is useful because Church experiences
with youth can incorporate new innovations. Presently,
preliminary discussions are in progress with the diocese of
Santiago.

Some of these ideas and experiences can be utilized by poor
private schools. Under present Chilean legislation it would be
possible to incorporate them in the regular curriculum as
extra curricular activities. Presently, a project supported by
the ideas expressed in this paper has been requested by a
congregation school for implementation in 1982. This project
could be a first setp in a large scale transformation.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

TABLES

TABLE I - 1

SCOUTING RATES (MALES) OF ENROLLMENTS WORLDWIDE

REGION	Per capita income U$	Percent Urban	Schooling Rates for ages 6-23	Boy Scout Enrollment rates for males, aged 5-19 per 1,000
North America	6,140	63	81.4	148.02
Europe	3,030	74	68.9	23.06
Latin America	610	53	55.9	3.00
Asia	500	22	45.9	1.54
Africa	220	22	38.7	3.38

Sources:
UNESCO[128]
United Nations[129]
Todaro[130]
World Scout Bureau[131]

TABLE II-1   COVERAGE OF SCOUTING IN CHILE (1980)

Region	N° Scouts	males age 11-16	% Cover-age	N° Guides	girls age 11-16	% Cover-age	N° Explor-ers	males age 17-22	% Cover-age	N° Senior Guides	N° Females 17-22	% Cover-age
I	10	15,997	0.06	9	15,604	0.06	---	15,164	0.00	---	14,883	0.00
II	96	20,931	0.46	34	20,417	0.17	21	19,841	0.11	---	19,473	0.00
III	48	13,282	0.36	22	12,956	0.17	19	12,591	0.15	---	12,357	0.00
IV	61	28,031	0.22	19	27,343	0.07	21	26,571	0.08	---	26,078	0.00
V	744	82,268	0.90	346	80,249	0.43	105	77,984	0.13	19	76,538	0.02
VI	227	37,995	0.60	48	37,061	0.13	32	36,016	0.09	---	35,348	0.00
VII	171	47,079	0.36	37	45,924	0.08	48	44,628	0.11	11	43,800	0.03
VIII	665	98,156	0.68	203	95,746	0.21	153	93,044	0.16	14	91,319	0.02
IX	209	43,795	0.48	83	42,720	0.19	47	41,515	0.11	7	40,745	0.02
X	392	57,502	0.68	202	56,090	0.36	124	54,508	0.23	6	53,497	0.01
XI	---	4,224	0.00	---	4,121	0.00	---	4,004	0.00	---	3,930	0.00
XII	80	7,236	1.10	56	7,054	0.79	14	6,859	0.20	7	6,732	0.10
RM.	2,717	285,204	0.95	1,357	278,201	0.49	706	270,352	0.26	290	265,340	0.11
TOTAL	5,450	713,669	0.76	2,416	741,700	0.33	1,290	703,677	0.18	354	690,040	0.05

Sources: A.G.S.CH Files
           INE. Compendio Estadístico 1979

Notes: 1980 scouting data is used because, although it is similar to
         1979 data it is more desaggregate. Data does not include adult
         members.

         Population data is based on official projections of the 1970
         census.

         Disaggregation by age was done by the author using linear
         projections.

TABLE III-1   UNIVERSE AND SAMPLE

ZONES		Norte	Valplo	Maipo	Chacab.	Cordill.	Central	Concep.	Frontera	Austral	Total
Universe	Total Groups	25	17	32	40	41	19	31	23	16	244
Mailed Sample	Group Sample	4	4	7	8	8	4	6	4	4	49
	Explorers and Senior Guides	--	14	22	41	38	22	14	40	38	259
	Scouts	49	103	86	168	163	102	134	92	103	1,000
	Guides	38	17	125	46	69	12	12	42	40	401
	Total Sample	87	134	233	255	270	136	190	174	181	1,660
Answers	Groups	1	2	4	7	7	3	3	1	1	29
	Explorers and Senior Guides	--	10	11	9	18	21	10	6	8	93
	Scouts	--	62	47	91	112	72	60	17	25	486
	Guides	--	--	65	11	29	2	6	--	10	123
	Total Answers	--	72	123	111	159	95	76	23	43	702

TABLE IV-1 GROUP CONSTITUENCY

	Explorer and Senior Guide Communities, Scout Troops, Guide Troops	Explorer and Senior Guide Communities, Scout Troops	Scout Troops Guide Troops	Scout Troops	Guide Troops	TOTAL
n	(7)	(7)	(5)	(6)	(1)	(26)
%	27	27	19	23	4	100

TABLE IV-2   AVERAGE AGE OF SCOUTING MEMBERS BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION AND BY SPONSORED INSTITUTION

Years of Schooling	----Primary----		-----Secondary-----			University
	6 or less	7 - 8	1	2	3 - 4	
Average age of members from parishes and other institutions	12.6	14.6	14.9	15.9	17.8	18.0
Average age of members from schools	12.4	14.9	15.7	15.8	17.5	20.6
Average age for domestic standards*	12.6	13.8	15.4	16.5	17.8	20.8

* This excludes adult enrollments in primary and secondary education levels.

Sources: Schiefelbein and Grossi, Análisis de la Matrícula del Sistema Educacional Chileno, Santiago, C.P.U. Doc 209 Marzo 1980, p. 69.

TABLE IV-3   DISTRIBUTION OF SCOUTING MEMBERS ACCORDING
TO THEIR FATHER'S JOBS

Fathers' Jobs Branch	% Prefessionals Top Managers	% Technicians and skilled blue collar workers	% unskiled blue collar workers	TOTAL % (n)
Boy Scouts	26	66	8	100 (423)
Girl Guides	23	67	10	100 (105)
Explorers and Senior Guides	21	74	5	100 (85)
Total Scouting	23	69	8	100 (613)
Total Labor Force	3	58	39	100 (2,489,020)

Note: Unemployed and retired people are not included.

Sources: - Schiefelbein Ernesto, ILO, Antecedentes para La
planificacion del los recursos humanos en Chile.
Prealc, Santiago Julio 1977 Chap IV anexo 3.(Data
based on last available census 1970).

TABLE V-1 PERCENT DISTRIBUTION OF MEMBERS' NEEDS

BRANCH	Socio-economic level of members	NEEDS								Do Not Have		Did Not Respond		TOTAL	
		Basic Economics		Affectives		Psychological		Intellectual							
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	M	F	M	F	%	(n)
Boy Scouts	High	10	---	37	---	5	---	---	---	18	--	30	--	100	(111)
	Middle	28	---	38	---	7	---	---	---	15	--	12	--	100	(279)
	Low	35	---	53	---	3	---	---	---	5	--	4	--	100	(38)
Girl Guides	High	--	4	--	50	--	---	--	---	--	21	--	25	100	(24)
	Middle	--	9	--	60	--	---	--	---	--	17	--	14	100	(70)
	Low	--	18	--	73	--	---	--	---	--	9	--	--	100	(11)
Explorers and Senior Guides	High	16	--	47	11	--	5	--	---	16	5	--	--	100	(19)
	Middle	44	3	23	9	--	3	--	---	9	9	--	--	100	(35)
	Low	--	--	67	--	--	--	--	---	33	--	--	--	100	(3)
TOTAL MALES		25	--	40	--	5	--	--	---	15	--	15	--	100	(473)
TOTAL FEMALES		--	9	--	58	--	2	--	---	--	18	--	13	100	(117)
TOTAL MEMBERS		22		43		5		0		16		14		100	(590)
TOTAL LEADERS		21		6		73		0		--		--		100	(72)

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRES

MEMBER QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Whar is your branch and sex?

2. Have you taken your scouting promise?

3. How many years have you been in your troop?

4. In what "progression plan state" are you in now? If you are an Explorer or a Senior Guide, were you previously scout or guide?

5. What merit badges do you have?

6. What is your position in your patrol?

7. How old are you?

8. What is your father's job? Is he working, unemployed, or retired?

9. Wat is your mother's job? Is she staying at home, unemployed, or retired?

10. What members of your family do you live with?

11. What was your last year of schooling?

12. What was your grade point average in school last year?

13. What other extra curricular activities are you involved in other than scouting?

14. Do you find scouting activities useful?

15. What scouting activities did you find most interesting last year?

16. What are the activities you like to do most frequently with your troop?

17. Are there some activities you would like to incorporate into scouting?

18. What would you like to do with a group of people your own age?

19. What are the most urgent needs for you and your family?

20. Do you know how to satisfy those needs?

21. Is it hard for you to pay member fees?

22. Are you a patrol leader?

23. If not, describe your relationship with your patrol leader?

24. Describe your relationship with the troop leader?

LEADER QUESTIONNAIRE

1. What group are you in?

2. What is your position(s) within scouting?

3. How old are you?

4. What was your last completed year of schooling?

5. Are you presently a student, working, or both?

6. If you are a student, what is your field of study?

7. If you are working, what is your field of work, and what is your position?

8. What is your marital status?

9. What is (or was) your father's job?

10. What is your religion?

11. Are you associated with the church, masons, or other similar institutions

12. Are you involved with other services or public recreation institutions?

13. How long have you been a scouting leader?

14. Were you previously a scouting member?

15. What were your reasons for becoming a scouting leader?

16. What regular studies in the field of education have you done?

17. What courses for leaders have you taken?

18. What other courses or training do you have?

19. How many hours per week do you contribute to scouting?

20. What are the favorite activities of the members?

21. Are current activities useful for the members?

22. Have you implemented some innovations within scouting? If so, please describe those innovations?

23. Are you planning future innovations for scouting? If yes, briefly outline those innovations.

24. What are the three most urgent needs of scouting members?

25. If it is necessary to renew scouting, what would you do? What would the reasons for such a renewal be?

26. Who programs the activities for the year?

27. How do members participate in the programming?

28. What is your opinion about activities and the leader training program in the Scouting Association?

29. Do you have any suggestions about how to improve scouting in Chile?

APPENDIX C

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY ON DEVELOPMENT

1. Adelman, Irma. Theories of Economic Growth and Development. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1961.

2. Agarwala, A.M. and Singh, S.P. The Economics of Underdevelopment. New York: Oxford Press, 1976.

3. Amin, Samir. Accumulation in the World Scale: A Critique of the Theory of Development. New York Monthly: Review Press. 1974.

4. Baran, Paul. The Political Economy of Growth. New York Monthly: Review Press, 1964.

5. Becherman. W. "Human Resources and Economic Development." International Social Science Journal, 24 (1972):4.

6. Black, C. The Dynamics of Modernization. New York: Harper and Row, 1966.

7. CEPAL, Estudio Economico de America Latina 1979. Santiago: Chile 1980.

8. Chenery, H. Structural Change and Development Policy, London: Oxford University Press, 1979.

9. Cole, Sam and Lucas, Henry. Models Planning and Basic Needs. London: William Cowes, 1979.

10. Frank, Andre Gunder. Latin America Underdevelopment or Revolution. New York: Monthly Review Press, 1969.

11. Fulk, R. A Study of the Future World. New York: Free Press, 1975.

12. Furtado, Celso. Development and Underdevelopment. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1971.

13. Goulet, Denis. The Cruel Choice: A New Concept in the Theory of Development. New York: Atheneum, 1971.

14. Hagen, Everett. The Economics of Development. Homewood: D. Irwin Inc., 1968.

15. Harbison, Frederick. Human Resources as the Wealth of Nations. New York: Oxford University Press, 1973.

16. Hirschman, A.O. The Strategy of Economic Development. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1972.

17. Hiroshi, Takamori., and Schichi, Yamashita. "Measuring Socioeconomic Development." Journal of Development Economics., 1973.

18. Hoffman, Charles. "The Maoist Economic Model." Journal of Economic Issues, 5 (September. 1971):3.

19. Inkeles, Alex, and Smith, David. Becoming Modern: Individual Change in Six Developing Countries. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1974.

20. Illich, I. "Revolting Development," International Development Review., 19:4, 1977.

21. Kingsley, Davis. World Urbanization 1950-1970. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1969.

22. Levy, Marion. Modernization and the Structure of the Societies:

A Setting for International Affairs. Princeton, New Jersey:
Princeton University Press, 1964.

23. Lewis, Arthur. The Theory of Economic Growth. Homewood: D. Irwin
    Inc., 1955.

24. Matus, Carlos. Planificacion De Situaciones, Caracas Cendes,
    1978.

25. McClelland, David., and Winter, David. Motivating Economic
    Achievement. New York: The Free Press, 1961.

26. McClelland, David. The Achievement Society. New York: Van Nostrand,
    1961.

27. McClelland, David., and Aschuler, Alfred. Achievement Motiviation
    Development Project. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1971

28. Meier, G.N. Leading Issues in Economics Development. New York:
    Oxford University Press, 1976.

29. Myrdal, Gunnar. Asian Drama. New York: Pantheon Books, 1969

30. Myrdal, Gunnar. The Challenge of World Poverty. New York: Vitage
    Books, 1971.

31. Nurse, Ragnar. Problems of Capital Formation in Underdeveloped
    Countries. New York: Oxford University Press, 1953.

32. Owens, Edgard., and Shaw, Robert. Developed Reconsidered,
    Lexinton: Lexinton Books, 1973.

33. Seers, D. "The New Meaning of Development." International
    Development Review. 19:3 (1977).

34. Staley, E., and Morse, R. Modern Small Industries for Developing
    Countries. New York: McGraw Hill, 1965.

35. Timer, C. Peter; Thomas, W. John; John, Well T.; and Locis,
    Moraurtiz, David. The Choise of Technology in Developing
    Countries. New York: McGraw Hill, 1965.

36. Todaro, Michael, P. Economic Development in the Third World.
    New York: Longman Inc., 1977

37. Ulyanovsky, R. and Paulov, V. Asian Dilemma: A Soviet View and
    Myrdal's concept. Moscow Progress Publishers, 1974.

38. Uphoff N., and Illchman, Warren. The Political Economy of
    Development. Berkeley: Berkeley University Press, 1972.

39. Weaver, J.; Jameson, K.; and Blue, R. "Growth and Equity: Can
    They Be Happy Together." International Development Review.
    20:1, 1978.

40. World Bank, World Development Report 1980, Washington World
    Bank, Oxford University, 1980.

BIBLIOGRAPHY ON EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT

1. Adams, D. "The Study of Education and Social Development." Comparative Education Review. 9:3 (1965).

2. Alexander, L. and Simmos, I. The Determinants of School Achievment in Developing Countries. Washington: International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, Staff Working Paper No. 201, March 1975.

3. Axinn, George. Toward a Strategy of International Interaction in Nonformal Education. East Lansing: Michigan State Univeristy Press, 1973.

4. Beckerman, W. "Human Resources and Economic Development, Problems of Measurements." International Social Science Journal. 24:4 (1972).

5. Bock, J. "The Institutionalization of Nonformal Education." Comparative Education Review. 20:3 (1976).

6. Brembeck, J., and Thompson, T. New Strategies for Educational Development: The Cross Cultural Search for Nonformal Alternatives. Lexington: Lexington Books, 1973.

7. Carnoy, Martin. "Educational and Cultural Change." 25:Supplement, 1977.

8. Carnoy, Martin. "Can Educational Policy Equalize Income Distribution." Prospects. Paris: UNESCO. 8:1 (1978).

9. Claparede, Edouard. Comment Diagnostiquer les Aptitudes Chez les Ecoliers. Paris: Ernest Flamnarion, 1924.

10. CMIE. Manual for Reducing Unit Costs in Latin American Countries. San Jose de Costa Rica CMIE-OEA, 1974.

11. Coleman, J. The Adolescent Society. New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1963.

12. Coomb, P.H., and Ahemd, M. A. Making Rural Poverty: How Nonformal Education Helps. Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press, 1974.

13. Davis, Russell. Issues and Problems in the Planning of Education in Developing Countries. Cambridge: Harvard University, 1980.

14. Douglas, Windham. "The Macroplanning of Education" Comparative Education Review. 19:2 (1975).

15. Dreeben, Robert. The Nature of Teaching. Illinois: Scott and Foresman Co., 1970.

16. Faure, Edgard., ed. Learning To Be. Paris: Unesco, 1972.

17. Freire, P. Pedagogy of the Oppressed. New York: Herder and Herder, 1970.

18. Freire, P. Pedagogy in Process: The Letters to Ginea-Bisau. New York: Seabury, 1978.

19. Foster, Philip. "Dilemmas of Educational Development." Comparative Education Review. October, 1975.

20. Galtung, J.; Beck, C.; and Iaastad, J. Educational Growth and Educational Disparity. Paris: Unesco, OFfice of Statistics, 1973.

21. Gammon, Majorie. NonFormal Learning: Jamaica's Experience in Mass Literacy. JAMAL Foundation. August, 1975.

22. Garcia, Huidobro. Juan E. Conciencia y sociedad, Filosofia y Hegemonia. Ph.D. Thesis. Belgium: University of Lovine

23. Gillette, A. Beyond the Nonformal Fashion, Towards Educational Revolution. Amherst: Center for International Education, University of Massachusetts, 1977.

24. Hughes, Thomas. Teaching for Independence. Illinois: The Interstate Printers, 1965

25. Kaayk, Jan. Education Estrangement and Adjustment. Mouton: The Hague Paris, 1965.

26. Kassof, Allen. The Soviet Youth Program. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1965.

27. La Belle, Thomas. Educational Alternatives in Latin America, Social Change and Stratification. Los Angeles: UCLA, 1975.

28. La Belle, Thomas, and Verhine, Robert. "Nonformal Education and occupational Stratification Implications for Latin America." Cambridge: Harvard Education Review. 45:2 (May, 1975).

29. Latorre, C. Luz, and Gonzales, Luise. Posibilidades de la Capacitacion y la Organizacion para los Trabajadores por Cuenta Propia. Santiago: PIIE, 1981.

30. McGinn and Snodgras. "A Typology of Implications of Planning Education for Economic Development." Cambridge: Harvard University Paper No. 10 in Analysis, Methodologies Project USAID, mimeo. December, 1978.

31. McGinn, Noel. Education and Modernization in the Republic of Korea. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1979

32. Maslow, Abraham. Motivation and Personality. New York: Harper and Row, 1970.

33. Mukherjee, H. Education for Fulness. London: Asia Publishing, 1962.

34. Myerere, Julies K. Education for Self-Reliance. Dar as Salaaman Government of Tanzania, 1967.

35. Myerere, J. Freedom and Unity. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1973.

36. OECD. Indicators of Performance of Educational Systems. Paris: OECD, 1973.

37. Owens, Edgard, and Shaw, Robert. Development Reconsidered. Lexington: Lexington Books, 1973.

38. Paulston, G. Rolland. Conflicting Theories of Social and Educational Change. Pittsburg, 1976.

39. Psacharopolous, Gand, and Keith H. Returns to Education: An International Comparison. San Francisco. Jossey-Bass, 1973.

40. Quintero, Alfaro Angel. Educacion y Cambio Social en Puerto Rico. Ed. Universitaria, 1966.

41. Schielfelbien, Ernesto. "Education and Employment in Latin America." Santiago: Chile PIIE. mimeo., 1975.

42. Schiefelbein, Ernesto, La Subestimacion del Problema de la Repeticion en America Latina. Mexico: _Revista del CEE_. 7:2 (1977).

43. Shamsul, Huq Muhammead. _Education and Development Strategy in South and Southeast Asia_. East West Center Press, 1965.

44. Simmons, John. _Education Poverty and Development_. International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, Washington, D.C., 1974.

45. Skinner,   Burrhus, Frederic. _Science and Human Behavior_, New York, Mcmillan, 1953.

46. Suchodolski, B. _Teoria Marxista de la Educacion_. Ed Grizalbo Mexico, 1965.

47. Szylioqiczs, J. _Education and Modernization in the Middle East_, Ithaca: Cornell University Press, London, 1973.

48. Unesco. _Asian Model of Educational Development: Perspective for 1965-1980_. Unesco, 1966.

49. Unesco, _Evolucion Reciente de la Educacion en America Latina_. Santiago: Chile Unesco, 1974.

50. Unesco. _Growth and Change: Perspectives of Education in Asia_. Unesco, 1972.

51. Unesco, _Secondary Education, Social Structure and Development in Latin America_. Caracas, 1971.

52. Unesco, _World Problems in Education_. Paris: Unesco, 1975.

53. Vasconi, Thomas. _Educacion y Cambio Social_. Ed. Universitaria Santiago, Chile, 1967.

54. World Bank. _Education Sector Working Paper_. Washington: World Bank, 1974.

55. World Bank, _Education Sector Working Paper_, Washington: World Bank, 1978.

BIBLIOGRAPHY ON YOUTH AND SCOUTING

1. Baden-Powell, A. Scoutmastership. New York: Putnam's Sons, 1920.

2. Bouchet, Henri, Le Scoutisme, Bases Psychologiques, Methods et Rites. Paris: Universite de Paris, 1933.

3. Boy Scout of America. Adventuring for Senior Scouts. New York: B.S.A, 1938.

4. Boy Scout of America. A Study of Adolescent Boys. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, 1956.

5. Boy Scout of America. Community Boy Leadership: A Manual for Scout Executives. New York: B.S.A., 1922.

6. Boy Scout of America. Handbook for Boys. New York: Doubleday Company, 1914.

7. Boy Scout of America. Handbook for Patrolleaders. New York: B.S.A., 1935.

8. Boy Scout of America. Handbook for Scoutmasters. New York: B.S.A., 1938.

9. Boy Scout of America. The Boy Scout Yearbook. New York: Appleton, 1917.

10. Boy Scout of America. The Boy Scout's Book of True Adventure. New York: Putman Sons, 1931.

11. Boy Scout of America. 8° Annual Report. New York: B.S.A., 1918.

12. Boy Scout of America. Thirty Years of Serivce. New York: Carey Press, 1941.

13. Boy Scout of America. 28° Annual Report, Washington D.C.: Washington Government Printing Office, 1938.

14. Boy Scout of America. The How Book of Scouting. New York: B.S.A. 1938.

15. Boy Scout of America. Personal Administration in Scouting: New York B.S.A., 1944.

16. Boy Scout of America. Scouting for Rural Boys: A Manual for Leaders. New York: B.S.A., 1938

17. Bronfenbrenner, Urie. Two Worlds of Childhood. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1970.

18. Carey, Arthur, The Scout Law in Practice. Boston: Little Brown and Co., 1916.

19. Carmichael, Robert. A Longitudinal Comparison of Intelligence and Scholarship Performance Profile of Scouts and Non-Scouts during Elementary and Secondary School Years. Los Angeles: UCLA, 1974.

20. Cornelius, Michael. A Comparative Study of Leaders and Non-Leaders Among Catholic Boy Scouts. New York: Fordham University, 1947.

21. Council of Europe. <u>Youth and Social Change.</u> Strasbourg Co ncil of Europe, 1970.

22. Erikson, Erik. <u>Identity and Youth Crisis.</u> New York: W. V. Norton, 1968.

23. Jover, Mateo, <u>La Imagen del escultismo en America Latima el Caribe y sus posibles cambios.</u> San Jose: Costa Rica. Ed Scout Interamericana, 1973.

24. Kern, Horace. <u>Twenty Five Years of Scouting in the Philad lphia Council.</u> Philadelphia B.S.A, 1935.

25. Kimball, Carlos, <u>Boy Scouting as a Factor in Personal Dev lopment.</u> Berkeley: University of California Press, 1949.

26. Kenneth, Keniston. <u>Youth and Dissent.</u> New York: Harcourt race Ivanovich, 1970.

27. Larson, John. <u>A Changing Definition of Patrol Leadership s an Integral Part of the Program of the Boy Scouts of Ameri a,</u> New Brunswick: The State University of New Jersey, 1977.

28. Leroy, Kohler. <u>The Effectiveness of Scouting in City Area of High Delinquency.</u> New York: New York University, 1949.

29. Lewy, Harold. <u>Building a Popular Movement.</u> New York: Russ l Sage Fund, 1944.

30. Murerwa, Herbert. <u>The Planning of Nonformal Education fo Rural Youth Employment.</u> Cambridge: Harvard University. Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Education, 1978.

31. Murray, William. <u>The History of the Boy Scouts of America</u> New York: B.S.A., 1937.

32. Nicholson, Edwing. <u>Education and the Boy Scout Movement.</u> ew York: Columbia University, 1940.

33. Ostreicher, Leonard. <u>Psychological Aspects of Scouting.</u> N w York: Columbia University, 1954.

34. Oursler, William. <u>The Boy Scout Story.</u> New York: Doubleda Company, 1955.

35. Owyland, Ray. <u>Principles of Scoutmastership.</u> New York: B. .A., 1939.

36. Owyland, Ray. <u>Scouting in the School.</u> New York: Columbia University Press, 1937.

37. Price. Juther. <u>Boy Scouts of Glen Ridge,</u> New Jersey: Mont lair, 1935.

38. Price, Luther, <u>Eagle Rock Scouting.</u> New Jersey: Montclai 1937.

39. Reynolds, E. <u>Baden-Powell.</u> London: Oxbord University Pre , 1942.

40. Reynolds, E.E. <u>Boy Scouts.</u> London: William Collins, 1941.

41. Reynolds, E.E. <u>Boy Scout Jubilee.</u> London: Oxford Univeri y, 1957.

42. Richardson, Norman. <u>The Boy Scout Movement Applied by the Church.</u> New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1915.

43. Royet, P. Les Eclaireurs de France. Paris: Librairie Larousse, 1913.

44. Thompson, J. The Woodcraft Manual for Boys. New York: author, 1922.

45. The Protestant Committee on Scouting. The Scout Program in the Protestant Church. New York: author, 1938.

46. UNESCO. Youth Institutions as Services Present State and Development. Paris: UNESCO, No. 23, 1977.

47. UNESCO. New Trends in Youth Organization. Paris: UNESCO, 1960.

48. UNESCO. Rights and Resoponsibilities of Youth. Paris: UNESCO, 1972.

49. United Nations. Long-Term Policies and Programs for Youth in National Development. New York: United Nations, 1970.

50. University of Michigan. A Study of Boy Scouts and Their Scoutmasters. Michigan, 1950

51. U.S. Government. "Report of the White House Conference on Youth," Washington D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, April 1971.

52. Wade, E.V. 27 Years with Baden-Powell. London: Bladford Press, 1957.

53. Wade, E.D. The Pipe of Pax, the Life Story of Sir Robert Baden Powell. Philadelphia: Lippincott Co., 1924.

54. World Scout Bureau. "Report on the 2nd International Caribbean Scout Community Development Seminar." Trinidad: Bobago, mimeo. June 1177.

55. World Scout Bureau. "Scouting for Development. A Report of the First International Seminar on Community Development." Dahomey, mimeo , March 1972: Geneva W.S.B, 1974.

56. World Scout Bureau. "Scout for Development." 23rd Boy Scout World Conference, Tokyo, 1971 mimeo, Geneva W.S.B., 1971.

57. World Scout Bureau. Scouting Round the World. Geneva, W.S.B., 1977.

APPENDIX D

FOOTNOTES

FOOTNOTES

1. These issues were suggested by Russell Davis in R. Davis et al, _Issues and Problems in the Planning of Education in Developing Countries_ (Cambridge: Harvard University, 1980).

2. Juan Eduardo Garcia-Huidobro, "Educacion, Conciencia y Sociedad, Filosofia y Hegemonia " (Brussels: University of Louvain) Thesis for Ph.D. Degree.

3. German Rama, "Educacion Imagenes y Estilos de Desarrollo," _Revista Paraguaya de Sociologia_, (Asuncion, 1975).

4. Ronald Paulston, _Ideological Perspectives on Educational Reform: A Paradigmatic Model_, (Washington, D.C. World Bank) working paper, 1978, _mimeo_.

5. Abraham Magendzo, Nancy Barra, Luis Eduardo Gonzalez, _Estudio Comparado sobre los Cambios e Innovaciones en la Educacion Tecnica y la Formacion Profesional en America Latina y el Caribe_, (Santiago: Unesco, 1981).

6. This framework does not consider the "traditional model" based on traditional agriculture and raw mineral material production because it represents a status-quo. Rama, op, cit.

7. This part has been taken totally from Russell Davis and Barclay Hudson, "Planning Education for Development: Additional Central Issues" from Russell Davis, op. cit., p. 18.

8. Ibid., p. 32.

9. Quoted by Davis and Hudson, op. cit., p. 32.

10. Quoted by Davis and Hudson, op. cit., p. 32.

11. Ibid., p. 33.

12. Juan Eduardo Garcia, op. cit.

13. P.H. Coombs and M.A. Ahemd, _Making Rural Poverty: How Nonformal Education Helps_ (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1974) p. 8.

14. Thomas LaBelle and Robert Verhine, "Nonformal Education and Occupational Stratifications for Latin America" (Cambridge _Harvard Education Review_ 45:2 May 1975), p. 171)

15. George H. Axim, _Toward a Strategy of International Interaction in Nonformal Education_. (East Lansing: Michigan State University, 1973).

16. P.H. Coombs and M. Ahmed, op. cit.

17. P.H. Coombs and M. Ahemd, op. cit.

18. C. Brembeck and I.T. Thompson, "New Strategies for Educational Development" (La Belle and Verhine) op. cit., p. 164,

19. P.H. Coombs and M. Ahmed, op. cit., p. 179.

20. UNESCO, Statistical Year Book 1976, (Paris, 1977),
pp. 14, 116

21. UNESCO, New Trends in Youth Organization. (Paris:
UNESCO Studies and Documents) p. 20.

22. Ray Owyland, Scouting in the School, (New York: Columbia
University Press, 1937) p. 25

23. E. Reynolds, Baden-Powell, (London: Oxford University
Press, 1942), p. 138

24. Will Oursler, The Boy Scout Story, (New York: Doubleday
Company, 1955) p. 29 (referring to a paper on the decline of
the Roman Empire by B. Powell in 1906).

25. P. Roger, Les Eclaireurs de France, (Paris: Larousse,
1913) p. 14.

26. As a result of his own experience, B. Powell strongly
criticized the school. See B. Powell, Scout Mastership,
(New York: G.P. Putnam's Sons, 1920) p. 23.

27. P. Roget, op cit., p. 14.

28. There were fourteen International Jamborees since the
first experimental camp in 1907, and more than one hundred
other international meetings. See World Scout Bureau,
Scouting Round the World, (Geneva, 1977).

29. E. Reynolds, Baden Powell, (London: Oxford University Press,
1942) p. 213.

30. Although today there are some experiences with younger
children. For example, scouting "Keponenene in
Belgium where they begin at 6 Years Old" (World Scout Bureau,
1977) op. cit., p. 13.

31. In some countries there are coeducational activities and
organizations for males and females. For example, Israel,
Chile, and France. See World Scout Bureau, 1977, op. cit.
pp. 36-37.

32. Ibid., p. xii

33. The honor is understood as the responsibility to obey a
code. See Arthur Carey, The Scout Law in Practice, (Boston:
Little Brown and Co., 1916).

34. It is interesting to mention that the scouting law is
identical to the principles of youth pioneers in Russia. See
Urie Bronfenbrener, 1970, op. cit.

35. Baden Powell, 1920, op. cit., p. 56.

36. Leroy Kohler, The Effectiveness of Scouting in City Areas
of High Delinquency, (New York: New York University Press, 1949.
There are also experiences in schools for inmates in South
Korea. See World Scout Bureau, op. cit., p. 65.

37. For this purpose an interesting set of materials have been
produced by UNICEF and scouting. See UNICEF-World Scout Bureau,
Dossier on Appropriate Technology, (Geneva, 1978).

38. That is a recommendation for scoutmasters. See Leonard Martin Ostreicher, <u>Psychological Aspects of Scouting</u>, (New York: Columbia University, 1954), p. 14.

39. Boy Scout of America, <u>Annual Report</u>, (New York, 1918), p. 13.

40. E. Reynolds, <u>Boy Scout Jubilee</u>, (London: Oxford University, Press, 1957), p. 112.

41. World Scout Bureau, 1977, op. cit. In addition, there are a large number of youth movements very similar to scouting.

42. E. Reynolds, <u>Boy Scouts</u>, (London: William Collins, 1941), p. 10.

43. Henri Bouchet, <u>Le Scoutisme Bases Psychologiques Methods et Rites</u>, these pour le doctorat presenté a la Faculté de Lettres de l'Université de Paris. (Paris: Libraries Feliz Alcan, 1933), p. 16.

44. Baden Powell, 1920, op. cit., p. 40.

45. Apparently at the beginning, the 20th centure was considered as the "century of sports." See Roger, op, cit., p. 9.

46. <u>Ibid</u>., p. 14.

47. E. Thompson, <u>The Woodcraft Manual for Boys</u>, (New York: The Woodcraft League of America, Inc., 1922).

48. Harold P. Lewy, <u>Building a Popular Movement</u>, (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1944), p. 23.

49. In 1914 there were credit courses in Universities like Columbia, Wisconsin and California. <u>Ibid</u>, p. 24.

50. Will Ourseler, 1955, op. cit., 27.

51. Baden Powell, 1920, op. cit., p. 36.

52. For instance, in 1880, 6.1% of the american population was urban. In 1920, 51.4% was urban. Harold P. Levy, 1944, op. cit., p. 16.

53. E.K. Wade, <u>27 Years with Baden Powell</u>, (London: Blandfor Press, 1957), p. 20.

54. William Murray, <u>The History of the Boy Scouts of America</u>, (New York: Boy Scouts of America, 1937).

55. World Scout Bureau, 1977, op, cit., p. 116.

56. <u>Comprehensive Dissertation Abstracts International</u>, (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, Microfilms International, 1978, volumes 30-38.

57. Leondar Ostreicher, 1954, op. cit., p. 14.

58. Harold Levy, 1944, op. cit., p. 25.

59. E.E. Reynolds, 1942, op. cit., p. 170.

60. In this sense it is very interesting to mention that the Russion Youth Brigades had not been incorporated into the International Scout Organization. However, as mentioned previously, they have a "code" which has the same wording as the scout law. See Urie, op. cit., and A. Kassof, <u>The Soviet</u>

Union, (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1965).

61. Urie, op. cit., p. 210

62. Ibid., p. 167.

63. Ibid., p. 232.

64. Carlos Clark Kimball, Boy Scouting as a Factor in Personal Development, (Berkeley: California University Press, 1949), p. 154.

65. Institute for Social Research, A Study of Boy Scouts and Their Scoutmasters, (Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan, mimeo, 1960), p. 19.

66. Some examples are: Yaounde Camerum, 1977; Trinidad Tobago, 1977; New Delhi India 1977; Tunis, Tunisia 1978: Tamilnadu India 1979. See reports, mimeo.

67. Lazlo Nagy, World Scout Report, (Geneva: World Scout Bureau, 1970).

68. Mateo Jover, La imagen del Scoutismo en América Latina y el Caribe y sus posibilidades de cambio, (San José, Costa Rica: Consejo Interamericano de Scoutismo, 1972).

69. 2nd. International Caribean Scout Community Development Seminar Report, (Trinidad, Tobago, 1977), mimeo, pp. 17-19.

70. Estimated population for June 1979 is based on the last census (1970) for 10,917,456 people.

71. United Nations, Demographic Year Book 1972, (New York, 1973), pp. 178-218.

72. Abraham Magendzo and Nancy Barra, Estudios de cambios e innovaciones en la Educación Técnica y la Formación Professional en América Latina y el Caribe: El caso de Chile, (Santiago: UNESCO, 1978).

73. Carmen Luz Latorre and Luis Eduardo González, Posibilidades de la Capacitación y la Organización para los trabajadores por cuenta propia, (Santiago: PIIE, 1981).

74. Ana Maria Foxley, "Los rezagados del Esquema", Revista Hoy, April 1978, p. 19.

75. UNESCO, Boletin Estadístico, (OREALC, 1981), N° 22.

76. Ricardo Solari, Nueva Legislación laboral, Recesión Empleo y Desempleo Juvenil, (Santiago: Sur, 1981), mimeo.

77 UNICEF, "Situacion de la Infancia Marginal en América Latina y el Caribe 1979." (US$ 1970). in C.L. Latorre and L.E. González, op. cit.

78. Authors estimations using data from Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas INE, Informe Estadístico 1979, (Santiago, 1980) and estimating on 4.56 average of the family group.

79. ODEPLAN, Mapa de la extrema pobreza en Chile, (Santiago Universidad Catolica de Chile, 1977).

80. Rene Cortazar, Necesidades basicas y extrema pobreza, (Santiago: CIEPLAN, 1977), September.

81. Sergio Martinic, "La familia marginal urbana" (Santiago: CIDE, 1979).

82. Valentine, Cultura de la pobreza. Buenos Aires Amorrotu 1972, quotes by C. Luz Latorre; L. E. Gonzalez, op. cit.

83. A. Moreno Cortazar and C.E. Pizarro, Condiciones culturales y Sociales de las políticas de erradicación de la pobreza, (Santiago: CIEPLAN, 1976).

84. Porter, Poor Slums in Chile, (Cambridge: Center for Urban Studies, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1971), mimeo.

85. Salomón Magendzo and Consuelo Gazmuri, Alcances sobre caracterización de la pobreza, (Santiago: PIIE, 1980) October.

86. Adriana Delpiano, Alfabetización en Chile, (PIIE Estudios 1981). Data projections from 1970 census.

87. UNESCO-OREALC, Informaciones estadísticas de la educación y análisis cuantitativo N° 22, (Santiago: UNESCO, 1980) December.

88. R. Echeverría and R. Hevia, Cambios en el Sistema Educacional bajo el Gobierno Militar, (PIIE Estudios, 1980).

89. UNESCO-OREALC, December 1980, op. cit., p. 19.

90. E. Schiefelbein and M.C. Grossi, Análisis de la Matrícula Escolar en Chile. (Santiago: CIDE, 1978), December 10.

91. Carmen Luz Latorre and L.E. González, op. cit.

92. Ibid.

93. San Miguel, Javier et al., Diagnóstico y Análisis del sistema de capacitación de adultos en el sector fiscal del área metropolitana, (Santiago: U. Católica de Chile, 1981).

94. Carmen Luz Latorre and L.E. González, op. cit.

95. MINEDUC. Dto. de Educación extraescolar, Memoria Anual 1980, (Santiago, 1981).

96. República de Chile, Compendio Estadístico 1979, Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas, p. 23.

97. R. Echeverría, R. Hevia, and G. López, Estadísticas de Matrículas y población, (Santiago: PIIE, 1981). Adult enrollments are not considered.

98. There is about 110,000 men in the country who play soccer regularly according to a Gallup Survey on May 1979.

99. Donald Lenke, Curflex (Santiago: UNESCO, 1979).

100. Maslow, op. cit., pp. 36-46.

101. Valiente Sergio, Ruiz Oscar, and Klain Julio. Study of Food Purchasing Capacity of Low Income Urban Families of Santiago, (INTA: University de Chile, 1980), mimeo. p. 15.

102. Odeplan, U. Católica Mapa de la extrema pobreza, op. cit.

103. Arzobispado de Santiago. "Dimensions y aspectos de la vida de los jóvenes" (Santiago, 1979), mimeo.

104. IDPAJ, Diagnóstico de la realidad juvenil del Sector F de la Población Jose Maria Caro, (Santiago, 1979), mimeo.

105. ISPAJ, Encuesta sobre la juventud, (Santiago, 1979), mimeo.

106. At least for people working on the informal sector of the economy where most of the poor are, there is an association between the level of entry into the labor market and the current level of workers. See Carmen L. Latorre and Luis E. González, op. cit.

107. Ministerio de Educacion, Abuso De Drogras, (Santiago, 1975).

108. Universidad de Chile, Sede Talca, El alcoholismo entre los estudiantes, (Talca. 1978).

109. Ministerio de Salud, Antecedentes sobre el alcoholismo en Chile, quoted by Eduardo Cerón, Una experiencia con rehabilitación de alcohólicos. Seminario sobre scoutismo y D.easarrollo, November 1981.

110. Abraham Maslow, op. cit.

111. This is the highest populated area of the country.

112. This chapter summarizes a more complete work done by the author for the Scouting Association in Chile. See Luis E. González, Caracteristicas de Grupos Jefes y Miembros de la Associación de Guias y Scouts de Chile, (Santiago: A.G.S.CH., 1981).

113. Rodrigo Berrios, Graciela Jaque and Oscar Ruiz, Estudio de la capacidad de compra de familias chilenas de menor ingreso. (Santiago: INTA, Universidad de Chile, 1979), documento 4.

114. It was not possible to track them at all because of anonymous mailed questionnaries.

115. It was not possible to ask members for the marital status of their parents because they did not want to answer that question in the pilot sample. Therefore, this estimation is done based on those who do not live with both parents and information on students stating a need for the union of their family.

116. Abraham Maslow, op. cit.

117. Carmen Latorre and Luis González, op. cit.

118. Description of cases is not always absolutely precise because of people involved, but the information they provide is correct.

119. Universidad Catolica de Chile, Odeplan, Mapa de la extrema prbreza, op. cit.

120. It is very difficult to get disaggregate official data on unemployment. Estimates are based on the opinion of people working with church organizations.

121. Most of this information comes from another survey done by the author in la Granja and in other poor neighborhoods in Santiago. See Carmen L. Latorre and Luis E. Gonzáles, op. cit.

122. There is a tradition to eat these foods on Sunday among Chilean people.

123. In Chile, the same uniform is compulsory for all private and public schools. A uniform is also used by all scouting branches, which is similar to the school one.

124. Associacion de Guias y Scouts de Chile, Trabajos y Conclusiones del Seminario sobre Juventud Scoutismo y Desarrolo, (Santiago, 1981) Noviembre, mimeo.

125. As previously mentioned, Chile has relatively high educational standards in the urban areas. Only 6% of the Explorers and Senior Guides were detected as having only an elementary education level. Of this 6%, all were from low income levels.

126. In this chapter, needs are labeled according to the unbalances which generate those needs.

127. See the paper submitted by Fidel Oteiza, CIDE, to the Saminar on Youth and Scouting for Development, Associacion de Guias y Scouts de Chile., op cit.

128. UNESCO, Statistical Yearbook 1976, op. cit., pp. 13, 39, 115.

129. United Nations, Statistics in Brief, (New York: United Nations, 1976), p.4.

130. Michael Todaro, Economic Development in the Third World, (New York: Longman Inc., 1978).

131. Scout World Bureau, "Fact Sheets" (Geneva: Scout World Bureau, 1977).

VITA

1962	Universidad de Chile	Bachiller en Matemáticas
1963-68	Universidad Católica de Chile	Egr. Licenciatura Electricidad
1966-69	Electrical Contractor	
1969	Universidad Católica de Chile	Ingeniero Civil Electricista
1970-75	Professor at the School of Engineering, Universidad Católica de Chile	
1972-74	Universidad Católica de Chile	Magister en Educacion
1973-77	Researcher, Programa Inter-disciplinario de Investigaciones en Educación (PIIE) Universidad Catolica de Chile	
1977-79	Graduate School of Education, Harvard University	Master of Education
1980-	Researcher at PIIE Academia Humanismo Critiano	