AGE OF TRANSITION
rural youth in a changing society

ECONOMIC RESEARCH SERVICE / U.S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE / AGRICULTURAL HANDBOOK 347
This book is dedicated to the rural youth of America. It was produced in the Department of Agriculture in cooperation with the five other sponsoring agencies of the Conference—the Departments of Labor, Interior, Health, Education and Welfare, the Office of Economic Opportunity, and the President's Council on Youth Opportunity, as well as a number of private organizations. Its purpose is to supplement the information and insights provided by the National Outlook Conference on Rural Youth, and to serve as a resource for work in behalf of rural youth at State and local levels.

In compiling a book of this kind, problems of consistency are unavoidable due to the wide range of sources from which data have been collected. To resolve these problems, we have used the best, most recent, and most reliable data we could find and have indicated the sources. Historical trends and projections on a national basis involve the old as well as the young, the urban population as well as the rural, but are a necessary backdrop for an overall understanding of what is happening in the fields of education, employment, health, welfare, and other facets of life in a changing society.

Space limitations dictate that no one aspect of a broad spectrum of interests and concerns can be treated fully or in detail. For further study and detailed statistics, a supplement of supporting data for the charts accompanies this book. The procedure for obtaining a set of slides of the graphic material is given on the back cover.
FOREWORD

Fully one-third of our Nation's youth live on farms or in small towns and communities. As our concern for our cities increases, this vital segment of our population is sometimes overlooked.

In establishing the National Outlook Conference of Rural Youth, it was our intent to assure that our rural youth will have all the opportunities available to other Americans -- in health, in education, in employment, in all areas of human endeavor.

This fact book, *Age of Transition: Rural Youth in a Changing Society*, shows the strides we have made, and are making, to revitalize rural America. I hope it will be a useful tool for State, county, and community groups in conducting similar conferences.

Our rural youth must not become a forgotten minority. Their contributions to America are great; they must be full partners in our prosperity.
Acknowledgment of data and counsel is made to the Departments of Health, Education and Welfare, Interior, Labor, various agencies within the Department of Agriculture, the Office of Economic Opportunity, and a number of private organizations which are identified in Chapter V.

Calvin L. Beale has served as coordinator of this publication and Helen W. Johnson has assumed overall responsibility in preparing the book. Both are staff members of the Economic Development Division, Economic Research Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>PAGE</th>
<th>CHAPTER</th>
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<td>4-11</td>
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<td>preparing for life</td>
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<tr>
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<td>making a living</td>
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<td>68-83</td>
<td>the quality of rural life</td>
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<td>the world of tomorrow</td>
</tr>
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<td>88-92</td>
<td>index, list of references</td>
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the world we live in
Population is on the rise everywhere and shows no signs of worldwide decline in the next few decades. In the world as a whole, young people (under 25 years of age) make up half or more of the total.

In the United States, we have nearly 200 million people now, about two-fifths of them not yet of voting age. The large majority of our citizens live in cities; less than a third live in rural areas. Many Americans move from one place to another, mainly from city to city, but many from country to city. Young people in their most productive years are most likely to migrate.

...and getting more crowded every year. Today the family of man numbers about 3.4 billion members. In just 35 years, the family may be twice as big. Growing up in this world means coming of age with the increasing problems of developing nations, the poorer peoples of the earth. By the year 2000, the less advanced countries of the world will have more than three-quarters of the world population.
The United States, too, has been adding to its population—nearly 100 million persons in the last 50 years. The entire population of the nation in 1800 was less than the New York City of the mid-1960's. In the last decade alone, we have added the equivalent of the population of New York State—with most of New England thrown in for good measure.

As our population has soared, we have gradually turned into a nation of city dwellers. Most Americans were rural people in the beginning of our history. But since 1920, less than half the population has been rural. Today seven out of 10 citizens live in the cities and suburbs. Within the rural population, farmers and their families have become the smaller share.
WHERE THE YOUTH ARE

All over, that's where. More than half the world's people have yet to celebrate their 25th birthday. And in South Asia, Latin America and Africa, three out of five persons in 1965 were under 25.

WORLD AND REGIONAL POPULATION UNDER 25, 1965

SOURCE: Department of Economic and Social Affairs, United Nations
The proportion of young people in our population decreased throughout the first half of the century. But in the 1950's, the trend reversed itself, and sharply. Today we are becoming an increasingly young nation.

**U.S. YOUTH, 5 TO 19 YEARS OF AGE**

**NUMBER IN MILLIONS**

**PERCENT OF TOTAL POPULATION**

**SOURCE:** Bureau of the Census, Department of Commerce
Ever since 1930, urban youth have outnumbered rural youth, although the total urban population has outnumbered the rural population since 1920. And since 1950, rural youth who don’t live on farms have outnumbered those who do. An even larger percentage of the rural youth will be outside the farm population by 1970.

WHERE THEY LIVE: RURAL YOUTH, 5 TO 19

The most rural group of American youth are the Indians, three-fourths of whom lived in rural areas in 1960. The least rural are boys and girls of Japanese and Chinese ancestry.

U.S. YOUTH IN 1960: RACE AND RESIDENCE
About 71 percent of the rural white youth 5 to 19 years old lived in the South and North Central States in 1960, whereas 87 percent of the nonwhite persons in that age group lived in just the Southern Region.

REGIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF RURAL YOUTH, 5-19, BY COLOR, 1960

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PERCENT</th>
<th>WHITE</th>
<th>NONWHITE</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>SOUTH 38%</td>
<td>SOUTH 87%</td>
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<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>NORTH CENTRAL 33%</td>
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<td>60</td>
<td>NORTHEAST 17%</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>WEST 12%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>NORTH CENTRAL 2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>NORTHEAST 8%</td>
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WHITE

NONWHITE
preparing for life
The need for education to prepare for life in the broadest sense and, more specifically, to make a living is expanding at all levels and at an accelerating rate. More young people than ever before are going to school for longer periods. More are graduating from high school. More are going on to college. And more are seeking advanced degrees.

Vocational education is entering new fields and becoming broader in scope. This kind of instruction is needed for many growing occupations and is being offered in an increasing number of institutions and locations in every State. More than 6 million students were enrolled in federally aided vocational classes in 1966. Nearly 45,000 rural residents in 1966 took advantage of institutional and on-the-job training provided in the Manpower Development and Training Act. Rural residents were about 19 percent of the total enrollees. Most were nonfarm men learning skills for nonagricultural jobs. About one-third of the rural trainees were under age 22.

Between 1950 and 1960, both rural and urban students improved their educational performance by completing more years in school and lowering the dropout rate. Rural-urban differences in the quality of education narrowed during the decade by some measures, but rural schools had not yet caught up with urban standards by 1960.

Preparing for the complexities of working life takes more time of more children today than it did at the turn of the century when enrollment in elementary and secondary schools was only about 15 million. In 1965 the enrollment was nearly three times that figure.

LEARNING FOR TOMORROW

Prepared for the complexities of working life takes more time of more children today than it did at the turn of the century when enrollment in elementary and secondary schools was only about 15 million. In 1965 the enrollment was nearly three times that figure.

ENROLLMENT IN ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY PUBLIC SCHOOLS

SOURCE: Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
Thus, the percentage of all 17-year-olds numbered among the graduates rises steadily.

MOST YOUTH ARE HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES

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<th>1960</th>
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</table>

SOURCE: Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare

The Vocational View

In a period when the number of jobs in farming touched the lowest point in decades, enrollment in vocational agriculture rose to new heights—about 900,000 persons in 1966, from ninth grade through post-secondary levels. In that year, slightly over one-half of the 100,000 students who completed their courses in this field went on to college, into the Armed Forces, or were otherwise not available for jobs. More than three-fifths of those placed went into farming or agriculture-related occupations.

ENROLLMENT IN VOCATIONAL AGRICULTURE RISES WHILE NUMBER OF FARMWORKERS SHRINKS

= 1 MILLION FARMWORKERS

1950

1960

1966

= 100,000 STUDENTS OF VOCATIONAL AGRICULTURE

1950

1960

1966

SOURCE: Manpower Administration, Department of Labor, and Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
While the number of students in agriculture has steadily increased for decades, their percentage of total enrollment has been declining. Agriculture has had as much as a fourth of the total enrollment in the past. Today it has only about 15 percent.

The same thing has happened to enrollment in home economics and trades and industry—the other early starters in the field of vocational education—as new courses have been introduced.

**ENROLLMENT IN FEDERALLY AIDED VOCATIONAL CLASSES**

**SCHOOL YEAR**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Year</th>
<th>Agriculture</th>
<th>Trades &amp; Industry</th>
<th>Health</th>
<th>Office</th>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1959-1960</td>
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<tr>
<td>1964-1965</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PERCENT**

0 | 25 | 50 | 75 | 100

**SOURCE:** Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare

**THE TRAINING THEY CHOOSE**

Far and away the most important course in vocational training in 1966—as a percentage both of total and rural enrollment—was home economics. Agriculture had about a third of the enrollment from the rural youth segment. Under the Vocational Education Act of 1963, training in both agriculture and home economics has been broadened. Funds for these programs may be used to prepare students for gainful employment in occupations requiring knowledge and skills in these subjects. Growing job opportunities in agribusiness, food services, farm machinery, child care and other occupations related to farming and home economics provide outlets for students with this basic preparation.

**TOTAL AND RURAL ENROLLMENT IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, 1966**

**MILLION STUDENTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Total</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Home Economics</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Office</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trades &amp; Industry</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE:** Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
Agriculture and home economics are the most popular vocational courses in Oklahoma, Texas, Arkansas, Mississippi and South Carolina, where more than three-fourths of the 1966 total enrollment in vocational education was in these two courses. In New Hampshire, too, more than 75 percent of the vocational students were in these courses, but the actual number was small.

In New Jersey, Maryland and New York, where agriculture and home economics claimed relatively few of the students, large numbers were enrolled for training in office occupations and in trades and industry.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Agriculture</th>
<th>Home Economics</th>
<th>Office</th>
<th>Trades &amp; Industry</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<tr>
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<td>39,252</td>
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<td>California</td>
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<td>237,658</td>
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<td>8,922</td>
<td>7,270</td>
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<td>820</td>
<td>4,648</td>
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<table>
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<td>28,026</td>
<td>77,570</td>
<td>177,687</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wyoming</td>
<td>1,832</td>
<td>4,119</td>
<td>310</td>
<td>1,511</td>
<td>8,100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

source: Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
It is hard for a child who can read to imagine what it means to be an adult who can't. He can't follow instructions for handling machinery. He can't take a telephone message, add up a grocery bill or sign a personal check. And he is incapable of absorbing training that requires a textbook.

There are 2.7 million such adults in the U.S. today—people without any schooling at all—and another 23 million who never finished grade school.

Add to this the fact that jobs for manual workers are drying up and it is easy to see why the rate of unemployment in the city among illiterate adults runs to 50 percent. Among the semi-literate, it is 25 percent. The national average is less than 5 percent.

In a recent study, nearly two-thirds of the people on the Chicago welfare roles were found to have less than a sixth grade education. In New York this figure is one-half while in Arkansas 89 percent of all persons on welfare showed less than a fourth grade education.
A promising new development for vocational education is the growth of the Area Vocational Education Schools, at both secondary and higher levels. Every State but three had at least one school in 1966. The exceptions plan area schools for 1967.

The schools stretch their training resources by serving larger areas. In general, the States with the largest enrollments in vocational courses are keeping pace by having the largest number of area schools.
CONSOLIDATING THE RESOURCES OF EDUCATION

The reorganization of school districts and consolidation of small schools—especially in rural areas—has been going on for more than three decades. There were more than 127,000 school districts in the Nation in 1932, only about 27,000 in the 1965/66 school year. It is a national trend—despite recognition that certain small schools must be retained and upgraded—and represents an effort to provide better education by combining the resources of a larger area.

LOCAL SCHOOL DISTRICTS IN THE UNITED STATES

BOOM AT THE TOP

Higher education, too, is experiencing a boom. The trend has been going on since the GI of World War II went back to school. The pace isn't likely to slacken in the near future.

COLLEGE ENROLLMENT

COLLEGE STUDENTS GROWING PROPORTION OF ALL 18-21-YEAR OLDS

SOURCE: Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare

SOURCE: Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
THE COURSE THEY FAVOR

Education, the social sciences, and business and commerce are far and away the most popular subjects, in terms of the number of degrees earned. And employment in many of these fields, especially in teaching and research, demands a college degree. The same subjects—plus engineering—are also the leading fields of study in graduate schools.

BACHELOR DEGREES EARNED IN MAJOR FIELDS, 1964-65

AND ENROLLMENT FOR ADVANCED DEGREES

SOURCE: Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
The biggest growth in jobs is expected in the professional and technical fields, where a post-secondary degree is required. But the need for skilled workers will continue to expand in some industries and occupations. The demand will depend in part on the growth of business. But it will also be determined by the need to replace the worker who retires or dies.

**JOB OPPORTUNITIES ARE DETERMINED BY GROWTH PLUS REPLACEMENT**

**HUNDRED THOUSAND PERSONS**

- **ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS**
- **ENGINEERS**
- **REGISTERED NURSES**
- **ELECTRICIANS**

**WORKERS NEEDED TO REPLACE THOSE WHO DIE OR RETIRE DURING 1965-1975**

**NEW WORKERS NEEDED BECAUSE OF OCCUPATIONAL GROWTH**

**SOURCE:** Bureau of Labor Statistics, Department of Labor
FORMAL TRAINING IS NEEDED FOR MOST RAPIDLY GROWING KINDS OF WORK

PROJECTED EMPLOYMENT GROWTH 1965-1975

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OCCUPATIONAL GROUP</th>
<th>PROPORTION OF WORKERS WITH FORMAL TRAINING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional and Technical Workers</td>
<td>64.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service Workers including Domestics</td>
<td>20.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerical Workers</td>
<td>53.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers, Officials and Proprietors</td>
<td>36.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Craftsmen, Foremen and Kindred Workers</td>
<td>40.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales Workers</td>
<td>23.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operatives</td>
<td>12.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonfarm Laborers</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farmers and Farmworkers</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Includes only workers having some college training but less than 3 years

There are opportunities for training those who don’t go on to college or who need a refresher course to insure productive employment. And the training will be of practical value. Despite the growth of mechanization, the pace of technological change, trained people in large numbers will be used in the service industries, clerical work, skilled labor and sales.

THE NEED FOR HEALTH SERVICE PERSONNEL WILL RISE SHARPLY IN THE COMING DECADE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PHYSICIANS</th>
<th>NURSES</th>
<th>OTHER HEALTH PERSONNEL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
For mechanic, clerk, or farmworker, the Manpower Development and Training Act provides training programs for a wide range of jobs, training of the institutional type as well as on-the-job training.

In 1966, from one-third to more than one-half of all MDTA activities (counseling, testing and placement) involved youth who were then under 22 years of age.

Nearly 45,000 rural residents were enrolled in the training programs in 1966. They made up 19 percent of the total enrolled in the courses. Only a sixth of the rural participants were being trained in agriculture or related occupations. The rest were developing nonagricultural skills.

**RURAL ENROLLMENT IN MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING ACT PROGRAMS, 1966**

*Source: Manpower Administration, Department of Labor.*
The Nation’s health services—in the hospitals, the clinics, the nursing homes—are enjoying a population explosion all their own. The growing demand for health services will be filled by substantial numbers of paramedical (or nonprofessional) workers—many of whom are being trained in Manpower Development and Training Act programs. The array of job training includes assistants in medical laboratories, operating rooms, health clinics, rehabilitation units, X-ray departments and medical record units.

### Trainees in Health-Related Occupations Under the Manpower Development Training Act, 1962 to 1966

**Thousands of Students**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Trainees (Thousands)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional Nurses</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Licensed Practical Nurses</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurses Aides, Orderlies and Related Occupations</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialized Technical Aides</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Clerical</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Manpower Administration, Department of Labor

In every field of work, more education leads to a higher salary, a bigger pay check. The benefits are consistent all the way up the educational ladder. Each extra year of school raises the average yearly income level a rung or two.

### Average Annual Income of Males 25-64 Years Old, 1963

**Grades 1-8**

**Grades 9-12**

**College 1-4**

**Source:** Bureau of the Census, Department of Commerce
High school may look pretty grim to a restless boy faced with homework and family curfews every night, but how does it look to that same boy 10 years later?

The question, "If you could start life over, what would you do differently?" was asked recently of 307 young men. They had all been in the eighth grade together in rural eastern Kentucky about 10 years earlier.

About half had left their rural homes for cities in Kentucky or southern Ohio. The rest stayed in the country.

In the urban group, 65 of the young men had finished high school and 85 hadn’t. In the rural group, 74 had finished high school and 83 had quit.

Possible answers to what they would do differently were: (a) nothing; (b) get more education; (c) study harder in school; (d) learn a trade; (e) save money; (f) postpone marriage; and (g) other.

Eighty-one percent of the rural dropouts and 80 percent of the urban dropouts said they’d get more education if they could start over again.

Even among the high school graduates, 35 percent of the rural group and 46 percent of the urbanites said they’d get more education.
Not only are the gains consistent, but they are lasting. By any measure of earning power—monthly, yearly or a lifetime—education markedly affects the legitimate expectations of a greater financial reward for a job well done. The rule holds true on the farm as well as in industry.

MEDIAN INCOME IN 1964 FOR MALES, BY EDUCATION AND AGE

**THOUSAND DOLLARS**

- 17 YEARS AND OVER
- 16 YEARS
- 13 TO 15 YEARS
- 12 YEARS
- 9 TO 11 YEARS
- 8 YEARS
- UNDER 8 YEARS

**AGE 25-34**

**35-44**

**45-54**

**55-64**

SOURCE: Bureau of the Census, Department of Commerce
The difference between education in the city and in the country grows smaller every year. But the two are not yet equal. One of the major differences is the lack of preschool education in many rural areas.

Despite improvement between 1950 and 1960, only 22 percent of all 5-year-olds in rural areas were in kindergarten at the end of the decade. In the cities, the comparable figure was 46 percent.

Yet rural-urban parity of enrollment can be achieved, even under widely different conditions. Take, for example, the high rural enrollment in such States as Hawaii, New York, Michigan, Connecticut, New Jersey, Iowa, Nebraska and California. These States all had over half their rural 5-year-olds in kindergarten in 1960. In contrast, there were 14 States (all but one of them in the South) where less than 10 percent of all eligible rural children were getting the benefit of kindergarten.
A lack of preschool training, according to many educators, seriously handicaps children in their progress through school. The progress is difficult to measure. It is influenced by the individual, his family, the school and the community.

The rate of retardation in school was higher among rural than urban youth in 1950 as well as in 1960. But the difference between the urban and rural 8- to 17-year-olds narrowed during the decade. About 19 percent of rural youth of high school age had fallen behind at least 1 year, compared with about 12 percent of the urban youth.

By far the worst problem of retardation in school was among rural nonwhite boys in the South. About half of them were below the normal grade by the time they were 16 or 17 years old. When they fell behind, more often than not it was by 2 years or more.

Also, the proportion of students retarded dropped both for the rural and urban areas in the 10-year span. Improvement was particularly marked for the farm children.

Scholastic acceleration was higher among urban than rural students in 1950 and 1960. But the percentage went up during the decade only in the youngest age group in urban areas.

### Table: Percentage of Students Retarded in School

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8 TO 13-YEAR-OLDS</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 TO 15-YEAR-OLDS</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>12.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 TO 17-YEAR-OLDS</td>
<td>34.3</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table: Percentage of Students Accelerated in School

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8 TO 13-YEAR-OLDS</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 TO 15-YEAR-OLDS</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 TO 17-YEAR-OLDS</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Economic Research Service, Department of Agriculture
Improvement was the word for the Nation's students between 1950 and 1960. City or country, white or nonwhite, all groups managed to complete more years of school.

SOURCE: Economic Research Service, Department of Agriculture
The dropout rate for all students, rural and urban, white and nonwhite, fell between 1950 and 1960. Rural youth greatly exceeded urban youth in reducing the dropout rate.

As a result, the gap between the average education of young rural and urban adults narrowed.

14-24 YEAR-OLDS WITH LESS THAN 12 YEARS OF SCHOOLING AND NOT ENROLLED IN SCHOOL, 1950 AND 1960

SOURCE: Economic Research Service, Department of Agriculture
preparing for life

THE GEOGRAPHY OF FAILURE

The dropout is a nationwide liability, but this failure appears more often in the South than the North and West, more often in rural areas than in urban ones.

SCHOOL DROPOUT RATES HIGHER AMONG SOUTHERNTEENAGERS THAN THOSE IN NORTH AND WEST

16 - 17 YEAR OLDS

18 - 19 YEAR OLDS

16 - 17 YEAR OLDS

18 - 19 YEAR OLDS

10 PERCENT OF WHITE AGE GROUP WHO WERE NOT IN SCHOOL

10 PERCENT OF NONWHITE AGE GROUP WHO WERE NOT IN SCHOOL

SOURCE: Economic Research Service, Department of Agriculture
In 1966 there were 142,000 school-age Indian children attending school. Three-fifths of the students were attending public schools, a third were attending Bureau of Indian Affairs schools and 6 percent were attending mission and other private schools. Enrollment of Indian children in the United States has been increasing steadily. The 1966 enrollment of 6- to 18-year-olds was nearly 6 percent higher than the year before.

In the five Southwestern States in 1960, the proportion of 16 and 17-year-olds still in school was far below the national average for youth with Spanish surnames. The gap was especially marked for the rural youth.

ENROLLMENT OF 16 AND 17 YEAR OLDS IN SCHOOL: SPANISH SURNAME AND U.S. AVERAGE, 1960

*CHURCH AND OTHER PRIVATE SCHOOLS

SOURCE: Bureau of Indian Affairs, Department of the Interior

SOURCE: Bureau of the Census, Department of Commerce
making a living
MORE WORKERS FOR THE WORK

Not only will there be more workers to cope with the Nation's growing economy, there will be more young persons under 25 years of age. Also, more women will be in the job market in the future.

OUR LABOR FORCE: TODAY AND TOMORROW

SOURCE: Manpower Administration, Department of Labor
Growth in occupations will continue to be in the white-collar jobs—the professional, managerial, clerical and sales categories. Also, service industries will probably outpace the growth of the production industries.

Though the employment increases in trade and manufacturing have been relatively small in the past 15 years, these two industry groups are still important. They employed more than 30 million workers in 1965—nearly half the total labor force.

**White-Collar Occupations to Register Biggest Employment Gains During 1965-75**

**Source:** Manpower Administration, Department of Labor
Government, too, is an employer. It represents, in fact, a payroll of nearly 11 million people, or about 16 percent of the total labor force. Three-fourths of all government employees work for State and local units, with education—teaching, administrating, counseling—overwhelmingly the most important type of work they do.
Most clerical workers are women. They are the secretaries and stenographers, the bookkeepers and cashiers in the work force. Few women have made it into professional occupations in the past, except as teachers and nurses. Fewer still have gained management jobs. Today, however, more women are moving up.

The fact that men dominate in the professions and management and work more in year-round, full-time jobs helps explain their traditionally higher levels of earnings.

IT'S STILL A MAN'S WORLD IN MOST OCCUPATIONS, 1966

SOURCE: Manpower Administration, Department of Labor
The rural labor force comprised some 19 million workers in 1960. About 5 million of them worked on farms. Estimates for 1965 put the total at about 20 million workers. A greater number of nonfarm jobs more than offset the continued drop in farmwork.

The rural labor force would amount to about a fourth of the 78.5 million persons who were estimated to be working or looking for work in 1965. That's about the same proportion that the rural population makes of the total population. Workers who live on farms were about 7 percent of the total, while rural workers not living on farms made up about 18 percent of the Nation's labor force.

**SOURCE:** Economic Research Service, Department of Agriculture
Since the beginning of the Century, the importance of agriculture as an employer has been falling. Even before 1880, four States had less than 25 percent of their workers in agriculture. By 1950, 22 additional States had fallen below the 25 percent level. During the 1950's and 1960's, farm employment in all remaining States except the Dakotas fell below 25 percent of the total. In 1960 there were 14 States with less than 5 percent of their labor force in agriculture. At the other end of the scale, North and South Dakota each had about a third of their workers in farming.

**WE'RE A NONFARM NATION FOR JOBS**

PERIODS WHEN AGRICULTURAL EMPLOYMENT FELL BELOW 25 PERCENT OF STATE TOTAL:

- 1900 OR EARLIER
- 1900-1950
- 1950 TO PRESENT

30 PERCENT OR OVER OF STATE TOTAL EMPLOYED IN AGRICULTURE IN 1960

SOURCE: Welfare Administration, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
THE WORKERS WHO AREN'T THERE

Agriculture continued to employ fewer workers in 1966, losing almost 400,000 of its labor force during the year. It was the greatest drop since 1957-58. The largest decreases were among the self-employed and their unpaid family workers. Many workers apparently moved to more attractive nonfarm employment, or simply failed to enter agriculture as their parents retired from the farm.

LONG-TERM DECLINE IN AGRICULTURE IS HEAVIEST AMONG THE SELF-EMPLOYED AND UNPAID FAMILY WORKERS

Employment is a more seasonal thing for the agricultural worker than it is for others. And winter is the time when jobs diminish, unemployment rates soar. By contrast, the nonagricultural worker can look to relatively stable employment throughout the year.

FARMWORKERS FACE MORE SEASONAL UNEMPLOYMENT THAN NONFARMWORKERS

PERCENT OF LABOR FORCE

SOURCE: Manpower Administration, Department of Labor
One of the important reasons for the drop in farm employment, and the migration from rural areas, is the dramatic rise in farm productivity.

The farm sector's rate of 6 percent a year has been more than twice that of the nonfarm sector. This increase in output per man-hour reflects the enormous advances in mechanization and new farm practices such as use of modern chemicals, pesticides and fertilizers.

Betsy's hometown in the West Virginia hills boasted all of 45 people—eight families if you counted the folks living in the hollows.

The hamlet, hard to find on any map, isn't too remote, however, for stories about the Job Corps, to find their way up the trail. Betsy heard about Job Corps through the Rural Resource Center operated by the Community Action Agency in her area. She learned that this Office of Economic Opportunity program provided residential centers for out-of-work, out-of-school young men and women, where they could obtain the education and skills necessary to secure jobs.

Today, Betsy is a Job Corps graduate with a good job as a stenographer.

The Job Corps, of course, is just one of the programs of the Office of Economic Opportunity.

Through the Neighborhood Youth Corps, rural Community Action Agencies or other sponsors can help low-income youth find paid work experience.

By working with a Comprehensive Neighborhood Health Center, wherever they exist, rural youth can find on-the-job training in such careers as home health aides, clinic aides or transportation aides.

Project Head Start helps needy preschool children begin their school career on more nearly equal terms with their more fortunate classmates.
For the man in rural America, blue-collar work is now more important than farming as a source of jobs. White-collar jobs continue to dominate the job scene for rural women.

**BLUE-COLLAR WORK REPLACES FARMING AS TOP JOB FOR RURAL MEN; RURAL WOMEN WORK MOSTLY IN WHITE-COLLAR JOBS**

**PERCENT**

**MALE**

**FEMALE**

**SOURCE:** Economic Research Service, Department of Agriculture
Farmers and nonfarm residents may live side by side in rural areas, but their jobs are miles apart. The man who lives on the farm also works the farm, more often than not. But the nonfarm resident usually has a job that is far more akin to typical city blue-collar work than it is to farming.

**OCCUPATIONS OF RURAL WORKERS: YESTERDAY AND TODAY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PERCENT</th>
<th>1950</th>
<th>1960</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FARMERS AND FARM MANAGERS  FARM LABORERS AND FOREMAN  NONFARM LABORERS  SERVICE AND PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD WORKERS  OPERATIVES AND KINDRED WORKERS  CLERICAL, SALES AND KINDRED WORKERS  NONFARM MANAGERS  PROFESSIONAL, TECHNICAL AND KINDRED

SOURCE: Economic Research Service, Department of Agriculture
During the 1950's, the trend for the principal minority groups was away from agriculture, as was true of the rural population in general. The decade also saw some improvement in the form of higher proportions of minority workers in the better paying, skilled and semiskilled jobs.

OCCUPATIONS OF RURAL NEGROES, INDIANS AND SPANISH Surname People

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional, Technical, and Managerial</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerical and Sales</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Craftsmen and Operatives</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service Workers (Including Private Household)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonfarm Laborers</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farmers and Farm Managers</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farm Laborers and Foremen</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Bureau of the Census, Department of Commerce
People who live in the country have at least one job advantage over their city cousins. They not only have the great outdoors to enjoy, but, with luck and hard work, they may be able to turn the countryside to profit. It isn't easy, however. Crowds do not automatically beat a path to the cabin door. Nor does profit inevitably result, even when they do.

But time is on the side of rural youth looking to outdoor recreation for tomorrow's job. Open air sports and other pastimes are already enjoying a boom. And by the year 2000, when there will be a bigger population, earning more money, enjoying a greater leisure and able to turn to better transportation facilities, participation in these activities should be four times the 1960 rate. It will take more services and more rural workers to cope with the need.

SOURCE: Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, Department of the Interior
If the rural population experiences net outmigration similar to that of the 1950's in the years ahead, the rural labor force will stay about the same size. With continuing mechanization of agriculture, there is an urgent need for more nonfarm jobs in rural areas just to offset the drop in farm employment.

In the absence of increased job opportunities, about 3.4 million potential rural workers would have to seek jobs elsewhere. About 2.4 million of these would be persons who were under 20 in 1960.

RURAL CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE BY AGE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGE GROUP</th>
<th>14-19</th>
<th>20-29</th>
<th>30-44</th>
<th>45-64</th>
<th>65 &amp; OVER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1960 RURAL CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE</td>
<td>6.5M</td>
<td>5.2M</td>
<td>3.9M</td>
<td>2.6M</td>
<td>1.3M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970 RURAL CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE WITH NET OUTMIGRATION TO URBAN AREAS, 1960-1970</td>
<td>5.5M</td>
<td>4.2M</td>
<td>2.9M</td>
<td>1.6M</td>
<td>0.9M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970 RURAL CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE WITHOUT NET OUTMIGRATION TO URBAN AREAS, 1960-1970</td>
<td>5.0M</td>
<td>3.8M</td>
<td>2.4M</td>
<td>1.5M</td>
<td>0.8M</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SOURCE: Economic Research Service, Department of Agriculture
Some 177 rural young men will reach working age (20) between 1960 and 1970 for every 100 older men who will leave the working age group (20 to 64) due to death or retirement. But the ratio differs State by State. In some parts of the Southeast and Southwest, the replacement ratio is over 200. These areas have the greatest need for rural job opportunities.

**REPLACEMENT RATIO**

**OF RURAL MALES**

**AGED 20-64, 1960-70**

**SOURCE:** Economic Research Service, Department of Agriculture
How do young people fit in the employment scene? They made up nearly a fifth of the total civilian labor force in 1966. In that year, more than 13 million young people between the ages of 16-24 were working. This was out of a total of 73 million employed civilian workers. An additional million or so 14- to 15-year-olds were working in 1966.

Though young men outnumbered young women—by about 2 million in 1966—the gap has been closing somewhat. Since 1950, the percentage increase for 14- to 24-year-old girls in the labor force has been twice as high as it has for males.

Most young men hold blue-collar jobs, doing the work of operatives or laborers. The young women are the white-collar, clerical workers among the youthful labor force. Also, they are more apt to have service jobs than the males. For both sexes, the relative importance of farmwork has been declining.
Young men and women are far more apt to be part of the labor force when they get to the upper reaches of youth than when they are still in their teens. But at any age, a young man is more apt to be working than a girl, whether he lives on or off the farm. And farmwork is likely to be a man's job.

IN NONFARM POPULATION, EMPLOYMENT OF YOUNG WORKERS IN THEIR TWENTIES OUTNUMBERS THAT OF TEENAGERS

FOR FARM YOUTH EMPLOYMENT IS ALSO PROPORTIONATELY HIGHER IN THE TWENTIES THAN TEENS

Unemployment rates among boys and girls, especially for the 16- to 19-year-olds, is high—nearly 13 percent in 1966, when the overall rate was less than 4 percent. The unemployment rate also runs about twice as high for nonwhite teenagers as for whites. The rate has, however, dropped every year for both groups since the peak year of 1963.

AMONG YOUTH, UNEMPLOYMENT RATES ARE HIGHEST FOR GIRLS AND NON WHITES

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics, Department of Labor

SOURCE: Manpower Administration, Department of Labor
their health and welfare
Information on the status of rural health is limited, but rural youth and their families have most of the same problems of illness and disease that city people do. Often literally penniless, the rural poor are removed from the services that even the poor in towns and cities can usually take for granted.

The welfare picture in rural areas also suffers by comparison with assistance generally offered in cities. There is great variation throughout the Nation in the extent of public welfare available to needy families because the program is decentralized, depending heavily on State and local effort and definition of need. Federal financial assistance is supplementary in public welfare programs.

There is some improvement in the services offered in rural areas, as child welfare caseworkers and others are more often located outside metropolitan areas. Rural families are being assisted by such Federal programs as Aid to Families with Dependent Children. There are special efforts for those in poverty, such as the food distribution and nutritional programs conducted by the Department of Agriculture and the various activities carried out by the Office of Economic Opportunity. Facilities in the welfare field, as in health, however, are still far too limited for rural youth and their parents, and the professional assistance needed by rural residents is often hard to find.

Country children get the measles. Older brothers and sisters are felled by mononucleosis and their parents cope with high blood pressure. Rural people have, in fact, most of the ailments and diseases that plague city dwellers. But they don't have the health and welfare services to handle them.

Largely because of scattered populations and the resulting higher costs per capita, health services in rural areas have suffered both in quantity and quality, compared with city facilities. Rural people, who may lose more days from work because of illness, do not have the necessary facilities for prevention, diagnosis and treatment.
Boys and girls on the farm manage to avoid accidents more successfully than children in the city. But they get sick more often. At least they lose more days of school than either metropolitan or nonmetropolitan children because of various serious ailments. When they are hurt in an accident, the 6- to 16-year-olds on the farm more often see a physician than do other youth. It's just the opposite for children under 6.

INJURED CHILDREN WHO SAW A PHYSICIAN, 1963-65

SOURCE: National Center for Health Statistics, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
DISTRIBUTION OF DAYS LOST FROM SCHOOL BECAUSE OF SERIOUS ILLNESS, 1964-65

METROPOLITAN
NONMETROPOLITAN EXCEPT FARM
FARM

PERCENT

INFEKTIVE AND PARASITIC DISEASES
RESPIRATORY CONDITIONS
OTHER ACUTE CONDITIONS

SOURCE: National Center for Health Statistics, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
If they are 16 or younger and have a chronic ailment of some sort, there's a 50 percent chance young people are suffering from one of two broad types of ailments: Hay fever, asthma and all allergies; or sinusitis, bronchitis and other respiratory ailments. Other important chronic conditions are paralysis and orthopedic impairments, impaired hearing, speech defects, heart disease.

Whether you see a doctor is in part the result of having a doctor available and having enough money. Compared with nonfarm and urban youth, fewer farm residents see a doctor for chronic conditions, and more of them never go to a doctor.

A little courage may help, but income and residence have even more to do with who sees a dentist, and how often. In a recent survey, a far greater percentage of metropolitan youth had been to the dentist within 6 months than was true for other youth. And a far greater percentage of farm youth had never been to a dentist.
"I could not conceive that there were so many kinds of retardation," said one of 700 student volunteers in the Student Work Experience and Training vacation work program. The observation was made after her first encounter with mentally retarded children and adults.

First reactions of other participants range from shock and depression to outright disbelief. Later the volunteers are able to gain insight not only into the lives and thoughts of the retarded, but into their own lives as well.

Sponsored by the U.S. Public Health Service's Division of Mental Retardation, the program enables institutions to give high school and college students a chance to work with the retarded for one summer. Hopefully, many students will be inspired to choose this area of work in their professional careers.

A nursing student, for example, is assigned to the severely retarded who are unable to feed or dress or bathe themselves. A psychology major helps administer tests. A student of physical therapy works with retardants who are also physically handicapped.

For many students this is their first experience with this largely hidden world that includes 6 million fellow Americans.

As one student commented after a summer with the project: "The knowledge I obtained can never be measured by a test."

The child of the migrant worker exists on the bottom rung of the social ladder wherever his family pauses to work. With little money, a fleeting connection with the community and often dilapidated housing, the migrant's health problems are acute.

The dreary facts of the migrant's life are scattered through his health statistics — infant and maternal mortality rates a fourth higher than the national average; death from tuberculosis and other infectious diseases, from influenza and pneumonia, from all accidents, two to three time the national figures.

But formidable as the problems are, some expansion of health service for migrants is now possible. With the passage of the 1965 amendments to the Migrant Health Act, Federal grants to State and local public agencies and nonprofit private organizations now pay part of the costs for migrants at clinics, hospitals, in camps or for follow-up treatment wherever they go.

In 1966, an estimated 250,000 migrant workers and their families had at least temporary access to health service in 36 States and Puerto Rico. They received medical treatment, dental care, and such services as immunization, advice on family planning, prenatal care and well-child care and screening for communicable diseases. Nurses visited the migrants and sanitarians inspected their housing.

DEATH AND THE MIGRANT WORKER

![Graph showing infant, maternal, and other deaths among migrants and U.S. average.]

SOURCE: Public Health Service, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
Rural youth who need treatment are apt to find that clinics for mental health are a sometime thing. There were about 234 rural outpatient psychiatric clinics in 1965. They served some 25,000 children under 18, or about 8 percent of the Nation's young mental health patients. For some States, the rural clinics handled as much as 40 percent of the youthful rural patients. In others, the proportion was 5 percent or less.

Staffing these clinics is exceedingly difficult because of the scarcity of psychiatrists in rural areas. A recent survey indicated about 3 percent of all psychiatrists work in rural areas.
CARE FOR THE MENTALLY RETARDED

About a third of all institutions caring for the mentally retarded are in cities with populations of 10,000 to 50,000. The smallest communities have about half that many. But cities of 500,000 or more have even fewer facilities to care for the mentally retarded.

MENTAL RETARDATION FACILITIES, BY SIZE OF CITY, 1963

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Size of City</th>
<th>Facilities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>500,000 or more</td>
<td>9.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100,000-499,999</td>
<td>16.4%</td>
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<tr>
<td>50,000-99,999</td>
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<tr>
<td>10,000-49,999</td>
<td>51.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,500-9,999</td>
<td>16.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 2,500</td>
<td>15.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2,571 Facilities

SOURCE: Public Health Service, Department of Health, Education and Welfare

SOCIAL SECURITY FOR THE YOUNG

The Social Security program benefits the young as well as the old and retired. Young people are eligible for benefits when: they are under 18; are 18 to 21 and full-time students; or 18 and over with a disability that began before their eighteenth birthday. At the end of 1966, there were 2,803,000 beneficiaries in the first group, 375,000 in the second and 214,000 beneficiaries in the third—or more than 3 million beneficiaries.

The benefits are based on the work record of a parent who died and was fully insured or was paying insurance at the time of death. Benefits may be based on the record of a living parent entitled to retirement or disability insurance benefits. To be insured, the youth must be single, file a claim, and be (or have been) dependent upon the parent.

In 1966, there were eight States in which 5 percent or more of the population under 18 years of age was included in this Social Security program. All these States were in the Southern half of the country and were among the 18 most rural States.
Some 90,000 children in the most rural States in the Nation received child welfare services from public agencies in 1966. They made up 16 percent of all children served by public child welfare programs, slightly higher than the 12 percent proportion that children in these rural States are of the total young population. There are an additional 195,000 children receiving child welfare services who live in States where the population is 30 to 50 percent rural. Combined, the 285,000 figure amounts to half of all children receiving welfare services from public welfare agencies, even though only 40 percent of the Nation’s children live in these States.

Nearly half of all children receiving public child welfare services are in foster care. Children in rural areas are slightly less apt to be in foster homes or institutions than children in the more urban States.
HELPING THE FAMILIES

More than 900,000 families—including about 2.8 million children—were receiving financial support under the Federal program of Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) at the time of a special survey in 1961. Some two-fifths of the families lived outside of urban areas, in small cities and towns as well as in the country. The typical case in the program included a mother and two children.

In 1965 expenditures for AFDC totaled about $2 billion, up from about $683 million in 1955. Federal funds paid almost half the cost of AFDC in 1955 and over half the cost in 1965.

AID TO FAMILIES WITH DEPENDENT CHILDREN, BY RESIDENCE, 1961

SOURCE: Social Security Administration, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
In all counties of the United States, casework services are available to needy children and to parents who receive assistance from the Aid to Families with Dependent Children Program. Most counties also provide help for any child who needs it, regardless of whether the family is receiving public assistance.

Since 1955 the funds for public child welfare services have more than doubled, climbing from $135 million to over $350 million in 1965. State and local governments have borne the overwhelming share of the burden. The Federal share of such funds has ranged from only about 5 to 10 percent of the total each year during the period.
HELP AT THE LOCAL LEVEL

Rural youth who need a helping hand now have available a number of programs providing assistance through community institutions. Though local in function, they are nationwide in scope, and serve a variety of purposes. They provide machinery to upgrade the health of the young, extend their education and training opportunities, add to employment possibilities and, in general, improve the prospects for the future.

Among the programs run by the Department of Agriculture, are the School Lunch and the Special Milk Programs for children and the Food Stamp and the Commodity Distribution Programs for low income groups. The programs help improve the diets of the Nation’s youth and their families.

PARTICIPANTS IN SPECIAL MILK PROGRAM:

1958
1962
1966

PARTICIPANTS IN THE SCHOOL LUNCH PROGRAM:

1958
1962
1966

SOURCE: Consumer and Marketing Service, Department of Agriculture

To add to the number of jobs for young people.
To better their education.
To involve them in improving their own neighborhoods.
To enhance the quality of their health.
To stimulate through Federal, State and local government, community groups and private organizations, the participation of young people in cultural and recreational activities.

—These are the goals of the President’s Council on Youth Opportunity, established by executive order of President Johnson in March 1967. Vice President Humphrey is Chairman of the Cabinet-level Council which is charged with the responsibility of assuring effective planning and coordination of the Federal Government’s summer programs and other activities for youth. The Council also encourages local governments and private groups to fully utilize existing resources for youth programs, and reports progress to the President.
When you're hungry, nothing else matters very much. It's hard to study on an empty stomach or even to think about taking care of yourself.

The Commodity Distribution program of the Department of Agriculture provides food for 27 million children and needy adults. The food is distributed to families most often through charitable institutions, day-care centers, nonprofit camps and schools. School lunch programs and the newer, still experimental breakfast program, provide nutritious meals for young students across the Nation. Often, these are the only substantial meals the children get.

Food Stamps, yet another way to provide better diets for the poor are available in more than 800 counties and cities. Families participating in the program spend the coupons like cash at the local grocery store. They buy a month's supply of stamps, and are given an additional quantity depending on income and size of family.
YOUTH AND THE LAW

The problem of juvenile delinquency has mounted to serious levels since the 1940's. But the country youth is far less apt to show up in court on such a charge than the city youth. The chance, however, of appearing in juvenile court as the victim in a dependency or neglect case is equally high, whether the youth lives in city or country.
EXPLORING NEW AVENUES TO PROGRESS

To catch them as they drop out of high school, to train them before they even face the bewildering world of school, to give them the hope of jobs and rewarding careers—these are a few of the purposes of programs run by the Office of Economic Opportunity. Head Start, for children aged three to five, helps them educationally, medically and socially to prepare for school life. The Job Corps and Neighborhood Youth Corps offer employment training and guidance for youth aged 16 to 21. The programs help children and youths stay in school, or to return to it, to learn a skill to become self-supporting.

Remedial and tutorial programs for elementary and high school ages give special help for the deprived rural student through individual attention or small classes. Upward Bound provides pre-college training for promising rural high school students.

Rural Community Action programs, oriented to youth in many of their activities, enrich the cultural and recreational aspects of life, as well as working for better education. And recruits in a program such as Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA), primarily an adult activity, work with local agencies to help the impoverished young in rural areas. They offer their varied skills to those in need wherever they are—in a mountain hollow, in a Job Corps, on an Indian Reservation.

SOURCE: Office of Economic Opportunity
the quality of rural life
In the rural community, as in any other, the family is the center in which young people find their bearings—who they are, what they may become, and how to go about achieving their goals. The young person’s family has the first and most lasting influence on “how the twig is bent.” The neighborhood, the school, and the church join in helping youth to find their way in the world.

In a farm setting, the family sets the pattern of living and provides for the livelihood. In an urban, industrialized society, nonfarm employment is provided by persons and groups outside the family. In such circumstances, the school, the neighborhood, the community, and the job take over some of the family’s roles. The family, in turn, loses part of its influence.

Although farm families often fare worse than nonfarm in terms of material things in life—income, housing, certain amenities—forces are at work that lessen rural-urban differences in styles of life.

One of the plus values in a young person’s life, as indeed with all ages, is association with one’s peers. Continuing the socializing process begun in the family, participation in local community group life adds a new dimension to the interests and activities of many young people where they live. Clubs of various kinds accomplish this with the help of the school, the church, civic groups, and volunteer adult leaders, as well as professional staff.

Some rural and urban couples have chosen to marry early, some late, depending on the conditions of the times. In the 1940’s, the average age when first married rose to 26 years for urban males. Since then, earlier marriages have been the growing practice for both rural and urban couples.

Despite the tendency toward more children in nonfarm families, farm families continue to be the larger.
the quality of rural life

EDUCATION FOR THE HEAD OF THE HOUSEHOLD

Pick a family. Put it on a farm. Say it's nonwhite. Four times out of five the head of the family has less than eight years of school to his credit. Say the family is white, move it to a village and from the village to the city. In the city, the head has most formal education—and, in the village, least. So the village family likely has less material goods.

Farm women are employed away from their homes less than other rural women—and far less than city women. Many farm women help run the farm, of course. But the work doesn't take them away from their families.

THE EDUCATIONAL LADDER

YEARS OF SCHOOLING IN 1960:

- LESS THAN 8
- 12 TO 15
- 8 TO 11
- 16 OR MORE

SOURCE: Bureau of the Census, Department of Commerce
There are many rewards to living in the country, but money isn't always No. 1. The median income for rural nonfarm families in 1964 was little more than 80 percent of the urban average. For farm families, it was about half the urban figure.

In mid-1965, a third of all persons living on farms and a fourth of the rest of the rural population were living within the borders of poverty. At that time, approximately 29 percent of the total population lived in rural areas, while about 40 percent of the poor were rural.
THE INCOME GAP

Farm families fare worse than nonfarm families in rural areas in terms of income. Compared with nonfarm families in 1960, farm families with children under 18 had a higher percentage in the lowest income brackets, and a lower proportion in the group making $8,000 or more a year. This was true for whites and nonwhites alike.

Nearly a fifth of all rural youth in 1960 were members of families with incomes of less than $2,000. For farm families alone, the proportion was 30 percent. Less than a tenth of the urban youth were so badly off.

In turn, young people in the city were far more familiar with the world of affluence. Twice as large a percentage of urban as rural youth belonged to families with $10,000 or more a year. Among rural youth, farm children fared worse than nonfarm.

SOURCE: Bureau of the Census, Department of Commerce
The lower the farm income for the family, the more they depend on nonfarm sources for a good part of their livelihood. As an example, take the farm operator families who sold less than $2,500 worth of products in 1965. Three-fourths of their total incomes came from off-farm sources. When farm sales amounted to more than $20,000 a year, only 14 percent of the family income depended on off-farm sources.

WHERE FARM FAMILY INCOMES CAME FROM IN 1965

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Income Range</th>
<th>Realized Net Farm Income</th>
<th>Off-Farm Income</th>
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<tr>
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</table>

SOURCE: Manpower Administration, Department of Labor

You can get the boy out of the city but can you get the city out of the boy?

In the case of one VISTA volunteer, apparently you can, to some extent. A 24-year-old native of the Chicago slums, Ronnie Walcott (not his real name) joined VISTA for a year and has decided he will probably work in a rural area upon graduation from college.

"The problems there are greater," he says, referring to his experience with a 90-family shack community located in a pocket of poverty in one of the country's most prosperous counties.

Under the aegis of this lone VISTA worker, these 90 families rallied to rebuild and enlarge their century-old community center and to form an active citizens association.

They raised $100 at a citizens dinner and secured a $1,000 donation from a church outside the poverty area to add an additional cinder block room to the building.

By fall a kitchen, central heating and indoor plumbing should be completed so that a much-needed day-care program can be started.

Ronnie Walcott is no longer needed here, but the problems of this community have stimulated him—currently an education major—to think about studying law and applying it to housing and other problems of the poor.
The quality of life in the country still lags behind that of the urban community, as measured by the state of housing and the possession of certain amenities. A greater percentage of rural housing was judged to be crowded in 1960, compared with the city homes. And more of it was dilapidated or deteriorating. Fewer rural homes had hot and cold piped-in water.

More housing units in the city were equipped with telephones. But rural families, especially farm families, more often had freezers and automobiles. Both cars and freezers tend to be crucial to country living, as many families produce a good part of their own food and personal transportation is essential to their livelihood.
The blight of poverty is no more evident than in the quality and condition of rural housing. As recently as 1960, more than 30 percent of all rural youth under 18 were living in substandard housing (lacking some plumbing facilities). For the very poor, the proportion was nearly 70 percent. But even with an income of $8,000 a year, the rural family is apt to be living in a substandard home. Housing for 8 percent of these rural youth was not up to standard. The proportion was nearly twice as high for the farm youth.

NEARLY A THIRD OF ALL RURAL YOUTH LIVED IN SUBSTANDARD HOUSING IN 1960

TOTAL RURAL

FAMILY INCOME:

UNDER $2000

$2000 TO $3999

$4000 TO $7999

OVER $8000

PERCENT YOUTH IN SUBSTANDARD HOUSING

SOURCE: Bureau of the Census, Department of Commerce
Despite differences, rural and urban families are becoming more alike in many respects. They face the same problems of providing adequate food, clothing and shelter. They are driven by similar motivations to achieve a good life, to enjoy both the material and nonmaterial satisfactions. With better roads and greater ease of travel, with rapid transportation a commonplace, with the mass communication media of radio, television, and the press reaching the remote corners of the Nation, the points of contact between the rural and urban populations have multiplied. Rural and urban tastes are rapidly merging, and the ways of spending money in the country and city are increasingly alike.
Most rural people go to church, but some are traveling a longer road to get there. Others are struggling to support churches with steadily declining memberships. And rural youth are handicapped by a minimum of services close at hand.

Church leaders are aware of the problem of supporting social institutions in the countryside where populations and income too often are declining. They are finding a number of ways for rural people to provide acceptable service. The emphasis is on a variety of forms of cooperation, including the merging of some of the functions.

Congregations often cooperate on community projects such as special youth programs and rural development projects. Some communities have formed a single church merging different denominations. Nondenominational churches, too, are a part of the trend. A variation on that development is the federated church in which two or more congregations jointly employ a pastor, while remaining related to their separate denominations.

The rural church in a rapidly changing society faces an urgent need to adjust to a new clientele, in a new setting, with new demands that it play a broader role in the community if it is to survive. Avenues of wider service are available in school guidance and counseling.

There is work to be done in educating the people about rehabilitating and training juvenile offenders by working with the courts and the parent-teacher groups, sponsoring recreation programs that have genuine appeal for young people. Such deeper social service in the local community and cooperation among struggling small congregations may serve to revitalize the role of the church in the lives of rural people.
Library service in rural areas got a shot in the arm with the passage of the Rural Library Services Act in 1956. Bookmobiles now find their way into remote rural areas. Volunteers are being pressed into service to extend the staff resources and facilities to people once unreached by libraries. And local units are being strengthened by ties with city, county, and regional library systems under statewide planning.

Some of the Federal money has been spent for new buildings—to replace antiquated structures, to accommodate the enormous growth in the reading public, and to cope with the greater cost of books. The new funds have also been devoted to providing a greater variety of services.

CIRCULATION OF PUBLIC LIBRARY BOOKS IN THE UNITED STATES, 1956-1966

SOURCE: Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
Funds to extend public library service have increased dramatically in recent years. The amount available in the rural program more than doubled between 1956 and 1964. In the combined rural-urban program of 1966, about $443 million was made available. Seventy-five to 85 percent of these funds have come from the local community. State funds have provided an additional 10 to 20 percent of the total.

In hamlets named Buttermilk or Goose Camp in the Ozarks, the drama of the world's culture is now unfolding for the first time.

Young people who have never learned to read, some who have never borrowed a book—to have and to hold for a while—and others in search of friendly advice, some good talk, an exciting tale to brighten a dull day, all impatiently await the visit of the bookmobile or a trip to the branch library.

With the service of a never-say-die librarian, the aid of VISTA volunteers provided by the Office of Economic Opportunity, and the enthusiastic ingenuity of the many others who lend a helping hand, books and library services are now within reach of the rural poor in Arkansas, as elsewhere, on a regular, eagerly-anticipated schedule. The world of books is now available to dropouts, to the newly literate, to the lonely and to the others who dwell in the remote, hard-to-reach corners of rural America.

**SOURCE:** Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
Clubs for the Nation's young people have been adding steadily to their membership in recent years. And many have been making special efforts to serve more low-income and minority groups and to reach into remote rural areas for potential participants.

Nearly 6 million young people in rural areas are involved in 10 of these representative groups.
GROWTH GROUPS

Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts and 4-H Clubs are three of the largest organizations serving America's young people. The Future Farmers of America (FFA), and more recently, the Future Home-makers of America (FHA), also play an important role in the social and civic life of young rural America.

The 4-H, the FFA, and the FHA, though directed toward the needs of young people living in the country, have also broadened their membership in recent years to include a growing number of small town and metropolitan residents.

MEMBERSHIP INCREASE FOR SELECTED RURAL GROUPS

TOTAL AND RURAL MEMBERSHIP IN SCOUTING, 1966
The YMCA and YWCA, two of the oldest organizations for young people, serve rural youth either through school-centered activities or through the facilities of nearby towns and cities. Their programs include clubs, camps, conferences, and classes in a variety of subjects.

The YMCA program is designed for girls as well as boys, beginning with 6- to 9-year-olds and continuing through the high school level. And many of their services extend to young people of post-high school age, including thousands of servicemen and women as well as college students.

**RURAL PARTICIPATION IN YMCA, 1966**

1,000 BOYS

GRADE SCHOOL

JUNIOR HIGH

HIGH SCHOOL

1,000 GIRLS

GRADE SCHOOL

JUNIOR HIGH

HIGH SCHOOL

SOURCE: Economic Research Service, Department of Agriculture
The American National Red Cross offers courses in First Aid, Water Safety, Life Saving, and Home Nursing. More than 80,000 certificates in these courses were awarded to young people in Group V Red Cross chapters (where the largest city has a population of less than 10,000) in 1965-66. The courses are available to youth through schools, colleges, and other facilities in every State in the Nation.

With a membership among girls of 7 through high school age in all 50 States, the activities of the Camp Fire Girls, Inc. are conducted mostly through volunteers in the local communities. The Southwest and Far West lead in membership, with the upper Midwest third in importance to the organization. Currently numbering 360,000 members in more than 1,300 communities of less than 25,000 population, the group's plans call for further recruiting in rural areas.

There are many other worthwhile organizations with local or nationwide memberships and programs for rural youth. Some are part of the function of Federal and State governments. Also, farm organizations, industry groups, private welfare and social agencies have longstanding programs of benefit to young people of the Nation, both urban and rural. All the groups have this in common: They enrich the lives of their young members, their adult leaders, and the communities they serve. Such organizations help build the whole person through programs of education and recreation and promote needed leadership qualities among rural youth. The boundary between town and country for their activities is increasingly blurred as urban and rural youth work together to achieve the organizations' goals.
the world of tomorrow
Who would have dreamed, 30 years ago, of a trip to the moon, of astronauts walking into space at the end of a fragile cord? Who can foretell, today, what the year 2000 will be like? All we can predict is that this world, when it appears, will be a vastly different place in which to work and live.

Thirty years is an unimaginable leap of time for the very young. But in the year 2000, today's youth will be in the midst of their own families, will be enjoying their peak earning capacity, and will be taking the most active part in running their communities.

For the young people who remain in agriculture, and those who will live in rural areas—whatever their occupation—what promise does rural life hold? Life on the farm in the United States in the year 2000 will be in a new dimension. The Secretary of Agriculture, in a recent series of speeches, gives us a preview of the agriculture of the future. The farmer of the future will operate his farm business in an air-conditioned office, drawing on computerized information to plan how many acres to plant in what crop, what kinds of seeds and fertilizer to use, on what day to harvest. Field work may be fully automated and supervised by television scanners on towers. Robot machines working at superspeeds will harvest, grade, pack and freeze the produce, then transport it to depots for distribution to retail warehouses.

The typical home of the future will also be greatly different. Movable partitions will permit room sizes to change as the family changes. The refrigerator will be a built-in unit with pull-out drawers, each with individual temperature controls for different foods and, of course, with automatic defrosting units.

Groceries on the shelf and in the refrigerator will bear little resemblance to what the housewife stores today. Tomatoes will be square to insure less damage in shipping; frozen salad mix complete with lettuce will seem to have come right out of the garden. Many new flavors in foods will make their debut. Eating will be an excitingly different experience and cooking will be simplified by more abundant processed, frozen, and pre-packaged products.

The countryside, too, will have a new look. Green expanses will be the setting of new towns, planned with complete shopping centers, parks and community facilities within easy walking distance of the residents. Factories will be located nearby so that workers and their families can live in uncongested rural areas and still have easy access to jobs. Income will be higher and the work week shorter, with more time for leisure and recreation. And homeowners won’t even have to tend their lawns—growth-regulating chemicals will control the height of grass and shrubs without mowing or clipping. There will be little damage from insects, diseases, or droughts. No one will be bothered by flies or mosquitoes either, because there won't be any.

Dream stuff? Perhaps. But many of the advances prophesied by Secretary Freeman are already in the works, and the scientific skill to produce such revolutionary changes in living patterns is either in existence or attainable. Agricultural scientists and others have made possible enormous progress in the past to provide America with the highest living standard in the world. Further advancement is a reasonable expectation.

To illustrate, the farmer who produced food and fiber for himself and five others 100 years ago now provides for 39. One hundred years ago, 7 million farmworkers served a population of 31 million; today, less than 6 million serve a population more than six times that large. There will probably be no more than 2 million farmers to provide for a future population of 300 million.

But those figures do not begin to describe the job ahead for agriculture and, indeed, for all of today's youth. Possibly the most crucial problem of the immediate future is helping to close the gap between low food production and the high rate of population growth in many developing
areas of the world. Overcoming the burdens of poverty, illiteracy and disease is, to be sure, of major importance. But all efforts to promote a better life will be defeated as long as there is threat of starvation.

The population in some regions of the world increases so fast that the present world total of 3.4 billion human beings may be more than twice that figure by the year 2000. Developing countries, for example, double their populations in 18 to 27 years, compared with the 55 to 88 years for developed countries. Slowing the massive growth of population is not the sole solution to the food problem for a hungry world, but it is an indispensable part of the answer. The problem is no longer of the future; it is with us now. But the rural youth of today will still be working on solutions for decades hence.

The world of tomorrow holds promise, as well as problems. Many occupations and industries will welcome the recruit who has prepared himself with a good basic education and then added training in special skills. Service industries will be looking for a growing number of workers. For those who continue their education beyond high school, professional and management positions will increasingly demand their talents. The unskilled, who today have difficulty finding work, will be hard put to get any job at all in tomorrow's trained and competitive world.

Youth will find it eminently worthwhile to take full advantage of public and private education, plus the numerous training opportunities now available.

Light industries in increasing numbers will probably locate in rural areas where a ready supply of workers can commute to nearby factories and enjoy living away from congested cities. Enlightened employers could provide day-care centers at the place of employment, to draw on the reservoir of potential female workers with young children. Women so employed would be able to perform at maximum capability, knowing their children were in the hands of competent teachers and trained child-care specialists who would prepare them educationally, physically and socially for their further schooling.

Rural schools of the future would then take off from day-care centers of this kind: Head Start, for instance, and other pre-school programs to prepare for better quality education in consolidated schools. They might even have weekday boarding facilities in sparsely settled areas. More rural schools could be brought into the mainstream of society through advanced teaching aids and techniques—television classes, language laboratories, teaching machines, expanded library service, broader vocational training, better guidance and counselling. Multicounty educational plans would stretch resources to bring to sparsely settled areas the highest
quality of instruction for the largest number of students.

Health and welfare services in rural areas need more attention in the future. More young women will need to become nurses, therapists, medical technologists, social workers, and the like. Facilities to provide preventative and remedial health care will have to be greatly augmented among rural people. This, in turn, will mean that rural areas must become attractive as places to work and to live for both the professional and nonprofessional people who will be needed. The same can be said for welfare workers; many more case workers and other personnel will be required to seek out and assist the needy.

Rural communities will prosper when their residents enjoy high quality education for their children, adequate health care and welfare services, and employment close to where they live. With higher incomes from stable employment there will be more business for the merchants and shopkeepers in the rural community. The prospering towns will then be able to provide the social, cultural and recreational opportunities to enrich the lives of young people, their parents and the community as a whole. Concerts, plays, festivals, sports activities, clubs, hobbies, fairs—all can be supported by a thriving rural community.

But all this will remain “dream stuff” unless we plan now for tomorrow. Cooperative effort and careful planning can make these dreams come true. Those who choose to live in rural areas must be given a meaningful opportunity to do so. Rural youth of today, with work and determination, can make a difference. They can help to bring about the promise of tomorrow.
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