Former Ambassador Frances E. Willis chats with former Prime Minister of Ceylon Mrs. Sirimavo Bandaranaike.

ing a diplomat, he is the leader, administrator, and arbiter of the awesome range of activities and organizations which today occupy the members of the Country Team.

In this role, the Ambassador today frequently has to write his own book of regulations. Each problem must be solved on its own merits, often without benefit of historic precedent. Nor do the problems wait until the Ambassador has settled into his job. On this theme, one Ambassador reported the following incident:

"One of the worst days I ever spent was the day after I presented my credentials. We were on the eve of an extremely important international conference when my DCM came in to tell me that the head of the armed forces of the host country had arranged for editorials blasting the 'inhumanity of the Americans' to be published at the time of the conference. Seventeen months before, a member of the MAAG Mission had been detained because of a fatal automobile accident. He was released at the time but six months later was charged with manslaughter. The case had not been settled, and the chief of the armed forces had espoused the claim of the widow. The situation obviously called for immediate action. I took the accused man and the MAAG chief to call on the Foreign Minister.

"I told him that, having just arrived, I could not know all the facts but that I would look into the matter. When the Foreign Minister learned of the planted editorials, he agreed to ask the newspaper editors not to publish them. I then said that to show my good faith and as a humane gesture I was willing to give my personal guarantee that the widow would receive a substantial settlement. I made clear this was not to be construed as any admission our man was at fault. Influential people in the host state

Ambassador George C. McGhee (right) looks over the "Wall Exhibit" in the Berlin Amerika Haus.

*In Dahomey, Ambassador Robinson McIlvaine loses a motorbike race to Minister of Agriculture Adande. Race capped ceremonies involving presentation of 250 motorbikes for use of agricultural extension agents throughout the country. Ambassador McIlvaine is now Ambassador to Guinea.*

persuaded the Chief of State to give his pledge for an equal sum. Under these circumstances it was not likely that either of us would be held responsible."

As the chief of mission, the Ambassador must find his own most effective way to run the Country Team. The personal style of each Ambassador will be reflected in his team operation—and the personalities and backgrounds of today's Ambassadors cover a wide gamut.

Among the chiefs of mission in American embassies around the world today are people who, before entering the Foreign Service, worked as economists, historians, labor organizers, businessmen, engineers, geologists, journalists, educators, military officers, lawyers, and bankers. About two-thirds are now career Foreign Service personnel.

From both the professional Foreign Service and many areas of the American community we have been able to draw on an enormous range of experience and talent to fill the vital post of Ambassador in an ever-growing list of nations. Today, an American Ambassador represents the President and the country in some 115 sovereign nations as well as at the United Nations, the Organization of American States, the International Atomic Energy Agency, North Atlantic Treaty Organization and European Regional Organizations, Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, and the U.S. Mission to the European Communities.

The circumstances confronting American Ambassadors overseas are as diverse as the men themselves. In Bonn, the U.S. Ambassador not only represents the President in the Federal Republic of Germany but also bears responsibility for 34 U.S. agencies, has to deal with the commanding generals of large Air Force and Army units stationed in Germany, and is involved in the affairs of West Berlin.

*Ambassador Henry Cabot Lodge, currently the U.S. envoy to Viet-Nam, talks with Nguyen Chanh Thi, former I Corps Area Commander in South Viet-Nam. The U.S. Country Team in Viet-Nam (which does not include operational military units) is the largest in the world.*

*Ambassador Charles E. Bohlen visits the U.S. space exhibit at the Paris Air Salon.*

*Honor Guard is reviewed by Ambassador Claude G. Ross, escorted by M. Joseph Hetman, préfet of Bouar in Central African Republic.*

Our Ambassador to Poland has the additional task of meeting regularly with the Red Chinese Ambassador there to maintain contact with that Asian power.

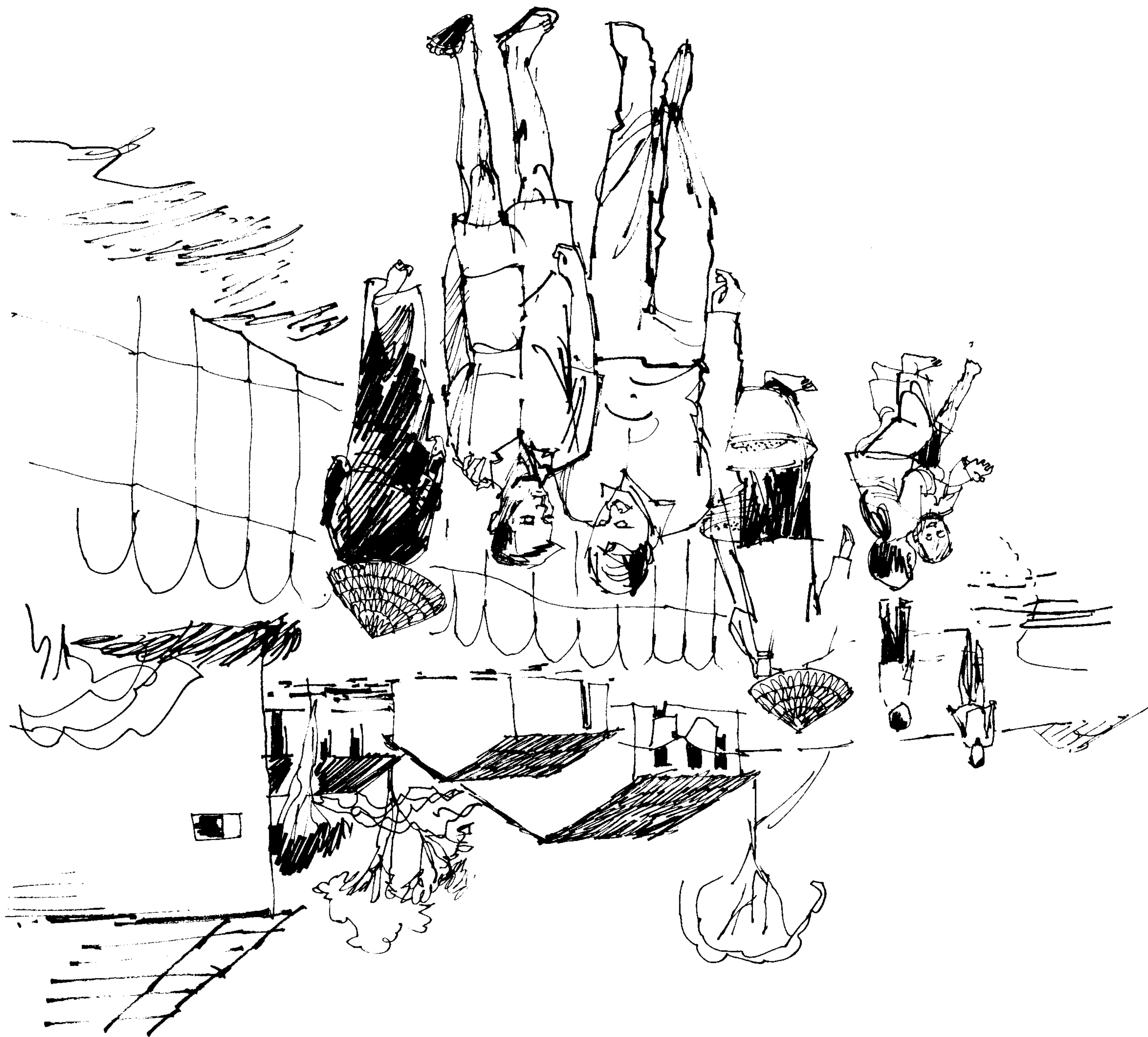
Once on the scene, plan and resources in hand, the Ambassador is the head of the entire combined U.S. mission, except for operational U.S. military commands (e.g., Viet-Nam). In the country to which he is accredited, he outranks all other American officials. The late President Kennedy on May 29, 1961, spelled out this authority—and President Johnson has reiterated it—in a letter to all Ambassadors:

> "You are in charge of the entire U.S. Diplomatic Mission, and I shall expect you to supervise all of its operations. The mission includes not only the personnel of the Department of State and the Foreign Service, but also the representatives of all other U.S. agencies which have programs or activities in [your country of assignment]."

With such responsibility any Ambassador may sympathize with President Truman's famous remark:

"This is where the buck stops!"

*Ambassador Maurice M. Bernbaum talks with a member of former military junta in Ecuador during his tour of duty there in 1960–1964.*



# POLITICAL AFFAIRS

## *Provincial reporter learns politics of terror*

Thirty-three-year-old Samuel B. Thomsen arrived in Saigon in 1963 with his wife, Judy, and their infant daughter, Katie. Thomsen was one of a new breed of political officers known as provincial reporters. Schooled in Viet-Nam's language, culture, and history, Thomsen moved among the villages and hamlets of Tay Ninh province observing the problems and progress of the counterinsurgency programs in the area.

In Tay Ninh, Thomsen saw how Vietnamese leaders, aided by Filipino and American advisers, constructed schools, improved the defense of the hamlets, and worked to solve the many problems of food, housing, and health. He also saw tragic reminders of another side of Vietnamese life. In one hamlet he talked to an 8-year-old girl whose right arm was cut off by the Viet Cong after they had murdered her father. "The maiming of the child," Thomsen said, "was meant as an object lesson to those who cooperate with the government." The use of terror by the Viet Cong as an instrument of politics was all too common.

On March 30, 1965, Thomsen himself became a casualty of political terrorism. He was on temporary assignment in the American Embassy in Saigon when the Communists exploded a 250-pound bomb in the street outside the Embassy. Thomsen suffered severe head and facial cuts from flying glass and was hospitalized several days. A score of Vietnamese and two Americans were killed, and 131 Vietnamese and 52 Americans were wounded in that particular "political action."

The Embassy's political section has built up a cadre of dedicated provincial reporters like Thomsen. These young Foreign Service officers travel through their assigned provinces, talking to villagers, listening, sifting their information. They are observant, and trained in the language and customs of the land. They note signs of village prosperity,

rumors of corruption on the part of a local official, willingness of villagers to speak up, evidence of Viet Cong presence, cases of terror attacks, condition of crops, types of literature evident in the village, and other straws in the wind.

From such intelligence, the Country Team gets its own close "feel" for the people of the land—the first requirement of any successful political action and a prime duty of every embassy's political section.

In addition to personal observation, the political officer uses newspapers, radio broadcasts, periodicals, professional meetings, business contacts, and public records of all sorts to keep his finger on the local pulse. Accurate assessment of information is often more of a problem than collection.

In one new nation in which the literacy rate was low, for example, the political section decided that the rise and fall in the circulation of Communist and anti-Communist newspapers would be a valuable indicator of Communist influence. This simple decision led to some surprising results. Because of the shortage of foreign currencies, importation of newsprint was strictly controlled by the government, which allocated paper on the basis of circulation. Based on these newsprint allocations, the total daily circulation of the press at the time appeared to exceed 5 million, of which the Communist newspapers had 500,000.

However, an embassy officer sensed that the figures were much too high. The matter was discussed at a Country Team meeting. A more thorough press study was undertaken by the political and public affairs sections.

Painstakingly, for 6 months, the file was built up. At every opportunity local newspapermen were queried on the circulations of their own newspapers and that of opposition journals. In this way a cross-check was established on the *potential* size. Circulation would surely not be *more* than that claimed by the publisher or editor, and it would probably not be *less* than that claimed for it by the opposition publisher.

Gradually the figures revealed a pattern. A typical case might add up like this:

- ☐ Government printing allocation: 20,000 copies daily
- ☐ Publisher's "confidential" estimate: 8,000
- ☐ Editor's estimate: 7,000
- ☐ Opposition estimates: 5,000, 5,500, 7,000, and 2,500
- ☐ Potential range: 5–8,000
- ☐ Probable circulation: about 7,000

The opposition estimate of 2,500 was probably a "sour grapes" guess and out of pattern, so it was discarded. The publisher admitted the government figure was a fiction—part of a not-very-secret game played among all publishers and the ministry of information. The editor, having less of a financial stake than the publisher, probably tended to exaggerate the real circulation less than his boss. Opposition guesses probably tended to err on the low side.

Finally, the study was far enough along for the embassy to form judgments and file a report. Conclusion: The total daily press circulation was not 5 million, but between 500,000 and 850,000; total Communist press daily circulation: 45,000—less than 10 percent of that originally reported.

Among the benefits of the study:

☐ A more accurate picture of the size, importance, and political positions of the daily press.

☐ Careful study of the impact of the 143 "daily" newspapers in the country on the public and the leadership. (Some papers originally listed as dailies operating in the back country turned out to be mimeographed flyers appearing biweekly. Nevertheless, as the only publications in their areas, they were influential.)

☐ Better understanding of the pattern of reactions by the press to political issues of importance to the United States.

☐ A remarkably detailed picture of patterns of corruption in at least two ministries of government. It was this corruption which was responsible for the enormous discrepancy between government figures and actual circulation, for the extra newsprint was sold in the black market for private printing contracts, and the proceeds were shared by publishers and dishonest civil servants.

☐ A better appreciation of the extent to which newspapers had to conform to official policy lines. Deviation might result in a "reassessment of circulation requirements," with a resultant loss in profitable paper for the black market. In other words, although the press was supposed to be free, here was functioning political censorship.

And, of course, the political section got its indicator of Communist strength—one of a number of clues needed in making an assessment.

## *Role of the Political Officer*

Although the job of the political officer varies from country to country, his duties generally include these basic functions:

☐ Maintains close contact with senior officials of the Foreign Office of the host country, political parties, leaders of labor and industry and other citizens, and members of other diplomatic missions to exchange information and assess reaction to United States policies. In the course of such contacts, he seeks to increase understanding and support for United States policies and goals.

☐ Negotiates with the Foreign Office and other agencies of the host government on political matters not handled directly by the chief of mission or his deputy.

☐ Makes interpretive analyses of the political situation, reports on crises, and on the

*Even the most alert political officers can be taken by surprise by "flash revolts" such as those in East Berlin (shown here) and Budapest where hundreds of thousands of people suddenly took to the streets to protest oppressive Communist government.*

*David Engel, former provincial reporter for political section of U.S. Embassy in Saigon, was badly shaken but not seriously injured when his truck was blown up by a Viet Cong mine. After medical treatment in the town of Phu Vinh he was flown to Saigon to keep a conference appointment with officers of the political section.*

most complex and politically sensitive questions.

☐ Serves as political adviser to the chief of mission and Country Team with respect to political developments in the host country.

☐ Contributes to and reviews speeches and other public statements to be made by senior officials to insure consistency with United States policy objectives.

☐ Insures that other sections of the mission and other U.S. agencies are informed about political conditions and trends that may have an impact on their activities.

## *Reporting in Crisis*

Reporting can sometimes become a tedious and routine requirement. But at times things happen so fast that political reporting might seem easier from the inside of a cyclotron. Such a case was Hungary in October of 1956.

Though there were signs of change and tension behind the Iron Curtain, nothing prepared the world for the flashfire of rebellion in Hungary in that month. It was a spontaneous combustion of dangerous magnitude, requiring swift, accurate, and comprehensive reporting to the outside world. At the same time, the situation created the worst possible conditions for such reporting.

That was how Jordan Rogers saw it. Rogers, a native of South Carolina and graduate of the University of North Carolina and M.I.T., had served overseas as an Army captain in World War II. After the war he entered the Foreign Service, and was serving in the political section of the U.S. Legation in Budapest during the tragic revolt. Helping to report the revolt was his job—and it rapidly became the job of virtually the entire mission.

Rogers was on hand at the start—the mammoth student and worker demonstrations around the statue of the Polish hero of 1848, General Bem. He heard speaker after speaker voicing the long pent-up emotions and demands of the Hungarian people. When the meeting broke up at dusk, Rogers returned to the Legation to exchange reports with his

colleagues and send Washington a lengthy cable on the demonstrations.

He and his wife had been invited to dine that evening at the home of a Hungarian newspaperman. Also invited were a visiting *New York Times* reporter—the late John MacCormack—and another Hungarian journalist. Rogers wanted very much to hear their comments on the day, and a telephone inquiry gave him the surprising news that the dinner was still on, despite the events of the afternoon.

When he arrived home, his wife told him that a Hungarian friend had just phoned to say that something special was happening at the radio station. Mr. and Mrs. Rogers left immediately for the station and found the streets jammed for blocks around it. They made their way on foot to the street facing the station, and sensed the excitement and determination of the crowd.

A series of demands were being made to the radio station by the students, and were being refused. Truckloads of Hungarian infantry attempted to reach the radio building and were blocked by the angry crowd. The infantry obviously was not prepared to use force against its own people. Finally the trucks began to back away.

The effect was electric. People cheered the soldiers; a girl climbed on the hood of one truck; flags were waved. Eventually things seemed to be quieting down, and, since Rogers was anxious to talk to the newspapermen, he and his wife went on to the dinner. But they had hardly begun to eat before a phone call from the Legation informed them that shooting had broken out at the radio station. Rogers hurried to the office.

The night was a long one. Legation officers fanned out over the city for information on the spreading violence. Up-to-the-minute facts were needed in great detail, and the capacity for obtaining them was sharply limited. There were time-consuming distractions—like the nine tourists who telephoned

*One important function of the labor attaché is to bring to bear the influence of U.S. labor leaders in encouraging American-style free trade unionism. Here Victor Reuther (left), head of a United Auto Workers delegation to Tunisia, and Ambassador Francis H. Russell (center facing) discuss labor problems with Tunisian Secretary of State for the Plan and National Economy Ahmed Ben Salah.*

*Pierre R. Graham (with cigarette), Foreign Service officer, served as political adviser to the Commander-in-Chief of South Atlantic Fleet during the fleet's goodwill visit to West African ports. Here he interprets and arbitrates a difference of opinion between U.N. troops and U.S. Marines in the Congo involving U.N. military equipment to be loaded aboard U.S. ships.*

*James Haahr, chief of Embassy's political section, follows debates in Peruvian Senate.*

from an outlying railway station; they had just arrived in Budapest in the middle of a revolution and wanted the Legation to take care of them. The agricultural attaché struggled through the shot-torn streets to their rescue and found them to be Canadians—but Americans, all the same.

An apartment building occupied by American staff became the center of a Soviet tank park with Soviet machine gunners all over the rooftop; the staff had to be evacuated by convoy under the American flag.

Insurgent representatives suddenly appeared at Rogers' home and asked his wife to transmit an urgent and lengthy message to the United Nations.

In all the eventful confusion Rogers could see and hear only part of what was happening. He had some knowledge of official and insurgent Hungarian statements, some feeling for Hungarian opinion, some contact with Western journalists. But he knew almost nothing of developments outside Hungary, and little of events in Hungary outside Budapest. The Legation officers had only brief contacts with the pro-Soviet Hungarian Government, and with the free Hungarian Government during its short tenure. But they could sense the initially uncertain Soviet reaction and the change to a more brutal attitude later on and could surmise that for a time the possibility of a middle ground between the insurgents and the Soviets may have existed.

Years later, Rogers reflected on those hectic days and said:

"In the months and years that have passed since the late fall of 1956, and in the hundreds of conversations I have had on the Revolution, two questions have come up more frequently than all others: (1) did you predict the Revolution, and (2) what could the U.S. have done?

"No, we did not predict the Revolution. I am confident that no one predicted it, before the fact. The Russians evidently did not. The Hungarians just as evidently were taken by surprise by the violence of their own action. No journalist to my knowledge has shown evidence that he was aware in advance of the likelihood of the uprising.

"What could the U.S. have done? Clearly, U.S. policy-makers were faced with gigantic simultaneous problems; the separate Suez crisis; a U.S. Presidential election; Secretary Dulles hospitalized; lack of adequate news from Hungary; a sharp shift in Soviet policy regarding Hungary. And on top of everything else there was no U.S. Minister present in Hungary. At that, I was satisfied, if I remember my own thoughts correctly, that to intervene with force, as so many Hungarians and Americans were demanding, would have been exceedingly dangerous. A U.N. 'presence' in the form of Dag Hammarskjold or another high official, if he could have physically entered Hungary at the proper moment, would clearly have been very useful."

But the political reporting officer never has the benefit of hindsight. He has to report on history—to recognize and assess it—as it happens.

## *Labor Attaché*

Recognizing the vital role played in world affairs by organized labor, the United States in 1943 provided for the addition of a labor attaché to the embassy team, and with the growth of economic aid programs following World War II, labor technical officers were included in the programing for many countries.

More recently the labor attaché has been concerned with the profound role played by labor in shaping the political development of new, developing countries. Today, the role of the labor member of the Country Team is to report developments in the local labor movement, provide technical assistance to encourage truly independent trade unions which work to improve the lot of the workers, and strengthen the democratic elements of their countries.

The most effective labor work usually is done quietly, without the publicity which often attends other public programs. In one underdeveloped nation just emerging from the agony of a second revolution, the new government sought quietly to reestablish contacts with American free trade unions and to ease its unions away from the Communist-dominated World Federation of Trade Unions (WFTU).

Thanks to an intimate knowledge of the personalities and organizations involved, the American labor attaché was able, quickly and quietly, to bring together representatives of the AFL–CIO and the most effective of the local labor leaders. This led in turn to conferences with officials of the non-Communist International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (ICFTU) and AFL–CIO. A Communist-dominated union, sapped by corruption and political venality, was converted to an economically motivated, free trade union which is now a potential force for stability and progress in the new nation.

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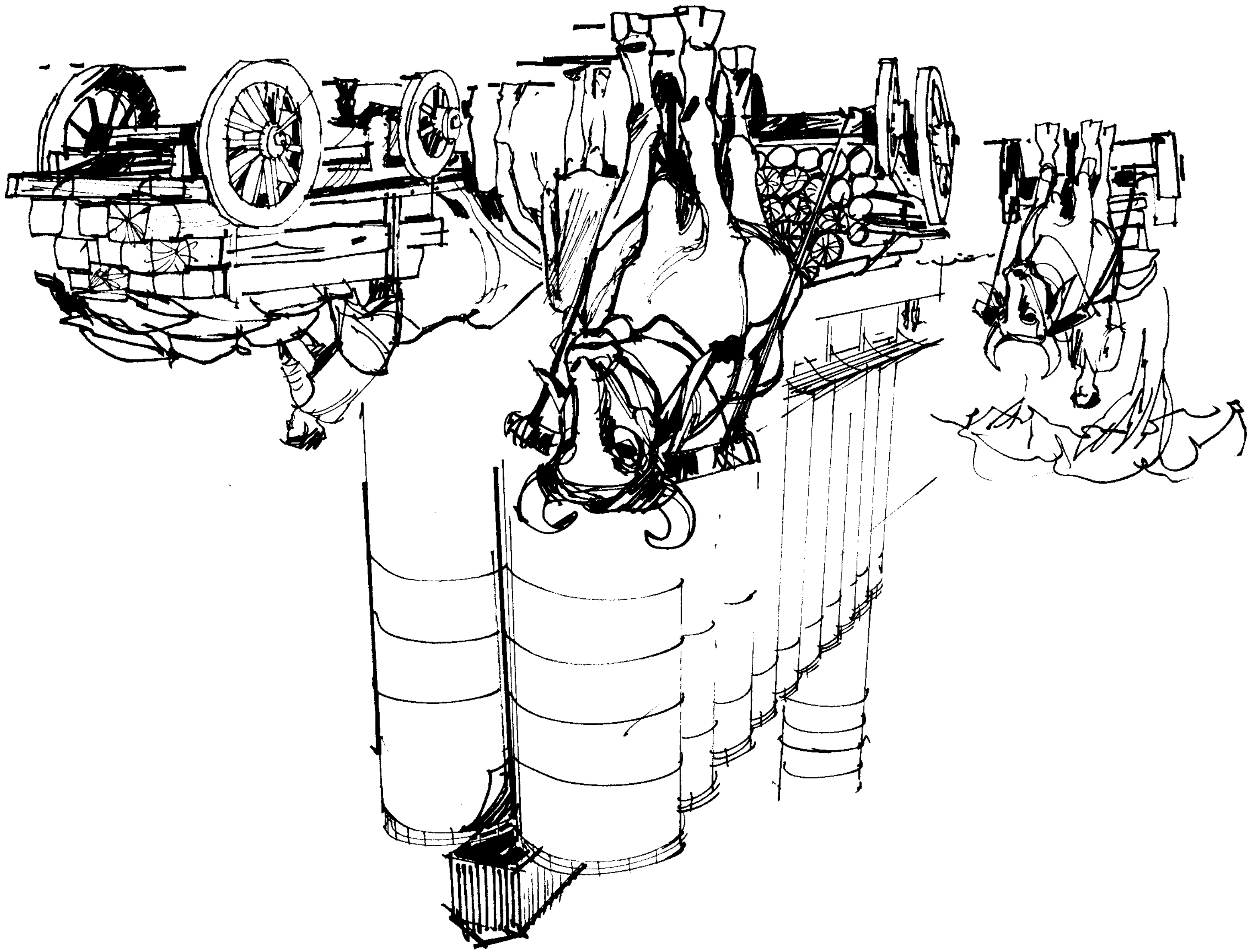


# ECONOMIC AFFAIRS

## *Texas machine parlays peanuts to pearls*

The Japanese wholesale jeweler was fascinated by an electronic peanut sorter displayed at the U.S. Trade Center in Tokyo. Would it sort pearls, he wondered? Bring around a bag of pearls, he was told, and give it a try.

Peanuts or pearls, it made no difference. At a rate of thousands per minute, the machine sorted each with democratic indifference. The delighted jeweler bought several of the electronic marvels at $10,000 each. The same machine, made by a Texas firm, has been purchased by Argentines to sort coffee beans and by Turks to sort raisins.

Millions of American jobs are directly dependent on our foreign trade. Promotion of this trade is obviously important to our welfare, and it is a principal responsibility of our diplomatic missions overseas.

A factor that sets the United States apart from most other countries is our standard of living. For more than two decades, we have based our policies on the conviction that as other peoples' economies are improved—as their hopes for a better life become a real possibility—the chance for peace improves. Every element of the Country Team is committed to that idea, each contributing in its fashion. The consular section assures the American businessman abroad proper legal protection; the political section helps him avoid political pitfalls; but it is the economic section (perhaps more accurately described as the economic-commercial section) which keeps a figurative foot in the door to provide trade opportunities for businessmen visiting a foreign country.

The economic section is responsible for reporting and evaluating economic developments and promoting understanding and support for United States economic programs and goals. Its officers:

- ☐ Advise the chief and deputy chief of mission on policies and guidelines for economic relations with the host country.
- ☐ Analyze and report on economic conditions in the country.

☐ Negotiate on economic matters such as technical assistance, loans and investment, trade, finance, transportation, communications, and related matters.

☐ Maintain close contact with prominent business, industry, and community leaders, and senior government officials concerned with economic, commercial, industrial, and related matters.

☐ Promote American trade in the area, and participate in planning U.S. trade fairs; consult with and assist American and local businessmen in economic and commercial matters.

☐ Insure that other members of the Country Team, other sections of the mission, and other U.S. agencies are informed about economic conditions and trends that may have an impact on their activities.

Acquiring routine economic data sometimes involves a touch of adventure. Jeep trips over impossible roads, flights in antique planes, and mule trips over precarious mountain trails may all be necessary to get information on an all-important crop or mineral deposit. And once at the source of the desired information, it may be difficult to acquire because of inherent peasant distrust of anyone with a clean shirt asking questions. At that point, the economic officer or the agricultural attaché may have to pace off the field, dig a few potatoes, and make his own estimate. Crop information such as this can be of great value to many consumers. These include, for example, the U.S. Departments of Commerce, Agriculture, Interior; the host government and potential American investors; American producers who have farm equipment to sell; the labor officer who must predict the availability of jobs and labor conditions; the political officer who must judge the outlook for the next year's elections; and our Agency for International Development which must assess the need for agricultural aid in the country program.

Almost at the very birth of the Republic, when Thomas Jefferson, our first Secretary of State, sent instructions to his 16 consular representatives, he asked for "such political and commercial intelligence as you may think interesting to the United States." The economic information trickling in to Jefferson, who complained about its meagerness, has swelled to a mighty stream.

Depending on the size of the embassy, the economic section today may include commercial, scientific, petroleum, financial, transportation, agriculture, and minerals officers.

The commercial attachés aim the bulk of their reports toward American business through the Department of Commerce. Generally, the commercial attaché's work involves a dogged, day-to-day effort to collect information as a guide to U.S. manufacturers, investors, growers, exporters, and salesmen, and ultimately to get buyers and sellers together.

In a single year, the commercial attaché in Manila and his staff met with more than 1,500 business visitors, answered more than 1,200 written inquiries about trade, prepared 400 reports on U.S. export opportunities, and compiled more than 800 additional reports on a variety of matters of interest to American business.

Unlike other sections, the embassy may receive concrete evidence of effectiveness in the economic area. For example, Foreign Service officer Philip S. Bogart was cited for meritorious service after he had helped Boeing Aircraft Corp. sell All Nippon Airways six jet airplanes worth more than $30 million "in the face of spirited competition" from other nations.

The commercial attaché in Bogota cleared the way for the sale of U.S.-made lead pencils in Colombia by demonstrating to Colombia's Superintendent of Importations and Minister of Finance that pencils could not satisfactorily be made of Colombian-grown trees but only of California cedar.

Years of negotiations and discussions went

into persuading Great Britain to lift the restrictions on frozen orange juice concentrate imported from Florida and California.

One of the more effective ways of introducing foodstuffs, as the corner grocer could attest, is "sampling the neighborhood." Our Food for Peace program not only helps fight hunger and encourages economic development; it also helps develop tastes for American foods. This pays off in American sales when the aid-receiving countries become self-supporting.

In Japan and Spain, Food for Peace created such a taste for American goods that after the program ended both countries became prime customers for U.S. agricultural products. Israel learned to like American rice through Food for Peace, and later became a cash customer for it.

Farm exports account for more than a quarter of all United States exports and more than one-sixth of our farm output. Seeking to enlarge this trade is the responsibility of the agricultural attaché.

In some parts of the world, trade fairs are the only showcase in which American goods can be displayed in competition with those

*The economic section is interested in any development which can substantially affect the economic strength of the host country. Shown here are revolutionary planting techniques which could change the lives of many peoples living on the rims of the world's deserts. 1) Seeds are planted in the desert sands where nothing has grown for centuries. 2) The dunes are sprayed with oil which congeals and holds the faint moisture in the night air. 3) Eucalyptus and olive trees grow, eventually to anchor the dunes and provide timber, resins, oils, and foods.*

Former economic officer Charles H. Taquey (center) examines the quality of American piece goods introduced to the Tunisian market at a store in the city of Tunis.

of other countries. Since 1954 an arm of the Department of Commerce has been set up to promote trade through international fairs—often with the help of traveling trade missions of American business and government officials. Behind the Iron Curtain, the United States exhibit often is the most popular at the fair; in one year at the Brno (Czechoslovakia) Fair, for example, 500,000 people visited the American display.

In a few key cities abroad, the United States operates a sort of year-round trade fair of its own—U.S. Trade Centers, operated by the Bureau of International Commerce of the Department of Commerce. Trade Centers usually concentrate on exhibits of a single industry at one time.

For years one of the largest drains of American dollars abroad has been the restless American traveler. However, a part of his foreign expenditures is offset by foreigners' visits to the United States. In the words of the late President Kennedy, "Foreign travel to the United States constitutes a large potential market heretofore untapped." Since 1961, the U.S. Travel Service, working in cooperation with embassies and consulates, has been working to tap that market.

The Travel Service makes its weight felt in scales other than the balance of payments. "Travel by your countrymen and ours," as President Johnson remarked to a group of foreign travel agents in 1964, "enables us to know one another better through personal contact."

Economic matters, of course, can never be confined between the covers of a ledger. When the United States disposes of stockpiled tin, it becomes a political concern in tin-rich Malaysia, Bolivia, and Indonesia and thus a political problem for three U.S. Country Teams. The American Embassy in Seoul has the job of reconciling the goal of helping Korea to self-sufficiency through exports while preventing disruption of the U.S. cotton textile market by Korean textiles.

*A U.S. Trade Fair exhibit in Somali gave this pastoralist his first look into television's "glass-eye."*

One country can set off economic waves that lap at many a shore. In 1961 the Soviet Union began selling chrome ores at bargain rates—ores of such quality and at such attractive prices that Western European and United States manufacturers had no choice but to buy if they wished to remain competitive.

Repercussions were sharpest in Turkey and Iran, United States allies with substantial deposits of chrome ores. In the political consternation that ensued, our most reliable source of information on Middle Eastern mines was the American minerals attaché, who roams 10 nations from his base in the U.S. Embassy in Ankara and reports primarily to the Interior Department.

Along with the broad problems with which the Country Team must cope, the commercial attaché must struggle with requests for such items as bathing sand for chinchillas, as occurred recently in Dusseldorf. It can be purchased too—a special mixture of earth and sand from an American company, if anyone wants to know.

USAID

# NATION BUILDING

## *The chiefs came to trust the woman in the jeep*

Catherine Lory, 61, retired as a registered nurse in 1956. Her idea of retirement was a little unusual. Instead of settling down in a modest cottage in Florida, she headed for the back country of Liberia as a member of the United States AID mission, and she took her 98-year-old mother with her.

In the group of outlying villages to which she was assigned, modern sanitary practices were virtually unheard of, disease was rampant, and more than half of all babies died in infancy. Her own estimate in the five villages in her district was a 60 percent mortality rate among the babies from tetanus, improper feeding, and lack of sanitation.

The first step in her campaign to reduce the infant mortality rate was listening and learning. She studied the way local midwives delivered children, the role of magic in their work, and how certain herbs were used to good effect.

Whenever word reached her of a woman in difficult labor, Mrs. Lory dropped whatever she was doing, jumped into her jeep, and hastened to the bedside to help. As time went by, her patient persuasion paid off: the local chiefs came to trust the woman who drove her jeep over miles of unpaved roads to help them; who acted as her own auto mechanic; who often was without water and light in her own home; and who still managed to take good care of her aged mother. They began to accept her suggestions about the need for sanitation and cleanliness.

The infant mortality rate was reduced by two-thirds.

In a broad sense, Catherine Lory's experience is not unique. In developing countries everywhere, AID specialists apply their skills, frequently under difficult conditions.

Carl Schantz, a Colorado well-digger, went to Nepal under the AID program to help solve the problem of inadequate water. His portable drilling rig was unloaded from a freighter in Calcutta. After a grueling

*Retired nurse Catherine Lory (left) made a new career teaching midwives in Liberia. She took her 98-year-old mother with her.*

search for lost parts, the rig was assembled and shipped by rail to the Nepal border. Moving the heavy equipment from one drilling site to another was not only difficult but often hazardous—by truck over tortuous mountain roads and crude dirt lanes not built to carry vehicles of such great size and weight. The rig had to be inched carefully past dirt slides and guided over makeshift roadways across rice paddies and ditches.

Schantz and his crew carried their own power source, repaired damaged parts or made new ones, manufactured their own welding gas, and trucked in their own water supply until the wells were brought in. He was blacksmith, driver, mechanic, and electrician. More important, he was a teacher to his Nepalese helpers, who would have to carry on the work when he went home.

In contrast to the individual initiative applied by Schantz, there is the Laotian Village Cluster program which draws its strength from cooperative enterprise, traditional in that part of Southeast Asia. *Mu Ban Samaki* (Village Clusters Cooperating) is the name of the program of concentrated rural development introduced in Laos in 1963. It represents a fundamental change in the rural development concept. Essentially the program is one of emphasis on carefully selected areas, rather than on a broad front. This selection enables a concentration of resources, both American and Laotian, on the selected target areas. The program basically involves getting a number of neighboring villages to cooperate with one another, with the support of the Laotian Government, to improve their way of life through economic development projects.

U.S. AID (the U.S. aid mission), which has led the way in getting the program moving, provides International Volunteer Service personnel—young American volunteers who speak the Laotian language—to live in the villages and instruct the villagers how to help themselves. U.S. AID also provides technicians to help the villagers in such fields as agriculture, education, public works, and roads, and also provides the imported materials; the villagers furnish the labor to build community projects such as schools, wells, dams, roads, and dispensaries. Essential to

this new program is the provision of security to the chiefs against the Pathet Lao insurgents.

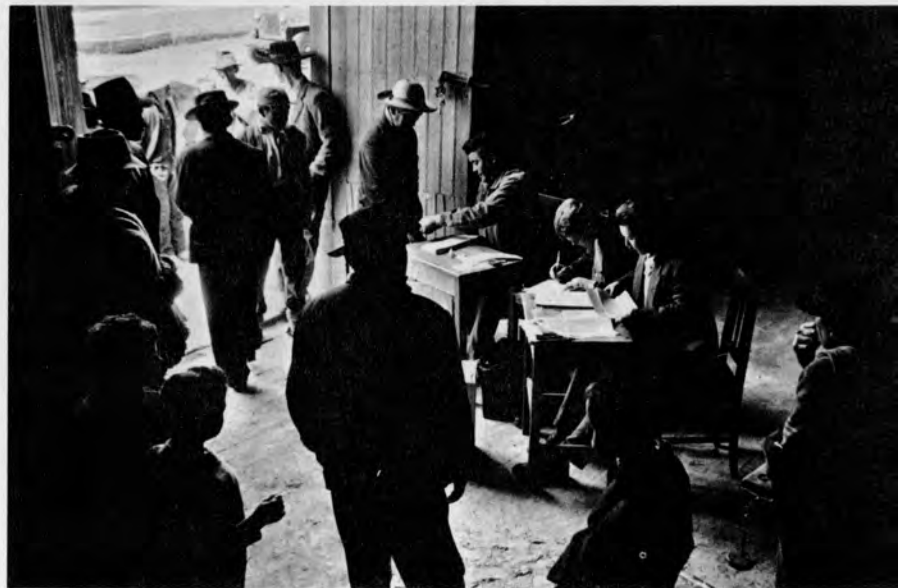
Ingenuity is often the AID technicians' most important tool. When George A. Bevier, AID entymologist, went to Nicaragua to join in the battle against malaria, one of his most difficult problems was to reach the breeding grounds of the disease-bearing mosquitoes. Remembering his duck-hunting days in California, he decided to try bog shoes, or water skates, as part of the spray teams' equipment. (Bog shoes are large, lightweight, pontoon-like devices which duck hunters strap on their feet to give them buoyancy.)

Fitted out with this footgear, Bevier's teams are able to skate along the surface of the swamps spraying insecticides into breeding areas inaccessible by boat.

The best kind of inventiveness is that which solves local problems with local resources. Philip C. Good of Oregon was sent to Nepal by AID to help improve mining operations. During his assignment in Katmandu, Mr. Good took a 350-mile side trip to Wapsa Khani, a village in the Himalayas where a small copper mine is located. Good found the mine was being operated wastefully and inefficiently, using hand labor and outmoded equipment and techniques. From materials available locally, Good manufactured and demonstrated simple equipment to make mining techniques faster and more productive. Among Good's innovations were: a deep-bed smelting furnace; a crude slime table for recovering ore which hitherto had been discarded; and a foot-operated stamping mill with a 50-pound stone for a crushing head. During his 2-month sojourn, Good ate with the villagers and slept in Nepalese homes or camped out.

When Oregon farm expert Ray Wendel arrived at the AID mission in Indonesia, he found that the local farmers were using a slow and cumbersome corn-planting procedure

*Malaria control of the swamps was made easier by U.S. AID man who used plastic bog shoes adapted from his duck-hunting days in California.*



*Americans in Chile help the farmers establish a grain cooperative.*

*This U.S. AID technician adapted a Nepalese foot-operated rice huller for use with a stone head as a simple but effective stamp mill and crusher.*

*Pest control frequently makes the difference between food and famine. Here an Ethiopian flagman sits atop a termite mound, guiding spray planes in locust-control program.*

*Dr. Helen Taussig, co-originator of the "blue baby" operations, examines a child in Saigon.*

with three separate operations by three separate workmen. Wendel designed a simple, inexpensive hand tool that made corn planting a one-man, one-operation job. A local shop which manufactures the planter had to work overtime to keep up with demand.

Solving one problem usually means that attention must be focused on the next. So it was with Wendel. Rats, which nested in the banks along the irrigation canals, were eating great numbers of rice seedlings. The problem: locate the rats and destroy them, but keep the poisons out of the reach of the children. Using short sections of bamboo, Wendel invented a floating rat trap anchored in the ditches near the dikes. Rats entering the traps eat the thirst-provoking poison, then leave in search of water. The trap is then ready for the next victim.

Other Wendel inventions in Indonesia include an improved corn-drying method developed by impaling the ears on nails driven part way into wooden posts, and a marked chain devised to check off the proper interval for planting rows of rice. Not very dramatic, perhaps, but together with new farming techniques, better seed, and the proper appli-

cation of fertilizers, these things helped to achieve remarkable results.

The examples of ingenuity are many: a threshing technique learned from Korean farmers was introduced into Iranian agriculture by an AID technician, reducing threshing time by more than half; Korean farmers learned to raise fish in their rice paddies as a protein supplement to their diets; vegetable farming was introduced in the Sahara desert, and a dairy industry in steaming Nigeria.

Foreign assistance is not meant to buy friends, but in performing their duties overseas, AID technicians do, in fact, create friendships, and gratitude is sometimes expressed in unusual ways.

Jack Gordon, savings and loan consultant for AID in Costa Rica, took part in the planning and development of low-cost housing units. During the dedication ceremonies of the first 600 homes, Gordon was presented with the deed to one of them as a token of the people's appreciation. Deeply touched by the gesture, Gordon expressed his inability to accept the home and turned it back to the community to be used as a library.

Such varied efforts in nation building are paying dividends.

- ☐ Malaria cases in India decreased from 75 million in 1953 to 2,000 in 1961; Taiwan's annual death rate from malaria dropped from 12,000 to 0.
- ☐ Primary school enrollment in the Philippines doubled.
- ☐ More than 200,000 Koreans were housed over a 5-year span.
- ☐ In 1 year meals are provided for more than 9 million undernourished Latin American children.

Impressive as these accomplishments may be, their importance is secondary to many less dramatic foreign aid efforts to help the developing nations stand on their own feet. There are no universal rules, but the primary

*An important Alliance for Progress development is the Furnas Hydroelectric Power Project in Brazil.*

need of most countries in the early stages of development is for technical assistance. AID technicians on the scene work with their foreign counterparts to reduce illiteracy, develop native skills, feed the hungry, eradicate disease, and build decent places to live.

At the same time, the foundation for continued progress must be established: personnel must be trained for administrative services; school systems have to be built; savings, credit, and trade associations need to be set up, along with cooperatives and other community institutions to sustain economic growth.

Ideally, the solution to one problem should establish a basis for dealing with another problem. For example, disease control programs often stimulate land reclamation by opening up new areas for cultivation. In 1957 the United States and Guatemala joined forces in a drive to eradicate malaria in that Central American state. By 1962 Guatemala's malaria rate was only one-tenth of what the figure had been when the program got under way. Land which had hitherto been uninhabitable was opened up to settlement and development, and agricultural output in the treated areas rose sharply. The amount of land under cultivation had nearly quadrupled, and the value of agricultural production had increased 60 times.

New settlers need not only land, but the means of acquiring the necessary equipment. Without seed, fertilizer, and know-how, the new land may be of little value to its occupant or to the country's economic advancement. Recognizing this problem, American technicians trained local staffs to supervise Iran's agricultural bank and helped organize farm cooperatives as part of the Shah's broad land reform program. In 3 years agricultural credit cooperatives had increased from 112 to 850, and these credit facilities were making 70 percent of the new agricultural loans. The application of insecticides had more than quadrupled; fertilizer use multiplied many times over; about 60 percent of the farmers were planting improved wheat seed; and some crop diseases like wheat smut had been eliminated.

Besides showing the farmer how to get the most out of his land, the AID technician can offer marketing advice to help him sell his crops more profitably; other extension services encourage balanced diets and better nutrition.

When United States aid to Costa Rican agriculture began in 1948, the country was short of all basic food crops. American efforts were directed at setting up and expanding agricultural extension services; aiding research; improving the techniques for storing, processing, and marketing foodstuffs; developing irrigation and drainage systems; and helping to build access roads to get crops to market. Despite an annual population increase of 4 percent, Costa Rica today is now self-sufficient in rice, corn, beans, meat, livestock products, fruits, and vegetables.

The job of the AID mission does not end with the realization of a few gains in the immediate living standards at the community level. These "here and now" gains are frequently more important as inducements to greater self-help undertakings than as ends in themselves. *Sustained* growth may call for building a dedicated and competent civil service. Tax reforms may be required so that the burden of raising revenue may be more equitably distributed. Training in managerial and administrative skills may be necessary so that available resources will be used in the most effective manner for development activities.

An American team in Thailand helped plan and set up one of the best budget systems in Asia. American aid with a national census revealed that the Thai population was 18 percent greater than the estimate which had been used in drawing up the initial development plans.

## *The Peace Corps*

In October 1961, the Latin American correspondent for the *Washington Star* reported village officials in Colombia eagerly awaiting the arrival of the first Peace Corps community development workers.

In a region where efforts were being made "to end a century of neglect," the reporter quoted one official as saying, "We need them, we want them, we have fought for them."

The reporter added that Colombian social workers worried that "genteel North Americans may not be up to the job. The Colombians are afraid they will be overwhelmed by backwardness on all sides."

In the fall of 1961—abroad and at home—these were the prevailing fears for the Peace Corps.

Less than 2 years later, the first volunteers who had journeyed to Colombia had played a part in the completion of 44 rural schools, with work begun on an additional 55. They had helped complete some 200 miles of rural roads. They had sparked the building of 27 aqueducts and begun work on 29 others. Other results of their work included 4 health centers completed and 13 others started; latrine programs in 33 different areas with more than 1,000 latrines installed; 26 cooperatives established; a number of farm ponds built and stocked with fish; and innumerable sports fields constructed.

But the goal of the volunteers went far beyond mere physical improvements. They had been sent to Colombia primarily to help the rural people by showing them how to help *themselves*.

The Peace Corps was established by Congress on September 22, 1961, for the simple purpose of promoting peace and friendship. Its success is well known around the world.

By the latter part of 1966, more than 50 nations had welcomed Peace Corps volunteers. India with more than 1,300 volunteers, and Nigeria, Colombia, and Brazil with more than 900 each, have the largest Peace Corps contingents.

Thanks in part to Peace Corps efforts, crowded schoolhouses stand where there were none before, nurses and doctors are being trained, and science is replacing superstition.

From Brazil, a volunteer doing home demonstration work and setting up 4-H clubs writes:

"The people have a simple, humble way of life, but they want to give you what they have. They're anxious to learn and to improve their way of life, they appreciate anything you do for them. I think the satisfactions are far greater than any sacrifice you make. . . ."

A volunteer in Africa said:

"I can't say everything here is just as I thought it would be. It's impossible for Americans to imagine the lack of sanitation or extreme poverty. But I am terrifically pleased to see the progress being made. It's a good feeling to be working where you're really needed."

Peace Corps volunteers represent a cross-section of the American people. They come from the large cities and small towns of all 50 states. Although the typical volunteer is unmarried and about 25, many married couples are serving together overseas and the age span ranges from 18—the minimum—to 75. Their experience and skill varies from high school graduates to men and women who have passed the normal age of retirement.

Becoming a Peace Corps volunteer isn't easy. There is no "Peace Corps type"; selection is based on merit alone. After completing a Peace Corps questionnaire, the prospective volunteer takes a placement test. After a check by the Civil Service Commission. citizens are selected for training.

The 10- to 12-week training program sharpens both physical and mental skills. Special attention is paid to the skill area in which the volunteer is to work—often in-