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The AMERICAN FOREIGN SERVICE JOURNAL

VOL. 25, NO. 11

NOVEMBER, 1948

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Issued monthly by the American Foreign Service Association, 1809 G Street, N. W., Washington, D. C. Entered as second-class matter at the Post Office in Washington, D. C., under the Act of March 3, 1879.

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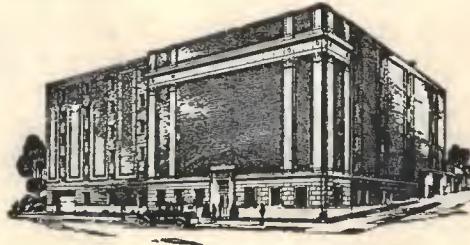
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PUBLISHED MONTHLY BY THE AMERICAN FOREIGN SERVICE ASSOCIATION

VOL. 25, NO. 11

WASHINGTON, D. C.

NOVEMBER, 1948

The Foreign Service Officer in Washington

By FRANK SNOWDEN HOPKINS

Illustrations by John D. Irwin

For several years now I have been a sympathetic observer of the adjustments which my Foreign Service friends and their families have had to make upon coming to Washington on assignment. Having seen a good many officers reacting to this situation, I have come to think that a few mild comments from the sidelines might illuminate the problem somewhat and assist those who in the near future will be coming in on their first tour of duty here.

The most discussed problem of a Washington assignment is always the financial one, since relatively few officers are well-padded against the inevitable shocks that are involved in giving up field allowances and at the same time adjusting to the Washington cost of living. It seems to the observer, however, that the financial problem is only part of a more inclusive psychological problem which could be better dealt with if it were more completely understood.

It is necessary to recognize at the outset that there will be exceptions to any generalizations which one can formulate. Some officers have fewer family responsibilities than others, and some are better able to cope with those they have. There is a great deal of variation in the capacity of wives for happy adjustment to Washington. And finally, some officers get assigned to much more interesting jobs than others, which makes a great deal of difference in how they feel about the general experience of a tour of duty in the Capital.

In order to keep the comments which follow reasonably specific, it will be assumed that we are discussing the problems of an officer in Class 3 or Class 4 who has had from ten to twenty years field duty, has not had a previous Washington assignment, is without a private income, and has a wife and two children to support. It will be assumed also that he is not occupying a top job

in the Department of State or other agency to which he may be assigned, but is an assistant division chief or divisional assistant. Both the more senior officer occupying a higher position and the more junior officer occupying a lower one will be out of the spotlight of discussion, even though much of what is said may apply equally to them.

If the officer is fortunate enough to be able to rent a house or apartment suitable to his needs without paying an exorbitant rental, he has a very simple choice between reducing his standard of living or dropping into the red during his Washington years. In many cases, however, he finds that he has to buy a house, even for the short time that he will be here. A pleasant three-bedroom house in good condition, in a good section, with good resale possibilities, such as a middle-grade officer might have in the field, will be priced at from \$25,000 to \$30,000. Assuming that he can raise a down payment, the officer is then faced with another choice: shall it be a comfortable house with heavy mortgage payments, or a little bandbox which is more manageable financially?

After agonizing over this situation, the officer usually ends by saying to his wife, "We've got to have a little space, or the children will be continually in our laps. Let's take the plunge."

So he does. And then comes the next painful discovery. With heavy mortgage payments to meet, the income is reduced to the point where the family of four finds it can't afford household help. A weekly cleaning woman or laundress, yes; but a regular maid, to get meals and help with the children, means another \$1,000 a year and up. So Mrs. FSO moves into the kitchen.

Add the baby-sitter problem; add the high cost of groceries; add clothing and laundry costs; add medical





"So Mrs. FSO moves into the kitchen."

expenses; add taxes and insurance; add household furnishings; add transportation expense; and by the time one stops adding it will be evident that there isn't much available for recreation, entertainment and summer vacations.

Assuming that by careful budgeting the Foreign Service family keeps its fiscal affairs under control, the fact remains that life without servants deprives the wife of freedoms she has enjoyed in the field, that the family usually lives less spaciously in Washington, and that entertaining is troublesome and expensive. These things have to be balanced against the advantages of the generally high standard of health, comfort, convenience and security to be found in an American city.

If one thinks purely in terms of such objective factors as health, comfort, convenience and security, life here compares favorably with life at a Foreign Service post, where, as we all know, many hardships, dangers and physical discomforts must be borne, and often great financial difficulties as well. For a full understanding of why Foreign Service people find Washington difficult, I think we need to examine a number of less obvious considerations.

In the first place, few persons can reduce their standard of living and abandon accustomed symbols of status without some emotional discomfort. We are all sensitive about the kind of show we can put on before ourselves and our friends, and to move from a roomy house with servants to a more modest establishment without servants involves inevitably some loss of self-assurance, which is not compensated for by electrical appliances and efficient plumbing. Because of this, most Foreign Service people coming to Washington actually reduce their outward standard of living less than they really should, all objective financial factors considered. They make a brave attempt to keep up old ways of living, and in doing so increase the financial strain on themselves.

Secondly, social life in Washington involves a pretty complete readjustment of the field officer's ideas and habits. At most of the posts which I have visited, it has seemed to me that the Foreign Service officer finds much of his life outside the office ready-made for him by virtue of his official position. With heavy representational responsibilities, he and his wife entertain and are entertained in turn, and

are constantly made to feel that they are persons of importance.

In Washington, however, the situation is for most middle-grade officers entirely different. True, there are some officers on geographic desks who become involved in a good many diplomatic parties (and who have to pay the piper, worse luck, when it is their turn to reciprocate the attentions shown them). There are a good many others, however, who find that they are seldom invited out unless they go to a good deal of effort to develop a social life for themselves.

Most officers, of course, find old friends living here when they come to town, and these friends will fairly promptly entertain them at a quiet six or eight-person dinner, or at a small cocktail party. But these invitations, even if promptly reciprocated, may not be repeated for some time, and the newly arrived officer may soon find that he has his evenings to himself. He may decide that he needs to start entertaining in order to widen his circle of friends. And then he runs squarely into the realization that he can't afford to entertain very often, or to have large parties when he does. Such resources as he has may be partly dissipated in doing something for friends from the field who steadily stream through Washington. The officer and his wife, then, are caught in a new kind of situation, in which their social life consists of an occasional quiet evening with close friends, plus not-very-frequent and not-very-large cocktail gatherings.

Thus the officer who looks upon a tour of duty in Washington as an opportunity to extend his acquaintance among brother officers is frequently disappointed to find that he doesn't meet but a small proportion of them. He will get to know the other Foreign Service officers who work in his division or in closely associated divisions, and he will occasionally meet others in casual luncheon encounters or at the Foreign Service Association meetings and entertainments. But on the whole it is surprising how slow the process of getting acquainted is. I have myself again and again introduced officers who had been rubbing elbows with one another for months without either knowing who the other was. And even when officers get acquainted with one another, their wives will be still slower to meet because of the comparative infrequency of social gatherings. The whole situation is vastly different from that at the field post, where any newly arrived officer couple soon find themselves included in a round of activities and introduced to every one.

It is my impression, therefore, that a good many officers serving in Washington have a let-down feeling in regard to their social life. No doubt there are many times in the field when they wish ardently they could spend a few more quiet family evenings at home. In Washington they may soon experience nostalgia for the field life in which they were busily engaged in representational activities. In time they do develop an interesting life here, but the sharp decrease in tempo the first year is often a little rough on the ego.

Another set of significant factors are those involved in an officer's feelings about his job. In all except the very largest offices in the field, one may be a big frog in a little puddle; in Washington, one may feel more like a little frog in a very large pond. One works hard in the Department, but in any large organization it is more difficult to get things done. Problems of coordination and clearance are troublesome, regulations and budgetary limitations are frustrating, and the machinery of transacting business is more cumbersome and impersonal than the officer has been accustomed to in the field. It is no wonder, therefore, that the officer often feels that he is submerged under entirely too many organizational layers and that his efforts count for less, both in accomplishment and in recognition, than in the field.

Much of this adds up, it seems to me, to a feeling on the part of a Foreign Service officer in Washington, particu-

ly when he is still new here and yet has got past all the initial excitements of coming back, that he just isn't as important a person here as he was in the field; he has been deprived of ego supports which he took for granted at the post. He has made sacrifices to be here; his wife and family have made sacrifices. And yet his assignment hasn't given him the satisfactions that he expected. And he begins to wonder: is it worth while?

Then he makes another discovery. He finds that in Washington the FSO, as a species, may be accepted with some reservations by other categories of personnel. There are all kinds of exceptions and qualifications that one should include in any such statement, but still there is a core of residual truth in it; there are underlying differences of attitude between the home and field services, and they do on occasion come to the surface. There is a stereotype which some Departmental officers have of their Foreign Service colleagues which includes an impression that Foreign Service officers are a little aloof and unfriendly; that they are often proud and suspicious; and that they tend to form themselves into cliques, shutting out the Departmental officer, whenever there are several of them in one office.

The Foreign Service officer, on his part, wonders how his Departmental colleagues can form such an unflattering impression. He feels himself to be a perfectly natural, sincere and friendly person. True, he associates closely with his brother officers, but isn't it natural that he should have more in common with those who have shared his own experiences and who reassure him by evaluating him as he evaluates himself? Finally, he has a few complaints of his own about the way he is pushed around on occasion by opinionated people, who seem to him not to be aware of a lot of things that any Foreign Service officer understands intuitively from his experiences abroad.

Any essay of this kind should attempt not only to diagnose difficulties, but to propose remedies. There is not much that a mere essayist can do about the basic financial difficulties which face the Foreign Service officer in Washington; facts are facts, and there they are. It may be possible, however, to suggest, very tentatively, some ideas which may help somewhat on the subjective aspects of the officer's experiences here.

Basically, it appears to me, the difficulties on the subje-



"Problems of coordination and clearance are troublesome . . ."

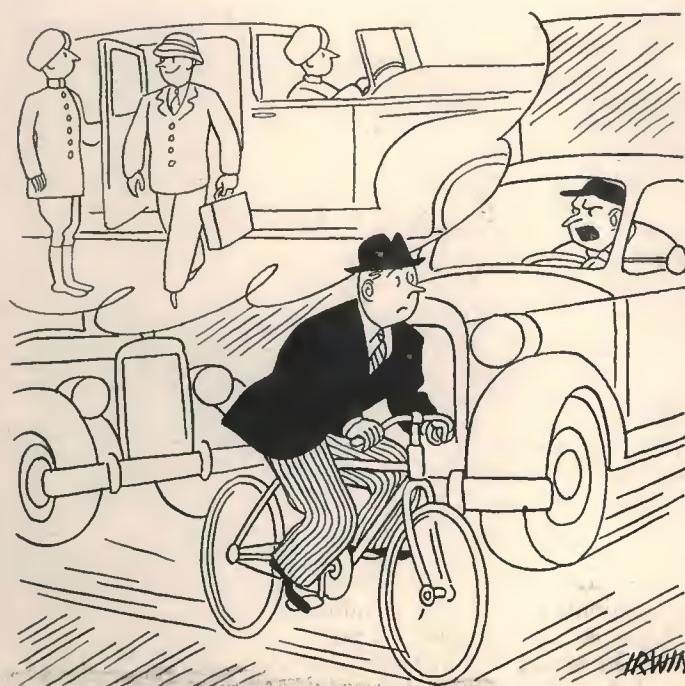
tive side stem from the fact that the Foreign Service officer, entirely unconsciously, expects Washington to be a Foreign Service post; and the longer he has been in the field without a Washington assignment, the stronger this unconscious expectation is likely to be.

The officer knows that Washington is going to be difficult financially, and to some extent he can steel himself psychologically for the financial ordeal he is going to have to endure. What he isn't prepared for is the diminution in his sense of importance that comes when he finds himself occupying a relatively inconspicuous position in the complex machinery of a large organization, living without servants or fanfare in a home more modest than the mortgage upon it, and leading a social life so quiet that it doesn't even bring him into wide contact with his brother officers.

In other words, a first Washington assignment for a middle-grade officer who has enjoyed for several years a position of prestige abroad is likely to be bruising to his pride and to give him a feeling of insecurity. As he gets used to Washington, builds a circle of friends, and perhaps advances to a more important position in the Civil Service hierarchy, his spirits gradually rise. But the experience has still left its mark on him.

The first suggestion that I would make is that the officer ordered to Washington should think of the assignment as one which, for its duration, will take him almost completely out of the Foreign Service. Washington is not a Foreign Service post, and can't be made into one. The officer should accept duty here in the spirit that he is trading off one set of advantages, i.e., those he enjoys in the field, for another set, i.e., those that come from living and working in Washington. He can't have both at once, any more than the Departmental officer who does a stint in the Reserve can enjoy the advantages of Washington while serving in the field.

Secondly, as a corollary to the first suggestion, he should try to stop thinking of himself as a Foreign Service officer for the duration of his stay here, and instead think of himself as an officer of the Department of State (Commerce, Agriculture or Labor, as the case may be). His new Departmental colleagues will always have some reservations about him as long as he makes it obvious that his only deep loyalties are to the Foreign Service and his brother FSOs;



"Washington is not a Foreign Service post . . ."

The Brookings Institution's New Program of Research and Education in International Relations

By JOSEPH W. BALLANTINE

The Brookings Institution was named after Robert S. Brookings, not primarily because of the financial contributions of Mrs. Brookings and himself but in recognition of his initiative and leadership. To him the Institution owes its continued existence, its expanding scope, and its emphasis on public service based on scientific research. Mr. Brookings' career divides itself into three parts. The first was the period of active business, which ended in the middle nineties when at the age of forty-six he retired as president of the Cupples Company of St. Louis. The second was the educational phase covering the years from 1895 to the first world war, during which he devoted himself to the upbuilding of Washington University in St. Louis. He not only raised a large endowment for that institution, but contributed the bulk of his own fortune in the process. The third phase, that of public service, extended from 1916 to the time of his death in 1932. His interest in public affairs was stimulated by his experience in World War I when he served as chairman of the Price Fixing Committee and also as a member of the War Industries Board. His wartime observation of the complex relations between government and private enterprise impelled Mr. Brookings to devote himself thenceforth to the development of the several agencies which were eventually merged in the institution which bears his name. It was a matter of deep regret to him that his remaining financial resources were not sufficient to provide the Institution with adequate endowment funds.

At the present time the endowment and other capital assets of the Brookings Institution amount to approximately \$4,500,000, which yields an income of about \$200,000. The balance of the income has been derived from two principal sources: grants from foundations, either for unrestricted purposes or for the support of specific projects; and the sale of publications—the latter now yielding more than \$70,000 annually.

The Institution has traditionally been concerned with problems relating to foreign countries and international relations as well as with outstanding domestic problems. It has consistently sought to aid the professional and lay public in elucidating and clarifying problems of current importance. After the first World War the Institution undertook, in the international field, investigations of such major topics as war debts and reparations, commercial policy and international trade, and international finance and investment. An important feature of the work in this field was the development of techniques for the analysis of the problems and policies of individual countries and regions, exemplified by its comprehensive surveys of Japan, Italy, and the Danubian states.

The critical and complex world problems that have emerged since the second World War have presented to the United States a challenging opportunity for constructive



Joseph W. Ballantine

international leadership. This circumstance prompted the Brookings Institution to consider how best it might contribute to the task of leadership that has now been assumed by the government and the people of the United States.

First and foremost, the task of the United States is to develop and promote vigorous and intelligent foreign policies that will be appropriate to the responsibility it has undertaken. It was clearly recognized that the immediate responsibility for the formulation and execution of foreign policy rests with the government. But it was also recognized that the effectiveness of governmental action in the conduct of foreign relations depends, among other things, upon the fulfillment of two basic requirements. The first of these is the availability of an adequate reservoir of personnel trained in foreign affairs upon which the govern-

ment might draw to staff its expanding activities in foreign relations. The other is the existence of an informed, intelligent—and therefore responsible—American public opinion. Moreover, it was realized that beyond the immediate needs of the United States government there were many private enterprises of an international character and an increasing number of international agencies whose need for trained personnel is expanding. The conclusion was reached that the Institution could make its most effective contribution through efforts to assist in the training of prospective specialists in foreign affairs and in work that would improve and extend public understanding of current foreign problems. Accordingly, the Institution developed a program of activities around these two objectives.

The new program was a logical development of the Institution's earlier efforts in the international field. The program and the means proposed for its execution have grown out of the Institution's three decades of experience in public service. Many of the members of the staff of the Institution are especially qualified for this work by service in the government or by other training. The facilities possessed by Brookings Institution for undertaking a program of research and education in the international field include close contacts that it has developed with all branches of the government and with individual scholars and educational, research, and business enterprises in this and other countries.

The new program was launched in 1946 and an International Studies Group was organized under the directorship of Dr. Leo Pasvolsky, a veteran member of the Brookings staff, who since 1939 had been on leave from the Institution to serve in various capacities in the Department of State, culminating in the post of Special Assistant to the Secretary of State in charge of International Organization and Security Affairs. He had taken an active part in various international conferences including the United Nations Conference on International Organization at San Francisco, where he served as Chairman of the Coordination Committee of the Conference. Other members of the Group include

Dr. William Adams Brown, Jr., Mr. Robert W. Hartley, Dr. Redvers Opie, Rear Admiral Charles J. Moore, USN (Ret.), Dr. Paul Birdsall, Dr. George L. Millikan, Miss Ruth B. Russell, Mr. Clarence E. Thurber, and the present writer.

Dr. Brown was formerly Eastman Professor of Political Economy at Brown University, a staff associate of the Economic, Financial and Transit Department of the League of Nations, and an officer in the Economic Studies Division and in the Central Secretariat of the Department of State. He has had a wide experience in economic matters, is the author of several works in the field and is a recognized authority on the international gold standard. Mr. Hartley has had long experience in the government, having worked with the National Resources Planning Board, the Bureau of the Budget, and the Department of State. He was a member of the United States delegations both at the Dumbarton Oaks Conference in 1944 and at the San Francisco Conference in 1945. Dr. Opie, formerly a Fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford, served during the war as Economic Adviser to the British Embassy in Washington and actively participated in the formulation of many of the important post-war international economic agreements.

Admiral Moore, a veteran of over forty years service in the Navy, has had a wide staff and command experience. He has, at various times, been head of the Island Government Section of the Navy Department, an officer in the War Plans Division of the Navy Department, Senior Member of the Joint War Plans Committee of the United States Joint Chiefs of Staff, Deputy Secretary of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, and Chief of Staff to Admiral R. A. Spruance, Commander Fifth Fleet. He has served on the Staff of the Naval War College. Dr. Birdsall, formerly Professor of History at Williams College, served during the war and after in the United States Office of Military Government in Germany, and as Assistant Military Attaché in the United States Embassy in Paris. He is the author of "Versailles Twenty Years After." Dr. Millikan has taught government and political science at various institutions, and during the war served in the Naval Reserve in various administrative and planning capacities, including duty as Assistant to the Deputy Secretary of the United States Joint Chiefs of Staff.

Miss Russell has had a long experience in the government, having been engaged in various activities in the Department of State, and in the Foreign Service Auxiliary, serving in the Embassy at London as liaison officer to the European Central Inland Transport Organization. Mr. Thurber has worked with the Public Administration Clearing House and for several years has been concerned with studies relating to Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union. He served during the war in the Office of Strategic Services and later in the Department of State in research activities relating to the Soviet Union, and in the Executive Secretariat. The present writer joined the Brookings staff after a career of thirty-eight years in the Foreign Service, his most recent posts being Director of the Office of Far Eastern Affairs and Special Assistant to the Secretary of State. During his tenure of the latter post he twice visited Japan in 1946 as adviser to the International Prosecution Section, International Military Tribunal for the Far East.

The combined experience of the International Studies Group covers a wide range in the political, economic, and security aspects of international affairs, as regards both the operations of government in foreign affairs and in the training of college and university students.

Among the projects to which the Group initially addressed itself was the preparation of an annual Study Guide on the Major Problems of United States Foreign Policy. The first edition appeared in 1947 and the second in the late summer of 1948. The Study Guide seeks to approach problems of foreign policy constructively in the way they

would be approached by a policy making officer in the government.

Such an officer must proceed from the general to the particular. That is to say, he would first need to survey the world panorama as a whole before attempting to deal with any segment of it. A policy designed to safeguard the national interests must be suitable, feasible, and acceptable. In order to determine what is suitable, he must weigh whether, in the light of world conditions and of the possibilities of opposition or support of other countries, a particular policy will accomplish the objective sought; in order to determine what is feasible he must balance the national resources available to achieve the objective together with the amount of support likely to be forthcoming from like-minded countries against the resources of countries that might attempt to block attainment of the objectives; and in order to determine what is acceptable he must consider whether the nation would be willing to pay the price that achievement of the objective is likely to cost. To these ends he must keep in mind the general policies, objectives, and resources of other countries, especially the major powers, as well as of his own country.

The next step of the policy making officer would be to pass in review the individual related important problems of foreign policy confronting the government, noting connections or analogies with other problems in respect to principles involved and objectives sought. Otherwise he would run the risk of making decisions that will lead to inconsistencies in principle or the pursuit of objectives in one area that conflict with the attainment of equally desirable objectives in another area.

Finally, he would make an intensive study of the individual problem on which he must act. This would call for a review of the essential background, and an examination of the issues involved, the alternatives open under each issue and the foreseeable advantages and disadvantages of adopting each alternative. Only then would he be in a position to reach a sound decision on the preferable alternative.

Accordingly, the plan followed in the Study Guide is first the presentation of a brief general survey of the broad world picture and of the position of the United States in world affairs; second, a review of the major problems of foreign policy confronting the United States; and third, detailed analyses of several outstanding sample problems in substantially the manner in which problems of this type are dealt with by responsible government officers. The 1948 Study Guide presents two additional features, a discussion of Great Power relations, which includes a resume of the current policies of the United States, the United Kingdom and the Soviet Union; and a succinct description of the governmental mechanism in the United States for the conduct of foreign relations.

The detailed problem papers in the Study Guide take a form that represents essentially a composite of the types of problem papers used in the government. To assist the users of the Guide, the problems are formulated in terms that are perhaps more generalized than in government papers, since in actual practice problems are likely to assume a form more specific than that taken by these papers. Nevertheless, the considerations that the government must take into account in dealing with a specific problem necessarily include broad and general issues of the type discussed in the Study Guide. In reality, problems such as those analyzed therein do not usually present themselves to the Department of State abruptly and all in one heap; what the Department has to deal with at any given moment is rather a phase of a continuing problem. Policy making officials keep more or less in daily touch with developments through the press, reports of United States representatives in the field, and con-

(Continued on next page)



MEMBERS OF BROOKINGS INSTITUTION SEMINAR AT STANFORD UNIVERSITY

Some or all of the following FSOs and Department personnel who attended the Seminar appear in the above picture: George H. Blakeslee, Hon. Paul C. Daniels, John C. Dreier, Allan Evans, Hon. Loy W. Henderson, Hon. Nelson T. Johnson, Miss Florene Kirlin, Frederick Livesey, FSO William P. Maddox, Harley A. Notter, Walter A. Radius, Dean Rusk, Carlton Savage and Bernadotte Schmitt.

ferences with expert advisers and with diplomatic representatives of foreign governments. In the presentation of a governmental paper there can be left out a great deal of essential background material, as familiarity with them on the part of the policy making officer is assumed by the drafting officer. Only those essential facts that need to be specifically emphasized or a busy policy making officer cannot be expected to have in the foreground of his mind might be included in such a paper. In a paper, however, that is to be used as a study guide for those unacquainted with the background of the problem, the omission of essential background data would seriously detract from its value.

In one other respect the detailed analyses in the Study Guide depart from the normal practice in government problem papers. They stop short of recommendations of preferred alternatives. One reason, among others, for this is that the presentation of the analysis and interpretation in the form of a single conclusion tends to distract the student from forming the habit of a flexible approach, which is essential if the major objectives of the program are to be realized.

The drafting of the papers by the International Studies Group is assigned to individuals, but each draft paper is then scrutinized by other members of the group, so that the final product represents a group effort, with perspective and knowledge contributed from different fields of specialization. This practice is similar to that in the Department of State where a problem paper, before reaching the policy making officer, will have the benefit of review and possible amendment by many area and functional specialists.

The work of drafting necessarily involves exhaustive research, and the International Studies Group is serviced by a documentation and reference section, which maintains files of official press releases, clippings from the American and foreign press, and other current material. Although only publicly available material is used, the members of the International Studies Group make it a practice to maintain close contacts with officials of the State, Army, Navy, Air Force and other departments of the government, as well as those of international agencies, with a view to keeping acquainted with non-confidential official points of view and perspectives.

The work of the permanent staff is supplemented by the use of consultants who provide an additional background of specialized knowledge and practical experience, and by the assistance and advice of the staff members of the Institution who are specialists in the domestic field. It is planned also to employ specialists temporarily on a full time basis.

A very important feature of the work in connection with

the preparation of the Study Guide is the annual Seminar conducted by the Institution at which the draft papers are reviewed for final revision before publication. In 1947 such a Seminar was held at Dartmouth College, and in 1948 at Stanford University. At the invitation of the Brookings Institution the first was attended by about 100 participants, and the second by about 150. They included both teachers and practitioners in the field of international relations from all parts of the United States. The teachers comprised political scientists, economists, geographers, anthropologists, historians, and international lawyers. The practitioners comprised high officials of the government, officers of the Army, Navy, Marine Corps and Air Force, and representatives of business and of the press. General discussions were held in plenary sessions and detailed examination of the draft papers was conducted in round tables comprising smaller groups. Each paper was discussed simultaneously by each of the round tables. Officials of the government felt free to express their views frankly, since the meetings were closed, and no views expressed at the Seminar were attributed by rapporteurs to individuals.

It can readily be appreciated that exposure of the draft papers to such discussion by such a group over the two week period of the Seminar yielded splendid results by way of suggestions for final revision. Moreover, the bringing of teachers and practitioners together in this way not only contributes to the rounding out and balancing of the papers but is mutually beneficial to the participants of the Seminar. In addition, for many of the teachers unfamiliar with the group method of approach to foreign policy problems, it is thought that the functioning of the Seminar has proved of great illustrative value. It is planned to make the Seminar a regular and continuing part of the program.

Within a few weeks after the Seminar the papers, as finally revised in the light of the discussion there, are assembled and published in the Study Guide.

In addition to the Study Guide, the International Studies Group also prepares as a continuing supplement to that publication a monthly summary entitled "Current Developments in United States Foreign Policy." The summary contains reports on developments in the major problems of United States foreign policy, based upon a review of selected American and foreign newspapers and other publications, including available official documents bearing upon the events recorded.

Other surveys which the International Studies Group of the Brookings Institution proposes shortly to undertake are centered on the current foreign policies of the United States and on operations of the United Nations Organization. The

(Continued on page 36)

\$\$\$ For An Idea

State Department's Employee Suggestion Program

By ALEXANDER YANEY, JR., Executive Secretary
Board on Employee Awards

Upon entering the lobby of the New State Building in Washington, D. C., employees and visitors are pleasantly confronted with a cut-out of a smiling "Van Johnson" face and his quote "OK — Suggest Something!" The diplomatic visitor, at a loss to understand what it is all about, slows his pace momentarily, smiles back and proceeds towards the elevators. It must be a new "American" stunt, he thinks. To the regular personnel of the Department, that smiling face mounted on an attractive display signifies the intent of the Department's Employee Suggestion Program — more and better suggestions. A prominent arrow on the display points the way to an ample supply of suggestion forms and a collection box for those who are in a hurry to get in their "hot" idea.

The Employee Suggestion Program was inaugurated by the Department, effective July 1, 1948. ELIGIBILITY FOR PARTICIPATION IN THE PROGRAM EXTENDS TO ALL PERSONNEL OF THE FOREIGN SERVICE. The regulations covering the program were released to the field under Foreign Service Serial No. 887 dated August 4, 1948.

The Suggestion Program is designed to enlist the active interest and participation of all persons in the Foreign Service, together with all officers and personnel in the Department, both at home and abroad in obtaining improvements and economies in activities and operations of the Foreign Service and the Department. Suggesters are rewarded for adopted suggestions by means of cash awards and other evidence of recognition. The program is administered by a board known as the Board on Employee Awards and is composed of seven senior officers of the Department, designated by the Assistant Secretary for Administration. Included on the Board is a senior Foreign Service Officer.

Suggestions are submitted to the Board on Employee Awards on DS Form-700. This form provides personnel with information about type of awards, how to submit suggestions, and what happens to his suggestion. The majority of suggestions received by the Board thus far from Foreign Service Posts have come through mail channels direct from the suggester, although they have the option of submitting

their ideas through normal organizational channels.

The response, measured by over eighty suggestions already received from the field, is indicative that the program is catching hold. The nature of suggestions submitted range from proposals to solve local conditions to comprehensive plans for effecting the aims of the Department in its political and information programs. Many suggestions are general and if adopted would apply to most posts. These deal with improvements, simplifications or savings in consular activities, reporting, personnel administration, travel, shipment of household effects, regulations, recreational facilities, and home leave, to mention only a few of the subjects.

To determine whether the idea has merit and can be put into use, suggestions bearing on matters pertaining principally to the administration and operation of Posts are referred by the Board on Employee Awards to the Division of Foreign Service Planning for appraisal. The suggestion is assigned to an Organization and Methods analyst, who in collaboration with representatives of the technical divisions concerned examines the proposal and prepares an appraisal report. The appraisal report with its recommendation on adoption is returned to the Board and reviewed at one of its monthly meetings. If the suggestion is adopted, the Board determines the type and amount of award to be made.

Awards for adopted suggestions range from \$10.00 to a ceiling of \$1,000.00. Congress has established a limit of \$25,000 which can be paid by the Department for cash awards in any fiscal year. These payments may be made from the appropriation for the activity primarily benefiting or may be distributed among appropriations as the head of the Department determines.

Although some awards have been made already by the Board, they pertain to suggestions received from the Department Service. Among these, the highest award was for \$50.00. Completed appraisal reports are now being received by the Board on suggestions from the field, with indications that some will pay off.

TWENTY-FIVE YEARS AGO

From the Consular Bulletin of November 1923

Traced to the Source

Among a number of ancient documents of vast historical interest discovered a few years ago in Europe there was found, according to rumor, a dimmed and discolored parchment which was pronounced to be a despatch, written in the Twelfth Century, by a consular officer, *complaining of the high cost of living at his post and requesting a transfer to another country*. On the margin appeared certain comments penciled undoubtedly by officers of the Lord Chancellor's department which were deciphered as follows:

1. More of ye same olde stufte from Sir Attaboy! Odds Bodkins, ye presaunt poste is a pceche and none but sooch a kyckr hadde howlyd over yt. What to do? — transfer hym?
2. Refyr to ye Lord Chancellor.
3. Lay before ye Kings Majesty.
4. This is 2 mutch. Home in chaynes by ye first shippe. Thence to Tower Hill. Ye headsman shall attend to troble-some sonne of a ghun.

Members of the Diplomatic Courier Service which was

composed of Army officers and which operated between various consulates and embassies of Europe during 1918-1919 organized themselves into the Society of the Silver Greyhound, taking the name from the symbol of the Service.

Thirty-seven officers attended the consular luncheon held at the Hotel Powhatan on October 3. Mr. Tracy Lay presided, and addresses were made by Mr. Lowrie, of Athens, on the subject of Greece, Mr. Byington, of Naples, on visa problems, Mr. Messersmith, of Antwerp, on Belgium, and Mr. James B. Stewart on Tampico.

Even in November 1923 the Bulletin was, as is the JOURNAL today, endeavoring to persuade consular officers to submit articles and photographs from the field.

Among the assignments listed in the Bulletin were those of Thomas M. Wilson and H. Merle Cochran to the Department; Romeyn Wormuth to Newcastle; Hugh S. Fullerton to Alexandria; and Vice Consuls Maurice W. Altaffer to Frankfort, Harry J. Anslinger to La Guaira, Richard P. Butrick to Guayaquil, Raymond H. Geist to Port Said, George P. Waller to Ceiba, and Thomas McEnelly to Chihuahua.

American Policy in Respect to China

By O. EDMUND CLUBB, *Consul General, Peiping*

A nation's foreign policy in respect to another State is not evolved by ivory-tower thinking in its Foreign Office, but develops through the interaction, during an historical period, of domestic and foreign forces. It is in effect only one aspect—the local aspect—of bilateral or multilateral international relations. It reflects directly, therefore, the environment of application, as well as the principles and aims of the State of origin and the reactions and desires of those of its nationals who may be immediately concerned.

China, when American attention was first turned in its direction at the end of the 18th Century, showed glamorous promise of trade in silks, tea and other desired exotic products of the Orient. The mandarins of the Empire were at that time imbued by an arrogant sense of self-sufficiency which led them to resist all Occidental attempts at intimacy. The American trader, however, attracted by the prospect of a highly profitable commerce, viewed the Chinese aloofness as contrary to nature and bound to succumb to the known "normal" economic and political processes. Generally speaking, he found his Oriental counterpart, the Chinese merchant, sympathetic to his point of view. The trader was followed soon afterwards by the American missionary, who perhaps unconsciously, but for all of that effectively, joined forces with his commercially-minded co-national to create the basic initial problem posed for solution by American diplomacy. The missionary, furthermore, by his writings and publicity, exercised a strong influence on the formulation of American policy toward Asia.

During the 19th Century, American diplomacy found that it sufficed generally, for the satisfaction of American aims in China, for Americans to be accorded most-favored-nation treatment. This sufficed, because certain other Powers were especially energetic in pressing their suits on the stubborn Celestial Empire. The most-favored-nation clause was already a feature of American commercial treaties with other nations. There was promptly adopted, amplified, and written *mutatis mutandis* into Sino-American treaties, therefore, the proviso of the Sino-British Supplementary Treaty of 1843 that, "should the Emperor hereafter . . . be pleased to grant additional privileges or immunities to any of the subjects or Citizens of such Foreign Countries [to which privileges accorded Great Britain might be extended], the same privileges and immunities will be extended to and enjoyed by British subjects." In the same way, there was enlarged upon and made more explicit in the 1844 Sino-American Treaty of Wanghia the extraterritorial principle contained in the Sino-British agreement of 1843.

It is to be recorded that extraterritoriality was not imposed upon China against the Peking Government's will: the evidence is that the Manchu Court considered such a system of administration to be both acceptable and proper in the circumstances. And, in view of the glaring differences between Oriental and Occidental law and in the light of existing international practices under such conditions, the United States itself had no feeling that it had strayed from the regular path of friendly relations by making the arrangement. "The United States, always disdaining all practices of unnecessary dictation and intervention by one nation in the domestic affairs or domestic administration of another [in the words of the Sino-American Treaty of 1860]," desired only to find a *modus vivendi* for friendly relations. When Anson Burlingame, the American envoy to China, upon his resignation in 1868 took up a post with the Chinese

Government as special envoy "for the management of China's diplomatic relations," with the function of presenting China's case in Occidental capitals, he was acting in accord with a real friendly sympathy for the country. The mission, eventually, proved abortive for hopes were raised too high in respect to China's potentialities and the Court's *bona fides*. J. Ross Brown, Burlingame's successor as American representative to China, took note of the false psychological position when he observed, after the signature of the Sino-American Treaty of 1868, that "An impression seems to have obtained in the United States that the government of China is peculiarly friendly to our country, and that great advantages to our commerce are about to accrue from this preference. . . . I need scarcely say these anticipations are without foundation. The government of China may have preferences, but it has no special regard for any foreign power. The dominant feeling is antipathy and distrust towards all who have come in to disturb the administration of its domestic affairs." Although Burlingame had purported that China had achieved great progress, was ready for trade, and invited the missionaries "to plant the shining cross on every hill and in every valley," in reality the chief aim still of the Peking Government was to fend off the foreign pressure being exerted against the country's gates.

As the result of both internal and external stresses, it appeared at the end of the 19th Century that "the breakup of China" might be imminent. It was at the turning of the century that Secretary of State John Hay gave expression to two doctrines calling for the maintenance of the commercial Open Door in China (1899), and for the according of respect to that nation's territorial and administrative integrity as well as for protecting "all rights guaranteed by treaty and international law" and safeguarding the principle of "equal and impartial trade with all parts of the Chinese Empire" (1900). Burlingame, as China's envoy, had striven to obtain a measure of international agreement in respect to China—but on Peking's terms. The Hay doctrines in effect offered a more concrete basis for cooperation among the treaty Powers regarding China, to the end that 1) equality of commercial opportunity should be maintained by mutual agreement among themselves, and 2) an adjustment of their forces should prevent the political or economic domination of China by any one or more Powers through the mechanism of "spheres of influence." The desired international cooperation was slow in taking form, subjected as it was to the impact of the Russo-Japanese War, the Chinese Revolution, and World War I. It was nevertheless only natural that, when Japan in 1915 presented China with the Twenty-one Demands for special rights and interests, Secretary of State Bryan should issue (on May 11, 1915) a warning to the Tokyo Government that the United States would recognize no undertakings which might impair American treaty rights, Chinese political and territorial integrity, or the Open Door. The American-Japanese "difference of opinion" in regard to the matter in point carried through Versailles right down to the Washington Conference of 1921-22, where Japan finally renounced Group V of the Demands and agreed to restore Shantung Province (where Japan had taken over German rights—and more) to Chinese sovereignty. The remainder of the "special rights" remained in being—at least from the Japanese point of view.

The Kellogg-Briand Pact of 1928 constituted a stronger

assertion still of that American desire for collective security which had been made manifest, in its Asiatic aspect, in the Hay notes of 1899 and 1900. When the Sino-Soviet embroilment of 1929 was followed by the Sino-Japanese "Mukden Incident" of 1931, Secretary of State Stimson energetically pursued the cause of peace along the lines of collective security, by independent action and by close cooperation with the League of Nations. In 1932 he set forth, in more specific terms than employed by Bryan in 1915, the doctrine of non-recognition of the fruits of violent conquest. There was no intent in either 1915 or 1932 that the United States should itself take up arms in China's defense. In the former year, Acting Secretary of State Lansing said that "it would be quixotic in the extreme to allow the question of China's territorial integrity to entangle the United States in international difficulties." In 1932, President Hoover's position was reported to be that there should be imposed neither economic nor military sanctions, which in his view constituted "the roads to war." The Sino-Japanese dispute in 1937 took on the form of open warfare. If war was still undeclared, the de facto forms of warfare between States nevertheless were present, and (with the collective security system in a state of debility) the United States itself assumed the conventional attitude of international neutrality. The American position was described by Secretary of State Hull as being a middle-of-the-road policy; and, according to President Roosevelt, American foreign policy had gone on a "twenty-four-hour basis."

That policy line was maintained until 1940 when, the shape of things to come in Asia having been foreshadowed in events in both the European war theater and the Pacific political arena, the sympathetic neutrality adopted in favor of the democratic nations of Europe began to be transferred to the Pacific to the benefit of China. When Pearl Harbor saw the beginning of war between the United States and Japan, and China on its part formally declared war on the Axis Powers, the United States and China became military allies. The history of the American-British-Sino-Soviet war efforts in Asia has been told too recently—and too variously—to warrant any detailed repetition here. The dominating historical facts are that the allied effort was in law and in fact directed toward the main objective of defeating the Axis Powers, that each ally was bound by the January 1, 1942, declaration of the 26 United Nations to employ in close cooperation their full military and economic resources against those Axis Powers with which they were at war, and that finally—with major decisions regarding disposition of forces and allocation of available supplies made by the Joint Chiefs of Staff according to their appraisals of the exigencies of global strategy—as planned, the United Nations won the war. The bare bones of statistics can hardly begin to show the nature of the wartime Sino-American relationship, but it is suggestive to note that the United States, while supporting major military operations in many world theaters, also extended pre-VJ Day aid to China to the value of \$1,469,400,000; and that American post-VJ Day aid, including the 72% of UNRRA relief contributed by the United States and surplus military supplies given an arbitrary "minimum cost" value of \$181,900,000 and \$400,000,000 made available by the China Aid Act of April 3, 1948, but not including 98 naval vessels (271 authorized) transferred as a gift and other more intangible items, totals \$2,028,800,000. The grand total, even with "minimum cost" computations, is \$3,598,200,000—an altogether respectable sum.

The United States, in brief, has lent important support to China in the years 1899-1900, 1919, 1921-22, 1932, and, latterly, 1941-48. As indicated, the wartime American policy of extending aid to our then Asiatic ally has continued into the post-war period. Through its participation in the war against autocracy as one of the Big Five Powers, China on

V-J Day faced a new destiny. It is evident that American policy at the end of World War II purposed assisting China to exploit its new-made opportunities, it being the feeling of the United States that (in the words of President Truman) "a strong, united and democratic China is of the utmost importance to the success of the United Nations Organization and world peace." When civil strife threatened again to tear China asunder and thus disturb the planned post-war pattern, the United States accepted the arduous role of mediator. General Marshall had the approval of both parties to the dispute when he took up his duties as peacemaker. He and his mission gave their best efforts to the task for a full year, but without final success. President Truman and General Marshall on December 18, 1946, and January 7, 1947, respectively set forth the history of the mission and the immediate reasons for its failure. Perhaps it was true, as implicit in the event and now sometimes argued with benefit of the historical facts of the mission, that the situation in China in 1946 did not lend itself to resolution by mediation alone. This conclusion, however, could not well have been reached without actual trial, so clearly was it to the interest of the Chinese nation to possess itself of the benefits of peace and reconstruction. If success by mediation was unattainable, however, the United States felt that it could do no more. Great Powers had intervened in China with force upon occasion in the past to mould events to their liking, but on this particular occasion the United States adhered still to its traditional policy of non-intervention. President Truman, in his statement of December 15, 1945, said that "the United States Government considers that the detailed steps necessary to the achievement of political unity in China must be worked out by the Chinese themselves and that intervention by any foreign government in these matters would be inappropriate." This policy was a few days later, on December 27, again made the subject of public record when the Foreign Ministers of the United States, Great Britain and the Soviet Union "affirmed their adherence to the policy of non-interference in the internal affairs of China."

The problems of the post-war Pacific will determine the goals of American policy; the environmental factors will determine the choice of instruments and measures. In the early days, American policy in respect to China was moulded first by trade factors, next by missionary interests, and only last by political aims. The emphasis has changed in the mid-20th Century. After 150 years, American trade with China remains minor as compared with commerce between the United States and many other countries. The history of foreign missions in China has reached a new stage, where the task is viewed as being currently one of devolution, with transfer as rapidly as feasible of responsibility to the native church with the aim that it shall shortly become independent and self-sustaining. Now, political interests are paramount, at least temporarily, where before they were generally subordinate. One of the outstanding historical aims of American policy has been the maintenance of political stability in the Pacific. At present, when so many factors are operating to destroy that stability—and thus to threaten American interests in that area—there is experienced a compulsion of more than the usual strength to achieve that aim. This desideratum, however, must of necessity be referred not to an ideal environment, but to that which actually exists. In China civil war, closely related to revolutionary forces which have been active for a half century, continues to rage, and China remains truly a house divided against itself. Accompanying the civil war, and if basically independent still aggravated by it, is the serious deterioration of an antiquated economic structure. An ever-expanding population presses without relaxation upon an

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The World Series of 1948

By JUAN DE ZENGOTITA, *Division of Mexican Affairs*

Foreign Service people, even at our farthest posts, probably learned the scores of the 1948 World Series games not much later than their colleagues in the Department. In countries just to the south of us some of them no doubt joined Latin fans grouped around the raucous loudspeaker of a cafe to listen to a few innings of one of the versions broadcast in Spanish direct from Braves Field and the Cleveland Municipal Stadium. But while many readers of the JOURNAL will have followed the Series here in Washington on television and over the radio—from behind home plate so to speak—and others from the grandstand of the Caribbean countries, many, thousands of miles from home, were without the facilities of even a conveniently high knothole through which to peep at the Series. It is largely for them that this article is published—in the hope that they may enjoy a brief account of the Series when it no longer seems worthwhile to read the many columns about the games carried in home town papers that arrive six and eight weeks late.

The 1948 Series will not be set down as one of the most memorable in baseball history. It did, in truth, have a fair share of dramatic moments, but an extraordinarily exciting American League season—capped by the first tie play-off in the history of that circuit—and a general expectation south of Connecticut that the National League champion Braves were no match for the American League champion Indians tended to make the Series itself something of an anti-climax. Even though the Braves had won the pennant easily, many experts wrote that it was largely owing to the managerial genius of Billy Southworth. Betting odds ranged from two to three on Cleveland to one on Boston. The "scribes" had even gone so far as to predict an American League winner by four games to one. It would take another Boston team like the Miracle Men of 1914 to beat the 1948 Indians.

The neck-and-neck finish of the American League Season and the consequent play-off, rather than the World Series, may in the future very possibly be looked upon as the highlight of the 1948 baseball year. Whereas the Braves had shown themselves the best team in the National League long before the season's close and had actually secured the pennant mathematically with a margin of almost two weeks, in the American League five teams appeared to have a good chance of winning the pennant till well past July 4, and on September 24, with less than ten days left, there was a three-way tie for first place among the Indians, the Boston Red Sox, and the New York Yankees. At this point, however, the final result appeared clearer than it had for some time, for the Yankees and Red Sox had still to play each other, while Cleveland would have to face neither one. On the last day of the season Cleveland led Boston by one game. But while the Red Sox were trampling the Yankees, the great Bob Feller was being knocked out of the box by the fifth place Detroit Tigers, and the season ended in a tie. The next day in Boston, with southpaw Gene Bearden holding the Red Sox to five hits and their manager-star Lou Boudreau clouting two homers and two singles, Cleveland won the American League pennant 8-3.

There were other dramatic antecedents to the Series which might have added to its excitement had the contending teams been more evenly matched, but, failing that circumstance, seemed strangely to detract from its interest. There was, for example, the tragedy of Bob Feller's 1948 season, fittingly epitomized by his failure against Detroit in the

scheduled last day of the season, his pitiful and incredible hard luck in the first game of the Series, and his overwhelming defeat in the fifth game. Feller, working 1948 with a fantastically rich contract, had not even won twenty games the entire year and had lost fifteen. He had had, for him, an unprecedented losing streak at one point in the season and toward its close had been pulling himself together only to be overtaken by disaster at the end. To offset Feller's hard luck and add interest to Cleveland as a team was the fact that Boudreau had luckily come up with two surprise 20 game-winning pitchers in Bob Lemon and Gene Bearden. Lemon till midway in the 1947 season had been a utility outfielder-infielder. Switching to a pitcher, he became the mainstay of the Cleveland staff in 1948. Bearden was playing his first full season in the majors.

Then there was the fact, again relating to pitching, that late in the season Cleveland had brought Satchel Paige into Big League baseball. Satchel, as many readers will remember from his heyday twenty years ago, is the fabulous negro pitcher, who, playing high-grade baseball all year round—either with negro teams in the United States or winters in the Caribbean—became a Paul Bunyan of baseball, commonly admitted the superior of any Big League star of any time. Paige is the man who once pitched baseball twenty-nine straight days and won every day, who in an exhibition game struck out the Yankee's "murderer's row" in succession, Lazzeri, Ruth, and Gehrig. And at last in 1948, approaching fifty and perhaps older, Paige came to the majors. Used chiefly as a relief pitcher in 1948, he won six for Cleveland and lost only one. He was able to appear only briefly in the World Series because of abdominal trouble.

On the Cleveland side there was also of interest to the sports fans the personality of Lou Boudreau. A marvel of a fielder, a slugger, whose .355 average in 1948 was surpassed in the American League only by Ted Williams', he appears to be the shortstop that will finally eclipse the fame of the legendary Honus Wagner. In addition Boudreau at thirty is also indisputably a great manager.

On Boston's side there was interest in the wisdom and resourcefulness of Manager Billy Southworth, which, as previously suggested, has alone been credited by many with winning Boston its pennant. There was also in human interest on the Boston side the misfortune suffered by the Braves when, before the Series and with the pennant already won, they lost the services of Jeff Heath, an outfield star and one of the team's trio of .300 hitters. Heath broke his ankle in a slide into home plate. A photographer had caught the moment, and the papers carried the picture of Heath, his leg doubled beneath him and his foot twisted backward like an old rag doll's. With Cleveland's permission the Braves replaced Heath in the Series with a minor leaguer.

The opening of the annual classic in Boston on October 6 saw the great Feller, after years of dominating the American League, play the first world series game of his career. He pitched like the giant of baseball that he is—allowed only two hits—and lost by a score of 1-0. A walk in the eighth inning. A sacrifice bunt that advanced a substitute runner to second. An intentional walk. A pop-up by the Boston pitcher. Then Tommy Holmes, the Braves' leading hitter, laid the ball down third base line and into left field for a single that drove home a run and beat Feller.



Boston, October 6. Braves' catcher Phil Masi slides safely back to second under Lou Boudreau after being trapped off base in the 8th inning of the first game.

Wide World Photos, Inc.

Johnny Sain, the Braves' pitcher in the first game, who had won twenty and lost fourteen, hurled masterfully to earn his victory. The four hits he allowed were scattered in different innings. He struck out six, including Boudreau. He issued no walks, and though two Boston errors put Indians on base, Sain never allowed more than one man on base in any one inning.

In all probability, however, it will not be the great pitching of this first game that will be longest discussed by baseball fans but a close play at second base in the second inning in which the runner was called safe—a few minutes later he scored the winning run. It transpired after this game, and was accepted unquestionably by the sports writers, that all during the season Cleveland had practiced a secret and highly successful second-base pick-off play. With a runner taking a long lead off that base, Boudreau at short stop would flash a signal to the catcher. The latter would in turn give a signal to the pitcher, both signals, of course, being frequently changed. The second signal given, both Boudreau and the pitcher, in the manner of football rather than baseball players, would begin an agreed count, at the end of which the play broke, with Boudreau streaking for the bag and the pitcher wheeling and throwing to him. According to a post-series story Boudreau maintains that this play put on ice a score of games for the Indians during 1948.

In the fatal eighth inning with pinch runner Phil Masi on second, Boudreau called for this play. Reaching the bag before Masi he caught the ball and in one motion whirled and tagged him. But the umpire called Masi safe. Boudreau—to quote the *Times*—nearly jumped out of his shoes in wild but unavailing protest. Thursday's papers carried an Associated Press photo sequence which may or may not prove that Boudreau was right. There is Masi, in a headlong slide, almost a foot from the base and there is Boudreau's glove, with the ball in it, blending with Masi's shoulder! But was it merely the angle from which the camera was aimed? Was Boudreau's glove a foot, two feet, six inches from Masi's shoulder, or was it touching it? The camera complicates and does not clarify the question, and on its answer depends the validity of the lone run of the game and whether Feller really lost despite his masterly two-hit performance.

The second, third, and fourth games went to the Indians. In the second game Bob Lemon, who was knicked for eight hits but lasted all nine innings, at times appeared distinctly wobbly. Boston got one run from him in the first and held that lead until the fourth inning. In Cleveland's half of that frame Boudreau, the hero of the game, hit a double and touched off a spree that garnered two runs for the Indians. With a single in the fifth, Boudreau drove the Boston pitcher out of the box. There was something of vindication for Cleveland in the first inning when the pick-off play that had failed the day before succeeded—Lemon to Boudreau—and put the quietus on a threatening situation.

With the third game the scene changed to Cleveland, and there, before 70,000 fans, freshman Gene Bearden shut out the Braves by 2-0. He walked no one, and allowed only five hits. Cleveland also was limited to five hits, two of these, including a double, by Boudreau, but a certain jitteriness evident throughout the entire series in the Braves' infield worked to the Indians' advantage. The Cleveland infield worked like clockwork throughout the series, and its frequent double plays did considerable damage to the Braves. In the third game two such double plays contributed much to the impressive quality of the Indians' victory.

More than 80,000 saw the second game at Cleveland, the fourth of the Series, and saw the Indians win their third in a row, by 2-1. Johnny Sain was their victim, and he was beaten by Steve Gromek, definitely on Cleveland's second string of pitchers. Larry Doby, the Indians' center fielder, hit the first home run of the series in the third inning to score the decisive second run. The marvelous Boudreau had driven in the other run in the first inning with a double. Boston's one run came in the seventh, on a homer by Marv Rickert, the man who had come up from the minors to replace the injured Heath. But in the ninth, pitching to seal his victory, Gromek struck out Rickert, and the next man, and made the last man fly out.

With Cleveland winning the series by three games to one and the Braves unable to score more than three times in four games, the attitude of public and experts toward the Boston team on the eve of the fifth series game may be summed up in the words of one *Washington Post* writer: "a futile lot." Everyone appeared to assume that in that

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Cultural Anthropology and the Foreign Service

By EDWARD A. KENNARD

Foreign Service Institute, Department of State

To one who gets his impressions of the conduct of international relations only from the newspapers and radio, it often seems as though politics and commerce between nations took place in some empyrean realm completely divorced from the habits and customs which bulk so large in our daily lives. But every Foreign Service officer, by the manner in which he conducts both his personal and his official life abroad, demonstrates that he knows a great deal about the differences in customs, values and national ideals which differentiate the peoples and nations of the contemporary world. The experienced diplomat usually attributes this combination of skill and knowledge to intuition, sensitivity and experience, none of which he can effectively convey to the younger officer who is just beginning his career.

Consequently, large masses of data and long years of experience move with the individual as an integral part of his equipment as a practicing diplomat. It is the relationship between all of these factors which enables him to operate so effectively in any country where he has had sufficient time to get "the feel" of things. The difficulty is that most successful operators are inarticulate as to how this sort of expertise can be acquired by others.

Nevertheless, it is possible to make a scientific approach to the problem of understanding and dealing with foreign peoples—an approach in which the more specialized academic disciplines dealing with politics, economics and social structure can be brought together into one comprehensive whole. By making observations systematically and upon a broad enough base, a trained social analyst can make judgments and predictions in terms of the total cultural context in which any given people live their lives. It is true that most nations of the world have not been studied from this point of view. However, researches to remedy this deficiency are now taking place in several leading American universities.

During the past eighteen months, the Foreign Service Institute has been developing instructional materials focussed directly on the responsibilities of the Foreign Service officer in dealing with foreign peoples and their governments. An experimental seminar course was operated last winter for a group of eighteen Foreign Service and Departmental officers, and the results were fruitful and stimulating. Additional work was undertaken during the past year with Russian, Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Indian and Southeast Asian language officers in training. A course in what might be called "Understanding Foreign Peoples," built solidly on actual Foreign Service experience, is taking shape.

Psychology is generally regarded as the science of human behavior. However, human behavior never occurs in a vacuum or in a psychological testing laboratory. It always takes place in some sort of a cultural matrix. Consequently, the results of psychological investigation are mated with those of cultural anthropology because some of the most fruitful hypotheses relevant to the problems of human behavior have grown out of recent joint researches in these

two fields.

When one is labeling an anthropologist the questions which most frequently occur are, "Where are you digging?" or, "Would you like to measure my skull?" However, the particular branch of anthropology which is relevant to the general problem of human behavior is cultural anthropology. In the past it was primarily concerned with obtaining comprehensive descriptions of the total range of life of so-called primitive peoples. The diversity of institutions, whether economic, political or social, was so great among the Indians, the Africans, the Polynesians and the Nomads of Central Asia that anthropology as a discipline had to develop concepts and techniques for description and analysis to cover the great differences which were actually encountered.

In the years of the war emergency when every trained individual in the United States brought to bear whatever insights and techniques his particular discipline had to offer, it was learned that the methods and techniques evolved by psychologists and anthropologists were also valid when applied to more complex civilizations, such as those found in Europe, Japan and China.

Perhaps one of the greatest handicaps of our age is that most people have only the vaguest notions as to what human nature is. Actually, although the biological equipment which we acquire at birth sets certain limitations to the total range of possible behavior, the bulk of the behavior of any people is essentially *learned*. The fact that most behavior in any civilization is learned has been of crucial importance in all kinds of field investigations and it has enabled the investigator to study the whole learning process from birth to maturity. What we are taught as Americans and what the Japanese are taught as Japanese and what the British are taught as Englishmen is fundamental in understanding the differences in our institutions, our values and our ways of life.

For example, most Americans are born Americans in a legal sense. But in a cultural and psychological sense, each one becomes an American through a long conditioning process from birth to maturity. It is during this process that he learns to conform to the standards of his society and region and community in terms of his age, sex, status and occupational group.

Learning in the broad sense in which it is used in modern psychological theory refers to this total process. Technically, the psychological term "condition" should be used, in the sense that our basic drives are all conditioned, modified and channeled by the culture into which we were born. Many of our responses are, in fact, conditioned reflexes; but the conditioning is so thorough and so much a part of our makeup that we frequently (and erroneously) call it instinctive.

One of the curses of living in a highly complex civilization such as our own is that almost everyone must willy-nilly become some kind of a specialist. Consequently, in analyzing our own civilization and those of



Dr. Edward A. Kennard

other peoples, social scientists apportion certain aspects to different specialists. The economist studies the various techniques for the production and distribution of physical goods, usually referred to as wealth. The political scientist focuses his attention on those regular institutionalized aspects of behavior which are concerned with the acquisition and exercise of power or authority, especially through governmental organizations. The sociologist is largely preoccupied with describing and analyzing all of the various types of human group associations which occur in our own society.

One of the advantages that the anthropologist has had over his fellow practitioners in related disciplines is that he has dealt with relatively simple societies and in the course of his own investigations has had to be his own economist, his own political scientist, his own sociologist and his own student of technology. As a result of his work certain fundamental concepts dealing with the totality of organized life of any given society have become common currency in the whole social science field. One of the most useful and fruitful of these concepts is that of culture as used in the technical anthropological sense. A culture is roughly equivalent to what we mean by a civilization or a way of life, but it has nothing to do with what you can acquire by reading the Harvard classics fifteen minutes a day. Ralph Linton has defined it "as the configuration of learned behavior and results of behavior whose component elements are shared and transmitted by the members of a particular society." Since a mere verbal definition is never completely satisfactory, some of the characteristics of the concept of culture and its implications for the conduct of international relations will be discussed.

The first is that every culture embodies certain unstated assumptions or hypotheses. We tend to assume that every set of actions is directed toward a goal, and that satisfaction will be found when the goal is reached. To people who do not share this basic assumption—but who rather see life as a series of experiences each gratifying within its proper sphere—our behavior will seem either meaningless or quixotic. Another example is the common American assumption that government is a necessary evil. Correlated with this idea is the notion that those who exercise authority in the American Government must be constantly surrounded with laws and regulations lest they exceed their properly constituted prerogatives. But there are many countries where the exercise of authority by government officials is taken for granted and accepted as automatically as the sequence of day and night.

An even more far reaching example of cultural assumptions is found in language, for no speaker of any language is conscious of the ways in which his language imposes a limited and selective conceptualization of experience upon him. Although a language is always felt to be a perfect symbolic system, it forces recognition of and expression of some aspects of experience and imposes blind spots upon others.

Every culture is selective. No civilization that has ever been described has at one time realized all of the potentialities of which the human organism is capable. It is for this reason among others that the observer who moves from one country to another is constantly discovering a new "normal." Certainly, in an area such as Western Europe which shares many features of social organization and tradition, the degree of overlapping from country to country is large. But there are also significant differences, and the statesman who ignores the differences (even though he may be aware of them) will do so at his peril. Frequently, peoples in the same general area will share most of the items of a cultural inventory. Yet differences in cultural patterning and organization in a given nation-state may be crucial in the conduct of international relations.

Each culture is not only a set of more or less ready-made

solutions to universal problems, but it is also a set of expectancies. We all learn to conform to the standards of our group in terms of our sex, age, status, social class and occupational group, but we also learn to expect certain kinds of responses from parents, sisters, school teachers, policemen, politicians and Foreign Service officers. We expect certain kinds of activities to afford us pleasure, and others to be burdensome, and we feel that this is in the very nature of things. But the example cited by Peter Finley Dunne's Mr. Dooley is an apt illustration of the point, for the wealthy man kept his saddle horse for the pleasure of riding, while the groom was compelled to exercise the beast when the owner was away.

A fourth characteristic of a culture is that each embodies a traditional set of beliefs or social myths which give meaning and coherence to the activities of the society's members. Whether these particular myths can be proved true or false in objective scientific terms is irrelevant. What is important is that they are believed. When in the course of history too great a discrepancy arises between the beliefs that people hold and the practices in which they indulge there will ensue either a change in the beliefs or a change in the practices, or there will be widespread social tension.

A fifth characteristic of the concept of culture is ethnocentrism. Every people tends to look at the world from the point of view of his own nation, city-state, tribe or village as a center. People not only conform to the standards of their own group, but are emotionally attached to their own ways of life. Each regards his own as the best, if not the only, logical solution to the problems of men. Emery Reeves described the variety of viewpoints of several European nations vis-a-vis one another in the first chapter of his book THE ANATOMY OF PEACE which he called "Our Copernican World." It makes clear that there is no European point of view, but only Dutch, French, German or English points of view. It also demonstrates that what must be contended with are a people's assumptions, attitudes and fears, as well as their political and economic machinery, for human beings respond to their world not in terms of the history of the objective chroniclers of past events, but of the arbitrarily remembered and forgotten events which are enshrined as national traditions.

The tendency toward integration is the only other characteristic of culture that will be discussed in this article. All of the different activities of the members of the society must be consistent and coherent with some sort of ground plan, or the society cannot endure. These ways of organizing and integrating behavior which are established are not only thought to be right, but, more important, are *felt* to be appropriate. Consequently, in periods of far-reaching change the effort to integrate new organizations, new ways of doing things, with a previously existing pattern causes all kinds of difficulty for the members of that society. It is for this reason that times of great social change, sometimes called revolutions, are preceded by periods of great anxiety among many members of that particular society.

The concept of culture is relatively meaningful or meaningless depending upon the experience that can be brought to bear upon it. Fortunately, there is probably no professional group to whom it can be more useful than the Foreign Service, since its members spend their lives among people whose culture and behavior differs from our own in greater or lesser degree. But its greater value lies in its usefulness as a way of bringing the more specialized aspects of culture, such as politics and economics, into a single frame of reference. It is generally recognized that economics, political science and psychology have been developed in western European culture and to a great extent reflect the thought and the institutions of that area. How well do their techniques of analysis and their concepts apply to areas of the

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THE
AMERICAN
FOREIGN SERVICE JOURNAL

Vol. 25

NOVEMBER, 1948

No. 11

PUBLISHED MONTHLY BY
THE AMERICAN FOREIGN SERVICE ASSOCIATION
1809 G STREET, N. W., WASHINGTON, D. C.

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ON EDITING THE JOURNAL

The young man on the cover is asking for suggestions—and so are we. In this JOURNAL you will find news of two contests: The first (page 21) has to do with improving the JOURNAL; the second—from which we borrowed the young man—is an opportunity for you to send in any idea you may have about the operation of the Service and the Department and to win a prize ranging from \$10 to \$1,000 depending on the value of your idea. See page 13 for details.

Several members of the present JOURNAL board are relatively new. It seems a good time to inquire, therefore, what improvements our readers would like, and what changes in emphasis they would suggest.

The mass appeal magazines have to seek the right formula by trial and error and to find the results in their circulation figures and advertising receipts. We are in a somewhat different situation in that the JOURNAL is a kind of family enterprise. We have a more-or-less sure subscription list (although we think it could be larger) and a well-defined group of readers.

Nevertheless, one of the frustrations of editing the JOURNAL is not knowing whether it really rings the bell with the Service or whether it is something which comes along with Association membership.

It seems to us that basically the magazine should be a professional journal for a professional service. It should be built around a solid core of materials dealing with the practice of our profession. This means not only articles about Foreign Service operations but articles on foreign affairs. In respect of the latter, our position is somewhat unusual. The JOURNAL is entirely unofficial and the people who put it together, although they are active Government officials, must necessarily do this work in extra hours after the regular work day. Under these conditions the margins of discretion are somewhat fine. But we believe we ought to push those margins pretty closely.

If we want more materials on foreign policy that does not mean that material of "family" interest is unwanted. We will still run pieces on "My Trip to the Interior" or "My Shopping Experiences in the Native Bazaar" if they are good and if that is what our readers want.

The JOURNAL has a rather complex job. It must be variously: a journal of opinion, a geographic magazine, an organ of foreign affairs, a vehicle for home thoughts from abroad, a trade paper, an exporters' bulletin, and a house organ. There's something in it of the *Infantry Journal*, the *National Geographic*, the *Political Science Quarterly*, the *Iron and Steel Bulletin*, and the *Vassar Alumnae Gazette*. Our problem is to combine these ingredients in the right proportions—and we want our readers' help, not only through answers to the questions in the current contest but also through continuing and increased contributions from our field correspondents, through letters to the Editor, and submission of articles and photographs.

MUST YOU GO TO THE WAR COLLEGE?

The third session of the National War College is now under way. Eleven Foreign Service officers and six officers of the Department are included in the student body. Following the precedent set last year, they are enrolled for the entire ten-month course and, thus, will have an opportunity to focus their efforts on the whole range of the curriculum, military as well as political.

The War College is an outstanding success. The measure of its achievement will be furnished in later years by the records of its graduates. The Foreign Service officer who draws an assignment to the college is fortunate, indeed.

But it is not logical to assume that a tour of duty at that institution guarantees the future career of any officer of our Service, nor that an officer not selected for a War College assignment might as well start being "philosophical" about his chances of ever becoming a career minister. This latter notion seems to be based on a real or fancied analogy to the situation prevailing in the Armed Services.

We don't know whether all future generals and admirals must have passed through the portals of Fort McNair, but we do believe that any apprehension that a similar policy will prevail in the Foreign Service is unjustified.

Obviously, any Foreign Service officer who is chosen for a year at the National War College should be of superior calibre, with potentialities for advancement to positions of top responsibility. But our Service is relatively small; many of our most capable officers will be unavailable for the War College experience because at the appropriate time they can't be spared from a critical assignment; and our skimpy budget puts a handicap on logical career planning. In other words, some officers who would like to go will always be deprived of a valuable and well-merited educational opportunity by the workings of fate.

The decision as to whether in any given year an officer should be assigned to the National War College or kept at a duty post will have to be made by FP in consultation with high officials of the Department. If the necessities of our foreign relations decree that an officer must stay in the line of battle instead of receiving an interval of educational stimulation, that certainly does not mean that he is not a superior officer; indeed, some men may be the victims in these critical times of their own indispensability.

A War College assignment, then, is a compliment and an opportunity; but the pleasant school in the Potomac grove can hardly become a College of Cardinals from which the Popes in our Service must inevitably and infallibly be chosen.

PRIZE CONTEST

Improving the Journal

The JOURNAL staff wants to know what you think of the present JOURNAL and what kind of magazine you want. It will be of great help if you will send in answers to the questions below, together with your ideas for improving the JOURNAL. To make it worth your time, we will pay \$75 for the best suggestion, \$50 second best, and \$25 for third.* Contributions will be judged by the Editorial Board and must be received by April 1, 1949.

Questions:

Do you read the JOURNAL  Yes No

Do members of your family read it  Yes No

Give titles, or otherwise identify, any articles, and/or editorials, which particularly interested you in the last two or three years.

Which do you find most interesting (List in order of your preference with numbers 1-13 in the blank spaces)

- Articles on foreign policy?
- Articles on operation of Department of State and Foreign Service?
- Articles on developments in U. S. and on the American scene?
- Articles on travel?
- Editorials?
- Fiction?
- Book reviews?
- News from the Field?
- News from the Department?
- Letters from retired officers?
- Letters to the Editor?
- Service Glimpses?
- Twenty-five Years Ago

Suggestions:

For improving the JOURNAL (in less than 1,000 words. Use follow sheets as necessary.)

*Suggestions from former JOURNAL staff members will be especially welcome but they are not eligible for prizes.

Address all communications to the AMERICAN FOREIGN SERVICE JOURNAL, care of Department of State, Washington 25, D. C.

News from the Department

By BARBARA P. CHALMERS

Personals

The Honorable JOSEPH E. JACOBS has been appointed Ambassador to Czechoslovakia. Mr. Jacobs was formerly United States Political Adviser to the American Military Government at Seoul.

Mr. FRANKLIN C. ROUDYBUSH, who was until recently Registrar at the Foreign Service Institute, has been appointed Public Affairs Officer at the Consulate at Strasbourg.

FSO LAURENCE W. TAYLOR has been designated Special Assistant to the Chief of the Division of Foreign Service Personnel, FSO Garret G. Ackerson, Jr. Mr. Taylor was formerly Assistant Director of the Foreign Service Institute as head of the School of Basic Officer Training. Mr. Taylor also served as Chairman of the Education Committee of the Association, 1947-48.

FSO JACK MCFALL, Consul at Montreal, visited the Department while in Washington on a short leave.

FSO GEORGE P. WALLER, First Secretary and Consul at Luxembourg since 1944, visited the Association's offices en route to Montgomery, Alabama, for several weeks home leave. Mr. Waller will be proceeding to his new post at Florence in December.

THOMAS S. HORN, retired Foreign Service Officer, has recently been elected President and a Director of the Horn-Diamond Coal Co., at Benton, Illinois.

CLAYTON LANE, retired Foreign Service Officer, has been appointed Executive Secretary of the American Institute of Pacific Relations, Inc. The Institute publishes an extensive list of pamphlets and books, on subjects relating to the Pacific area.

FSOs WILLIAM K. AILSHIE, HALLECK L. ROSE and LESLIE A. SQUIRES were recent visitors at the Association offices. Mr. Ailshie has been assigned to the Office of Controls in the Department, after a tour of duty in Oslo. Mr. Rose is en route from Managua to his new post at Bremen, and Mr. Squires will be leaving soon for his assignment at Athens.

FSOs RALPH S. COLLINS, JOHN E. HORNER, M. GORDON KNOX and JAMES W. PRATT, having finished the summer course at the Foreign Service Institute, are continuing their study of the Russian language at Columbia and Cornell Universities. Messrs. Knox and Collins are at Columbia and Messrs. Horner and Pratt are at Cornell.

FSO STEPHEN A. COMISKEY, who studied Chinese at Yale last summer, is now continuing the study of the same language at Cornell, as are FSO JOHN H. HOLDRIDGE and FSS ARTHUR ROSEN.

FSOs EDWARD L. FREERS and DAVID H. HENRY, 2ND have been detailed to the Russian Institute, Columbia University, under the language-and-area program arranged by the Foreign Service Institute. FSO ROBERT ROSSOW, JR., who has just returned from Sofia, is attending the University of Pennsylvania, as is FSO JOHN W. BOWLING. They are taking the course in India language-and-area studies.

FSO A. DAVID FRITZLAN is at Princeton for a year of Arabic studies; and FSS LEWIS M. PURNELL has been detailed to Yale for specialization on the Burmese language.

The recent promotion of FSO STEPHEN E. AGUIRRE brings to mind the fact that he has served as Clerk, Vice Consul, Consul and Consul General at his present post, Ciudad Juarez, Chihuahua, Mexico. All of his 33 years of service have been spent in our neighboring Republic to the south.

FSO MARCEL E. MALIGE, Commercial Attaché at Bern since 1945, has left, by air, for his new post at Marseille. Mrs. Malige will follow later.

Foreign Service Examinations

Approximately 1,500 young men and women in 18 cities in the United States and 70 cities abroad recently took the rigid three-day written Foreign Service Examination.

A total of 1,960 persons were designated to take the examination, which was the second regular test to be given since the end of World War II. However, only about 1,500 of the number designated actually presented themselves at the 88 examining offices scattered throughout the world.

The facts concerning the recent examination differ in many respects from those relating to pre-war examinations. For example, the number of persons examined this year was almost four times the number in 1941, the year of the last pre-war examination, when 440 persons took the tests. Formerly, also, the examinees tended to be clustered on the two coasts of the United States. This year, large numbers have been designated in cities in all regions of the country, 58 persons having been designated to be examined in Atlanta, 165 in Chicago, 62 in Dallas, 37 in Denver, 87 in St. Louis. In addition, 145 persons residing abroad, most of them already in the Foreign Service in other categories than Foreign Service Officers, applied to take the examinations. These include one person at Moscow, 9 in Seoul, 13 in Berlin, 1 in Mombasa, 1 in Rejkjavik, 2 in Montevideo, and 3 in Montreal.

To pass the written examination—which covers many different subjects, including International Law, Economics, History, Government, and Maritime Law, the examinee must make an average grade of at least 70 per cent. In pre-war tests, the percentage of those taking the examination who made this grade varied from 18.6 per cent to 19.7 per cent. Those who pass the written tests must undergo an oral examination before being classed as eligible for appointment as a Foreign Service Officer. An average grade of 80 per cent on both the written and oral examinations is passing. Those making this average before the war constituted from 6.8 per cent to 9.3 per cent of the total designated candidates. Thus, in 1941, 440 persons took the examinations. Of that number, 77 passed the written test, and 37 passed both the written and oral examinations.

Conference of District Directors of the Immigration and Naturalization Service

A District Director's Conference of the immigration and Naturalization Service was held at El Paso, Texas, September 29 and 30, 1948—the first such Conference on our Mexican border for 12 years. District Director GROVER C. WILMOTH of El Paso presided, supported by Directors WILLIAM A. CARMICHAEL of Los Angeles, WILLIAM A. WHALEN of San Antonio, and A. H. BODE of Kansas City. The Central Office of the Immigration and Naturalization Service was represented by the Commissioner, the Honorable WATSON B. MILLER, Special Assistant EDWARD J. SHAUGNESSY, and Assistant Commissioners JOSEPH SAVORETTI and W. F. KELLY. Upon special invitation of the Commissioner, the Conference was also attended by Consuls General CARL W. STROM of Mexico City and STEPHEN E. AGUIRRE of Ciudad Juarez and by Consuls W. CLARKE VYSE of Agua Prieta, HENRY T. UNVERZAGT of Chihuahua, and BEN ZWEIG of Nogales. The extremely well-prepared program covered numerous phases of

problems connected with the entry of aliens in the United States from Mexico.

Ship Figureheads Sought by Marine Historical Association

The museum maintained by the Marine Historical Association, Inc., of Mystic, Connecticut, is one of the finest in the country and is doing a notable job in helping to keep alive the tradition of American shipping in all of its many facets.

One such facet is represented by a collection of ship figureheads of which there are but a very few left in the world today—outside of museums. The Mystic Museum is constantly on the lookout for any or all of these few.

For example, the Curator of the Museum has been informed that in Port Stanley, Falkland Islands, there are anchored two old ship's hulls, both of which have figureheads, probably seven or eight feet in length. The Museum is definitely interested in obtaining these, and is prepared to pay for one or both, provided they are good examples of their type and can be delivered to New York.

The Museum would be interested in any information it might obtain from our Consular offices or otherwise about these or any other available figureheads of old ships representing the tradition of American shipping.

As a first step in possible negotiations and arrangements it is suggested that any information or communications be directed to Capt. Chester C. Wood, U.S.N., 2205 California Street, N. W., Washington 8, D. C. (Capt. Wood is now on duty with the Joint Chiefs of Staff, but has an extra-curricular office as Director of the Museum at Mystic.)

If practicable, such information to be most effective, should contain the name and address of the individual who can be put in touch with the Museum; a description of the figure-heads with pictures if feasible; a statement as to the state of preservation; an "asking price" for one or both on delivery in New York; approximate period of time which would be required for delivery in New York; any other information which would facilitate further negotiations.

"Streamlining" of Foreign Service Posts

The Department of State has recently announced the closing of six more Foreign Service posts in connection with the "streamlining" of the Service throughout the world. Seventeen posts have been closed since January 1948. Some were closed because of a lessening of work caused by shifting world conditions, some because the volume of work did not justify their cost, and some because they had been wartime emergency posts. An additional reason for the closing of these Consulates has been the necessity of utilizing budgeted funds for opening and staffing with experienced personnel new posts in areas now considered vital to American interests.

The volume of business to be done on behalf of U. S. interests by the Foreign Service will not be seriously affected, as the work of the closed posts will be transferred to nearby offices, and consular agents will be appointed at some of the former posts.

The posts recently opened are in areas which have regained their pre-war importance for this country, and in regions newly important because of a wealth of strategic materials, increased shipping, and establishment of new means of communications.

Foreign Service "Rovers" Defeat Department "Roosters"

The second annual picnic of the Division of Foreign Service Personnel, held on Saturday, October 15, 1948, in Lumber Run Park, Arlington, Va., was well attended by both Department and Foreign Service personnel and families. The highlight of the afternoon's activities was a ball game

starring the Foreign Service Rovers and the Department Roosters. The Roosters relinquished the trophy to the Rovers, which is now on proud display in Mr. Ackerson's office. After the ball game, a picnic supper was enjoyed around the campfire. The success of the picnic was largely due to the efficient and able handling of arrangements by Miss Joan Housman.

NEW ASSOCIATION EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

A meeting of the Electoral College of the Association was held on October 7, 1948 in pursuance of the Articles of Association, and at this meeting the Honorable Norman Armour was elected President of the Association and the Honorable George V. Allen was elected Vice President.

The College also elected the following Executive Committee: Messrs. George H. Butler, Sheldon T. Mills, Marshall Green, Elbert G. Mathews, Herbert P. Fales, and Messrs. Bromley K. Smith and Fred W. Jandrey as alternates.

The newly-elected Executive Committee held its first meeting on October 13 and elected the Honorable George H. Butler, Chairman, and Mr. Sheldon T. Mills, Vice Chairman.

The new Entertainment Committee will be composed of the following: Messrs. Bernard Connelly, Chairman, Aaron Brown, Fulton Freeman, Douglas Henderson, Norris Hasleton, and Messrs. Harold Shullaw and Joseph Sparks as alternates.

The following are members of the new Education Committee: Messrs. DuWayne G. Clark, Chairman, Raymond A. Hare, William P. Maddox, Mrs. Garret G. Ackerson, Jr., and Mrs. Howard H. Tewksbury. Mr. Niles Bond and Mrs. Elbridge Durbrow are alternates.

FOREIGN SERVICE WOMEN'S LUNCHEON

The first Foreign Service Women's luncheon of the winter 1948-1949 will be held during the first half of the month of December, and, it is hoped that there will be a large attendance.

Cards are being sent out two weeks in advance giving date, time and location and a prompt reply will be much appreciated.

There is no reserve of funds and the cost of the food, printing and mailing of the cards, etc., is paid from the subscriptions collected at each separate luncheon. No cancellation of reservations can be accepted unless made two days in advance.

PAYMENT OF ASSOCIATION DUES

Members of the Foreign Service Association who have not paid their dues for the fiscal year 1948-49 and those who are in arrears are again reminded that the Association is doing its utmost to maintain its position on a fiscal year basis for which reason it would be pleased if members would adjust their accounts without further delay. The Association is under heavy expense for salaries, rent, printing, overhead and miscellaneous items, and in order to keep its budget in balance it is hoped that all members who have not paid their dues for the fiscal year 1948-49, or who are in any way delinquent in the payment of their dues, will take prompt steps to settle their account and thus continue their membership.

News From The Field

FIELD CORRESPONDENTS

- Argentina*—Dixon Donnelley
Australia (Canberra)—Donald Lamm
Austria—Martin F. Herz
Bolivia—Park F. Wollam
British Guiana—George W. Skora
Canada (Eastern)—Terry B. Sanders, Jr.
Ceylon—Perry N. Jester
Colombia—John M. Webber
Costa Rica—Albert E. Carter
Dakar—William R. Gennert
France (Northern)—Alfred H. Lovell, Jr.
France (Southern)—William H. Christensen
French Indo-China—Dallas M. Coors
Greece—Claude G. Ross
Hongkong—Betty Ann Middleton
Hungary—Jane Wilson Pool
Iceland—William S. Krason
India—William Witman II
Ireland—Wayland B. Waters
London—W. Stratton Anderson, Jr.
New Zealand—John S. Service
Panama—Oscar H. Guerra
Paraguay—Henry Hoyt
Peru—Maurice J. Broderick
Poland—Findley Burns, Jr.
Portugal—William Barnes
Rumania—Donald Dunham
Shanghai—Emory C. Swank
Singapore—John Hamlin
Southampton—William H. Beck
Switzerland—Ruth Madsen
Trinidad—Benjamin L. Sowell
Turkey—Clifton B. English
Union of South Africa—John C. Fuess
Uruguay—Sidney Lafoon
U.S.S.R.—Foy D. Kohler
Venezuela—Thomas D. Kingsley

ATHENS



Photo by Sgt. Hedrick, Office of US Military Attaché, Athens

Evzone guards present arms to the Honorable Henry F. Grady as he and members of his staff leave the Royal Palace in Athens on July 23, 1948, following presentation of his letters of credence to King Paul.

In the foreground is Lt. Col. Th. Papanastassiou, Aide de Camp to the King, followed by Ambassador Grady and (left to right) Karl L. Rankin, Counselor of Embassy; Anthony Benaki, Honorary Master of Ceremonies of the Royal Household; Harold B. Minor, Counselor of Embassy; and Captain Gale E. Griggs, Naval Attaché.

Photograph taken on the steps of Queen's House, the residence of the Governor-General of Ceylon, on the occasion of the presentation of credentials by Ambassador Cole. Those appearing in the photograph from left to right are: Miss Helen Nicholl, Second Secretary and Vice Consul; Mr. Perry N. Jester, First Secretary and Consul General; Mr. Rogers B. Horgan, Third Secretary and Vice Consul; Ambassador Cole; Miss Harriet C. Thurgood, Vice Consul; Mr. Edward L. Johnson, Third Secretary and Vice Consul; Mr. R. Toussaint, Protocol Officer of the Ministry of Defense and External Affairs, Colombo. The final figure is a native messenger of Queen's House who is shown wearing the traditional Kandian comb.



Photo by Associated Newspapers of Ceylon, Ltd.

CARACAS

September 14, 1948.

On September 4, 1948, the American Flag was lowered from the former Embassy Residence in Caracas for the last time at this location by Third Secretary Tom Kingsley and Executive Officer Lou Denis, after seventeen years during which time the old José Vicente Gómez home served as Residence for three American Ministers and two American Ambassadors to Venezuela.

The former residence was constructed by General Gómez at a cost of approximately \$190,000, for one of his sons, José Vicente Gómez, who was at that time serving as Second Vice President of Venezuela. Shortly after Don José moved into his new home, he was exiled from the country by his father, following the assassination of Juan Gómez, First Vice President, and brother of the old General. Between February 1928, the date of José Vicente's exile, the residence had no permanent occupants until it was leased by the Legation for Minister George T. Summerlin, who took up residence there on September 5, 1931. Minister Summerlin was transferred from Venezuela in December 1934 and was succeeded in his post by Minister Meredith Nicholson, who remained in Caracas until 1937. He was in turn followed by Minister Antonio C. Gonzalez of New York,

who remained at this post until the first American Ambassador to Venezuela, Dr. Frank P. Corrigan, took over in early 1939. The present Ambassador to Venezuela, the Hon. Walter J. Donnelly, arrived in Caracas in November 1947 and resided in the Gómez residence until September 4, 1948, when he raised the Flag over his new Embassy Residence.

As little news has been sent the JOURNAL from this Mission in recent months, your new Caracas correspondent will take this opportunity to mention a few of the visitors received by the Embassy during 1948, as well as other outstanding events.

It is expected that in late October the Embassy and Consulate will move into a new Chancery building, which is located near the heart of the Caracas business district. For many years the offices of the Chancery, the Commercial Attaché, the Consulate General and the other Attachés have been separate. In December 1947, the Chancery and the Offices of the various Attachés were combined, and now with the leasing of a new building, joint administration of the Embassy and Consulate General will be possible for the first time.

During February, the city was filled with hundreds of official visitors, delegates, and guests, who attended the many

(Continued on page 46)



On July 26, 1948, the Monrovia Port Management Company assumed operating control of the modern port and deep water harbor at Monrovia, Liberia. This port was financed under a \$20,000,000 Lend-Lease Agreement between the United States and Liberia, and constructed by the Raymond Concrete Pile Company.

FSO Thomas A. Hiekok, American Charge d'Affaires at Monrovia, is shown at the end of the table, signing the port management agreement, with, left to right, FSO Rupert A. Lloyd, Second Secretary of the Legation, Mr. Gabriel L. Dennis, Secretary of State of Liberia, and Mr. C. T. O. King, Assistant Secretary of State of Liberia.

Work Simplification in the Foreign Service

By CASS A. KENDZIE, *Division of Foreign Service Planning*

During a recent visit to Nanking I spent a pleasant half hour in manipulating, under the close and somewhat apprehensive supervision of the Chinese Writer, the typewriter used in the composition of Chinese letters, notes, and translations. In comparison with my fumbling efforts, his performance was awe-inspiring. Although slow compared to the work done by typists using conventional machines, it was faster than I thought possible. I noticed that, in manipulating the traveling pick-up arm along its horizontal and vertical tracks in the most complex zig-zag patterns, he would frequently stop at a column and select a number of ideogram matrices one after the other in rapid succession, moving the carriage only the one space necessary to pick up the next lower matrix. At such times his speed was roughly equivalent, in message length if not in characters to that which could be produced on a standard typewriter.

I assumed that he was indulging in the equivalent of the finger exercises in which our typists learn to type q w e r t etc. at such an impressive but not usually prophetic, rate of speed. I was interested to learn that, on the contrary, he had rearranged the order of the matrices so that certain frequently recurring expressions such as "I have the honor to . . .", "The Embassy of the United States . . .", and so on could be printed with adjacent matrices located in the center of the type bed. Here, small in scope, was an excellent sample of Work Simplification.

Certainly the time spent in writing a single Foreign Office Note is not great, nor is it to be expected that spectacular savings in time can be made in such short operations. But in considerable volume, the sum total of small savings may become impressive. If nothing more, the few extra hours saved each month could afford the Chinese typist an opportunity to perform his related duties with more painstaking care, or to absorb a somewhat increased work load. Increased effectiveness obtained through the application of Work Simplification methods can reduce, to a material extent, the wide gap between the ever-increasing demands on the Foreign Service and its relatively inelastic budgetary position.

The Foreign Service has not been able to secure the funds and personnel necessary to discharge its rapidly growing responsibilities. This fact has been of great concern to

OFS and to the Department. Several programs have been launched to reduce the manpower needs of the service without lowering its capacity or effectiveness. These include: more careful screening of requests for economic and commercial reports; better guides to organization and clearer definitions of responsibilities of various organizational units; strengthening of administrative sections at posts; centralization of responsibility for performance of certain administrative functions at the mission level; improved supply facilities; improvements in the processing of personnel actions and many others.

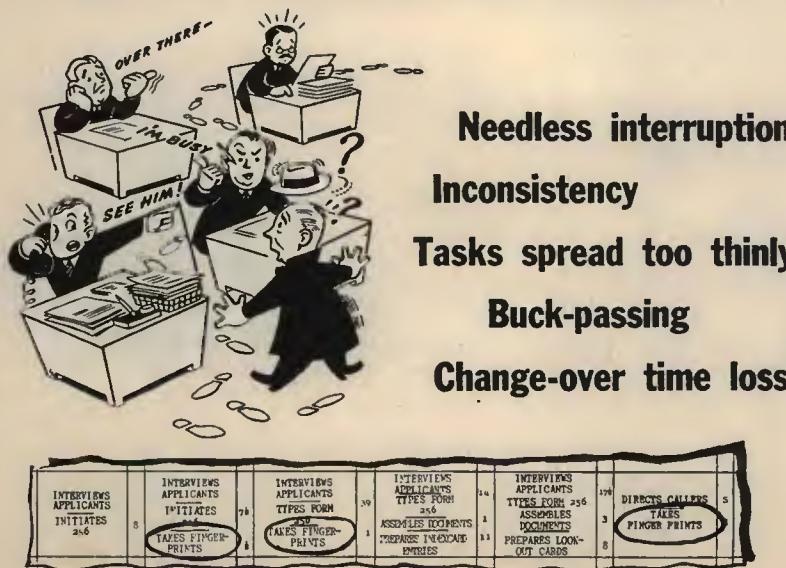
In line with this effort to rationalize the work-load of the Service, the Office of the Foreign Service is fostering a campaign of Work Simplification. Officers in the field will learn more about this program in coming months as instructional materials reach them from the Department, and as they may attempt to apply its solutions to the problems arising in their own offices.

The concept of Work Simplification is not a complicated one. It holds only that repetitive operations can be examined on the spot and rearranged in sequence or reduced in components so that a given volume of work can be accomplished more easily. The necessary review of work is carried on in a consistent manner, utilizing methods and symbols which have been developed to make the job easier. It must be emphasized that this management program is and must continue to be a field program. It owes less to "expertise" and more to common sense (which is, unfortunately, too uncommon in some of the over-specialized techniques) than do most other phases of administrative analysis.

While the Office of the Foreign Service can assist, with technical advice and even by detail of technicians upon request of participating Foreign Service posts, the initiative in the implementation of the program must come from the posts themselves. The application of these techniques to specific field situations must be the responsibility of the officers and employees of the Service.

The first of the instructional materials in this program was the recently published handbook "Guide to Work Simplification." It deals with four relatively simple techniques involving the preparation and use of:

ARE TASKS SPREAD TOO THINLY?



The Work Distribution Chart The Process Chart The Work Count, and The Layout Chart

The Work Distribution Chart is a simple, two dimensional tabulation of the work performed in the organizational unit or segment under study. It shows what is being done, who is doing it and how long it takes to do each operation. It is useful in identifying operations on which the expenditure of employee time is out of proportion to the importance of the function being performed, and makes possible comparison of tasks assigned to different employees to determine whether employee skills are properly utilized.

The Process Chart is a detailed chronological record of the sequence of operations which comprise the function being analyzed. It helps answer the question of: what is done; why is each step necessary, where and when should each step be performed; who should perform it and how can each be simplified.

(Continued on page 54)

STAFF OF AMERICAN CONSULATE GENERAL
CALCUTTA, INDIA

Front Row (Sitting): Ramanand Ram, Hari Krishna Das, Rameshwar Prosad, Basir Mohamed Khan, Shew-prosad Panday, Birodh Prosad, Brijkishore Ram, Mohamed Abbas Khan, Gayadhar Das.

Second Row (Sitting): Stuart Blow, Miss Helen R. Nicholl, John W. Thomason III, Eugene A. Gilnuore, S. Ramaya, Charles H. Derry, Foster H. Kreis, James W. Moore, Thomas S. Bloodworth, Jr., Glen S. Olsen, Robert B. Cate, Jr.

Third Row: K. Krishnaswamy, Ram Kisen Singh, Mohamed W. Ahmed, Miss Vera Anderson, Indu Bhusan Ghosh, Miss Maude O. Lawrence, Mrs. Irene A. Heberlet, Miss Dulcie E. Clay, S. C. Datta, Miss Helen T. Ryan, Mrs. Ervie Moorhouse, Amulya C. Dass, Miss Harriett M. Smith, D. N. Dey, Miss Helen D. Kirkpatrick, R. B. Roy, K. K. Mazumdar.

Fourth Row: C. A. Govindan, D. Balagopal, J. G. Rao, B. N. Basu, Miss Sybil E. Jones, Miss Joan Davenport, Samuel F. Jacob, Gerard F. Hyde, H. G. D'Rozario, P. N. Dutt, Banna Dass, Jagabandhu Samal.

Top Row: S. P. Roy, Solomon O. Daniel, A. Sankar Narayan Aiyer, Hubert Hyde.



Service



Above: Entrance of new American Embassy Residence at Caracas. (Courtesy of Security Officer Jack Ford.)

Below: American Ambassador to Colombia, Willard L. Beaulac, speaking at a dinner in his honor given by the Lions Club of Cali, Colombia, during a visit to that city. Seated, from l. to r., are Don Jorge Zawadzki, editor-publisher of the Cali newspaper Relator, Mrs. Franklin Hawley, wife of the American Consul in Cali, Dr. Octavio Londono, President of the Lions Club of Cali, Mrs. Beaulac, wife of the Ambassador, and John M. Webber, Public Affairs Officer of the American Embassy in Bogotá.



Below: Photograph taken on the occasion of the retirement of Mr. John Milton, after more than 38 years' service in the American Consulate General in Shanghai. (See News from the Field, page 50.) Reading from left to right: Messrs. Lin Shin-pon, Kiang Sing Fu, Tung Yueh, FSS Reuben R. Thomas, Miss Fern Cavender, Mr. William S. Tsao, FSO John M. Cabot, FSO John H. Stutesman, Mr. John Milton, FSO Charles S. Millet, FSO Francis H. Styles, Miss Lyda Mae Francis, Mr. Ernest Tung, FSO Harry L. Smith.



Glimpses

The Bookshelf

FRANCIS C. DE WOLF, *Review Editor*

Major Problems of United States Foreign Policy, 1948-49. A study guide. Published by the Brookings Institution, Washington, D. C. 246 pages. \$1.50 paper bound.

Reviewed by Nelson Trusler Johnson

This is a Study Guide intended for the use of students of United States foreign affairs, teachers in class room work, and leaders of discussion groups. It is the second in an annual series prepared by the staff of the INTERNATIONAL STUDIES GROUP OF THE BROOKINGS INSTITUTION, directed by Dr. Leo Pasvolsky. The Guide should be very useful to teacher and student in this international field of social science, for it provides in concentrated and handy form a surprisingly complete survey of the entire field of our relations with foreign countries. It is accompanied by an analysis of the current problems that may be expected to preoccupy the attention of the responsible policy-making officers of the United States Government for the rest of the current year and into 1949. This volume is supplemented at regular intervals during the academic year by the publication of timely summaries of developments as they occur. Material such as this is normally available only to the expert who constantly reads, clips and files material as it becomes available to the public in the press and numerous publications.

This 246-page volume is pleasingly put together and printed, easy to handle, two columns to a page in easily read type. It is divided into three parts and an appendix.

Part One of the text presents THE PRESENT POSITION OF THE UNITED STATES IN WORLD AFFAIRS. The United States is placed in proper perspective against the background of the world. The main factors of the world situation are described clearly and with sufficient detail to help teacher and student proceed with the work of the class and keep all of the conditioning factors in mind. Students are quickly made aware that solutions cannot be found for problems without consideration of the whole collection of attendant and related facts on a global basis.

The background having been set up, the Guide then proceeds to discuss the bases of United States foreign policy, giving consideration to the fundamental principles and broad objectives, the sources of our national strength and other conditioning factors that should be taken into account. Opinions may differ as to how closely the principles and objectives of our foreign policy must be calibrated to our national strength. Our ideals and goals usually are to be found far beyond our strength. But then herein should be found material for some of the argument and discussion that this Guide is intended to encourage to a better understanding of what is involved in the determination of foreign policy.

All decisions in the field of foreign relations must be considered in the light of the relations actually existing at the moment of discussion among the United States, the U.S.S.R. and Great Britain, so the Guide gives the student an analysis of Great Power relations. These relations are analyzed as regards the framework of relations, United States policy and action, British policy and action, and Soviet policy and action.

The question of the alternatives ahead is then discussed, with special reference to the sharp differences that have arisen between the United States and the U.S.S.R.—the alternatives of peace or war?

Part Two of the Study Guide is a complete survey of the major problems throughout the world beginning with the United Nations' system and the problems that that system has presented to the United States as one of the Great Pow-

ers most interested in its success as a world instrument for peace and most responsible for making it a success.

Analysis then moves on to a survey of each region beginning with Europe. Each region is similarly and comprehensively treated, not only as to regional problems but also as to country problems. The region of Europe is followed in turn by the Mediterranean and the Middle East, East and Southeast Asia, and the Western Hemisphere. The problems having been treated on a regional and geographic basis, the discussion then turns to the economic relations, the question of human rights and fundamental freedoms, and finally national military power.

Part Three of the Study Guide contains the working papers of the Guide. The Brookings Institution each year selects for more detailed treatment a number of actual problems from among those dealt with in the background papers above mentioned. Student and teacher may not agree with the selection made by the Institution, but it is evident that the Brookings Staff, in selecting its problems for detailed study, does make an honest effort to choose those most likely to demand attention during the year ahead. This year the three problems selected are:

- I. The Problem of the Japanese Peace Settlement
- II. The Problem of Economic Assistance to Latin America

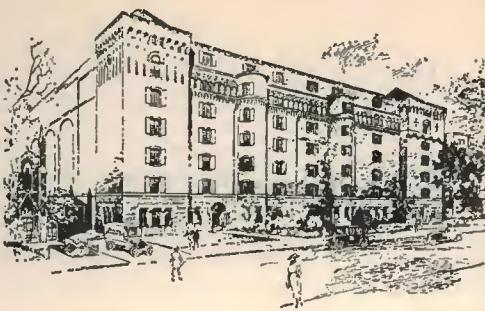
III. The Problem of the Veto in the United Nations.

These are the problems that teacher and student will sit in conference and discuss in detail, and in the end make some choice of a line of action. The material presented for their consideration in the discussion of each or all of these problems will approximate that actually used in the policy-making branches of the United States Government. Here the student will learn how to state the problem that is to be solved and state it in such a way that a solution is possible. He then learns how a paper or study of the background of the problem is prepared. In each case the expert staff of the INTERNATIONAL STUDIES GROUP OF THE BROOKINGS INSTITUTION has defined and stated the problem and prepared the carefully detailed and documented background paper for your consideration. Each student may put himself in the shoes of the executive for whom the experts collect the information that he needs. The paper presents the issues that are posed by the problem and the alternative lines of action that are available. Perhaps the teacher or the student may not agree with the way the problem has been stated, or the relative importance of the issue listed. Perhaps he will think of other issues more important and add them to those listed.

The Study Guide makes no choice of lines of action. It presents no preferred solution as might be done when a problem is presented to a policy executive in the Government. It presents to the teacher and to the student without prejudice a number of alternative lines of action in order that a free choice may be made. Student or teacher may disagree with the choice of alternatives presented by the Institution in this Guide. Other alternatives may suggest themselves. Discussion will bring these out. Such discussion will help the student to see clearly that such problems cannot be solved in a vacuum. He will be led to understand how necessary in each case it is to bring together as many points of view as possible so that all alternatives may be considered before a final choice of a line of action is made.

The same methodical treatment has been given to each of the three problems chosen by the Institution for discussion. I think that the student will be amazed at the ground that is

(Continued on page 30)



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necessary to be covered in the consideration of each problem. He will understand that those responsible for briefing the executive may not assume that the executive is informed about every phase of the problem.

The Study Guide for this year carries a new feature, namely, an appendix covering two very useful items; a very detailed and careful paper describing the very complicated GOVERNMENTAL MECHANISM FOR THE CONDUCT OF THE UNITED STATES FOREIGN RELATIONS and a GENERAL BIBLIOGRAPHY.

The paper describing the mechanism for the conduct of United States foreign relations will, I think, be found most helpful to an understanding of the difficult path that must be followed by any question of foreign policy before it emerges as action in the field of United States foreign relations.

The text of the Guide is usefully embellished and clarified with the necessary maps and charts.

In the words of the Brookings Institution, it has had two main objectives in preparing these Study Guides: ". . . to aid in the development of informed and responsible American public opinion on foreign policies; and to contribute toward a more realistic training of the increasing number of American specialists in international relations that are required today in the government, in business and in other agencies operating abroad." The purpose of the Guide, prepared in the way described above, is stated by the Institution as twofold: "first, to illustrate the technique for the study of foreign relations of the United States by individuals and groups outside the Government in a manner closely approximating that used by Government officials in the formulation of general and specific foreign policies; and, second, to furnish working materials as an aid to the reader in acquiring a knowledge and an appreciation of the nature of the policy-making process."

It seems to this writer that Dr. Pasvolsky and his staff have succeeded very well indeed in performing their part of what after all must be a cooperative effort on the part of teacher, student or reader who uses the Guide. Teacher, student and study group will find in these papers all of the material necessary to the consideration of a solution of a problem fairly and capably laid out. The student who brings to the reading of this Guide the same serious and careful attention that has been given to its preparation will be forced to consider the issues and the alternatives set down or others that may occur to him and to make for himself a choice. Once he has been through this process he will in future think of policy and action with enlightened understanding of what has gone into the choice of action that the Government has made. He will be better able to criticize or to praise.

Naturally Dr. Pasvolsky and his staff of the Brookings Institution in preparing the material presented in this Study have been limited to published materials. There is, therefore, a factor missing (one that is available to Government); namely, the confidential material that is constantly available to the Government Executive and to those who prepare the policy papers for his consideration. This is not as serious as it would seem. For here in the United States nothing remains long secret from an inquiring press, which sends its correspondents all over the world. Press and radio are perhaps better informed of the incident and event that make up the material of foreign affairs than the press and radio of any other country. The difficulty that the individual reader or listener faces lies in the absence of necessary background that will enable him to choose or discard the press and radio material as it possesses real importance to the United States. This Study Guide will, in the opinion of this writer, be of distinct help to both student and teacher in furnishing that

background. In fact, the Study Guide is unique, for nowhere else can this material be found in compact form.

It is to be expected that there will be a good deal of discussion as to the validity of some of the statements of American objectives in the field of foreign policy. For instance, the Guide's statement that "the establishment and maintenance of democratic institutions throughout the world" constitutes one of the broad aims of United States policy should provoke a lot of discussion. It is good that statements of this kind have been included in the Guide, for they have certainly appeared in published accounts of public discussions of United States policy. It is time that the question be discussed and thoroughly understood in all its implications.

To the Foreign Service officer in Washington or in the field, this Guide and its comprehensive discussion of the whole field of our foreign problems and the problems of other countries will be most useful in helping to achieve a more balanced outlook on the problems that bedevil his own limited sphere of action, problems which, because of proximity, seem so all important. The paper describing the complicated mechanism for the conduct of United States foreign policy will have a sobering effect. Too often one hears the question asked with impatience, "Why doesn't he do something?" Well, why does he not do something? Read the Guide.

—NELSON TRUSLER JOHNSON

The Constitution of the Americas (as of January 1, 1948). Edited by Russell H. Fitzgibbon, in association with Cullen B. Gosnell, William A. Strozier and William B. Stubbs. With a foreword by the late Leo S. Rowe. *The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1948. 847 pages. \$10.00.*

The volume is a compilation in English of all of the constitutions of the twenty-one American Republics and the British North America Act of 1867, the constitutional document of Canada. It is essentially a reference book and should prove very useful to anyone who has need to consult the fundamental laws of these countries. The collection is enhanced by a comprehensive subject index facilitating reference to subject matter in individual constitutions, and providing a ready means for comparative study of all the constitutions on given subjects.

An introduction of eleven pages, reprinted from the American Political Science Review of June 1945, traces the development of the Latin American constitutions. The influence of Spanish, French, United States and British law on the development of Latin American constitutions is evaluated. The Mexican Constitution of 1917 is credited with the introduction into Latin American constitutional development of a new current toward more inherently national constitutions. It is stated that principles and provisions of the Mexican Constitution have been incorporated in varying degrees in subsequently drafted Latin American constitutions.

Each of the constitutional documents is preceded by a historical sketch of approximately one page giving precise information concerning the dates, authorship and adoption of previous constitutions, and indicating, to the extent possible in so short a sketch, the outstanding facts in the history of the particular country which occasioned constitutional changes. Comments in these sketches concerning the extent to which the new constitutions are based on preceding constitutions add to the value of the sketches.

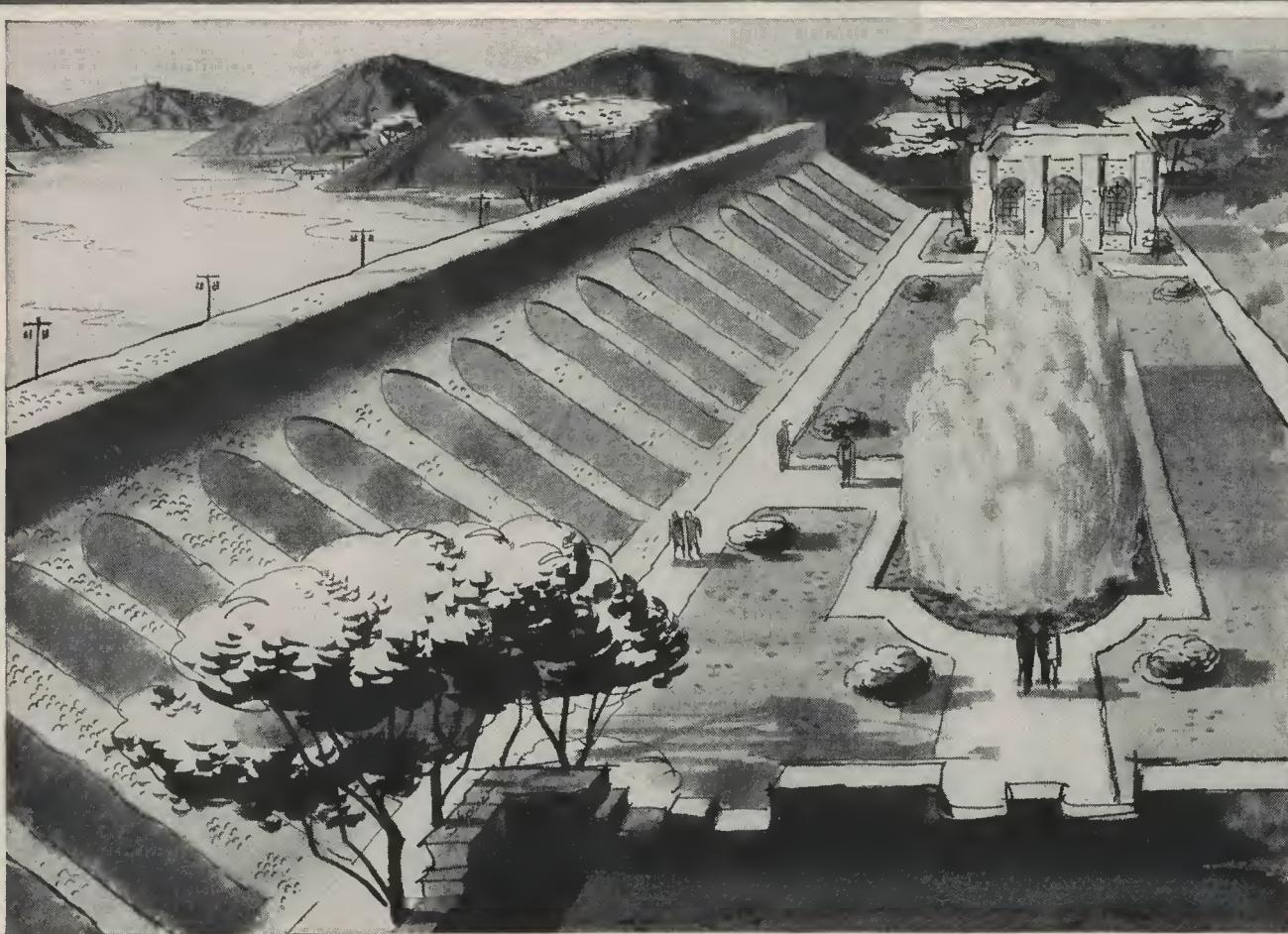
In the preface the editors and publisher express the hope that successive editions of this compilation, registering subsequent changes, may be brought out periodically. The

(Continued on page 52)



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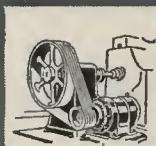
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LETTERS TO THE EDITORS

An Appreciation

American Consulate
Cork, Ireland, September 29, 1948

TO THE EDITORS,

AMERICAN FOREIGN SERVICE JOURNAL:

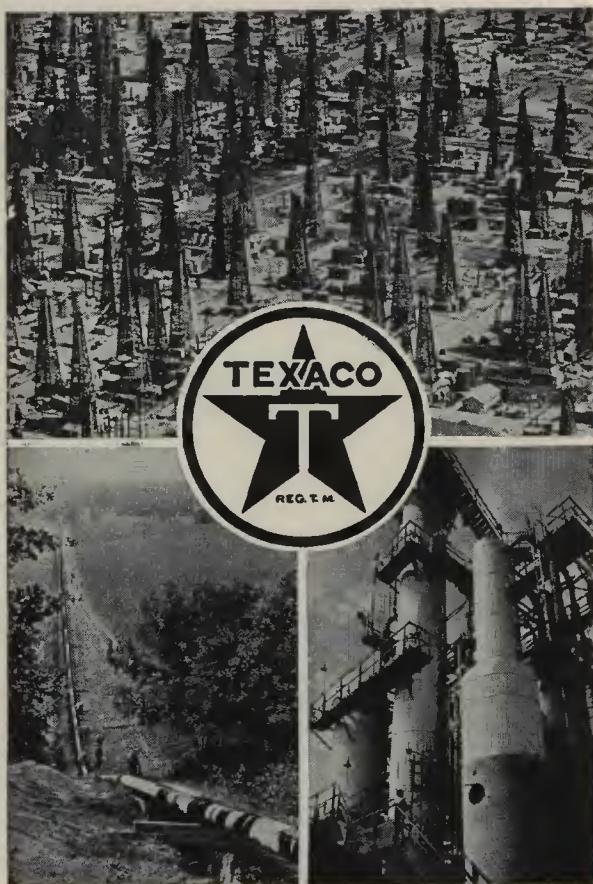
He has retired—"wetired" he would say himself, and the office is not the same without him. For more than twenty years he was part and parcel of our lives, Herman Henry Kemp, known more familiarly to us as "Herman" or "Kemp," our doorman and general factotum.

Born in England, he saw service with the British Navy, but insisted that he was Irish and as such entered himself on the records.

Equally expert with the gun and hook-and-line, he was a favorite with everybody; and many consuls and vice consuls were glad to avail themselves of his good advice and genial company while tramping the Irish mountains in search of the elusive woodcock, or casting their hopeful fly on our trout lakes. It took a good man to beat him at his own sports, and often he would whisper to us: "The boss is only learning, you know, but I gave him a few."

May he enjoy many years with his gun, his dog, and his rod, and may the Civil Service Commission be kind to him. He deserves it all.

IRENE MURPHY.



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September 29, 1948.

TO THE EDITORS,

AMERICAN FOREIGN SERVICE JOURNAL:

The particular purpose of this letter is to let you know that I have just heard that the farmer living next to my property—Mr. Douglas—died and that his farm is for sale. It consists of 181 acres, with two very good barns, a tenant house, and the old brick farm house. The house is not in good condition but might be renovated or even torn down. The site, like my own, commands a wonderful view of the Blue Ridge Mountains, and would make a most desirable location for a home. I am informed that the family are asking \$40,000 for the property but may accept something less. We would like very much to see some nice neighbors there and especially service people, if that could be possible. Would you be good enough to pass the information on to anyone whom you may know who might be looking for a place on which to build a retirement home. It seems to me like a good opportunity for someone to be settled in a very nice neighborhood, and I need say nothing about the climate or the view.

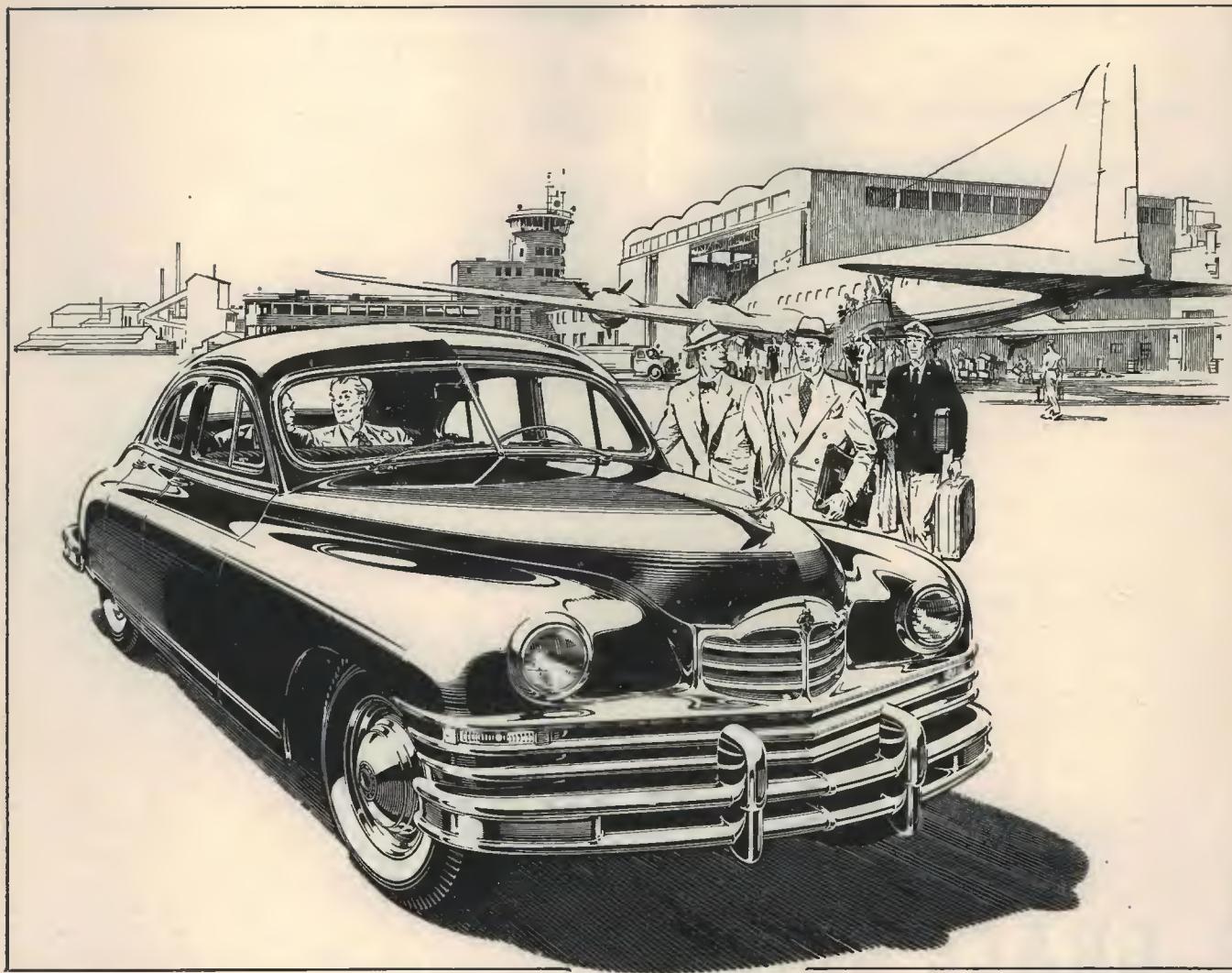
If interested in the above property, contact Miss Theresa Mickie, Commerce Realty and Insurance Company, 214 Fifth Street, NE, Charlottesville, Virginia.

Sincerely yours,

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PACKARD  *ASK THE MAN WHO OWNS ONE*

THE FOREIGN SERVICE OFFICER IN WASHINGTON

(Continued from page 9)

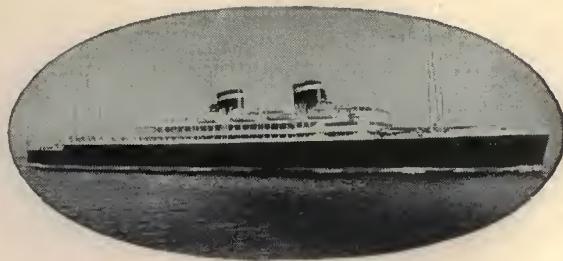
they will accept him wholeheartedly if he shows himself interested in making friends in his new social environment and develops loyalty to his organizational unit.

Thirdly, the Foreign Service officer and his family should consciously try while in Washington to take full advantage of their opportunity to lead typical American lives. The children will learn to do this quickly at school and on the playground. The officer and his wife also can, in their home neighborhood, interest themselves in community affairs and become participants in the life of their neighbors. This is a rewarding experience in itself; it will become doubly so if their new neighbors and friends respond by accepting them. Even in little things, the officer and his wife should consciously strive to live as their neighbors do — to entertain modestly and casually, wear old clothes around the home, warm up quickly to new acquaintances, gossip with neighbors over the back fence, and so on ad infinitum. This is important, because it is the little things, after many years of living abroad, which can make the Foreign Service couple seem strange to their fellow Americans and therefore unapproachable.

If an officer stays in Washington long enough, he will gradually move further and further of his own volition in the directions indicated. He could speed up his adjustment, however, and increase his own and his family's happiness a great deal, if he would make up his mind at the outset that he is going to accept Washington completely, in all its implications, and not try to recapture the reassurance of the field post by attempting to live within an artificially created Foreign Service environment.

Nothing in this essay should be interpreted as warning the Foreign Service officer that if he wants to remain happy he had better stay in the field. On the contrary, its whole point is that Washington is the kind of place where the officer can lead a rich, satisfying and well-adjusted life if he deliberately and consciously leaves the habits, customs and values of the field post behind him when he comes home. Both professionally and psychologically he needs the Washington assignment — which may be the high point of his career in important respects — in order to be able to do a better job abroad. Moreover, Washington needs him, for the contribution which he is able to make to the conduct of foreign relations by virtue of his field experience. To obtain the advantages of the assignment here and to make full use of its opportunities for service, he and his wife — and the importance of the wife making a good adaptation to Washington cannot be overstressed — must accept a sudden change in living habits and make the necessary psychological adjustments.

But if they will do this willingly and cheerfully, and will take a Washington assignment for what it is and can provide, they will like it right from the beginning a great deal better than many do now. And Washington will like them better — not the Washington of the embassy parties and the diplomatic glitter, which few will experience in any event, but the real Washington, composed of hundreds of thousands of people with their roots thrust deeply into the soil of America.



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THE BROOKINGS INSTITUTION'S NEW PROGRAM OF RESEARCH AND EDUCATION IN INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

(Continued from page 12)

first will present only the minimum of narrative and analysis necessary to provide a framework for concentrating attention on the international issues immediately ahead. The survey will indicate an appraisal of the forces, both at home and abroad, likely to influence any action that might be taken. The second, rather than constituting a detailed report of the operations of the United Nations Organization, will analyze the major questions confronting it and the ways in which the Organization contributes toward a harmonization of the foreign policies of the member nations.

Certain basic framework studies are under preparation or projected, including the origin and interpretation of the United Nations Charter, the foreign policy objectives of the major nations, the influences making for economic war and economic peace, new concepts of international security and finally, international organizations and conferences as new methods of diplomacy.

In addition to the foregoing, special studies are in progress of contemplation, among which are some relating to the peace treaties with the enemy states in the Second World War, some dealing with the special problems that arise in connection with the working of the United Nations Organization and related specialized agencies, including the proposed International Trade Organization (ITO), and some on the effectiveness of existing or projected regional organizations, such as the Inter-American System.

Activities under this program are being carried forward on a slowly expanding scale. The results so far achieved have been gratifying, especially the widespread interest already aroused in educational circles in the "problem ap-

proach" to the study of foreign policy employed in the Study Guide and in the techniques of analysis demonstrated therein, as evidenced by the fact that the Study Guide is being used as a basic text book for the study of international relations in more than sixty colleges and universities throughout the country. The successful operation of the highly complex international political and economic systems of the postwar world requires that those charged with responsibility for the formulation of foreign policies and the conduct of international relations view current policies in terms of their long-run effects. Accordingly, an awareness on the part of the general public of the techniques of formulating policies has become most important. It is therefore hoped that the guidance and stimulus already given to the launching at educational institutions of courses designed to provide an understanding of these techniques will prove most useful as supplements to courses normally presented for the preliminary training of specialists in foreign affairs, and will be similarly useful in promoting a better informed public opinion in the crucial field of our country's foreign relations.

MARRIAGES

RICHARD-MILES. Mrs. Ida Parker Miles and FSO Arthur L. Richards were married on September 30, 1948, in Washington, D. C. Mr. Richards is now attending the National War College.

THOMPSON-GOELET. Mrs. Jane Monroe Goelet and FSO Llewellyn E. Thompson, Jr., were married on October 2, 1948, in Butler, Pennsylvania. Mr. Thompson is Deputy Director of the Office of European Affairs.



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(Continued from page 15)



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inelastic food supply: China's average annual import of grain during the "normal" years 1933-37 was 520,000 tons of wheat and 850,000 tons of rice—but that was inadequate to feed all of the hungry. It is not to be thought strange that in such an environment, where the main attention must be directed toward economic and political survival and where only the barest handful of traditional Confucian or modern Kuomintang or Communist concepts could be considered akin to American ideology, it is found so difficult to discover the necessary *points d'appui* for American policy. The Chinese, quite naturally, think first and last in main of themselves—and it is apparent that the matters of most importance to them are not those of most interest to Americans.

The United States will assuredly, on the basis of past performance, continue to strive to achieve peace and stability in the Pacific area. The task has been made ten-fold more difficult with, first, the enforced withdrawal from the scene of several Great Powers which formerly supplied (but not invariably) elements of balance, second, the appearance of revolutionary forces in the so-called "backward" countries of Asia, and, third, the development of a radical cleavage within the victorious United Nations. Political stability in China, although not now discernible as a prospect, may still be attained—at least on a temporary basis. Australia and India may advance to assume, in somewhat different character, the role abandoned in part by Great Britain. In Japan, there is being applied a pattern designed to provide for the nation's economic recovery. In the present circumstances, general support for an American policy aiming at the maintenance of peace and order in the Pacific could logically be expected to come from 1) the will of the independent Oriental peoples concerned, 2) the good will of Occidental nations possessing naval power in the Pacific area, and 3) the power and authority of the United Nations. As fresh events in due course of the unfolding of history impinge upon the situation in the Pacific, new developments affecting Sino-American relations can be expected consequently to occur. It is of course normal procedure for States to adjust their foreign policies when necessary to enable them to cope with altered international circumstances. Thus likewise, it is to be presumed, American policy with respect to China will undergo further development in the course of time, so that it might fit new conditions. As that policy has been determined by international acts and declarations of American statesmen and stands today, however, its fundamental elements comprise 1) support of the commercial Open Door principle, 2) respect for the territorial and administrative integrity of China, 3) a willingness to extend aid to China within the limits imposed by American political and economic capacities and keeping in view China's primary obligation to rehabilitate and maintain itself, 4) non-intervention in China's domestic affairs, and 5) international cooperation for collective security, to the end that there shall be achieved peace and stability in the Pacific area. It is a foreign policy which, evolved through the experiences of a century of formal Sino-American relations, has stood up well under the tests of time.

PRESIDENT TRUMAN REELECTED

As the JOURNAL goes to press, the election returns show that the President has been reelected. Mr. Truman received 304 electoral votes, Mr. Dewey 189, Mr. Thurmond 38, Mr. Wallace none.



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THE WORLD SERIES OF 1948

(Continued from page 17)

game Bob Feller would take full revenge for his bitter loss in the opener. What happened, however, was something entirely different and proof of what baseball can be. Scoring six runs in a wild seventh inning, Boston beat the Indians 11-5.

The game was played in Cleveland before 86,288 fans. This was called a record crowd for a baseball game by practically everyone except a *New York Times* writer who recalled that in the 1936 Olympics Hitler had ordered 120,000 Germans to watch a ball game. Bob Elliott, third baseman and shakiest of the Braves' jittery world series infield, was the star of the fifth game. In the first inning he homered with two men on base. And again in the third inning he homered to make the score 4-1. A Cleveland four-run spree in their half of the fourth brought Warren Spahn to the box with the result that the Indians were blanked in the remaining five innings as the left hander, who had been beaten in the second game, completely dominated the home team. Feller was touched for a homer in the fifth inning, and in the seventh the Braves fell upon Cleveland and massacred them, driving not only Feller but two other pitchers from the box. It took the ailing Satchel Paige to come in and dominate Boston by retiring in quick order the only two batters he faced. Paige was withdrawn immediately for a pinch hitter.

The sixth game went back to Boston. The previous day's victory had been impressive, and in the Hub there was great hope that the Braves had found their true form. The game, however, was Cleveland's and won that team the series. It was a game of dramatic moments and tight play, easily the best of the six. In the first three innings Cleveland twice pulled double plays on Boston, the second of these blighting an incipient Boston rally. In Cleveland's third Boudreau doubled to drive home Mitchell, who had doubled before him. In the fourth Boston tied the score at one all. In the sixth Gordon, Cleveland's second baseman, who had hit very feebly in the series up to that moment, smashed a home run. Before their bats were up in that inning, the Indians tallied again to make the score 3-1. Spahn, who had beaten Cleveland on the previous day, took the mound for Boston in the seventh, and in the eighth Cleveland had the satisfaction of scoring off him what was to be the winning run. Much the same sort of satisfaction must have come to Boston in their half of the eighth, when they fell on Lemon and chased him out of the box.

At this point Bearden took over. The three tying runs were on the bases. He pitched well; two of the runners scored, but the third, the one that would have tied the score, was left on base. In Cleveland's half of the ninth inning Spahn fanned the three Indians who faced him, and the Braves came up for their last chance. They had almost done it in the eighth: one run would tie; two would win! Could they do it in the ninth? With no outs that tying run got to first base. The Boston stands were wracked with excitement. Then it happened again: a pop bunt was caught by the Cleveland catcher, and the runner was caught off first. It was the Indians' fourth double play of the afternoon. With the heart out of the Braves' attack, the last out seemed routine.

The 1948 World Series was over. No miracle had happened, and despite the massacre of the fifth game and the constant and intense suspense of the sixth, the predictions of most experts and fans alike had been borne out. The Indians had proved themselves the better team. Till next April the national game was in the keeping of the Hot Stove League, which now has another classic to argue and replay.

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CULTURAL ANTHROPOLOGY AND THE FOREIGN SERVICE

(Continued from page 19)

world such as Latin America, China, Southeast Asia or India? Surely the man in the Foreign Service who has to analyze, report and predict the effects of various measures upon the economies and governments of these areas is in an excellent position to assess the utility of these disciplines.

One of the most common difficulties in the whole field of international relations arises from differences of cultural assumption and expectancy, which are in the realm of background phenomena, and hence are aspects of the problem which never rises to consciousness. However, if the Foreign Service officer is consciously aware of some of the distortions imposed upon his outlook by his conditioning as a twentieth century American, he will be less likely to interpret the behavior of others in terms of American assumptions, in American definition of the situation, and American values. The problem has been succinctly stated in folk terms by the Roumanian proverb which says, "The foreigner scratches us where we don't itch."

It is quite clear that our definition of a stable and orderly world—that is, a world of sovereign and equal nations—is a projection of our own domestic institutions which are built upon the assumption of the equality of all-citizens with equal rights and obligations. When this is contrasted with the Japanese version of an orderly world, which was a projection of all experience in life as it was lived in Japan, in which each nation took its proper place within a hierarchy, the possibility of misunderstanding is at its height. But Japan was a nation hierarchically arranged from the Emperor down to the peasant farmer. The Japanese felt secure when everyone took his proper place within this hierarchy. Status within the family in terms of age and sex, the system of social classes, and the institutions of the government

all conformed to this pattern. However, it did not prove a good item for export, since the Chinese and other peoples of the Coprosperity Sphere had different social systems and different experiences which did not square with the Japanese version of order.

American ideas of equality are deeply rooted in our political and legal institutions and have a long and noble tradition behind them. They are very much with us today. Neither our politics nor our legal codes nor our free enterprise economic system are intelligible without the basic assumption that all Americans start the race of life equally. This same assumption also pervades many aspects of daily life at home, in school and elsewhere. In actuality we can recognize all kinds of differential status in our business and industrial organizations, in our governmental institutions and in the distribution of wealth. But where this type of organization runs counter to the notions of equality, as in the strict hierarchy of rank in the Army and Navy, we see its manifestation in the acute discomfort often felt by both enlisted men and officers. In most organizations of this kind, Americans tend to minimize the difference in status by the informality of their interpersonal relations.

Closely related to this idea is the American love of competition. Greater rewards are accepted as the due of the individual who has succeeded in competition, and most Americans compete from the cradle to the grave. In the family brothers and sisters compete for the mother's affection and the father's approval. On the playground children compete for leadership. There is competition in the schoolroom as well as on the playing field. Our whole free enterprise economy is built on the theory of competition.

(Continued on page 44)

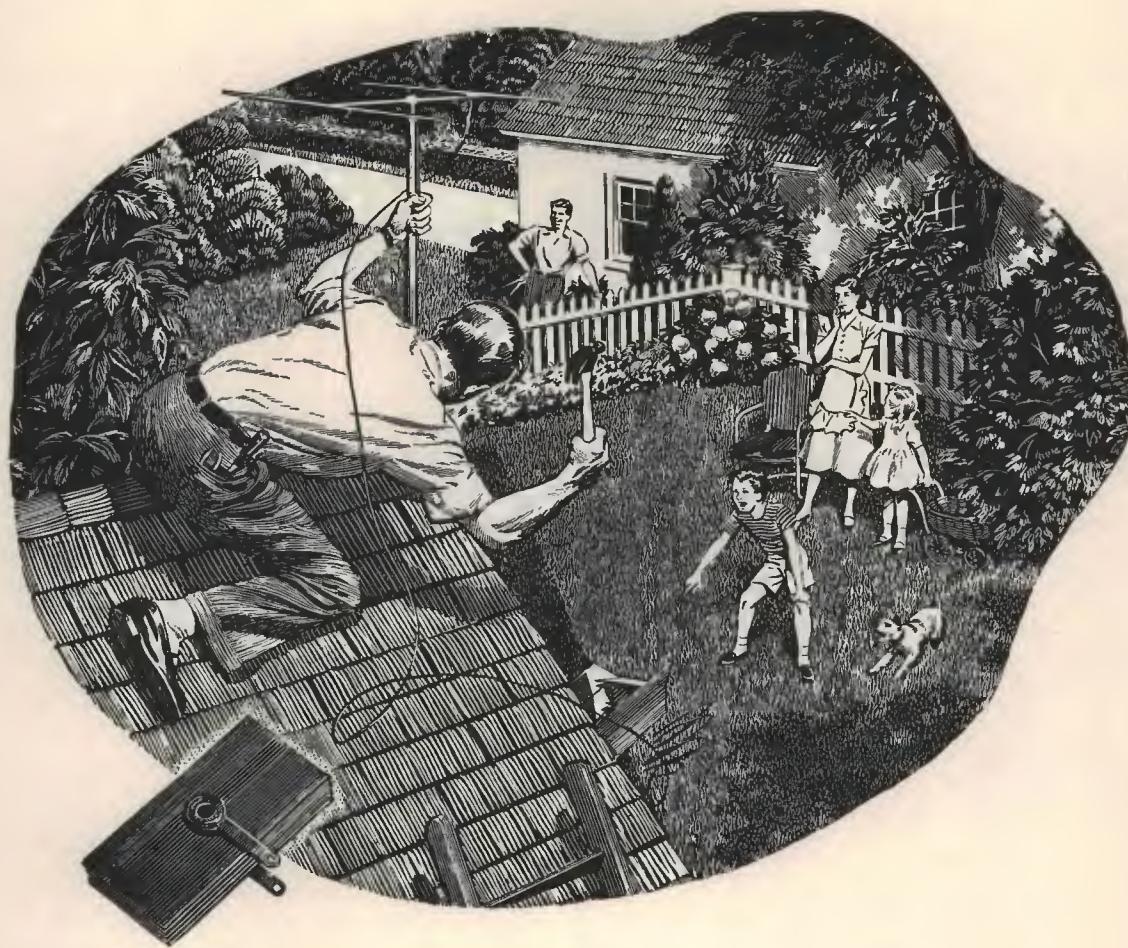
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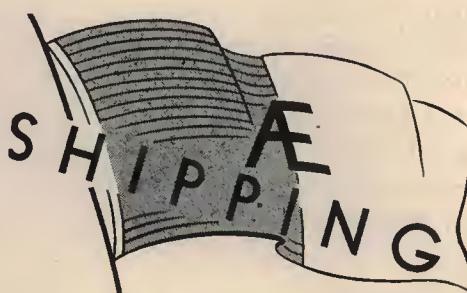
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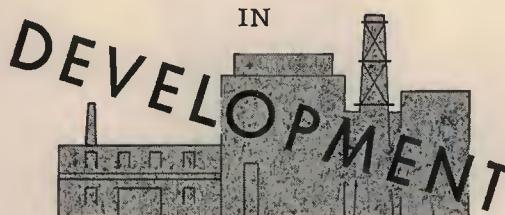


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CULTURAL ANTHROPOLOGY AND THE FOREIGN SERVICE

(Continued from page 42)

Psychological tests show that Americans do better work in a situation that is competitive than in one which is not. Consequently, it is easy for us to assume that competition is one of the universal biological laws of life and that societies that do not have competition will never make any "progress."

In Japan, however, where the fear of failing in the eyes of the world is very strong, the level of achievement decreases in competitive situations and increases when the individual attempts to better his own previous record. Yet it is doubtful whether any nation has shown greater adeptness in acquiring Western science and technology and in making progress in all the material senses in which we usually think of progress.

What many of us never realize is that in our love of competition we frequently lose sight of our main objective in our desire to beat the opposition. This is sometimes recognized in Government departments, for all during the war the Pentagon was plastered with large signs reading, "Remember, we want to beat the Axis, not each other."

Both the assumption of equality and the love of competition are related to the American social system which has been described as one of upward social mobility. Every one has the chance to improve his social status in theory, chiefly by success in economic enterprises.

All of this seems perfectly natural to any American. But how does he interpret events in a society such as India, where the individual's status is determined at birth by the caste into which he is born? This determines what kind of work he will do, whom he will marry, whom he may eat with. There is not only no chance to change his social position, but no desire to do so. What are the tensions under which a people so conditioned suffer?

Another very common American assumption is that authority is a bad thing. Americans resist the imposition of authority, whether by teachers, policemen, bureaucrats or politicians. Americans do not identify with their government, except in times of national emergency. This makes it difficult for us to understand the behavior of peoples who both identify with their governments and accept the authority of those in power. In a country like Siam, the power of the bureaucracy, its decrees and laws, and in an earlier day the power of the King, were accepted by the people as automatically as the features of the landscape and the kind of houses that they lived in. Our journalists, and sometimes our Presidents, have been known to distinguish between peoples and their governments, and our difficulties in international relations are almost always attributed to the governments. In perspective it is a distinction that is useful on the home scene, but has little relevance in most parts of the world.

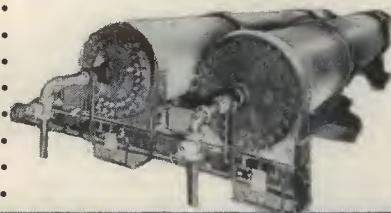
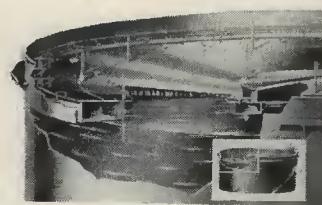
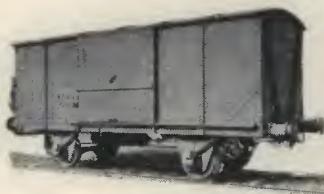
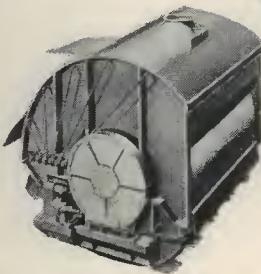
It is true that tremendous changes are taking place all over the world today. But it is also true that every change will be interpreted and reworked from existing culture patterns, and that whatever designs for a more stable and orderly world are devised will have to pass the various tests of social acceptance which have been historically created by the diverse cultures of our contemporary world.

Evidence is already available that the observations and experience of the Foreign Service officer in any given country can be systematically set down and transmitted as a coherent body of knowledge. When this is done regularly and is verified by others, the neophyte will have much more than his native endowment to assist him in the difficult practice of diplomacy.

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NEWS FROM THE FIELD

(Continued from page 25)

lavish official and private functions, which were arranged by the Venezuelan Government as part of the inaugural ceremonies of incoming President Don Rómulo Gallegos, elected in December 1947. Possibly the outstanding event of the inauguration was the formal Inaugural Ball given by the President in the National Congress, which was a brilliant social event attended by several thousand guests. The American Delegation to the inauguration was strengthened by such delegates as Mr. Archibald MacLeish, General Crittentenberger, and Admiral Barbee. The President's Military Aid, General Vaughn, attended as a guest of the Venezuelan Government.

Recent visitors to Caracas include the arrival in June of Major General Willys H. Hale, Commandant of the Air Forces of the Caribbean Area, and in August of Major General Edward H. Brooks, Commanding Officer of the United States Military Defenses of the same region. Likewise, in June, we had the pleasure of meeting many American newspaper editors, as well as Mayor Kaufman of St. Louis and the personal representative of the Mayor of New Orleans, who visited Caracas as guests of the Chicago & Southern Air Lines, which later inaugurated a new air service between Caracas, New Orleans and Houston.

Other visitors from Washington included Sheldon Mills, Doug Heck, Artemus Weatherbee, Miss Eleanor Harvison, and Frank Oram of the Department, the latter being en route to Rio de Janeiro.

During August the staff had the pleasant opportunity to meet Assistant Secretary John Peurifoy and Fred Larkin of FBO, who visited Caracas for a very brief period.

We expect Foreign Service Inspectors Howard K. Travers and James Byington to arrive in Caracas on September 15, and the Special Assistant to the Under Secretary of Commerce, Thomas O'Keefe to come on September 20.

Mr. Robert J. Dorr, the new Consul in charge of the Maracaibo Consulate, paid a brief visit to the Consulate General in Caracas during August.

Since August 1947, of the officers assigned to this Mission at that time, all have, with several exceptions, been transferred (Charley Knox, and Curt Barnes to Tel Aviv, John P. Hoover to Montevideo, Tom Maleady to Buenos Aires, and Bill Krieg to the Department).

Ambassador Donnelly and Mrs. Donnelly accompanied President and Señora de Gallegos to the United States in July when the President was the official guest of our Government.

We regret to report the recent death of Embassy Guard Mr. Robert H. Milby. Mr. Milby died in Curacao where he had been sent on courier work. Mr. Milby, during his two and one-half years with the Embassy, was loved by his colleagues and his loss was one deeply felt by all of us.

THOMAS D. KINGSLEY.

VENICE

September 12, 1948.

It took a little doing, but we finally made it. The American Consulate at Venice was re-opened for business on August 16, 1948. We were the last of the war-closed offices in Italy to resume functioning and are now busily engaged in coping with a good-sized backlog of accumulated demands for services.

Consul Frederic C. Fornes, Jr., with his wife and two children; Vice Consul John C. Hawley, similarly attended; Vice Consul Margaret Ruth Kelley and Clerk Angelina Di Pietro arrived together from Rome on March 22, 1948. Temporary headquarters were established in the Hotel Europa whose

(Continued on page 48)



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NEWS FROM THE FIELD

(Continued from page 46)

staid lobby was enlivened, for the next few months, by large numbers of applicants for jobs and/or visas.

The first item on the agenda was of course the finding of suitable office quarters. This turned out to be difficult. Venice has had its influx of refugees from outlying areas like every other city. Furthermore, we had been preceded to Venice by our British, French and Russian colleagues who had skimmed off the cream of available buildings before our arrival. A factor adding to our difficulties was the nature of Venice—no buildings have been put up for hundreds of years and of course the architects of the Renaissance could not reasonably have been expected to provide for the wants of a twentieth century American Consulate.

Mr. Fornes' exhaustive (and exhausting) efforts to find office quarters were finally rewarded in May. He found a building with a sound floor plan and a cooperative owner (a rare combination). We moved in on July 1—wet paint and fresh plaster all about us—and proceeded to tackle the multifarious task of installing ourselves. August 16, without fanfare but with plenty of callers, we opened.

To the original staff there have been added (I give them in the order of their appearance) Clerk Donald H. Gurney; Vice Consul Steve J. Cebuhar (the Cebuhars' first child, a son, Michael Joseph, was born in Venice on July 11, 1948), and Clerk Faye Grace. Mr. Fornes has hired locally what promises to be a splendid Italian staff of four clerks and two messenger-janitors.

Fortunately, Venice was untouched by the war—one or two bombings and most of the town would have slipped off its piles into the Adriatic. It is as beautiful as ever, surely one of the most attractive posts in the Foreign Service.

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PANAMA

August 16, 1948

Mr. Edward W. Clark, the Embassy's Second Secretary, scored a smashing up-set victory over Mr. John MacMurray, the Amateur and Open Champion of Panama and the Canal Zone, in the 36-hole finals of the 11th annual ESSO Golf Tournament at Panama Golf Club on August 7th and 8th. Mr. Clark, a two handicap precision swinger and captain of the 1939 Princeton University Golf Team, received eight strokes from Mr. MacMurray, who plays with a "plus" two handicap as a result of his victories earlier this year in two outstanding Isthmian golf events.

The winner in a field of 64 participants, Ed Clark scored two one-under-par 71's for a medal score of 142 while MacMurray fired a 76 and a four-under-par course record tying 68 for a total medal count of 144. Ed Clark's score was enough to give him the victory four up with three holes to play. Ed Clark, who performed as if he had never heard of the Amateur and Open Isthmian Champion, was five-up after the first 18 holes and throttled a desperate effort by MacMurray to overtake him after the latter scored a sensational five-under-par 31 on the third 9 holes.

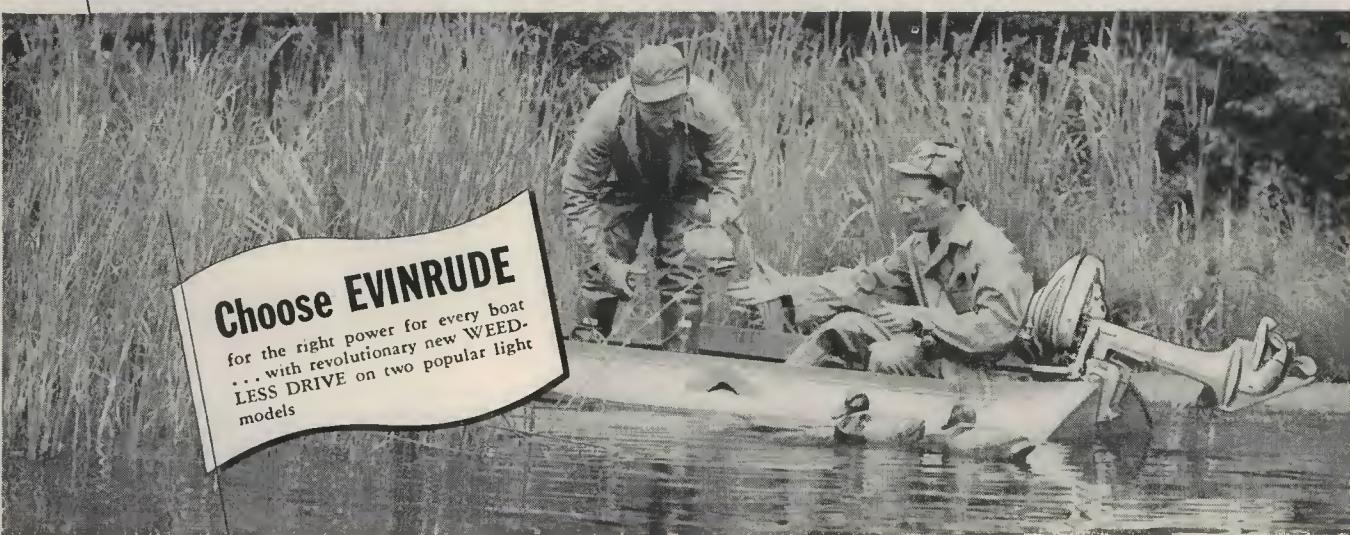
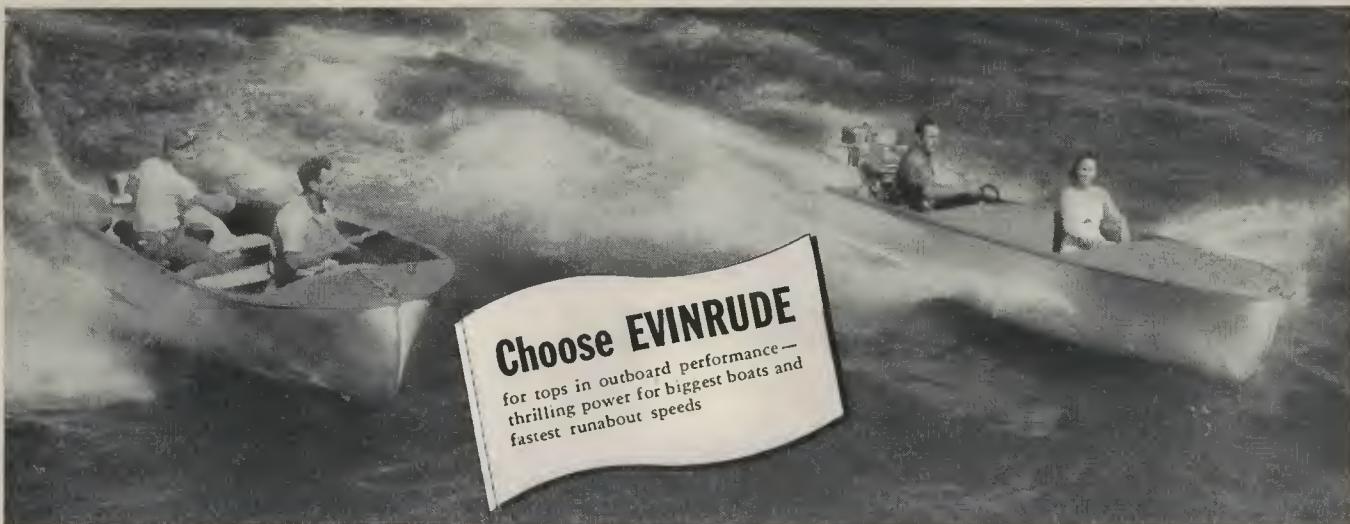
BOGOTA

September 30, 1948.

The arrival of First Secretary Robert Newbegin in September brought the Embassy staff to full strength again after a two-month period without a First Secretary, resulting from the departure in July of Carlos Warner for his new post in Habana. Mr. Newbegin served in the Department before coming to Bogotá.

Agricultural Attaché Ken Wernimont and his wife re-

(Continued on page 50)



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NEWS FROM THE FIELD

(Continued from page 48)

turned after a vacation in the United States, happy to be back once more in Bogotá's cool heights after a blistering summer at home. During his absence Third Secretary John Gossett performed a creditable job as Acting Agricultural Attaché.

Embassy baseball enthusiasts have formed a team and joined the Bogotá Softball League, a four-club circuit that also includes the teams representing American oil companies and the National University. The Embassy's start was not too auspicious. In two pre-season games with Texas Petroleum it tied one and lost the other. It also lost the first game of the regular schedule to the University but redeemed itself against Texas Petroleum by winning 9-4 in the second game. The team includes Ed Crouch, Administrative Officer; Ray O'Mara, Civil Attaché; Second Secretary Dick Rubottoin; Assistant Attaché Bob Harmon; FSO Tom Favell; Joe Brownell, an Embassy guard; Capt. John Ballew; Sgts. Meek, Hardin, De Pauw and Soulliere; Lt. Col. Charlie Pack; and Cultural Relations Attaché Jake Canter. The latter has been one of the stellar lights of the team but his increasing avoirdupois has slowed him up, much to the disappointment of his many fans.

Continuing his plan to get acquainted with the principal cities of Colombia, Ambassador Beaulac, accompanied by Mrs. Beaulac, Air Attaché Ed Richards, and Public Affairs Officer John M. Vebber, recently visited Cali. Three days were spent there looking over factories and agricultural projects, and a round of entertainment in the Ambassador's honor was arranged by Consul Franklin Hawley and members of the American community. The Lion's Club of Cali also was host at a dinner given to the Ambassador.

A new member of the Embassy family is Christine Ann Favell, who was born on September 11th to Mr. and Mrs. Tom Favell. Mr. Favell is an FSO assigned to the Consulate.

Among the lucky ones who had home leave this year and have now returned to Bogotá are Martha Mewhirter and Dorothy Heady. Florence Grob, General Services Officer, is also on leave in the United States and Europe, but is expected back soon.

JOHN M. VEBBER.

SHANGHAI

October 7, 1948.

On October 1, 1948, Mr. John Milton, a 61-year old Chinese staff member, on the occasion of his retirement, was honored by a special ceremony in the office of the Consul General, John M. Cabot. Mr. Milton served in the American Consulate General in Shanghai for more than 38 years, during which time he shared the vicissitudes of the office, including the period of the Japanese occupation of Shanghai. His services covered the tenure of some ten Consuls General.

Mr. Milton first entered the Consulate General on January 2, 1910, and has worked in various phases of the Consulate General's activities. He is recognized as an outstanding expert on Consular title deeds and related land matters. During his service, he became well-known to American residents in Shanghai, including many who have now returned to the United States.

On the occasion of the ceremony in his honor personal affection and appreciation for his valued services were expressed by both American and Chinese personnel of the Consulate General. In a letter to Mr. Milton, Consul General Cabot said:

"It gives me pleasure to congratulate you upon completion of your long and honorable career in the service of

(Continued on page 52)



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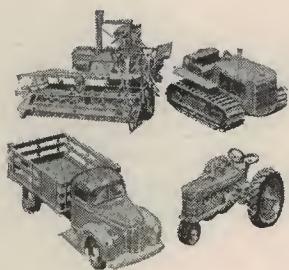
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NEWS FROM THE FIELD

(Continued from page 50)

the United States of America. The entire American staff of the Consulate General joins me in wishing you many years of health and happiness in which to enjoy your well earned retirement."

In addition to Consul General Cabot and Mr. Milton, there were present at the retirement ceremony Consuls Francis H. Styles, Harry L. Smith, and Charles S. Millet; Administrative Assistants Fern Cavender and Lyda Mae Francis; and Chinese staff members Ernest Tung, Ling Shih-fon, Kiang Sing Fu, Tung Yueh and William S. Tsao.

HARRY L. SMITH.

THE BOOKSHELF

(Continued from page 30)

value of the volume would be maintained if during the interim between such periodic editions it were found possible to follow the current practice of publishers of legal works to issue supplements to the existing volume containing the recent changes.

Without in any sense disparaging the usefulness of this collection or of the constitutions which it contains, it may be pointed out that constitutions in and of themselves do not necessarily indicate the legal attitude of a government on any specific subject. This is only another way of stating the obvious fact that constitutions do not contain the whole body of law of any country. To ascertain the actual state of the law recourse must be had to the interpretation which the courts have placed on the constitutional provisions, and also to the statutes, decrees, and administrating regulations.

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"Studies in Genius." By Walter G. Bowerman. *Philosophical Library, New York, New York.* \$4.75.

Mr. Bowerman has produced in his study of the genius, a book rich in facts, figures and ideas. The years of research entailed are evident in the detail employed by the author.

"Studies in Genius" is divided into two parts, the study of the American genius and the study of the world-wide genius. The word genius in this study denotes "high intellectual ability." Mr. Bowerman, by using voluminous statistics, has drawn illuminating conclusions concerning basic characteristics common to persons outstanding intellectually.

The author drew his conclusions concerning the American genius from a compilation of facts from the lives of one thousand eminent Americans. Persons whose fame resulted from notoriety, sheer luck or activities other than intellectual were eliminated. No living persons are included in the study which begins with John Smith and covers the careers of eminent Americans through the 1930's. The author's reason for excluding the living was that one's judgment of contemporaries is "apt to be warped and to lack perspective." Among those included in the study are found Cotton Mather, Horace Greeley, John Trumbull and Washington Irving.

Eleven determining factors were used in the American study. These included: place of origin, occupation, heredity and parentage, education, marriage, duration of life, pigmentation, wars and epidemics, pathology and height and weight.

Many interesting facts were disclosed in this study. New England has nurtured the largest number of American genuises. Over twenty-two percent of the group were statesmen, politicians or diplomats. Many of the chosen one thousand were related to others selected. Wide travel was common to the group. These and many more interesting

deductions were made by Mr. Bowerman in his study.

The study of world-wide genius was made by employing the eleven factors used in the American study. The persons selected were the most eminent in all countries.

The book as a whole is a storehouse of valuable information. The appendices are a rich source of historical data. Mr. Bowerman has produced a book invaluable in many fields of learning.

ALICE ELAINE WALKER.

The United States in World Affairs, 1945-1947. John C. Campbell. *Harper and Bros., New York, for the Council on Foreign Relations, 1947.* 585 pages. \$5

This volume is a work of great magnitude, aided by the research staff of the Council on Foreign Relations, and covers an astounding amount of information. The author strives for objectivity yet does editorialize, which necessarily may not be agreed with. It must be admitted that many aspects of American policy may not be given their just place in world affairs in a single volume which attempts to cover two years just barely passed. Many events have not had time to crystallize, nor can it be seen yet how some aspects of American policy may have influenced world affairs. In the condensation of a crowded two years details that may have far-reaching effects are necessarily omitted in one volume. It is an extremely competent historical recount but such a stupendous work that it takes one's breath away. The author has employed a style of narrative that makes reading pleasant and easy. Nonetheless, this volume makes an excellent reference book on contemporary events, and of exceptional value are the Bibliography and the Chronology of Events.

ELEANOR WEST.

BIRTHS

SNIDER. A son, Clyde William, Jr., was born on July 15, 1948, to FSO and Mrs. Clyde W. Snider in Madrid, where Mr. Snider is Third Secretary and Vice Consul.

CARLSON. A daughter, Susan Elizabeth, was born on August 7, 1948, to FSO and Mrs. Richard W. Carlson in Zagreb, where Mr. Carlson is Vice Consul.

CALDER. A son, Ian Alexander Frank, was born on August 9, 1948, to FSO and Mrs. Donald B. Calder in Washington. Mr. Calder is assigned to the Department but on detail at the Department of Commerce.

ANDERSON. A daughter, Joy Greer, was born on August 26, 1948, to FSO and Mrs. Daniel V. Anderson in Habana where Mr. Anderson is First Secretary and Consul.

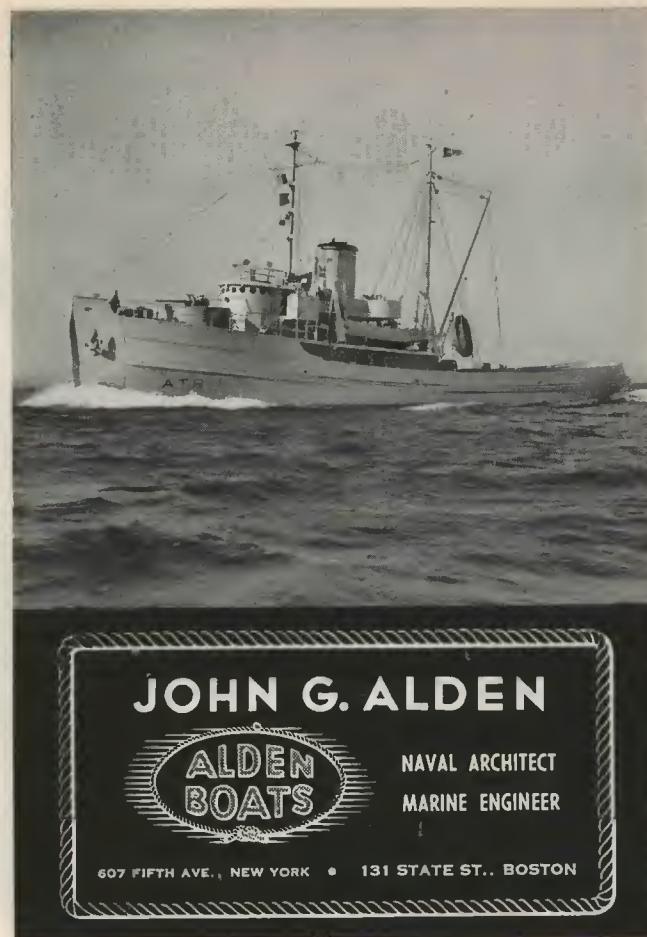
HUGHES. A son, David Evan, was born on September 3, 1948, to FSO and Mrs. Richard M. Hughes in Mexico City, where Mr. Hughes is Third Secretary and Vice Consul.

FOREIGN SERVICE CHANGES

(Continued from page 5)

TITLE	POST TO	POST FROM	NAME
Underhill, Francis T.	Lisbon	Bilbao	Vice Consul
Usenik, Frances A.	Belgrade	Munich	FSS
Wagner, Robert W.	Buenos Aires	Port-au-Prince	Attache (Comm.)
Wahl, Theodore A.	Tsingtao	Chungking	Vice Consul (Asst. PAO)
Wanamaker, Temple	Manila	Cebu	Vice Consul (PAO)
Weldon, W. Bruce	Bucharest	Rome	Admin. Asst.
Widney, George M.	Elizabethville	Manila	2nd Sec. V. C. (PAO)
Williams, Philip P.	Nassau	Managua	Consul
Wilson, David G., Jr.	Department	Pretoria	2nd Sec.-Consul (PAO)
Wilson, Helen B.	Ankara	Department	FSS
Wyman, Parker D.	Berlin	Cairo	3rd Sec.-Vice Con.
Zolini, Henry	Praha	San Jose	FSS

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IN MEMORIAM

PARSONS. Arthur Wellesley Parsons, Acting U. S. Representative on the United Nations Special Committee on the Balkans, died on September 29, 1948 at Athens.

RICHARDSON. FSO John S. Richardson, Jr., Consul at Singapore, died on October 1, 1948 at Bethesda, Maryland.

EDWARDS. Clement S. Edwards, retired Foreign Service Officer, died on October 11, 1948, at Concord, Mass.

STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, AND CIRCULATION REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF CONGRESS OF AUGUST 24, 1912, AS AMENDED BY THE ACTS OF MARCH 3, 1933, AND JULY 2, 1946 (39 U. S. C. 233) OF THE AMERICAN FOREIGN SERVICE JOURNAL published monthly at Washington, D. C. for October 1, 1948.

1. The names and addresses of the publisher, editor, managing editor, and business managers are: Publisher, American Foreign Service Association, Washington, D. C.; Editor, Edmund A. Gallion, c/o Department of State, Washington, D. C.; Managing Editor (Acting), Barbara P. Chalmers, 1809 G St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Business Manager, Frank P. Lockhart, 1809 G St., N. W., Washington, D. C.

2. The owner is: (If owned by a corporation, its name and address must be stated and also immediately thereunder the names and addresses of stockholders owning or holding 1 percent or more of total amount of stock. If not owned by a corporation, the names and addresses of the individual owners must be given. If owned by a partnership or other unincorporated firm, its name and address, as well as those of each individual member, must be given.) American Foreign Service Association, c/o Department of State, Washington, D. C. Chairman of Executive Committee, Hervé J. L'Heureux, Department of State, Washington, D. C.

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5. The average number of copies of each issue of this publication sold or distributed, through the mails or otherwise, to paid subscribers during the 12 months preceding the date shown above was: (This information is required from daily, weekly, semiweekly, and triweekly newspapers only.)

FRANK P. LOCKHART, *Business manager.*

Sworn to and subscribed before me this 23 day of September, 1948.

[SEAL] MARVIN W. WILL

(My commission expires 12/14/48)

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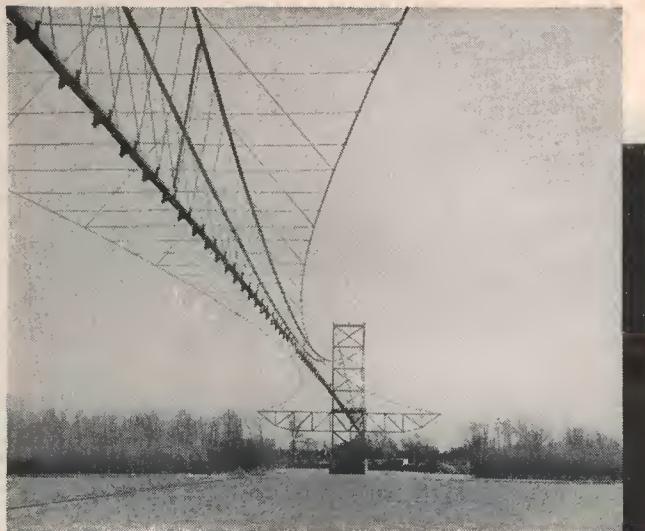
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WORK SIMPLIFICATION IN THE FOREIGN SERVICE

(Continued from page 26)

The Work Count is a record, for any convenient unit of time, of the number of actions performed. It is a useful tool in planning the reassignment of activities to employees, in identifying areas of wasted manpower, in justifying additional personnel needs and in scheduling work to eliminate or minimize peak loads.

The Layout Chart is a device used to measure the efficiency of the physical organization of the office. Through study of the layout with respect to the flow of work as described in the process chart it is quite often possible, with simple rearrangement of existing facilities, to eliminate many unnecessary steps, bring closer together employees whose work requires them to have frequent contact with each other; to facilitate supervision; provide better service to the public and improve the security conditions of the office.

These do not represent the possible total of the component parts of a Work Simplification program. Any method, technique or procedure which results in a better or easier way of doing work belongs in the family. But, of the procedures found most successful in many years of use in private industry and in governmental operations, these have been outstanding in producing results and seem to have the greatest practical application to Foreign Service operations.

The handbook is not a collection of esoteric formulae or cabalistic equations. It contains nothing more abstruse than four common symbols which are used to identify the basic elements of every operation or action. In fact, its users should find in it nothing more than a formal and systematic organization of the methods by which they have previously laid out and handled the jobs for which they are responsible.

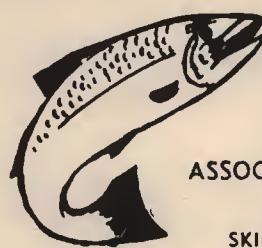
The Foreign Service serial covering the issuance of the handbook stresses the necessity for support of the program on the part of the principal officer. It should be directed at a fairly high level by some officer designated by the principal officer. But, for maximum effectiveness, it will be necessary for each first line supervisor and, finally, for each employee in charge of an operation, to undertake a review of the work under his control to determine what contribution work simplification can make to its improvement.

The Department will share a part of its returns with the officers or employees who succeed in demonstrating savings in personnel or simplification of procedures as a result of such duties. The Employee Suggestion System challenges the staff to originate ideas which result in increased effectiveness of operations and grants cash awards, meritorious pay increases and other marks of commendation for successful contributions. The easiest, quickest and most effective way of devising short cuts is through the application of proved and standardized Work Simplification techniques.



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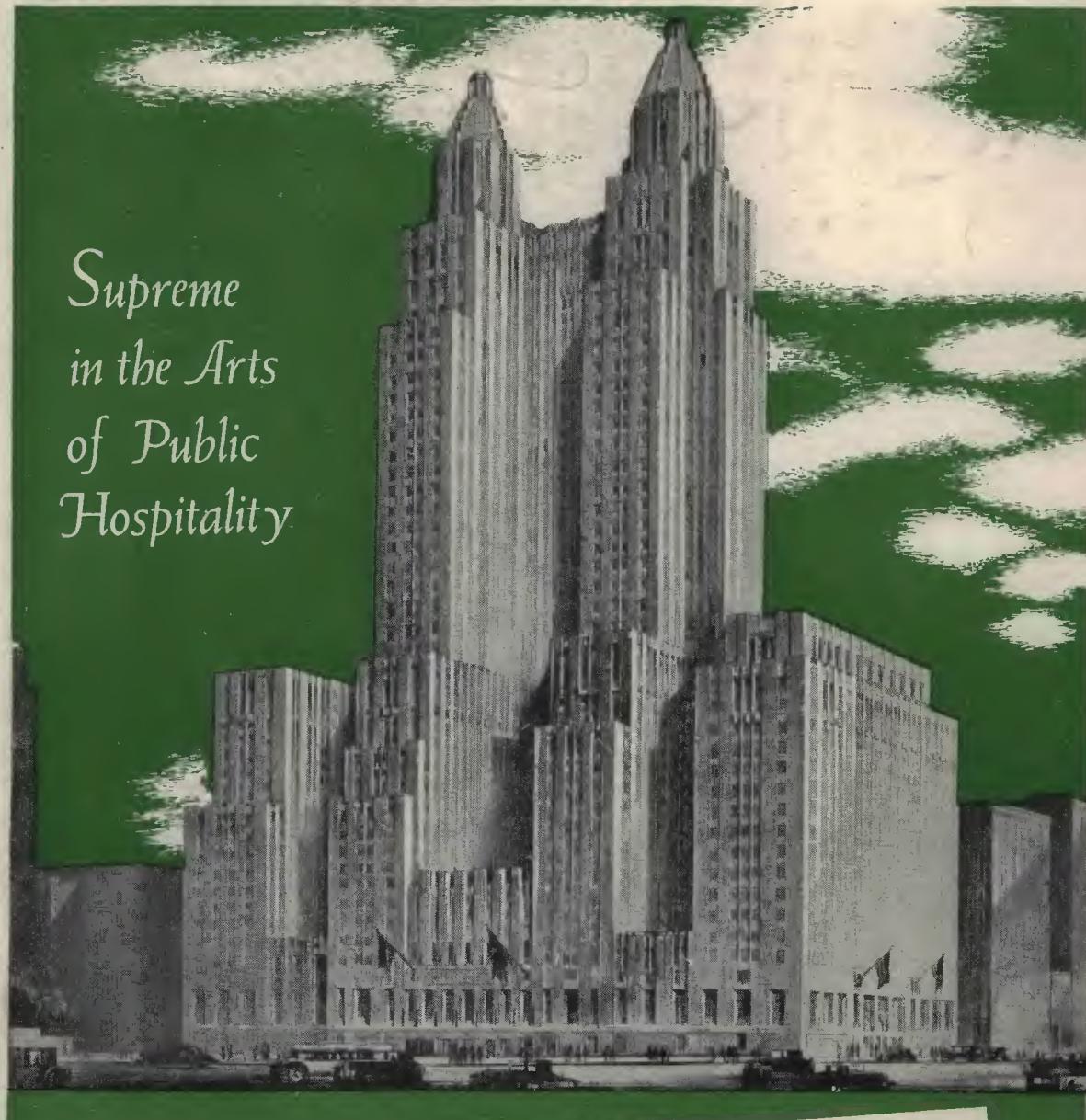
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