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BI-NATIONAL CULTURAL CENTERS IN LATIN AMERICA:
A PHASE OF INTERNATIONAL CULTURAL RELATIONS

by

ELAINE N. FLINT

B. A., College of Saint Scholastica, 1939

Presented in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Arts

MONTANA STATE UNIVERSITY

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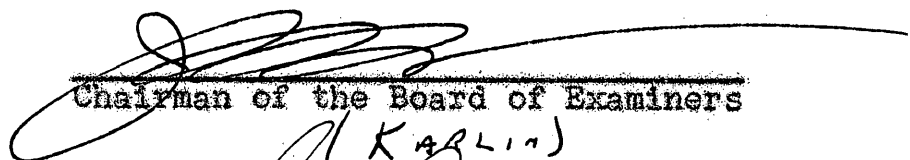
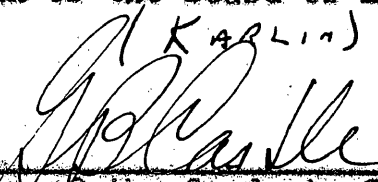
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Date MAY 19, 1954

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NOTE

This writer taught English in the Instituto Guatemalteco-Americano from September, 1947, to February, 1949, being locally hired. From July, 1949, to February, 1951, she was the librarian of the Instituto Cultural Peruano-Norteamericano, in Lima, appointed by the State Department; from February, 1951, to July, 1953, she served in the same capacity in the Centro Ecuatoriano-Norteamericano in Quito. Some of the anecdotes and a part of the information are the results of personal experiences, or of conversations with other grantees, students, members, and personnel of the centers. Material was also obtained from questionnaires sent to the institutes by the writer. (For a copy of the questionnaire, see appendix no. 1).

BI-NATIONAL CULTURAL CENTERS IN LATIN AMERICA
A PHASE OF INTERNATIONAL CULTURAL RELATIONS

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

The economic and military leadership which the United States has attained during the twentieth century has resulted in increased activity in the field of international cultural relations. Two world conflicts within twenty-five years have established the falsity of the theory that genuine national security depends solely on power politics. A new basis of international cooperation, embracing mutual understanding and respect, has been recognized and is labeled "international cultural relations."

Although widely used, this term is often misunderstood. To many people culture embodies only music and art. In their book entitled The Cultural Approach, Ruth E. McMurry and Muna Lee, however, have defined cultural relations as the efforts towards mutual understanding through mutual acquaintance. They further explain that any program of cultural relations abroad is the communication to foreigners of the national culture, e.g., the total national achievement

and ways of thinking.¹ An understanding of the people of a nation as human beings, who have common aspirations and problems like ourselves, is essential for a clear knowledge of the culture of a country, according to John E. Merkel, Jr., author of the United Nations guest instructors plan. He continues that it also means an understanding of their traditions and achievements in art, music, drama, literature, crafts, and industry.²

More difficult to attain than satisfactory economic and military relations, genuine cultural understanding is indispensable if inter-American relations are to be soundly established, and not precariously based on an immediate need.³ In accordance with the best interpretation of the phrase, cultural relations should be utilized by nations to build free and friendly ties between peoples to promote better understanding and mutual respect. These are the foundations for good-will, which is an acknowledged asset in all relationships, individual or collective, whether

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1. Ruth E. McMurry and Muna Lee, The Cultural Approach (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1947), p. 1.
 2. U. S. Congress. House of Representatives. United States Informational and Educational Act of 1947. Hearings before the Special Subcommittee of the Committee on Foreign Affairs, U. S. House, 80th Congress, 1st Session, on House Bill 3342, May 13, 14, 16, 17, 20, 1947 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1947), p. 238.
 3. Lewis Hanke, "Is Cooperation with Latin American Libraries Possible?" American Library Association Bulletin, 35 (December, 1941), p. 668.

economic, political, or cultural.⁴ Furthermore, if democratic support of a foreign policy is desired, the essential element of developing understanding between peoples must be practiced.⁵

The increasing use of cultural programs as an arm of foreign policy cannot be ignored. These activities, moreover, are intensified in periods of national crisis.⁶ Simultaneously with its attack on Pearl Harbor, Japan was promoting a cultural agreement with Brazil. Similarly China has continually supported the Chinese-American cultural agencies even when subjected to territorial invasion.⁷ These examples demonstrate the importance attached to international cultural relations by governments of the world in peace and in war.

On the other hand, Nicholas John Spykman, late professor of international relations at Yale University, questions the value of cultural relations as an instrument in foreign policy. He contends that there are two basic

4. McMurry and Lee, op. cit., p. 8.

5. Charles A. Thomson, "The Cultural Basis of Inter-American Solidarity" in Cultural Bases of Hemispheric Understanding (Austin: Institute of Latin-American Studies, The University of Texas, 1942), p. 9.

6. McMurry and Lee, op. cit., p. 8.

7. Charles A. Thomson, "The Role of Cultural Exchange in Wartime" in Cultural Relations Among the Democracies. U. S. Department of State. Inter-American Series, no. 22 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942), p. 6.

fallacies inherent in a program of cultural rapprochement for the development of political cooperation--one, psychological, the other, political. "The assumption that people who are fundamentally different will necessarily begin to like each other as they become better acquainted is erroneous and disproved in everyday life . . . The second great fallacy . . . is the naive idea, that in a world of power politics, states cooperate because their populations admire each other . . ." He further contends that geographical factors and balance of power, not emotion, are responsible for the making of alliances and, that if a sympathetic attitude exists towards an ally, it is not the cause of political cooperation but usually the effect.⁸

Whether a better understanding and a keener appreciation of peoples and cultures actually affects foreign policy cannot definitely be determined. However, there are other aspects to be considered in its evaluation. Cultural relations may be appraised by their contributions. According to Dr. Charles A. Thomson, Chief of the Division of Cultural Relations of the State Department from 1940 to 1944, these are: one, providing our people with a realistic appreciation and understanding of other peoples, thus establishing a more concrete democratic basis for our foreign

8. Nicholas John Spykman, America's Strategy in World Politics (New York: Harcourt, Brace, [c. 1942]), pp. 255-256.

policy; two, developing in other peoples a more accurate conception of us; and three, encouraging the habit of planning and working together.⁹

If doubts still exist concerning the merits of this program, there is sufficient justification for cultural and intellectual cooperation in that it constitutes an end in itself. A greater knowledge and deeper appreciation of other peoples' achievements and cultures necessarily enrich our own, and the converse is just as true. Technological advances and administrative skills may be exchanged for progressive theories in social legislation, or the enjoyment of foreign music or art. This cross-fertilization of ideas has been the whole history of the progress of civilization.¹⁰

The totalitarian countries have used cultural relations for political ends, however.¹¹ This may be illustrated by Germany's activities in various Latin American countries prior to 1941, when Nazi hirelings publicly exhibited their

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9. Charles A. Thomson, "The Cultural Basis of Inter-American Solidarity," op. cit., p. 10.
10. I. L. Kandel, United States Activities in International Cultural Relations (Washington: American Council on Education, 1945), p. 102.
11. Harold E. Snyder, When Peoples Speak to Peoples: An Action Guide to International Cultural Relations for American Organizations, Institutions, and Individuals (Washington: American Council on Education, [c. 1943]), p. 24.

plans to seize control through movements such as the Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Hitler Youth, etc.¹² Also, between 1933 and 1945 a total of approximately one million books, treatises, pamphlets, and other publications, exclusive of newspapers and periodicals, were printed in Germany, clearly indicating the cultural ambitions of the Nazis.¹³ At the present time, Russia is conducting an all-out cultural campaign in India and China with special emphasis on art exhibits and motion pictures. "Front" organizations, such as the All-India Peace Council, The India-China Friendship Association, and All-India Friends of the Soviet Union, have also proved effective. In 1951 an unofficial Indian cultural mission toured Communist China for six weeks, and a similar mission of Chinese Communists visited India. The purpose of this interchange was to strengthen the cultural bonds between the two countries, and to present Soviet achievements in China in glowing terms to the Indians.¹⁴

All countries have been prompted by realistic motives in their international relations. The United States has been no exception, as demonstrated by a review of its activities

12. S. S., "Nazis Soft Pedal in Latin America," Living Age, 360 (April, 1941), pp. 139-141.

13. Joachim Joesten, Germany: What Now? (Chicago: Ziff Davis Publishing Company, [c. 1948]), p. 299.

14. Howland H. Sargent, "How Can We Defend Free Culture?" Department of State Bulletin, 26 (April 7, 1952), p. 536.

in Central and South America. Since the first quarter of the nineteenth century, political and intellectual leaders have expressed their fear, distrust, and jealousy of the Yankees. This opposition to the United States increased in intensity from the eighteen-fifties through the nineteen-twenties. Such well-known authors as Rubén Darío of Nicaragua, José Santos Chocano and Francisco García Calderón of Perú, José Enrique Rodó of Uruguay, and many others have shown apprehension and concern regarding our actions.¹⁵

This outburst of criticism is undoubtedly justifiable. One need only recall such incidents as the annexation of Texas, the Mexican War, the filibustering expeditions into Mexico, Cuba, and Central America, Theodore Roosevelt's action towards Panama and his policy of the Big Stick, Dollar Diplomacy, and so on, all of which have alarmed our neighbors to the south.¹⁶ To the average Latin American the Monroe Doctrine has meant United States intervention,¹⁷ because our policy of territorial expansion and political leadership in the Western Hemisphere coincided with the

15. J. Fred Rippy, "Literary Yankeeophobia in Hispanic America," The Journal of International Relations, 12 (January, 1922), pp. 352-353.

The Latin American authors cited above are of the first magnitude and are the least apprehensive and hostile to the United States as shown in their writings. This feeling seems to be their general attitude and does not stem from specific incidents.

16. Samuel Flagg Bemis, The Latin American Policy of the United States (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, [c. 1943]), pp. 262-263

17. Stephen Pierce Hayden Duggan, Latin America (Boston: World Peace Foundation, 1936), p. 52.

promulgation of this manifesto.¹⁸ It was not until after the withdrawal of Marines from Nicaragua, Hoover's good-will tour of Latin America, Roosevelt's adoption and expansion of the "Good Neighbor" policy, that the transformation of the doctrine was begun--changing it from an exclusive instrument employed by the United States into a Pan-American policy of security.¹⁹

The idea of cultural rapprochement with Latin American countries is relatively new for the United States Government.²⁰ Other nations realized the value of this policy in the latter half of the nineteenth century. Pan-Latinism, which has been sponsored by France since the French Revolution, spread French philosophical ideas, political principles, literature, civilization and culture to the Latin countries. In the eighteenth-seventies, France was the first of the modern nations to initiate the policy of cultural exchanges,²¹ and this effort undoubtedly contributed to the general belief that the study of the French language was in itself a study of culture. Early activity in this field was financed in part by the French

18. Diez de Medina, Raúl, (pseud. Nerval, Gaston), Autopsy of the Monroe Doctrine: The Strange Story of Inter-American Relations (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1934) p. 184.

19. Bemis, op. cit., pp. 259, 288.

20. Paul E. Hadley, "United States Cultural Institutes in the Other American Republics," Publishers' Weekly, 147 (April 14, 1945), p. 1552.

21. William Benton, A New Instrument of U. S. Foreign Policy. U. S. Department of State Publication no. 2700 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1946), p. 14.

government through the French Catholic teaching missionaries in the Near and Far East. Intellectual expansion in Europe and Latin America was not provided for until 1906, and then it was begun principally to counteract German propaganda. This program was steadily increased, and by 1936 France boasted of a strong network of educational institutions abroad, several hundred professors on exchange, and organized French courses in most large cities. The Alliance française, a private society which receives governmental aid and recognition, is particularly active in promoting the teaching of the French language abroad, and has establishments in many parts of the world, embracing the Latin American countries. The activities of this organization include the sponsoring of French classes, lectures and schools. Emphasis in this field has been continued to the present day.²²

German was also widely studied in Latin America,²³ and prior to World War II many German schools and clubs existed in this area. Like France, Germany began the establishment of schools in foreign lands in the late eighteen-seventies, spreading Germanism and later National Socialism throughout the world. This activity went underground with Germany's defeat in 1945, and in Latin America these centers and

22. For detailed information see McMurry and Lee, op. cit., pp. 9-38.

23. Lawrence Smith, "Dollar Deficiency Threatens Translation Market," Publishers' Weekly, 160 (October 20, 1951), p. 1626.

and schools were closed.²⁴

During the last two decades Russia, through V O K S, participated in cultural relations. Emphasis has been placed on literature, art, music, the theater, and the movies, although the exchange of scientific developments was also considered significant. This program has been accomplished by exchange of persons, translations, information bulletins, and radio broadcasts. Towards the end of World War II Russia intensified her cultural relation operations in Latin America. Soviet cultural institutes have been established in many countries, the most active being found in Mexico, Cuba, Chile, Colombia, and Venezuela.²⁵

On the other hand, Great Britain and the United States have lagged behind. The British Council was not set up until 1935 to disseminate information about British thought and way of life.²⁶ This objective is achieved through cultural societies, the maintenance of professorships and lectureships at foreign universities, radio broadcasts, distribution of books, periodicals, and films, and the teaching of English.²⁷

The Department of State of the United States was preceded in the field of cultural relations by other departments of the federal government. The Department of Agriculture had already conducted a considerable program in ex-

24. Consult McMurry and Lee, op. cit., pp. 39-47

25. Ibid., pp. 110-136.

26. Benton, op. cit., p. 14.

27. McMurry and Lee, op. cit., pp. 137-181.

changes of persons and information under the Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations.²⁸ Experiment stations had been established in several countries for the development of products complementary to our agriculture. The Office of Education had assigned English-language teaching experts to other governments. Specialists from its Children's Bureau, Women's Bureau, and Division of Labor Standards had been loaned by the Department of Labor. To aid other governments of Latin America in establishing fifteen tidal investigative stations and three radiosonde observation stations, equipment had been sent by the Department of Commerce.²⁹ The Library of Congress and the Smithsonian Institution had also participated in cultural exchange with the Western Hemisphere.³⁰

The urgent need for a different approach was finally recognized, and since 1928 the policy of rapprochement with the other American Republics has been pursued by the State Department. The recalling of the Marines from Haiti, the abrogation of the Platt Amendment, the Trade Agreements Act of 1934, and the signing of treaties pledging non-interference of the United States in internal or external affairs of the Latin American countries, together with the outstanding diplomacy of Sumner Welles and Cordell Hull, effected a change in the Latin American attitude. Considerable friend-

28. Snyder, op. cit., p. 29.

29. U. S. Department of State. The Cultural Cooperation Program, 1938-1943. Publication no. 2137 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1944), p. 3. (Hereafter cited as The Cultural-Cooperation Program, 1938-1943).

30. Snyder, op. cit., p. 29.

ship and confidence replaced suspicion and hostility.³¹

The first concrete joint expression of cultural exchanges was found in the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace, held in Buenos Aires in December, 1936. Among other things this conference provided annually for an award by each contracting government of two fellowships to graduate students and teachers from each of the other republics.³²

On July 27, 1938, the Division of Cultural Relations was established, not as a substitute for private activity but rather to supplement and help the projects of unofficial agencies. It has worked with many organizations in the foreign field, notably the American Library Association, the American Council of Learned Societies, and the Institute of International Education.³³ The fundamental purpose of this division is "to make friends for the United States abroad through the development of a greater understanding and appreciation of the best contributions which this country may exchange with

31. Ben H. Cherrington, "The Role of Education in International Cultural Relations" in Inter American Cultural Relations, U. S. Department of State, Inter-American Series, no. 17 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1939), p. 5.

32. U. S. Department of State. Report of the Delegation of the United States of America to the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace, Buenos Aires, Argentina, Dec. 1-23, 1936 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1937), p. 34.

33. Benton, op. cit., p. 14.

other nations."³⁴ It was also maintained "that international cultural activities should originate in the educational and cultural centers of our country; initiative and control properly reside there, not with the Government. The latter's function rather is to stimulate, coordinate, and facilitate a movement arising directly out of the cultural life of our people."³⁵ It was the Division of Cultural Relations which later assisted the United States bi-national cultural institutes in Latin America.³⁶

The year 1938, also, saw the establishment of many international organizations devoted to strengthening cultural ties between Latin American countries. In Habana, Cuba, at the celebration of American Culture Day (October 13) it was announced that twenty cultural institutes were to be established there, each to function in relation to another American republic. To reciprocate the Argentine-Cuban cultural center was founded in Buenos Aires on the same date. At least twenty others originated before the end of that year. Chile has been very active in this field and has created the Chilean Committee on Intellectual Cooperation, to supervise the establishment of institutes for the promotion of closer

34. U. S. Department of State. The program of the Department of State in Cultural Relations, Inter American Series, no. 18 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1940), p. 1.

35. Ibid., p. 8.

36. For a chart of the organization of the Department of State, see appendix no 2.

cultural relations. Activities have included musicals, lectures, expositions, radio programs, and the entertaining of writers, university professors, and other visiting intellectuals.³⁷

Years before the establishment of the Division of Cultural Relations, the first United States bi-national cultural institute was founded. The conception of the idea originated in Buenos Aires as a result of a suggestion made to the Rotary Club by its president, Dr. Cupertino del Campos, a gifted poet, painter, and writer. In 1927 a group of Argentine leaders and intellectuals including Dr. Del Campos and Dr. Enrique Gil met with American businessmen and professionals residing in Buenos Aires to form the Instituto Cultural Argentino-Norteamericano.³⁸ The majority of the Argentines in this group had either studied in the United States, or had traveled extensively there, and wanted to better the cultural relations between the two nations. The declared purpose of this organization was to promote better understanding and closer cooperation between Argentina and the United States. The means to accomplish this objective included lectures, meetings, English classes taught by volunteers, and the organization of a small library.³⁹

37. Francisco J. Hernandez, "Bilateral Institutes of Cultural Relations," Pan American Union Bulletin, 73 (July, 1939), pp. 413-417.

38. Elsie Brown, "A Center of Argentine-American Friendship," Ibid., 73 (January, 1939), p. 28.

39. Leonard Ross Klein, "Making Friends With Our Neighbors," Ibid., 81 (September, 1947), p. 468.

This institute was formally inaugurated on May 9, 1928, and experienced a rapid growth. By 1942 there were 3,000 students attending English classes.⁴⁰ Five years later the enrollment had increased to 4,000, which required sixty teachers and an administrative staff of twenty persons. Furthermore, the library boasted 5,000 volumes, and the Instituto owned its own building in downtown Buenos Aires.⁴¹

In 1931 a similar center was opened in Córdoba, Argentina, and in 1937 the União Cultural Brazil-Estados Unidos was formed in Rio de Janeiro.⁴² Before World War II there were a total of eight centers operating in Latin America. The entrance of our sister republics into the war accelerated the establishment of new centers.⁴³

40. "Cultural Institutes in the other American Republics," Department of State Bulletin, 6 (March 2, 1942), pp. 246-247.

41. Klein, op. cit., p. 468.

42. The Cultural Cooperation Program, 1938-1943, p. 67.

The date of foundation of the Center in Rio de Janeiro is given as 1935 in Cooperation in the Americas: Report of the Inter-departmental Committee on Scientific and Cultural Cooperation July, 1946 - June, 1947. U. S. Department of State Publication no 2971 (Washington: The Department, 1947), p. 75.

43. Dorothy E. Greene and Sherly Goodman Eswan, Cultural Centers in the Other American Republics, U. S. Department of State Publication no. 2503 (Washington: Government Printing Office, [1946]), p. 3.

What were the reasons for the establishment of the cultural centers? In the last ten years an understanding of English has come to be considered by the Latin Americans as essential to a good education, and English is now the foremost foreign language in many schools of the southern hemisphere⁴⁴ replacing French.

Some of the factors contributing to this change of attitude are: the isolation of Europe during 1939-45, and the resultant decline of French culture and influence in this area; the entry of the other American Republics into World War II as our allies, with the subsequent stationing of American military and naval personnel at South and Central American bases; the rising respect and prestige which the United States enjoys in cultural and intellectual pursuits, as well as its acknowledged supremacy in the fields of science and technology; the increased distribution of American magazines, books, and films; the close cooperation encouraged by the "Good Neighbor" policy and continued to the present day, and the increase in commerce between the United States and the Latin American countries. Therefore, a knowledge of English and the American way of living and thinking have become both a commercial and cultural necessity.⁴⁵ In the fulfilling of this need the cultural center program has become a dynamic force.

44. Smith, op. cit., p. 1626; The Cultural-Cooperation Program, 1938-1943, p. 52.

45. Klein, op. cit., p. 467.

CHAPTER II

GENERAL GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

In 1951 there were thirty bi-national cultural centers operating in Latin America.¹ The official names vary; some are known as centros, others as institutos, and in Brazil, união and associação are used. These are autonomous organizations responding to local demands, which consequently cause wide variations from center to center. Nevertheless, some fundamental similarities are apparent.

One characteristic common to all is their regional, or local nature; that is, actual operations are confined within the political boundaries of the host country. In the majority of the republics only one such institution exists, which is located in the capital, e.g., Instituto Cultural Dominicano-Americano in Ciudad Trujillo, Centro Cultural Paraguayo-Americano in Asunción, and Centro Cultural Costarricense-Norteamericano in San José.² Argentina, Brazil, Chile, and Colombia all have more than one cultural organization, albeit in different cities, each entirely in-

1. U. S. Department of State. Waging the Truth Campaign, Eighth Semi-annual Report of the Secretary of State to Congress on the International Information and Educational Exchange Program, July 1 to December 31, 1951. Publication no. 4575 (Washington: The Department, 1952), p. 27. (Hereafter cited as Waging the Truth Campaign).

2. For a complete list of centers see appendix no. 3.

dependent. An established and recognized center can, moreover, assume responsibility for a branch. This used to be the situation in Mexico. Before the newly-formed institute in Guadalajara was supplied with a North American director, Mexico City sent its own director of courses there on temporary assignment to aid in its English classes and other activities.³ In other countries there is only one organization which is officially assisted by the Department of State, although others may be in existence. Centers in Ecuador, for instance, are located at Quito, Ambato, Cuenca, Quayaquil, and Riobamba. The first mentioned has support from the United States government, while the other four receive assistance sporadically and indirectly, usually in the form of book packets distributed with funds from the United States Information and Education program. Whether a center belongs to any one of these three general types does not alter the "local" aspect of these organizations, which are incorporated under the laws of the host government.

The cultural institute program is likewise distinguished by its spontaneous nature. Though founded in various ways under different auspices, the centers were usually self-generated by a group of nationals and resident North Americans who frequently approached the cultural relations attaché to

3. U. S. Advisory Commission on Educational Exchange. Two Way Street, International Educational and Technical Exchange in Fiscal Year--1950, Report of the United States Advisory Commission on Educational Exchange, July 1, 1949 to June 30, 1950. U. S. Department of State Publication no. 3893 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1950), pp. 42-43. (Hereafter cited as Two Way Street).

ask for advice, recognition, and financial aid. In Lima a group of Peruvian civic leaders, who were interested in changing the "Good Neighbor" policy from an idea to planned action, suggested to some prominent North American businessmen residing there that they establish a meeting place where the Peruvian man-in-the-street could learn about the United States, and the "gringo" could learn about Perú. After several informal meetings in private homes to discuss the project, the organizational meeting was scheduled for an evening in June, 1938. Those present included the United States Ambassador and the Foreign Minister of Perú, as well as outstanding educators and businessmen. The meeting was a success, and six months later the Instituto Cultural Peruano-Norteamericano greeted the delegates from the United States and Canada who were in Lima for the Eighth Pan-American Conference.⁴

Another outstanding characteristic of this movement is its truly cooperative, or bi-national, nature in respect to administration, activities, and finance. It is a joint undertaking between the host country and the United States, founded on the theory that the United States can learn as well as teach in its relations with other countries.⁵

4. Bart McDowell, "Lima Learns English: About a Good Neighbor Center in Perú that Mutually Acquaints Two Peoples," Rotarian, 26 (February, 1950), pp. 32-33.

5. Kandel, op. cit., p. 90.

Center administration reflects the principle of joint operation. The governing body is the board of directors, which is composed of both nationals and North Americans who are sometimes appointed by the outgoing board, although more frequently elected by the members of this society. Payment of a nominal fee is usually the only requisite for institute membership, which entitles the person to participate in activities, to vote in elections, and to receive library privileges. In most cases the president of the board is a national, while the director, or executive secretary, of the institution is generally a North American, who serves as an employee of the board.⁶ The executive secretary and staff members recruited in the United States are recipients of grants awarded by the State Department. This personnel, commonly referred to as grantees, is selected by Washington on the basis of specific qualifications, among which are a broad educational background including the appreciation of foreign and domestic cultures, a suitable personality, a sincere conviction and belief in the program, and designated foreign language requirements. Before the grantees are sent to the respective centers, an orientation course is given in Washington. This consists of intensive work in linguistics and cultural anthropology; and new methods and

6. Edmund R. Murphy, "Cooperation with Cultural Centers in Other American Republics," Department of State Bulletin, 17 (October 26, 1947), p. 804.

techniques in teaching English are observed.⁷ Occasionally grantees have been enrolled at a university for the purpose of observing the teaching of English to foreigners. Such was the case in July, 1951, when the group was enrolled at Columbia University for one week.

Other phases which demonstrate the bi-national character of center development are: the program of activities, academic, cultural, or social, wherein the contributions of both countries are represented; and the financial aspect, in that the centers are largely self-supporting in local expenses, with the State Department providing administrative personnel, supplying books and materials, and occasionally monetary aid. Finally, these non-political, non-religious, and non-profit institutes have been established for the same basic reason: to promote a better understanding and closer cooperation by increasing the ties of friendship between the United States and the other American Republics.

To achieve this goal, it has been necessary to employ several devices, which can be roughly classified into four general categories: the teaching of English program; library activities; informational, cultural, and educational offerings; and cooperation and assistance in the projects of the United States informational and educational exchange program.⁸ In fact, the centers have been described as being

7. U. S. Department of State. Division of Cultural Cooperation. The Record, 7 (May - June, 1951), p. 21. (Hereafter cited as The Record).

8. Two Way Street, p. 7.

a combination of school, library, club, and auditorium.⁹

Probably the most important phase of this program is the teaching of English. The reasons for this are that the value of the activities sponsored by the centers increases proportionately with a greater understanding of English, and the percentage of self-support and financial independence rests almost exclusively on the fees charged for these classes.

The administration of the language teaching program is the responsibility of the director of courses, who is assigned to the center by the State Department. However, often there is only one grantee at a center, the director, who is then responsible for the development of all phases of the program. Depending on the size of the center, additional grantees, generally serving as English teachers, may be supplied. Decisions and policies formulated by the director of courses must be approved by the administrator and sanctioned by the board. The duties of the academic personnel include the selection of textbooks, the determination of courses to be offered, the employment of locally-hired teachers, the careful supervision of classes, the enrollment of students, the administration of examinations --in short, everything connected directly with any phase of teaching.

9. Dixon Weeter, "The Historian as Cultural Agent", Pacific Spectator, 41 (Spring, 1950), p. 167.

The direct approach, which employs the least possible reference to the native language of the students and which opposes the traditional grammar-translation method, is generally in vogue. The textbooks are designed primarily for the teaching of English as a foreign language. Two of the more common titles at the beginning level are Robert J. Dixon's Beginning Lessons in English for the Foreign Born and Charles Carpenter Fries' Present-day American English. The intermediate and advanced levels include such titles as Audrey Wright's Practice Your English and James McGillivray's Life With the Taylors. The basic course of study, which places heavy emphasis on conversation and oral work, varies from two to six years. Upon its successful completion certificates or diplomas are sometimes issued, which serve as tangible records of achievement. In some cities these certificates prove valuable in obtaining a better position or more salary. Subject courses are offered for the advanced student and vary with the interests and desires of the clientele. United States history, American literature, English conversation, shorthand, business English, music and art are topics frequently requested.

In many centers certain groups, such as doctors, nurses, lawyers, and university students, have asked for and received instruction designed according to their specific needs. In Lima, Quito, and Medellín classes have been conducted for doctors and nurses, in which proficiency in medical terminology was stressed. In 1953 the Centro

Ecuatoriano-Norteamericano offered an advanced course in English conversation restricted to women, among whom were wives or daughters of five different foreign diplomats as well as society matrons of Quito and two university students. Their primary interests in perfecting their English were reflected in the topics discussed: buying a wardrobe in New York City, typical North American recipes, interior decoration, shows on Broadway, and American Slang. In the Haitian center a class was organized especially for members of the taxi drivers' union and was successfully continued over a period of two years.¹⁰ In Porto Alegre, Brazil, a six months course in window decorating was given to which fifteen business houses sent their directors.¹¹ Art classes, specializing in water-colors and drawing, as well as guitar classes, are conducted in the Mexico City Institute.¹² These illustrations may be multiplied many times. Suffice it to say that the centers are always willing to cooperate in every way possible to satisfy student tastes and interests.

Classes in the native language (Spanish, Portuguese, or French) are given for Americans and other foreigners residing in the country. National teachers, staunch supporters of the United States, are selected to teach these courses.

10. The Record, 5 (July-August, 1949), p. 32.

11. U. S. Department of State. Newsnotes, activities of bi-national centers (July - September, 1951), p. 5. (Hereafter cited as Newsnotes.)

12. Instituto Mexicano-Norteamericano de Relaciones Culturales. Program (July, 1953), p. 4.

Regular classes in these institutes are scheduled on the average of two or three hours weekly while the intensified English courses are sometimes given five times a week. In Lima, São Paulo, and Santiago, where large student bodies are enrolled in courses in many fields, the resemblance to a college is striking. Although some classes are held in the morning and early afternoon hours, the burden of teaching comes after five o'clock to accommodate government and private employees and technical and university students. The fees for the classes are commensurate with the prevailing salaries of clerks and skilled workers,¹³ enabling practically anyone who has a keen desire to learn English to attend.

These classes are open to every level of society, giving many students their first sampling of democracy in action.¹⁴ In Quito a policeman and a servant were sharing the opportunities offered in a class with a colonel of the air force; and sons and daughters of small store proprietors in Lima sat beside the socially elite.

What type of students can be found in these centers? An occupational classification of the English class enrollment in fourteen centers reveals that 26 per cent are white collar workers, 37 per cent are university or high

13. The Cultural Cooperation Program, 1938-1943, p. 24.

14. David Hellyer, "Around the Good Neighbor Network," Rotarian, 78 (February, 1951), p. 32.

school students, 8 per cent housewives, 4 per cent teachers, 6 per cent professionals (including doctors, lawyers, etc.), 3 per cent specialists and technicians, 5 per cent businessmen, and 11 per cent miscellany (including artists, military, laborers, writers, etc.).¹⁵ From this breakdown it can be noted that every stratum in society is represented with the exception of the farming class, whose position is little better than that of the serf in the middle ages.

Wise administration of the academic program depends on the careful selection of instructors. The grantee staff, those North Americans supplied by the State Department, must be supplemented by personnel hired locally. The American colony seldom yields sufficient capable and interested part-time teachers to meet the demands. Therefore, it is necessary to employ nationals. These are selected for their mastery of English, teaching skill, and friendly attitude toward the United States. When possible, however, North Americans are selected to fill these vacancies on account of their accents and for their interpretations of United States civilization.

A direct outgrowth of the successful English program has been the development of seminars for national teachers of English. Recognition of the limited enrollment possibilities of the regular classes has resulted in emphasis being placed on this activity. Seminars are designed primarily

15. Data furnished by the Division of Libraries and Institutes of the Department of State, based on a survey made in 1950. See appendix no. 4.

to improve the quality of English teaching in the Latin American schools by presenting new techniques, methods, and materials developed in the United States, and, also, simultaneously to increase the sphere of influence of the United States. In 1951 seventeen seminars were conducted at the cultural centers with an enrollment of 951 local teachers, who in turn teach 100,000 native students.¹⁶

Seminars in all bi-national institutes follow much the same basic pattern. Usually the Ministry of Education cooperates closely with the center and has passed various decrees supporting this project. In Bolivia attendance for teachers of English is mandatory, and in several places the programs of the seminars have been officially adopted.¹⁷ In San José, Costa Rica, the teachers of English attending this session receive one year's credit for retirement purposes, while the Guatemalan Minister of Education gave merits for attendance which carried automatic salary raises.¹⁸

In recognition of the work done by the centers in this field, travel grants have been presented annually by the Office of Education and the State Department to the outstanding seminar participants. These awards provide for a period of study and practical experience in the United States and serve as an added incentive for better work on the part of

16. Waging the Truth Campaign, pp. 27-28.

17. Ibid., p. 28.

18. The Record, 6 (March - April, 1950), pp. 27-29

the students. When necessary, cash grants for supplies, salaries, and other expenses are made to the center by the United States government. Occasionally a prominent lecturer is furnished who leads discussions and gives classes during these sessions. In January, 1949, for instance, Dr. M. Gordon Brown, professor of modern languages at the Georgia Institute of Technology, was sent to participate in the summer seminar in Lima, while the next year Dr. Edd Winfield Parks, professor of English at the University of Georgia, served in the same capacity.

This official recognition is merited by the careful planning and execution of the seminars, which are presented annually during the school vacation periods. Classes are divided into beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels in which conversation, pronunciation, composition, grammar, and language laboratories are offered.¹⁹ Constant use is made of tape recorders, slide projectors, and viewmasters as supplementary aids, and movies, lectures, round table discussions, and panels are popular ways to increase the knowledge of English. A full social and cultural program, including art exhibits, concerts, teas, and dances complements and relieves the intense nature of the academic phase.

Offered exclusively for national teachers of English,

19. Kathleen Chase, "They Speak English in Perú," U. S. Department of State, Field Reporter, 2 (July - August, 1953), p. 16.

these seminars welcome students from the hinterlands as well as those from the cities. Two monks from the "sierra" of Perú heard a radio announcement and traveled one hundred and five miles by mule to the nearest railroad to attend the English classes in Lima.

The only expenses borne by the student for this instruction are for board and room. In Guatemala this was paid for out-of-town teachers by the Ministry of Education.²⁰ Free instruction is an extremely important factor because teaching salaries in Latin American countries are oftentimes below the subsistence level. Many of the teachers endure great financial hardships to gain further instruction. A student from Arequipa transported his wife and three children to Lima where they pitched their tent on the beach and lived under the most primitive conditions for the duration of the seminar. Others sacrificed this period, formerly devoted to working and thus supplementing their meager earnings, in order to study.

The success of this project is measured best by the satisfaction of its students. Genuine appreciation and eternal gratitude are expressed in the following statements: "I want you to know and I want you to tell your people that we teachers are going all over Perú and tell our people what the United States is doing for us." "North Americans really want to help us. They are not interested only in our country's

20. The Record, 6 (March - April, 1950), p. 29.

resources. They are kind, friendly, and interested in the welfare of our people."²¹ Others evinced surprise that sympathy and affection could be personal traits of "norteamericanos"²² as well as "latinos."²³

Teaching English as one means of achieving better relationships has proved effective. The British government, by the purchase of the copyright for Basic English for which they paid \$92,000, or an average of \$108 per word, has demonstrated its awareness of the importance of this activity.²⁴ Leonard Ross Klein, late director of the bi-national center in Bahia, Brazil, supports this attitude in arguing that the number of people who speak English and appreciate the American way bears directly on the security of the United States in the world.²⁵ This theory has been seconded by Ruth McMurry and Mana Lee in these words:

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21. Communicated to the writer.
 22. The terms "norteamericanos", "gringo", Americans, and North Americans have been used by the writer to refer to citizens of the United States.
 23. These sentiments were heard by the writer during the last week of the seminar in Lima given from January 7 - February 2, 1951. If any adverse comments were made, and undoubtedly there were a few, they were not communicated to the writer or any other staff members or friends.
 24. U. S. Congress. House of Representatives. United States Informational and Educational Act of 1947, op. cit., p. 145.
 25. Klein, op. cit., p. 475.

It seems to be a conviction generally accepted by the Governments which have furthered long-term programs, that among the measures used to build up peace none has proved more successful-- that for the same investment of mind and treasure none has proved nearly so successful--as the cultural relations program . . .²⁶

The library program developed in the bi-national institutes plays an important role in "winning friends and influencing people." The prominent location of the library in the establishment, where it occupies one or more well-lighted rooms, inviting in appearance and easily accessible, substantiates this significance. Designed exclusively to carry out the aims of the centers,²⁷ the collection consists chiefly of the following: reference books, including encyclopedias, dictionaries, and handbooks; a file of current American periodicals; a limited selection of government documents and pamphlets; and representative titles of American fiction and non-fiction in both English and translations into the national language.

The collections vary in size from a few hundred to more than seven thousand books, and are governed in their growth by congressional appropriations, physical space, scope, and local demand. The chief function of the libraries is to disseminate knowledge, not preserve it.²⁸ The original dona-

26. McMurry and Lee, op. cit., p. 1.

27. Josephine Fabilli, "Libraries in United States Cultural Centers in the Other American Republics," The Record, 2 (June, 1946), p. 10.

28. Ibid.

tions, which contained between five hundred and one thousand volumes each, were selected by the American Library Association with funds provided by the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs and the State Department. In 1944, again with the aid of the American Library Association, books were sent to the centers from the State Department's "Books for Latin America Project." The Library of Congress sent limited gifts in exchange for cultural materials published in the Latin American countries. At present the budget prepared by the State Department contains a general allotment for the purchase of United States publications to be selected by the center director upon the recommendations of the other staff members. Additional book packets composed of current titles are sent regularly to keep the collection up-to-date. Provision is also made for the purchase of Spanish, Portuguese, or French translations of North American authors as well as representative works written in and about the host country. Newly established centers, furthermore, receive similar initial donations. Private institutions and learned societies, such as the National Gallery of Art, the Pan-American Union, and the American Geographical Society, have contributed to cultural center libraries by participation on an exchange basis.²⁹

Organization of the book collection is indispensable for efficient operation. Whenever financially possible:

29. Hadley, op. cit., pp. 1555-1556.

professionally trained personnel is recruited for this work;³⁰ or, failing this, itinerant American librarians have been detailed by this government. The State Department also furnishes the libraries with Library of Congress printed cards and essential supplies and equipment.³¹ The Dewey decimal subject classification system is followed in addition to other standard American library practices.

The center library is virtually a United States public library in miniature and as such serves as a model or laboratory for the study of library economy.³² The trained librarian is responsible for the instruction of national assistants. Upon request she acts as a consultant for local institutions. Frequently courses in this subject are offered in seminars.

The evolution of the modern public library is one of America's unique contributions to civilization and its presentation in the Latin American centers is noteworthy. Lending libraries are practically non-existent south of the border; in fact, in many cities they may be found only in the cultural institutes. For the Latin American it is considered a rare privilege to be able to take a book

30. Carl A. Sauer, "Libraries in Our Cultural Program," American Library Association Bulletin, 41 (October 1, 1947), p. 313.

31. Murphy, op. cit., p. 807.

32. Greene and Esman, op. cit., p. 14.

home for two weeks, and he guards this prerogative jealously. Consequently, contrary to popular belief, the book losses in these organizations are smaller than those experienced by public libraries in our country.³³

Reference work is also emphasized. Local groups, organizations, and individuals are served in their requests. It is estimated that more than 35,000,000 questions about the United States are answered annually.³⁴ Typical questions include: How are the Indians and negroes treated in the United States? What do you have on the cultivation of citrus fruits? What forms are acceptable in writing a letter in English? Do you have a book on reinforced concrete structure? Who is considered the father of modern American architecture? Have you a brief biography in Spanish on Abraham Lincoln or George Washington? What American university is considered the best for the study of hotel management?

An essential part of each library is its prominent display of current periodicals. This is undoubtedly the most popular section, a place where old and young alike can enjoy the pictorial magazines, which expose them to the American way of living regardless of the extent of their

33. Hadley, op. cit., p. 1555.

34. U. S. Department of State. Foreign Affairs Background Summary: America A Full and Fair Picture, Revised edition, no. 2 (Washington: The Department, January, 1947), p. 11.

knowledge of English.

Each institute also boasts of a "discoteca", a record collection, which is often shelved in the library and which may circulate to members. Piano, vocal, and orchestral scores may be obtained as well as the more popular American song books.

Promoting the use of the library is probably one of the least satisfactory aspects of this program. Many measures are devised to publicize its services: library lectures are given in the classes, instruction in its use is offered, extension services are advertised, book exhibits are conspicuously and attractively displayed, reviews are written for local newspapers, and story hours for children are initiated. The last activity mentioned was an outstanding success when introduced in Lima. Scheduled every other Saturday morning, the children's hour consisted of story-telling, singing, games, and movies. The average attendance was almost sixty youngsters, and through their enthusiasm many parents became ardent members.

The needs of special groups are taken into consideration. In Porto Alegre, for example, duplicate library books are circulated to various schools. Honduras has expanded its library services to include out-of-town members by regularly sending selected packets of books and records to mining towns and American schools situated outside of the capital. These collections are usually sent by truck,

although one mountain school receives these shipments by mule-pack.³⁵ In Rio de Janeiro books are mailed to labor groups and individuals in outlying districts. Translated copies of government publications on industrial safety, health care, and similar subjects are used. In Valparaiso one month was dedicated to the medical profession, and significant medical books were displayed. Duplicate copies were presented to the Valparaiso Medical Society.³⁶ The results of these efforts are encouraging³⁷ demonstrating that the library program is a valuable, integral part of the cultural centers.

Informational, cultural, and social activities attract many Latins and North Americans to the center who are not especially interested in the teaching or library programs. The diversified nature of this aspect reaches varied sectors of the population.

Lectures, which relate to various aspects of American life, civilization, and culture, are presented regularly by American center personnel. Scholars, diplomats, scientists,

35. Newsnotes (July - September, 1951), pp. 11-12.

36. U. S. Department of State. Launching the Campaign of Truth: Second Phase, Seventh Semi-annual Report of the Secretary to State to Congress on the International Information and Educational Exchange Program, January 1 to June 30, 1951. Publication no. 4401 (Washington: The Department, 1952), p. 20. (Hereafter cited as Launching the Campaign of Truth: Second Phase).

37. See appendix no. 5 for library statistics.

artists, businessmen, teachers, and specialists traveling abroad also participate. On the other hand, phases of life in the host country are treated by local intellectual leaders and specialists. In Lima one year, a series of lectures was sponsored which was particularly outstanding. This series, given in Spanish, consisted of two themes: "¿Conoce Ud. a los Estados Unidos?" (Do you know the United States?) and "¿Conoce Ud. al Perú?" (Do you know Perú?) The first theme was presented by various leading national figures who had studied or lived in this country, while the second theme featured Peruvian authorities in fields of art, music, history, archaeology, literature, etc.

These discourses given by local authorities are often augmented by the State Department in its visiting lecturers program, which was initiated in 1947. Five outstanding professors and one composer were the first to be named in this capacity. They were: Arthur S. Aiton, professor of Hispanic American history at the University of Michigan, who lectured at the Centro Colombo-Americano in Bogotá; Robert G. Caldwell, dean of humanities of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, was in Lima from June 1 to October 1; Kenneth J. Connant, professor of architecture at Harvard University, was sent to Rio de Janeiro and Buenos Aires during the period of June 3 - September 22; William B. Hesseltine, professor of history at the University of Wisconsin, was in San José, Costa Rica, and Guatemala for six months; Philip W. Powell,

assistant professor of history at Northwestern University, was assigned to Quito, Ecuador and later Santiago, Chile; and Aaron Copland divided his time between Rio de Janeiro and Buenos Aires.³⁸ This policy has been continued to the present time.

Round table discussions, panels, and organized debates have been introduced to encourage the principle of free give-and-take so rare in some countries "south of the border." Aspects of American life have been the subjects for bi-monthly discussions in the Caracas center.³⁹ Featured topics included "Libraries in the United States," "Folk Music of the Americas," "The American Character," "Aspects of Pan Americanism," "Early American Art," "Edgar Allen Poe," etc.

Radio has been increasingly important in recent years. Weekly programs sponsored by the centers range from serious discourses to light, informal talks. In Concepción, Chile, the institute broadcasts a fifteen-minute period of information and music.⁴⁰

38. "American Lecturers to Visit Other American Republics," Department of State Bulletin, 16 (June 8, 1947) p. 1128.

39. Klein, op. cit., p. 472.

40. Ibid.

An educational half-hour program consisting of four divisions featuring common cultural factors between Brazil and this country, musical selections, news of cultural events in the United States, and notices of center activities has been presented in Rio de Janeiro in cooperation with the Ministry of Education.⁴¹ Brief, informal talks were delivered in Port-au-Prince, Haiti, which portrayed the more popular aspects of life in the United States: e.g., supermarkets, television, and baseball;⁴² and lectures given in the Santiago Center were recorded on tape for use in their radio programs.⁴³

Probably the most ambitious radio undertaking was a ten-month series of bi-weekly English classes sponsored by the center in Lima with the cooperation of the American embassy. This was broadcast free throughout Peru by six radio stations. Lessons accompanying the broadcasts appeared in seventeen newspapers throughout the republic. The correspondence, which netted hundreds of letters a week, was answered by a secretary employed expressly for this purpose. The success of this broadcast won many new friends for the Instituto.

Publicity has also been achieved through bulletins published

41. Newsnotes (July - September, 1951), p. 20.

42. Waging the Truth Campaign, p. 28.

43. Newsnotes (July - September, 1951), p. 20

by the centers. A complete calendar of events for a particular period is issued by institutes in Mexico City, Guadalajara, Lima, Guatemala, Medellín, Santiago, and elsewhere.

A literary periodical in Spanish called "Ipna," featuring articles contributed by board members, grantees, and others, is a bi-monthly publication of the Instituto in Lima.

The almost universal appeal of art makes this an ideal cultural agent. Exhibitions of American and national works attract many to the cultural centers. A collection of reproductions of famous American paintings was presented to each center to stimulate interest in American art. These are used for exhibits and also for decoration in classrooms and lounges. Traveling exhibits, including originals by George Bellows, Rockwell Kent, Adolf Dehn, and George Overburg, the Federal Art Projects prints, and original watercolors, have been received with great enthusiasm.⁴⁴

A portion of the Rosenwald collection of nineteenth century French prints was sent to centers at Habana, Rio de Janeiro, São Paulo, Montevideo, Santiago, Concepción, Lima, Bogotá, and Mexico City. In Caracas the Centro Cultural Venezolano-Americano was proud to announce an exhibition of water colors and lithographs by Adolf Dehn, who was in Venezuela under the auspices of the Standard Oil Company. Notable Venezuelan critics and painters attended

⁴⁴. Klein, op. cit., p. 474.

this exhibition.⁴⁵ Opportunities are also given to unknown artists to exhibit their work.

Furthermore, exhibits of photographs, books and book making, and displays of handicrafts are always popular. Carlos Herrera, an aerial photographer for the Venezuelan Ministry of the Interior, presented his photographic prints in the cultural center at Caracas.⁴⁶ In Guatemala, Lily de Osborne, co-author of Four Keys to Guatemala, gave a lecture on the Guatemalan Indian textiles and also showed beautiful rare handwoven garments. The majority of the centers reported enthusiastic response in the exhibition of the United States housing study collection which was supplied by the State Department. Considered a leading event in Santiago, this display attracted over 18,000 visitors in five weeks. In connection with this event several local organizations, including the Chilean Engineers Association and the Chilean Housing Administration, presented a series of lectures on architecture.⁴⁷

Exhibits have not been confined to the locale of these institutions. One of the best stores in Curitiba,

45. Greene and Esman, op. cit., p. 17.

46. Ibid.

47. Two Way Street, p. 29.

Brazil, permitted the use of its windows and assisted with the arrangement of a showing of children's books; and windows of a downtown shop in Rosario, Argentina, were donated for the display of work done in the textile painting class conducted in the center.⁴⁸

Many people are drawn to the centers by the music program. Each center has a record library of approximately 400 albums, which range from symphonies to jazz and include representative American compositions. The centers are equipped with radio-phonograph combinations and listening rooms where records can be played. Many of the libraries circulate the records for home use. Frequent record concerts are held, introducing works of American composers such as Samuel Barber, William Schumann, and Stephen Foster. Live concerts by local American and national artists are presented. In Fortaleza, Brazil, the U. S. 628th Army Air Forces Band was presented in a concert under the auspices of the center which attracted 12,000 persons.⁴⁹ Numerous orchestral and instrumental scores and band and piano arrangements of classical and popular pieces are available.

The use of documentary films has helped to dispel the fantastic conception prevalent in Latin America, that all North Americans are rich, materialistic, immoral, and fun-seeking individuals.⁵⁰ The origin of this "appraisal" un-

48. Newsnotes (July - September, 1951), p. 13-14.

49. Greene and Esman, op. cit., p. 17.

50. Hellyer, op. cit., p. 4; and Klein, op. cit., p. 468.

doubtedly stems from the Hollywood movies, which are taken as true pictures. The documentary films are loaned by the American embassy to the centers, where a "movie" is shown an average of once a week. Representative film titles are "Saludos" (Greetings) "La ciudad del radio" (Radio City) "El arte de pescar" (The Art of Fishing) "El Imperio Inca" (The Incan Empire) "Acero, esclavo del hombre" (Steel, Man's Servant) and "Primera Conferencia Panamericana" (The First Pan American Conference).⁵¹

Clubs of every description are fostered by the centers, which serve as focal points in the gravitation of common interests. Camera fans, little theatre projects, skiing enthusiasts, glee clubs, athletic teams, dance bands, hobby groups, and social clubs all encounter sympathetic guidance at the centers. Cooperation in these activities is invaluable in Latin America because school schedules do not include extensive extra-curricular programs such as are found in the United States.

A full schedule of social events, including teas, luncheons, receptions, dinners, and dances is also planned. These may be given to celebrate a special event, to honor an outstanding person, American or national, or simply to bring people together on a friendly, informal basis. Con-

51. U. S. Department of State. Cooperation in the Americas, Report of the Inter-departmental Committee on Scientific and Cultural Cooperation, July, 1946 - June, 1947, Publication no. 2971 (Washington: The Department, 1947), p. 78. (Hereafter cited as Cooperation in the Americas).

versational hours are popular and intended to provide opportunities to practice English outside of the classroom. One very successful activity in breaking down social classes between nationals as well as between Latins and North Americans is square dancing. The practice of democracy in these gatherings is perhaps the most exciting and most promising note in these countries, class-ridden for centuries.

The cultural centers aid the programs sponsored by the United States Information and Educational Division in many ways. In the scholarship and exchange-of-persons activities conducted by this division, the institutes assist the embassy by publicizing scholarship opportunities and processing completed application forms. It is the center's responsibility to interview all candidates, and administer the English proficiency examinations. These are then graded by institute personnel and submitted to the American embassy. This accommodation is provided for all United States government offices and also private institutions and organizations.⁵²

The centers also provide the language training and orientation necessary before a student leaves his country. This adjustment for living in the United States is obtained in the English classes; in the library, which has an extensive collection of college catalogs and college handbooks; and in the cultural and social programs, which include lectures in English on phases of American life, documentary

52. Two Way Street, p. 8.

movies, and informal social contacts with North Americans. Generally, there exists an active alumni group, composed of former students who have studied in American universities. These groups, with headquarters in the institutes, act as interpreters of American life to future aspirants.⁵³

In like manner, North Americans, whether they be students, tourists, or newly-arrived residents, are given opportunity to orient themselves to a new country and a new manner of living by frequenting the center. There they can take advantage of classes in Spanish or Portuguese, absorb national customs through association with Latin Americans, and accumulate a knowledge of the country by availing themselves of library privileges. The librarian assists the United States information program by answering many questions referred to her by the embassy. Information is located for speeches and reports as well as for newspaper articles.

The bi-national organizations are also helpful to the International Information Agency by serving as local outlets for its materials.⁵⁴ This agency, in order to counteract the world-wide "Hate Americans" campaign instigated by the Russians and intensified since 1951, has directed a major portion of its efforts abroad in explaining the perils of

53. Murphy, op. cit., p. 810.

54. U. S. Department of State. International Information Administration, Tenth Semi-annual report of the Secretary of State on the International Information and Educational Exchange Program, July, 1952 - December, 1952. Publication no. 5105 (Washington: The Department, 1953), p. 37.

Communism. The "Campaign of Truth" has been launched and "target areas" have been indicated.⁵⁵ Although Latin America has not been specified as one of these areas, nevertheless, the cultural centers have been made aware of the urgency of this new approach.

Often physical quarters are inadequate for such a variety of activities, and practically every center is overcrowded and lacks space for expansion. With a few exceptions the centers occupy a centrally located building, which is rented. Usually it is a large private house which has to be converted to accommodate classes, lectures, the library collection, reading room and office space. Kitchen facilities and tea-rooms are desirable assets. The search for moderately-priced quarters confronts almost every director.

The typical activities of a cultural center have been described as they are found at the present time. The teaching of English, the oldest and most evident phase, has been the core of the program from which all other activities have developed as the situation demanded.

The growth of the centers can more strikingly be noted by a statistical comparison. During a one-year period the Centro Venezolano-Americano in Caracas, with very little change in the staff of one director, nine teachers and five

55. Wilson M. Compton, "Waging the Campaign of Truth," U. S. Department of State. Field Reporter, 1 (July - August, 1952), p. 9

administrative employees, doubled its student enrollment (206 students to 471 students), enlarged the number of library volumes by five-eighths (1,585 volumes to 2,464 volumes), increased the monthly library circulation six times (146 to 911), and watched the public attendance triple (515 to 1,560 persons).⁵⁶

The statistics for the total center program show a similar increase. In 1943 eighteen bi-national centers⁵⁷ were in existence as compared to thirty in 1951;⁵⁸ the library collection has grown from 25,000 volumes in 1944⁵⁹ to 70,000 in 1948; public attendance figures tripled during the period 1943 to 1947⁶⁰ and increased to 735,000 persons in 1951;⁶¹ and student enrollment was 17,000 in 1943⁶² as compared to 58,000 in 1951.⁶³

56. Greene and Esman, op. cit., p. 19.

57. Cooperation in the Americas, p. 76.

58. Waging the Truth Campaign, p. 27.

59. Herschel Brickell, "Books Take to the Road", Inter-American, 3 (November, 1944), p. 14.

60. Cooperation in the Americas, pp. 77, 79.

61. Waging the Truth Campaign, p. 27.

62. Cooperation in the Americas, p. 79. (There is a discrepancy in this figure, for Greene and Esman in Cultural Centers in the Other American Republics on page 2 state that student enrollment in July, 1943, was 12,000 and by 1944 had increased to 17,000.)

63. Waging the Truth Campaign, p. 27.

CHAPTER III INDIVIDUAL CENTERS

INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter entitled "General Growth and Development of Bi-national Institutes" is necessarily broad in its approach. The aim of this section is to present a more detailed picture of individual organizations, their history, and their development.

For this purpose three centers of varying sizes situated in different countries were selected. The Instituto Guatemalteco-Americano in Guatemala City exemplifies a medium-sized bi-national center, which flourishes in spite of its location in an "unfriendly" country. The União Cultural Brasil-Estados Unidos in São Paulo typifies the activities of a large, active center, which is handicapped by inherent administrative difficulties. Finally, the Centro Ecuatoriano-Norteamericano in Quito is an example of a small institute, which is struggling to improve its financial condition.

INSTITUTO GUATEMALTECO-AMERICANO

The Instituto Guatemalteco-Americano is located in Guatemala City, which is the capital of a Central American republic where nearly two-thirds of the people are pure-blooded Indians of ancient Mayan stock. The city population, according to the 1950 census, was 284,922.¹

The Instituto began operations in 1946. However, certain modifications of the charter were necessary before official recognition could be attained. Through the combined efforts of the North American director, James E. Duffy, and the Ministry of Education, this revision was accomplished, which provided for the establishment of the Instituto for a ten-year period. The government of Guatemala approved the charter on September 27, 1948, which became the legal date of incorporation.

The purpose of this organization is to further cultural relations between Guatemala and the United States. Provision was made for a board of directors, whose membership included a required percentage of Guatemalan citizens. The attendance at board meetings of unofficial representatives of the American embassy and the Ministry of Education is a manifestation of the interest in the Instituto's welfare.

1. Guatemala. Dirección general de estadística. Oficina permanente del censo. Sexto Censo de Población, abril 18 de 1950 (Guatemala: Imprenta Universitaria, 1953), p. 45.

The director of this operation is a United States State Department grantee. His responsibilities include the planning and execution of the over-all program, preparation and administration of the budget, as well as the supervision of daily activities. Broad decisions and policies, however, are subject to review and approval by the board of directors and the cultural relations attaché, who acts as the liason between the American embassy and the Institute.

At the present time the State Department supplies this center with two additional grantees, a director of courses and an English teacher. The responsibilities of the former comprise the supervision of the language teaching program and the teaching of English for six to nine hours per week. The obligations of the latter are teaching a minimum of fifteen hours of classes per week and lending cooperation in the development of center activities.

The locally hired personnel complements the grantee staff and includes two national librarians, and fifteen teachers, two of whom are citizens of the United States. The remaining thirteen are either Guatemalans with a wide knowledge of English, or North Americans who are married to Guatemalans and who have lived there a number of years. There are, in addition, clerks, messengers, and janitors, all of whom are nationals.

The teaching of English program, as in all centers, is the core of the Instituto's work. Each teacher follows his

or her own method, emphasizing the direct method of presentation combined with the phonetic approach. The principal aim in all classes is to give every student practice in conversational work. Textbooks used are Speak American English by Willard DeMont Sheeler, a former director of the center, and Audrey Wright's Practique su inglés.²

Seven basic courses are offered and a diploma is issued to the student after successful completion of these studies. Advanced classes in English given in the trimester from September to November of 1953 were: beginning and advanced conversation, beginning and advanced speech laboratory (pronunciation), commercial correspondence, and beginning and advanced shorthand. A children's English class was also offered. No formal subject courses were taught; however, an art course for children was undertaken during the school vacation period in November and December.

During the same quarter two classes in Spanish were offered with a total enrollment of seventeen, six of whom were American embassy employees. One of the problems has always been the lack of interest shown in the study of Spanish on the part of the Americans residing there.

As a vital part of the English teaching program, seminars for Guatemalan teachers of English have been offered for the

2. For a complete list of textbooks currently used by the Instituto Guatemalteco-Americano, see appendix no. 6.

last four years. The attendance in the seminar of December 8 - 19, 1952, was forty-six. Intensive classes consisted of: methods of teaching, linguistic laboratory, grammar correction, conversation, history of the United States, and music of the United States. Lectures pertaining to aspects of American life as well as the teaching of songs and games for use in English classes supplemented formal instruction.³

The seminars in Guatemala have received wholehearted support from the Minister of Education. His personal representative was present at the opening and closing exercises, and the Ministry and the students were joint hosts at a reception given for the American staff. Furthermore, the official representative of the Minister stated that the success of this seminar inspired the government to announce plans for similar training courses in all subjects; these were scheduled to begin in December, 1950. The assistance of the Instituto was requested to organize the course of study in English offered in government schools. The Minister, also, promised to use the Guatemalan English Teachers' Association, formed by participants in the seminar, to help in the reorganization of English courses.⁴

Classes for different groups have been arranged,

3. Instituto Guatemalteco-Americano. Prospecto del Cuarto Seminario Anual para Profesores Guatemaltecos de Inglés . . . (Guatemala: Instituto Guatemalteco-Americano, [1952]), pp. [1-3].

4. The Record, 6 (March - April, 1950), pp. 27-28.

including daily classes for the President's general staff in the government palace, a class for the president of the National Legislative Assembly and a group of senators,⁵ and another for the employees of the Guatemalan Institute for the Advancement of Industry, who are planning to study in the United States. The Instituto also made contracts with the Bank of Guatemala, the Guatemalan government's Institute of Social Security, and the Empresa Eléctrica to teach English to their employees.⁶

The development of the library program has advanced rapidly in the Instituto due to the appointment of grantees with professional library training. From 1946 to 1949 Mrs. Harriet Sheeler was the librarian and was succeeded by Rupert Woodward. The organization of the library was completed under their direction, and reference service was expanded. Technical cooperation was extended to local educational institutions for the organization of their libraries, and assistants were trained to work in the center library.

Considered to be the best organized small public library in Guatemala,⁷ it also has the distinction of

5. Klein, op. cit., p. 470.

6. Two Way Street, p. 39.

7. "Fostering International Understanding, Second Semi-annual Report on Educational Exchange, January - June, 1949," Department of State Bulletin, 22 (February 20, 1950), p. 288.

being the only lending library in that city.⁸ The novelty of borrowing library books may be illustrated by the reaction of the assistant librarian of the National Library, who could not conceal her amazement when informed that members could not only touch the books but also take them home.⁹

The library has substantially augmented its holdings, membership, and circulation. In 1948 the British Council in Guatemala discontinued its activities and donated the major portion of its book collection to the center. By June, 1951, the library contained 7,800 volumes.¹⁰

The membership increased from 814 in 1948¹¹ to 1,824 in October, 1953. The only requisite for institute membership for non-students is the payment of a nominal sum. Students enrolled in classes are obliged to become members, for which they are assessed one dollar each trimester. This fee entitles the individual to enjoy library privi-

8. Two Way Street, p. 39.

9. Charles W. Harrington, The Cultural Centers, Uncle Sam's Bid for Friendship (Unpublished Paper, University of New Mexico, 1952), p. 15.

10. Launching the Campaign of Truth: Second Phase, p. 39.

11. U. S. Advisory Commission on Educational Exchange. Trading Ideas with the World: International Educational and Technical Exchange, Report of the United States Advisory Commission on Educational Exchange, January 1 through March 31, 1949, U. S. Department of State Publication no. 3551 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1949), p. 59. (Hereafter cited as Trading Ideas with the World).

leges, and attend all activities.¹² Several authors of national and international fame, Julio Rodrigo Beteta and Doña Lily de Osborne, are members, as well as David Vela, the editor of the largest newspaper in Guatemala.

Library circulation, likewise, increased from 5,894 volumes in 1948¹³ to an estimated 18,000 for 1953, with fiction titles and pictorial magazines leading the field as in the other centers.

The cultural and social offerings of the Instituto Guatemalteco-Americo for the period from January 1 through September 30, 1953, may be considered typical of the activities offered in past years, and follow:

Type	Number	Attendance
Lectures	4	99
Forums	8	93
Art Exhibits	7	8,200
Music Concerts	4	320
Film Showings	24	910
Dances	24	1,313

The above statistics conclusively show the greater attraction of the entertainment-type program as contrasted with the limited appeal of lectures and forums.

12. Instituto Guatemalteco-Americano. Departamento de Cursos. Información, tercer trimestre, 1953 (Guatemala: Instituto Guatemalteco-Americano, 1953), p. 3.

13. Trading Ideas with the World, p. 59.

Featured events for the month of October, 1953, illustrate the diversified and intensive nature of this schedule. John McAndrew, a professor at Wellesley College, gave two lectures in Spanish, which were illustrated with colored slides. His subjects were: La casa moderna en los Estados Unidos (The Modern House in the United States) and La pintura moderna en los Estados Unidos (Modern Painting in the United States). Patricia Chapman delivered two discourses in English on North American history; Salvador Ley, director of the National Conservatory, rendered a piano recital; and the well-known artist, Roberto Ossaye, inaugurated an exhibit of his paintings. Other activities scheduled were: two children's hours, one community sing, and both beginning and advanced square dancing,¹⁴

The publicity of the Instituto is conducted through the mediums of the press and the radio. The center inserts paid advertisements in the local newspapers, and reports good coverage on their activities. Radio announcements have been much improved this past year by the adoption of a policy of offering scholarships to all radio announcers using a script prepared by the institute. Furthermore, the lending of records to three radio stations for their broadcasts has helped the Instituto to maintain cordial relations.

14. Instituto Guatemalteco-Americano. Boletín del Instituto Guatemalteco-Americano, no. 5 (Octubre, 1953), pp. 1-3.

An outstanding contribution of the Instituto was its cooperation with the Comité Nacional de Alfabetización (a national committee to reduce illiteracy). An annual book fair was inaugurated in September, 1946, in the National Palace by the committee in an effort to raise funds for the promotion of the literacy campaign. Book dealers and diplomatic missions sold books at discounts. Two stands were under the auspices of the center: one, for display purposes, included illustrated books on art, architecture, city planning, interior decoration, and children's literature; and the other comprised books and magazines donated by members of the American colony to be sold at a nominal cost, and new books provided by La Librería Americana for sale at a 10 per cent discount. The profits from this venture were given to the literacy campaign.¹⁵

The prospects for the continued success of the Instituto Guatemalteco-Americano are favorable. Although the Guatemalan government in recent years has been heavily infiltrated with Communists, the personnel of the center has not given political support to any group, nor expressed any political opinions. This policy has avoided any extensive criticism of the institute's operations, either by radical or ultra-conservative elements. The government's attitude of toleration, and even encouragement, of the

15. Eleanor Lewis, "Books: New Foreign Representatives," Library Journal, 72 (March 1, 1947), p. 359.

center's activities cannot be fully analyzed. Only conjectures may be ventured. The Instituto was established at the end of World War II, when feelings of international cooperation ran high, when the popularity of Roosevelt was still at its peak in Latin America, and when Russia, as a recent ally of the United States and Guatemala, was not our implicit enemy as she is today. The center may be considered, by the government, solely as an English teaching academy, and, therefore, harmless in its influence; or, it may be tolerated on political grounds, that is, a hands-off policy at this time is better than stirring up the wrath of the powerful nation to the north; or, it may be "encouraged" for economic reasons, e.g., direct action against the center would affect tourist and trade activities, which already have been seriously curtailed.

Factors which contribute to the prevalent status of well-being of the Instituto are: the organization is financially stable and wholly self-supporting in its local expenditures; new and more ample housing was secured in September, 1953, to accommodate both the increase in student enrollment and the expanded activities; the Ministry of Education, the American embassy, and other organizations and institutions have cooperated fully with the institute; and, finally, the entire staff of the center, both Guatemalans and citizens of the United States, have shown an active interest in and support of its program.

UNIAO CULTURAL BRASIL-ESTADOS UNIDOS

The União Cultural Brasil-Estados Unidos has the distinction of being the largest center and, probably, the most active in Latin America. It is located in São Paulo, a thriving center of agriculture and industry, which is sometimes called the "Chicago of South America." Forty per cent of its 2,198,096 people are foreign-born.¹⁶ This institution, founded in 1938 by professors of the University of São Paulo working with friends of the United States, has been helped by the American Consulate.

The charter of the União differs radically from those of the other centers in one major respect, e.g., the executive secretary (director) must be a Brazilian. The top United States grantee has the official title of director of the department of English, and has complete freedom in the administration of the academic program, but no authority and little influence in the other fields of operation.

From a humble beginning with some two hundred students, the União English-teaching program now reaches over six thousand persons. One half of these are university and technical students, one fourth are clerks, 15 per cent belong to the professional class, and 10 per cent are miscellaneous, including housewives, domestic employees, etc.

16. Brasil. Instituto Brasileiro de geografia e estatística. Conselho nacional de estatística. Anuario estatístico do Brasil. Ano XIII, 1952 (Rio de Janeiro; Serviço Gráfico do Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e estatística, 1953), p. 50.

The basic English program is a six-year course. The first four years are devoted to the study of the English language, while the last two years consist of classes in North American life and literature. Upon successful completion of the above, certificates are awarded at graduation exercises.¹⁷

Interest in learning English is not confined solely to São Paulo. In 1945 Dr. Joseph Privitera, director of courses, extended assistance to a cultural institute in Sorocaba by sending an instructor from São Paulo to teach there every week. Similar arrangements have been made for the towns of Piracicaba and São João de Boa Vista.¹⁸

In October, 1953, the following subject classes were taught: music, history, literature, and shorthand. The total attendance at these courses numbered one hundred and seventy-six. Portuguese classes attracted thirty people.

Special interests have also been considered in this program. For example, two classes were organized for Brazilian army veterans of the Italian theater of war who expressed a desire to learn English and know more about the United States. These classes featured the use of maps, texts, weekly movies, and a discussion forum

17. Greene and Esman, op. cit., p. 13.

18. Ibid., p. 5.

which met twice a month.¹⁹ In 1950 the center conducted free English classes for factory workers, which were given at night in the workers' recreational centers and government schools. The São Paulo Federation of Industries paid all the expenses of this project which had an enrollment of 800 workers. A supplementary program, including documentary films, lectures, and exhibits, was also arranged.²⁰

For a number of years the União in cooperation with the Department of Education has organized a seminar for the national teachers. In 1949 fifty-five Brazilian teachers of English, twenty-three of whom had attended previous sessions, were enrolled. Courses were offered in English, teaching methods, American art, architecture, music, and history. Certificates were awarded to the successful participants, and books were given as prizes to the best students.²¹ In 1953 sixty national teachers were enrolled in the annual teacher's seminar.

19. Klein, op. cit., p. 470.

20. U. S. Department of State. Launching the Campaign of Truth: First Phase, Sixth Semi-annual Report of the Secretary of State to Congress on the International Information and Educational Exchange Program, July 1 to December 31, 1950. Publication no. 4375 (Washington: The Department, 1951), p. 16. (Hereafter cited as Launching the Campaign of Truth: First Phase).

21. The Record, 5 (June - July, 1949), p. 30.

The staff for this tremendous teaching program is composed of forty-four nationals and twenty-two North Americans. Six of the latter are brought on contracts from the United States, the rest being locally hired. The maximum enrolled in any class is thirty, the average being between fifteen and twenty persons. The texts used are the Dixon series which emphasize the direct approach method.

The library of the União is called the George Washington Library. It provides books in English about Brazil, and books in Portuguese about the United States, as well as the representative collection of works by North American authors. In 1942 the library contained 1,200 books which were classified according to the Dewey decimal system with the collaboration of Professor José Francisco de Azevedo, vice director of the School of Library Science of São Paulo. In 1950 the library holdings included 7,800 books, ninety-eight magazines in Portuguese, English, and Spanish, and nineteen English and Portuguese newspapers.²²

The library is a weak phase of the União program, which is caused principally by inefficient administration. There is no trained American personnel, the director of the department of English has no jurisdiction outside of the teaching program, and the national executive secretary has not manifested any interest in the extensive development of the

22. Gloria Johnson, *Cultural Centers and Their Libraries in Latin American Countries* (Unpublished Master's thesis, Carnegie Institute of Technology, 1951), p. 96.

library. Consequently, capable direction and adequate organization are lacking, presenting an exceptionally inferior center library.

As direct results of this condition, the membership and circulation figures in comparison with other centers are low in proportion to the size of the student body. In 1953 there were 7,000 members, of whom 6,300 were União students, 675 non-student nationals, and twenty-five Americans. The book circulation for the quarter from July 1 to October 1, 1953, totaled 3,800 volumes, fiction titles accounting for over three-fourths of the books loaned. During this same period 2,414 reference questions were answered.

The cultural and social phases of this center rank next in importance to the teaching program. Since these activities are directed by nationals, it is felt that the influence of United States ideas is inadequate. The type of events offered during the quarter July 1 - October 1, 1953 were:

Type	Number	Attendance
Lectures	25	3,000
Musie Recitals or Programs	8	1,500
Social Hours	5	500
Dances	15	5,000
Song - Fests	15	700
Picnics	1	200
Special Celebrations or Events (Graduations, opening of classes, seminars, etc.)	5	500

An outstanding series of lectures was presented in 1950 by a prominent stage designer sent to São Paulo on a grant

through the State Department. Donald Oenslager, professor of scenic design at Yale University and the designer for over one hundred and fifty stage productions in New York, lectured on the contemporary theater. His talks were illustrated with slides, and drew capacity audiences. Simultaneously, books, magazines, and photographs on the theater were displayed.²³

In 1948 Dr. M. Gordon Brown, professor of modern languages at Georgia Institute of Technology, gave a series of eight lectures at the União. The titles were: "Great American Poets," "Folklore and Humor in the United States," "The Geography of the United States," "Edgar Allan Poe," "Twentieth Century Poets," "Some Social Customs," "Three New Englanders," and "Melville and Walt Whitman."²⁴

Art exhibits are extremely popular, and assistance to little-known artists is not unknown. A radical departure from showings of famous paintings by well-known artists was the exhibition of the works of nineteen young Brazilian painters at the Galeria Prestes Maia from April 19 to May 5, 1947. The center prepared a striking catalog containing short biographies of the contributors. Two hundred and fifty-one works, including paintings, gauches, and oils were presented. Much publicity appeared in the

23. Two Way Street, p. 27.

24. "Lectures," The Record, 5 (January, 1949), pp. 22-23.

two leading newspapers, the Jornal and the Diario. After art critics had published their opinions, a series of controversial articles ensued. This aroused the curiosity of the public, and 50,000 people saw the exhibit in the first two weeks. A proposal to air the controversy by public forums was accepted, which attracted six hundred people to each meeting. Geremia Lunardelli, a Paulista industrialist, offered cash prizes to the participating artists, which were awarded at a special ceremony. Through this exhibit several of the nineteen artists found employment as illustrators of magazines, and many were accepted in the local artistic circles.²⁵ Also, under the sponsorship of the União a collection of works by the famous Brazilian artist, Lasar Segall, was sent to New York for exhibition from March 15 to April 3, 1947. This was the first South American art exhibit to be presented in the international exchange series of the Associated American Artists.²⁶

The sweeping scope of the cultural and social program embraced by the União may be indicated by mentioning a few of its activities. Two teaching fellowships for American students have been established, providing for tuition at the University of Sao Paulo and the bi-national

25. Murphy, op. cit., p. 808.

26. The Record, 4 (March - April, 1948), p. 24.

center, board and room at the center, and a cash grant of fifty dollars a month. In return the recipients must teach six hours a week at the União.²⁷ The Little Playhouse group has successfully presented such ambitious performances as Thornton Wilder's Our Town and A Happy Journey.²⁸ Students have participated in radio broadcasts featuring round table discussions on the United States educational system, amateur and professional sports, the movies as a portrayal of American life, the cooperation of husbands in household chores, and the economic and recreational value of tourism.²⁹ The publication of textbooks has also been undertaken. In 1948 the center published the following books by Joseph F. Privitera, director of the department of English: Portrait of America, a short anthology; and English and Portuguese versions of the manual, The Study of English.³⁰ Earlier, sixteen addresses delivered at the União were collectively published under the title Intellectual Life in the United States.³¹

27. Newsnotes, (July + September, 1951), p. 11.

28. The Record, 4 (February, 1948), p. 14; and ibid., 4 (November + December, 1948), p. 28.

29. Ibid., 6 (January - February, 1950), p. 36.

30. Ibid., 4 (February, 1948), p. 14.

31. The Cultural-Cooperation Program, 1938 + 1943, p. 24.

The housing problem of this institution with its ramifications of enterprises should be solved upon the completion of a new twenty-story building now in construction. The plot of land, valued at \$300,000, was given to the center by the state and city governments of Sao Paulo.³²

The União has received much free publicity over radio and television and in the local press. The Communistic party organs have criticized the institution, while the non-communistic papers have been encouraging in their praise. Dr. Milton Eisenhower visited the center on his recent tour of Latin America, and mentioned the Uniao in one of his speeches given upon his return. Another distinguished visitor in December, 1952, was the Honorable Pat McCarran, senator from Nevada.³³

An observation, which has frequently been expressed, is that the São Paulo institute, although large and active, is not representing the United States adequately in its over-all program. Undue Brazilian power and influence, especially exerted by the board's secretary, has been blamed for the poor general administration of the institute, including the library, the buildings and grounds, the canteen, and other administrative responsibilities.

32. Hellyer, op. cit., p. 1.

33. Letter: Questionnaire sent by the writer to the director of the União Cultural Brasil-Estados Unidos. October, 1953.

To improve this condition it has been recommended that the charter be revised to provide for a North American director instead of a Brazilian. There has, however, been considerable opposition to this proposal from the offices of the American consul general as well as the Brazilians. It also has been suggested that a professionally trained librarian and additional grantees be assigned here to counteract this predominant national influence. However, to date no action has been taken.

The União Cultural, nevertheless, enjoys great prestige in São Paulo and in all Brazil for these reasons: the board members are influential and important people; the large student body (6,000 - 7,000) is active; and the yearly operating expenses, averaging \$200,000, are wholly self-financed.

Evidences of the center's respected position as a leading cultural and educational institution in Brazil are found in the following official acts of recognition. On its tenth anniversary, the União was commended in a resolution passed by the State Assembly which praised the organization for developing cultural exchanges between the two countries and for increasing the study of the English language and of Brazilian and North American literature in its intellectual activities.³⁴ The State Legislature

34. The Record, 5 (January, 1949), p. 17.

of São Paulo passed a law declaring the União to be a public service institute, which permits it to seek and receive State funds. Similarly, on April 11, 1950, the government of Brazil extended recognition to the center, whereby it is eligible to receive Federal funds.³⁵

35. Two Way Street, p. 27.

CENTRO ECUATORIANO-NORTEAMERICANO

The Centro Ecuatoriano-Norteamericano is located in Quito, the capital of Ecuador. The population of this city numbers 209,932,³⁶ a third of whom are indigenous. Situated in the Andes, three hundred and five miles from the seaport of Guayaquil, and at an altitude of 9,300 feet, Quito had been relatively untouched by modern civilization until the advent of air transportation in the nineteen-thirties, and still retains much of its primitive and picturesque character.

The center was founded towards the end of the year 1940, principally through the efforts of Carlos Romo Davila, professor of English at the Universidad Central and director-founder of the Pichincha School, who had been a former scholarship student to the United States. Working in collaboration with him were James Madson, a United States citizen from Chicago, Luis Robayo, a university student, and two professors of the Magisterio Ecuatoriano, Victor Hugo Romo Davila and Manuel Crespo Chiriboga. The immediate cause for the foundation of the Centro at this time was to counteract the enormous efforts and spreading in-

36. Ecuador. Ministerio de economía. Dirección general de estadística y censos. Información Censal (Quito: Talleres Gráficos del Censo, 1952), p. 25

fluence of Nazi propaganda. The purposes, however, as listed on the first page of the initial issue (June, 1941) of the bilingual publication of the center, entitled The Ecuadorian Voice, were to increase inter-American relations through the teaching of English, to establish a library of books in English, to stimulate contacts between Ecuadorians and North Americans and, thereby, to further the exchange of information regarding the two countries, and to demonstrate the economic necessity of the study of English.

The instantaneous success of the center can be seen by the fact that during the first six months of operation there were almost three hundred members. The requirements for membership were an interest in the English language and the United States, and the payment of five sucres (\$1.00). Lectures, movies, social affairs, and other activities were offered in addition to English classes.

The original charter of the Centro Ecuatoriano provided for a board of directors of twenty-one persons, who were to be elected by the members of that organization in a general assembly held each January. However, this method of electing board members proved awkward and unsatisfactory, and the necessary quorum to conduct business was rarely obtainable, which led to the revision of this provision. The revised charter, approved by the Ministry of Education in July, 1952, reduced the number on the board from twenty-

one to six, who are appointed. The board members as of July, 1953, were: Dr. Enrique Ripalde, a prominent dentist, who was elected president of the board, Dr. Jorge Vallarino, a pediatrician, Señora Piedad de Arumí, the student representative, Mr. Norman Warner, second secretary of the American embassy, Mr. Arthur Fried, a United States businessman in Quito for nineteen years, and the director of the center. Dr. L. L. Barrett, the public affairs officer of the American embassy, attended the meetings as an ex officio member.

Meetings of the board were scheduled for the second Monday of each month at which the director related any past business and submitted new policies for approval. Any single financial expenditure of more than two thousand sucres (approximately \$135) exclusive of rent and local salaries, had to be endorsed by the board before commitment. The board, however, served principally in an advisory capacity, and allowed the director a large measure of freedom in his administration of the center.

The director, a North American grantee, had complete responsibility for the execution of activities, financial matters, staff selection, and miscellaneous problems. He also taught English three to six hours a week.

From 1951 to 1953 the second grantee was a professionally trained librarian, who, in addition to her library responsibilities, taught six class hours per week, and assisted the director wherever necessary. The third member

of the grantee staff was the director of courses, who was transferred to another center in July, 1952, and was not replaced. The staff was completed by the hiring of local personnel, among whom were twelve part-time teachers, four Americans and eight nationals; two secretaries, one part-time bookkeeper; a library assistant; and two porters (man and wife).

In Quito, as in the Guatemalan and Paulista centers, the direct method of teaching is employed in the English classes. The basic courses of three years' study are divided into beginning, intermediate and advanced levels. The texts used are Robert J. Dixon's English for the Foreign-Born, Audrey Wright's Practique su ingles, James McGillivray's Life With the Taylors, and the Readers' Digest Reading Series. At the end of the academic year in July, 1951, the annual commencement program featured a talk by Paul C. Daniels, the American ambassador. Skits, recitations, and songs in English were presented. The best students in each section received book prizes, and certificates were awarded.³⁷

In past years classes have been offered for the advanced student of English in United States history, art and architecture, American literature, business English, and shorthand. Although the enrollment in these courses has been relatively small, the response has been gratifying.

37. Newsnotes (July - September, 1951), p. 22.

Individual class enrollment is held to twenty, both a physical limitation imposed by the size of the classrooms and a pedagogical principle where the emphasis is on oral participation for each student. About thirty-two classes are offered each semester, and the total student enrollment numbers between five and six hundred, or a cumulative annual enrollment of 1,100.

Classes in Spanish have been offered when the occasion demanded. However, these have not been too successful due in part to the small American colony. English classes for children have been taught but these, too, were not effective, except during school vacation periods, because of the heavy demands of the regular educational curriculum.

The center is always attentive and cooperative in requests for specific needs in English instruction. For example, assistance was extended in 1949 to the national tourist bureau of education in the training of guides. Free English classes were given, and the facilities of the institute were made available for other phases of the program, including lectures.³⁸ The employees of the Shell Oil Company were also provided with classes in the same year.³⁹

Seminars for national teachers of English have been regularly given in cooperation with the Ministry of Educa-

38. The Record, 5 (December, 1949), p. 24.

39. Two Way Street, p. 36.

tion. Because of the difference in school vacation periods, sessions for teachers of the "sierra" region were given in August, while similar courses for those of the coastal area had to be conducted in February. In 1952 an English teaching consultant, Edwin T. Cornelius, was sent to the newly formed center in Guayaquil by the State Department to organize a seminar. This eliminated the necessity of conducting one in Quito, and the Guayaquil session attracted a larger attendance through the reduction of room, board, and transportation expenses. Political instability, caused by the presidential election in June, 1952, cancelled the plans for an August seminar scheduled for Quito. This activity follows much the same pattern as those given in larger centers. The smaller enrollment permits greater individual attention to students and their teaching problems.

The library occupies the two most attractive rooms in the building. It is readily accessible, easily controlled, and recently refurnished. Its general appearance radiates a warm welcome. The principal drawback is its inadequate size which handicaps activities. Reading room space is insufficient for the accommodation of visitors, book shelves are overcrowded, attractive exhibits are necessarily curtailed, and workroom facilities are unavailable.

Intensive efforts have been made to promote the use of the library. Each semester classes have been conducted by the librarian, who has explained its organization and its functions as well as the privileges extended to stu-

dents. Correlated class material has constantly been brought to the attention of the teachers. Announcements of new books have been read in the classes, and exhibits have been periodically changed.

Technical assistance in library science has been given whenever requested. During 1952 and 1953 the libraries of the Servicio Cooperativo de Educación, the American School, the Biblioteca Municipal, and the Maternidad (Maternity hospital) received advice and actual help from the librarian.

The library of nearly 4,000 volumes has been completely classified according to the Dewey decimal classification. The reference section contains three sets of general encyclopedias: The Encyclopedía Americana, the Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia and Fact Index, and the World Book; Handbooks such as the World Almanac, the Information Please Almanac, the Statesman's Year-book, The Economic Almanac, and the Handbook of Latin American Studies; and such aids as the Dictionary of American Biography, the Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences, Who's Who in America, and Who's Who in Latin America. The collection of United States college catalogs and the volume American Universities and Colleges, edited by Clarence Stephen Marsh for the American Council on Education, are among the most-used items in answering questions on education in the United States.

The fiction collection of more than five hundred

titles is comprised chiefly of standard, representative American novels with American settings, including the works of James Fennimore Cooper, Nathaniel Hawthorne, Henry James, Edgar Allan Poe, and Willa Cather.

Books on United States history, literature, science, and technology constitute the largest portion of the non-fiction section, and works on art and architecture, social sciences, and the teaching of English are generously supplied. Sample titles in these classifications embrace the Album of American History, edited by James Truslow Adams, A Basic History of the United States by Charles and Mary Beard, Oscar Cargill's Intellectual America, Ludwig Lewisohn's Expression in America, Literary History of the United States, edited by Robert E. Spiller, Art in America by Suzanne LaFollette, Frank Lloyd Wright's Modern Architecture, Peyton Boswell's Modern American Paintings, Horace K. Glidden's Airports: Design, Construction and Management, and Stitt's Diagnosis, Prevention and Treatment of Tropical Diseases by Edward Rhodes Stitt.

The Spanish collection contains only a small selection of books by prominent Ecuadorian authors, for it is felt that a larger, more comprehensive collection would duplicate the holdings of national libraries. The majority of titles, therefore, are translations of well-known American authors including many of those listed previously.

The juvenile section of approximately two hundred

books is notable for its unusual typography and beautiful illustrations, which present a striking contrast to the few inferior children's books published in Latin American countries. Adults learning English are directed to this collection, and children of all nationalities flock here for entertainment and enlightenment. On these shelves may be found Genevieve Foster's George Washington, I. M. Aulair's Abraham Lincoln, Louisa M. Alcott's Little Women, and Tell Me Another Story and Stories Children Want by Carolyn Bailey.

Subscriptions to two American newspapers, the Christian Science Monitor and the late city edition of the New York Times, and more than fifty periodicals are great drawing cards. Pictorial magazines are in constant demand. Highly specialized journals have less appeal, which can be partially explained by the fact that most professionals have individual subscriptions to technical publications in their respective fields.

A small pamphlet collection includes materials published by the United Nations, Unesco, the Pan American Union, departments of the United States and Ecuadorian governments, as well as attractive booklets distributed by private American corporations and institutions.

The library is justly proud of its music collection of nearly four hundred albums. Classical, popular, language, and children's records are all represented and are greatly

enjoyed both in the center and in private homes.

The cultural and social program includes lectures. Three principal factors have contributed to the comparative lack of activity in this field: one, the difficulty in securing adequate audiences; second, the unavailability of outside lecturers because of geographical factors, i.e., the inaccessible location of Quito, necessitating a side-trip from Guayaquil, plus the high altitude considered, by many, a hardship; and third, the competition offered by the government-sponsored Casa de la Cultura Ecuatoriana which has had an established program of lectures and exhibits for many years.

Some outstanding lectures, nevertheless, have been delivered at the Centre. Numbered among the participants have been: Dr. John G. Varner, an associate professor of English at the University of Texas, who spoke on "Modern American Poets" in December, 1951, with special attention devoted to Vachel Lindsay, Robert Frost, and Carl Sandburg; Florence Arquin, a painter and museum instructor at the Art Institute of Chicago, who presented a series of ten lectures featuring colored slides on the art and archaeology of Central and South America; Dr. Emilio Uzcátegui, a prominent attorney, who discussed "Systems and Methods of Education in the United States;"⁴⁰ and Dr. Pío Jaramillo Alvarado, vice president of the Casa de la Cultura, who

40. The Record, 4 (February, 1948), p. 16.

spoke on "Aspects of the Bogotá Conference."⁴¹ Dr. Anibal Buitrón, co-author with John Collier, Jr., of the book Awakening Valley, gave an interesting lecture in 1951 on Otavalo which was illustrated by projected slides.

A series of demonstrations, comprising such topics as North American cookery and flower arrangements, was scheduled during the morning hours to appeal to women. These were received with enthusiasm, and husbands and children were guinea pigs serving as experimental tasters of apple pies and banana cakes.

The centro has cooperated with the Círculo Universitario Norteamericano, an alumni association of persons educated in the United States, which has its headquarters in the institute and which was founded for the purpose of bettering inter-American relationships. Honorary presidents have been John F. Simmons, former American ambassador, and the former president of Ecuador, Galo Plaza.⁴²

In the spring of 1952 chess and ping-pong tournaments were staged by the center students, and the winners received silver trophies. In November of the same year an election party was given. Great excitement was displayed at the returns which were heard over three short-wave radios situated in different classrooms. Blackboards and maps

41. Ibid., 4 (November - December, 1948), p. 37.

42. Ibid., 6 (May - June, 1950), p. 19.

were used to demonstrate the distribution of votes. An estimated one hundred and fifty persons, including a surprising number of Ecuadorians, were present.

Dances with orchestras are held five times a year, attracting an average of one hundred and fifty couples each time. Social hours are sponsored bi-monthly, featuring conversation, cards, ping-pong, chess, and dancing to records; these draw an average of one hundred people. In the last few years square dancing every Friday night has become an established custom. There one can see high-ranking diplomats of foreign countries including the ambassadors of Great Britain and the United States "swinging" their respective partners as the Brazilian military attaché is intent on mastering a complicated square dance figure.

The Centro Ecuatoriano-Norteamericano has been beset with two grave problems. First, the continuity of policies and the good-will of the people have suffered by the constant change of directors. In the five-year period between 1946 through 1950 there were five directors and one acting director. Second, this center, unlike Guatemala City and São Paulo, has never been self-supporting but is dependent on the State Department for an annual grant to meet local expenses. Progress, however, has been achieved in both instances. The director appointed in February, 1951, remained in this capacity for over two years. The percentage of self-sufficiency has, also, been increased from fifty-nine per cent in December, 1950, to eighty-one per cent for the year 1952.

Adequate housing, another dilemma, is no nearer a satisfactory solution now than it was ten years ago. This will undoubtedly continue to vex the director and the board until a building can be constructed to meet all the center's requirements.

During the last year, the reduction of the grantee staff by two-thirds posed many difficulties. In July, 1953, one grantee, the director, was supplied by the State Department, whereas in July, 1952, the staff consisted of three grantees: the director, the director of courses, and a librarian. Under these conditions the physical impossibility of the expansion of activities cannot be over-emphasized.

The Centro Ecuatoriano-Norteamericano will probably never be a large institution in terms of student enrollment and membership. It has, however, inherent possibilities of attaining an eminent position and exerting considerable influence in the promotion of closer cultural relations between Ecuador and the United States. This can be realized by the successful performance of its activities which have been previously explained.

CHAPTER IV FINANCE

Prior to 1941 the eight existing institutes were not officially connected with the United States government, and their reliance on local leadership and local budgetary responsibility was considered to be a valuable asset in the accomplishment of their purposes.¹ They were entirely self-sufficient, deriving their operating expenses from class and membership fees, as well as contributions from individuals and organizations.

The principal source of local revenue, then as now, has been the fees from English classes, and the significance of this activity as a means towards self-support should not be minimized. It has been estimated by four institutes that 90 per cent or more of their local income for the calendar year 1953 was derived from this program, while three centers reported that between 40 and 66 per cent of their running expenses came from the same activity.² Tuition has been relatively low for classes, varying from two to three dollars per month. Furthermore, it has been calculated that a class of ten students will break even in its operating expenses, and that the tuition from additional students

1. The Cultural-Cooperation Program, 1938-1943, p. 23.

2. Seven questionnaires were received.

is profit.

Membership dues, a second source of revenue, have contributed as high as 28 per cent of the total income in Valparaiso, whereas in São Paulo they have been estimated at 2 per cent.³ The sale of textbooks and earnings from dances and concessions, such as tea-rooms, sometimes yield small profits. In Quito, for example, \$250 was netted on the five dances sponsored during 1952.

Contributions and gifts from individuals and organizations have been received since the beginning of this program. Moreover, during recent years as the centers have gained in popularity, these donations have increased. For example, in 1947, the American Society in Mexico gave \$4,000 to the Instituto Mexicano-Norteamericano de Relaciones Culturales for the construction of an auditorium. A steamship company has contributed to the centers in Concepción and Valparaiso, Chile and the Instituto in Santiago has regularly received help from the American Society of that city.⁴ The Managua institution solicited money and received contributions including \$107 from the Weis-Fricker Export and Import Corporation, and \$104

3. Letter: Questionnaire sent by the writer to the directors at the Instituto Chileno-Norteamericano de Cultura, Valparaiso, and União Cultural Brasil-Estados Unidos de São Paulo. Oct., 1953.

4. Murphy, *op. cit.*, p. 810.

from the local American society.⁵ In a drive for contributions, the Centro Cultural Paraguayo-Americano in Asunción obtained substantial donations from two American business firms: The Punta Alegre Sugar Corporation of New York gave \$1,250, and the Union Oil Company of Los Angeles \$500. The success of this effort made it possible for the center to be the first to acquire permanent quarters.⁶ The Union Oil company also donated \$2,500 to the center in Habana,⁷ and the Cuban government promised \$40,000 toward its building program.⁸

Host governments have contributed to the support of the centers in Venezuela and Brazil by annual subsidies.⁹ The Instituto in Valparaiso has received franking privileges for mail inside the country, while the Governor's office and City Hall have helped with the expenses of lecturers' hotel bills, etc., in Fortaleza.¹⁰

5. The Record, 6 (March - April, 1950), p. 29.

6. Gilbert A. Crandell, "Winning Friends South of the Border," American Foreign Service Journal, 27 (September, 1950), p. 19.

7. The Record, 5 (August - September, 1949), p. 34.

8. Hellyer, op. cit., p. 1.

9. The Cultural-Cooperation Program, 1938 - 1943, p. 24.

10. Letter: Questionnaire sent by the writer to the directors at the Instituto Chileno-Norteamericano de Cultura, Valparaiso and Instituto Brasil-Estados Unidos, Fortaleza. Oct., 1953.

Similar institutions sponsored by European countries, however, had long been subsidized by their respective governments, such as England, France, Germany, Italy, and Spain, and were, consequently, able to offer more worthy activities than those of the American centers. Therefore, in response to requests for assistance, the office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs began to provide financial aid in 1941 in the form of personnel, supplies, equipment, and, when necessary, small cash grants to cover deficits in local operating expenses. This was continued later by the Division of Cultural Relations.

The extent of aid supplied by the State Department to the cultural centers can best be summarized by the use of statistics. In 1947 eighty-one North American administrators and teachers were provided, as compared to twenty-seven in 1943.¹¹ The cost of this administrative personnel was less than 4 per cent of the amount spent from all sources on the program abroad.¹² The \$181,000 which was allotted in 1943 for the centers was raised to \$600,000 in 1947. This increase in appropriations was not commensurate with the corresponding growth, expansion, and importance of the program, however. During this period fifteen new centers were established, while the total student and public

11. Cooperation in the Americas, p. 76.

12. Murphy, op. cit., p. 811.

attendance more than tripled.¹³ For the calendar year 1951, the cultural center program, which had reached an estimated five million persons since 1940,¹⁴ was allotted \$853,282¹⁵ -- less than the cost of a B-29 bomber.¹⁶

This government assistance, however, does not interfere with the local responsibility for the center's operating budget, which is generally prepared by the director of the institute. After approval by the board, the budget is then submitted to the State Department, via the cultural relations attaché of the United States embassy. If the center is dependent on a cash grant from Washington to cover deficits in local expenses, approval of the proposed budget must be obtained. Otherwise, submission for State Department approval is merely a matter of form, since the board has complete supervision over local expenditures. In the event of disapproval the only control left for the department would be to reduce the number of grantees or supplies, or both.

Actually, a large number of the institutes are wholly

13. Cooperation in the Americas, p. 76.

14. Hellyer, op. cit., p. 4.

15. Waging the Truth Campaign, p. 64.

16. In 1942, a B-29 bomber cost \$893,730, as found in U. S. Department of Defense. Army Almanac, book of facts concerning Army of United States, prepared at Armed Forces Information School, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1950), p. 241.

self-supporting¹⁷ in their local expenditures, which comprise such items as rent, utilities, local salaries, furnishings, and costs of special events. Among these are the organizations at Lima, Guatemala City, São Paulo, San José, Guadalajara, Buenos Aires, Montevideo, and Recife.¹⁸ The last three mentioned have had no American personnel, and only 2.6 per cent, 10.8 per cent and 16 per cent of their total operating expenses, respectively, represent materials sent by the State Department. Other centers depend on assistance for American grantees as well as supplies, yet are 100 per cent locally financed, for example: São Paulo, with 7,528 students and five grantees in 1950, was 81.5 per cent self-sufficient; and Lima, with 3,832 students and five grantees, was 54.1 per cent self-sufficient.¹⁹ There are, however, some smaller centers, such as those

17. The distinction between the terms self-supporting and self-sufficient as used by the State Department may be explained thus; a self-supporting center (one which finances all of its local expenditures from local income) is not necessarily self-sufficient. The percentage of self-sufficiency is obtained by comparing the financial investment of the State Department (personnel, supplies, and cash grant when necessary) with the total expenditures, including both local expenses and assistance from the State Department. If a center were 100 per cent self-supporting in local expenses and refused to accept aid from the State Department, it would then be considered both self-supporting and self-sufficient.

18. Questionnaires received.

19. Launching the Campaign of Truth, First Phase, p. 63.

at Quito, San José, and Fortaleza, which have little prospect of becoming self-supporting, and which depend on a "grant-in-aid" for the payment of deficits to assure smoother operations.

The goal of local self-financing is rapidly being approached. In 1942 the centers earned approximately 10 per cent of the total cost of their operation,²⁰ while in 1950 the percentage of self-sufficiency had been increased to 61.7 per cent which included the salaries of a total of eighty-two grantees and whatever books and materials were sent, as assistance from the State Department.²¹ In 1947 the total income of the centers was \$639,627, accounting for 95 per cent of their local expenses.²²

The State Department has encouraged the centers in the development and expansion of their income-producing activities. Two reasons for this attitude are: a dependence on annual Congressional appropriations has not proven entirely satisfactory, witnessed, for example, in the reduction of American personnel from eighty-two in 1950 to fifty-three in March, 1953; and bi-national financing promotes an "unofficial" institution, decreasing the possibility of the center's becoming a propaganda agent.

20. Trading Ideas With the World, p. 42.

21. Launching the Campaign of Truth, First Phase, p. 63.

22. Trading Ideas With the World, p. 42.

Although the cultural institutes have been, on the whole, financially sound, there has existed a serious drawback to this financial aspect. The dependence on two unstable and variable factors, i.e., the enrollment in the English classes, and the annual appropriations of Congress for the State Department, has not been conducive to long-range planning and expansion of activities; instead center programs have to be constantly adapted and revised to fit a fluctuating income.

CHAPTER V

ACTUAL RESULTS AND IMPORTANCE

The actual results and the importance of the bi-national cultural centers in Latin America can be roughly separated into two principal categories: those which are tangible, immediate and, therefore, readily apparent, and others more difficult to assess because of their indefinite and continuing character. The first classification is composed of pertinent results derived from the English teaching program, while the latter represents the effects of the over-all endeavor.

There is probably no better medium for promoting strong cultural relations between peoples than the linguistic approach. Without a knowledge of the language of a country, a true understanding and an appreciation of its culture are difficult to achieve. The cultural centers operate on this theory.

The value of the English teaching program, moreover, can best be determined by an examination of concrete evidences of its effectiveness. After a lecture tour in Latin America, the late Dixon Weeter, professor at the University of California, wrote that "centers staffed by Americans have the reputation of teaching most quickly

and effectively; indeed they serve as pilots in language instruction methods."¹ Another observer, in an article which appeared in Hispania, a teachers' journal published by the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese, commended the English teaching in the Mexico City Institute. She stated that the system developed in these classes, based on mimeographed lesson plans adapted from work done at the English Language Institute in Michigan and from the center's own philosophy of methods, was the most efficient observed in Mexico.²

The development of textbooks for the teaching of English as a foreign language has been a logical and necessary result of this program. The centers have acted as laboratories for the testing, discarding, and revising of techniques and methods. The prime requirement for any method adopted has been the achievement of a speaking and reading knowledge of English in a minimum length of time. Dissatisfaction with existing presentations resulted in new approaches which were incorporated in textbooks by American institute teachers. Sample titles include: Frederick Sparks Stimson's Fundamentos de la conversación inglesa, James Paul Stoakes' Inglés práctico, The Regions

1. Wecter, op. cit., p. 167.

2. Mary Louise Grow, "Teaching English in Mexico City," Hispania, 32 (August, 1949), p. 337.

of the United States, a series of five lectures prepared by the staff of the Centro Colombo-Americano, Audrey Wright's English Review and Practice and Practique su Inglés, and Lecturas en inglés para médicos y enfermeras by Charles Staubach and Arturo Serrano M., all contributions from the two centers in Colombia; from Lima, Dr. Esther J. Crooks' First Year English and Fourth Year English, Hazel M. Messimore's Second Year English, Dr. Ples Harper's Third Year English, Faye Bumpass' series including Bob and Ellen Marsh in Peru (two volumes) and John and Lucy Ward in the United States; and from Caracas, Inglés moderno by Drs. John and Jeannette Varner. Textbooks for Brazilians include English for Americans by Ned C. Fahs and Raymond Sayers and Americans Speaking, assembled by Chryssie Hotchkiss, Ralph Dimmick, and Ralph Ingalls.³ These books have been widely used in other centers, and several have been adopted by Ministries of Education as official textbooks for use in public elementary and secondary schools.

The quality of English teaching in the Latin American countries has improved as a result of the seminars, teachers' associations, governmental recognition, and the development of new materials. Local business firms soon became aware of the value of the centers in this field. They encouraged employees to study English by paying

3. Murphy, op. cit., p. 805.

all or part of their fees and by arranging more convenient work schedules. In Medellín, Colombia, employees of the Coca Cola company, Compañía Antioqueño de Automoviles, Royal Bank of Canada, Sidney Ross company, and the University of Antioquia had their tuition paid.⁴ In April, 1947, 234 of the center students in Bogotá were employed by local companies which paid all or part of their tuition; and a power and light company in Costa Rica contributed approximately \$2,000 for the privilege of sending as many as twenty workers over a ten-year period to the center for instruction.⁵ Companies such as Panagra World Airways, W. R. Grace, and Shell Oil have also provided scholarships for their personnel. In Caracas the head of the industrial relations department of the Creole Oil company notified the center that they would send all new employees there to study English, rather than incorporate it in their indoctrination school, because they were pleased with results shown the previous semester.⁶ In appreciation of the classwork in São Paulo, the vice president of Johnson and Johnson company, which had twenty employees studying English at the União, wrote ". . . we believe your work to be a fine thing, not only in increasing the already friendly

4. The Record, 6 (January - February, 1950), p. 37.

5. Murphy, op. cit., p. 806.

6. The Record, 5 (June - July, 1949), p. 32.

understanding between Brazil and the United States, but also in helping Brazilian and American companies to better their commercial relationships."⁷

The bi-national institutes have, in return, attempted to fill requests for English-speaking persons in all types of positions. Unfortunately the demand is always greater than the supply. In a period of six months the Lima institute received requests for teachers from fourteen schools, including the Peruvian "West Point."⁸

The increased interest in the study of English at the centers moreover bears directly on the number of young people going to the United States for high school, university, and professional education. Probably the questions most asked in all libraries concern American universities and colleges. The financial aspect of a United States education is the principal preoccupation of eager scholars. On several occasions, upon the advice of the librarian, it has been suggested that a prospective student write directly to the college of his choice and inquire about the availability of a partial scholarship. Twice such assistance was offered in response to this query, enabling two more

7. Cooperation in the Americas, p. 80.

8. U. S. Department of State. IIA, Ninth Semi-annual report of the Secretary of State to Congress on the International Information and Educational Exchange Program, January, 1952 to June, 1952. Publication no. 4867 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1953), p. 13.

worthy students to realize their ambitions.

Numerous requests for assistance in the founding of new branches is also conclusive evidence of the vigor and effectiveness of this program. When John Cooper Wiley was Ambassador to Colombia he made a trip into the interior, and was besieged with entreaties that more centers be established. Mr. Spruille Braden, as Ambassador to Argentina, related the same experience.⁹ Consequently, while forty-seven branch centers were in existence in Latin America in 1948, more have been established since that time.¹⁰ Occasional book packets sent by the State Department are the only form of aid received by these branches.

The extent of the interest evinced in this movement may be further indicated by the quantity of miscellaneous publications which the centers have received from many sources. American organizations, educational institutions, and individuals donated two million items during the fiscal year of 1951 for use in the educational exchange program. Chambers of commerce, labor unions, educational institutions, and industrial concerns contributed posters,

9. Dorothy E. Greene, "The Informal Diplomats," American Foreign Service Journal, 23 (October, 1946), p. 9.

10. U. S. Department of State. International Educational Exchange, Publication no. 3313 (Washington: The Department, 1953), p. 10.
The exact number of branch centers in existence at the present time can not be determined, for many of them receive no aid from the Department of State.

maps, brochures, etc. For example, the John Hancock Mutual Life Insurance company distributed pamphlets such as The Flag, The Constitution, and United States Presidents. A book entitled Steel Making in America was the contribution of the United States Steel Corporation, and the Standard Oil Company's donation included the title Oil for the World. Various railroad companies sent thousands of copies of maps. A pamphlet explaining how the American Federation of Labor fights communism throughout the world was received from that organization. Without doubt, however, the most popular gifts were the mail order catalogs of the Sears Roebuck company.¹¹ When the United States military establishments were withdrawn from Brazil and Cuba, their libraries were given to the cultural centers in Recife, Fortaleza, and Habana. The Costa Rica institute was the recipient of a private collection of classical recordings, numbering between one thousand to fifteen hundred records.¹²

In addition, four hundred private agencies and institutions have cooperated in the recruiting of persons for information and bi-national centers. Columbia University and the University of Michigan have assisted in the training program instituted by the State Department, in which

11. U. S. Advisory Commission on Educational Exchange. Sixth Semi-annual Report on Educational Exchange Activities, January 1 to June 30, 1951 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1952), p. 6.

12. Murphy, op. cit., p. 810.

center personnel was enrolled, without charge, for several weeks. Here they were able to observe language classes before they were sent out to their respective institutes.¹³

Official opinions and personal statements regarding the effectiveness of the cultural centers in their area of work are both interesting and noteworthy. A selected number of these has been chosen to indicate the general nature of the first-hand impressions.

In a report made by the Committee on Appropriations of the House of Representatives after its trip to South and Central America and published on December 4, 1941, the cultural societies were commended for their "splendid" work.

. . . These groups should be given every encouragement possible, both moral and financial. An effort should be made to increase the number of such societies so that some organization will be at hand in every country to further the cause of continental solidarity.¹⁴

The Department of State also mentioned the contributions of the cultural centers in a letter directed to the Honorable Pat McCarran, chairman of a subcommittee of the Senate Committee on Appropriations, in response to his thirteen questions concerning the objectives and operations

13. U. S. Advisory Commission on Educational Exchange. Sixth Semi-annual Report . . . pp. 28-29.

14. U. S. Department of State. The Program of the Department of State in Cultural Relations. Inter-American Series, no. 21 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942), p. 8.

of the information program. It was asserted that the activities of the cultural centers are conducted "with great understanding and sensitivity for local manners and methods." The explanation given for this was that both the United States personnel who direct the program, and the Americans long resident in the area who participate, are well acquainted with the customs and traditions of the host country.¹⁵

Herschel Brickell, a well-known author and critic, has written that the cultural institutes have helped to teach English to thousands of Latin Americans, and also have aroused their interest in our literature.¹⁶ In a later article he claimed,

If we could increase every phase of our cultural-relations program five-fold, I believe we should be considerably short of what the other American Republics want as badly as they need . . .¹⁷

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15. U. S. Congress. Senate. The Objectives of the United States Information Program, 82nd Congress, 2nd Session, Senate Document no. 143 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1952), p. 50.
 16. Herschel Brickell, "Books Take to the Road," Inter-American, 3 (November, 1944), p. 15.
 17. Herschel Brickell, "The Cultural-Relations Scene in South America," Department of State Bulletin, 8 (October 28, 1945), p. 698.

Joseph F. Dawson, vice-president of the United States center in Santiago, Chile, and a representative of the National City Bank of New York, likewise stated in an address that the

cultural institutes capable of great expansion in numbers within countries as well as between countries are one of the most effective means of creating understanding and world cooperation.¹⁸

Many prominent individuals are in accord with this opinion, including Robert M. Scotten, formerly ambassador to Ecuador,¹⁹ Walter Thurston, former ambassador to El Salvador, Bolivia, and Mexico,²⁰ and Fletcher Warren, ambassador to Paraguay from 1947 to 1950.²¹

Two respected newspapers have also commented on the work of the cultural centers. In November, 1952, a survey of the United States government's information activities covering forty-four nations was conducted by twenty-four correspondents of the New York Times. Their findings concurred with the views expressed above.²² The Christian Science Monitor of May 10, 1952, related the success of the

18. Cooperation in the Americas, p. 80.

19. Ibid.

20. Greene, op. cit., p. 10.

21. Crandell, op. cit., p. 19.

22. New York Times, November 24, 1952, p. 8:6.

Santiago center in overcoming "apprehension that it is merely an organ to sugar-coat Yankee propaganda."²³

That the Communistic press has commented adversely on the work of the centers in various countries, such as Brazil, Cuba, Guatemala, and Mexico, may be interpreted as an indication of the success of the program. A citation from Hoy, a Communist newspaper published in Habana (June 18, 1950) has been selected to illustrate the attitude assumed by Communistic organs regarding the cultural centers.

Ostensibly . . . (the purpose of the Institute) . . . is to teach the English language, explain American history and give other special courses. On the whole, its teaching covers a program of "closer relations and understanding between the peoples of Cuba and the United States."

In practice, its task is political, its mission propaganda. Propaganda in favor of Yankee imperialism; warmongering propaganda; anti-Soviet propaganda; anti-Cuban propaganda, since it is disrupting and contributes to the formation of a false and poisonous point of view in the minds of a considerable group of young people, most of them in the middle class.²⁴

The popularity of the English classes at the centers is perhaps best illustrated by the following incident which occurred in January, 1947, when the Mexico City center announced that there would be three hundred vacancies in the English classes for the next semester. At 4:00 a.m.

23. U. S. Department of State. IIA, Ninth Semi-annual Report . . . p. 13.

24. Reprinted in Charles W. Harrington, The Cultural Centers . . . p. 26.

on registration day a queue was started which numbered over two thousand five hundred. When several youths climbed over the top of the building to gain a better place in line, policemen, who were called to preserve order, placed themselves in the front and also registered.²⁵ This is not an unusual or isolated case, for there are always longer registration lines than sufficient accommodations, especially in the larger centers, such as Lima, Santiago, Rio de Janeiro, and São Paulo. Dixon Wecter reported: "Every one of the nine institutes I visited is bursting its seams, physically speaking. Classrooms are jammed morning, noon, and night."²⁶

In addition to the obvious results of the English teaching program, there is an intangible factor to be noted. This cannot be definitely attributed to the influence of the cultural centers, but it is, nevertheless, given encouragement in this program.

The centers have tended to assist the development of a middle class. Equipped with a knowledge of English, the students of the centers can better their economic prospects. In the classes impartial attention is given to each student, regardless of social "position"; library questions are answered and privileges are accorded to all, without dis-

25. Murphy, op. cit., p. 806.

26. Wecter, op. cit., p. 167.

crimination; and persons from every stratum are welcome at the cultural and social functions. A free and easy informality pervades the atmosphere. Barriers are broken not only between Latins and Americans but also among Latins themselves. Obstacles are diminished between individuals as well as between groups.

On the other hand, the opportunities offered by these organizations have appealed chiefly to the middle class, an increasing sector of the population. Furthermore, this predominant interest in and support of the institutes have come from this element,²⁷

Many staunch supporters of the centers have witnessed with amazement and pleasure the mingling of classes and nationalities at activities sponsored by these organizations. At a celebration of Pan-American Day, for instance, a dance was given at the Centro Ecuatoriano-Norteamericano. Looking down at the gaiety from a balcony, a North American businessman, resident of Quito for many years, exclaimed to the director that this (the centro) was the biggest thing the United States had ever done; never before had he seen a place permeated with such good-will. He then singled out a couple below, and explained that the girl was a daughter of one of the richest merchants in town and had studied in the United States, while her partner, a young

27. Waging the Truth Campaign, p. 27.

man of lowly origin, was employed at a local bank, a position attained principally by the fluency in English he had gained at the center. They had met in the same English class. With great satisfaction the businessman cited similar cases. "Some day in Ecuador," he concluded, "there will be a strong middle class."

That these institutes are helping hundreds of struggling workers to attain a more encouraging station in life is exemplified in the case of Ricardo, a young hotel clerk. He said,

Three months ago I was still a clerk in a cheap hotel, earning barely enough to keep body and soul together. Now I am assistant chief clerk in a large hotel patronized by Americans. My salary is nearly four times bigger than before. I feel like somebody now--and I might even get married! All this because of the English I have learned at the Institute.²⁸

Another instance occurred in Lima, when an American tourist was directed to a beauty parlor where English was spoken. She asked her attendant how she had learned English. The young girl replied that she had been studying English in the Instituto for over two years. It was difficult, she admitted, to save enough out of her meager earnings to pay her tuition. However, she had been recompensed for this sacrifice by higher wages, bigger tips

28. Erik Vane, "Biblioteca Benjamin Franklin," Rotarian, 73 (September, 1948), p. 54.

from American customers, and increased prestige among her fellow workers.

Every effort is made as well to assist the American tourist in his orientation to and appreciation of the host country. For him, the center serves as a base of operations--a place where information is obtained, and suggestions are offered, in an attempt to make his experience more profitable. In addition, the visitor is invited to participate in the many opportunities presented to meet Latin Americans on an informal basis.²⁹ All these services contribute to a healthier attitude toward the country visited on the part of the North Americans.

Fletcher Warren, formerly United States Ambassador to Paraguay, expressed his views on the subject as follows:

In this post-war era we desire and need the friendly understanding by the Paraguayan people of what the United States is, and of what it stands for. The Centro Cultural Paraguayo-Americano is an institution successfully serving that end. The longer it serves, the closer will be the United States-Paraguayan relations and the better will be the mutual understanding. I trust the Centro has come to be a permanent instrument for the promotion of that understanding.³⁰

By the foregoing results, illustrations and testimony

29. Murphy, op. cit., p. 810.

30. Crandell, op. cit., p. 18.

the importance of the bi-national institutes as a phase of international cultural relations has been indicated. Adverse criticism of the centers will be treated in the following chapter together with recommendations.

CHAPTER VI

DEFECTS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND PROSPECTS

The cultural centers can be justly proud of their achievements. Satisfaction in past accomplishments does not promote advancement or improvement, however. To insure the successful continuance of any program, it is necessary to analyze existing defects, consider plausible recommendations, and investigate future prospects. The ever-changing national and international scene will inevitably affect the degree of United States cooperation with other countries. Nevertheless, the principle of the "Good Neighbor" policy in Latin America seems assured and there is no reason to expect a radical change in the near future.

In order to determine the adequacy of our cooperation with Latin America, two important surveys have recently been conducted. In August, 1952, a subcommittee of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations obtained an evaluation of the importance of bi-national centers in this area from mission chiefs of the United States serving abroad. They agreed that the centers, because of their unofficial and cooperative character, reached large numbers of people in "influential and opinion forming groups" and that they were considered to be highly effective. It was felt, however,

that

their "potential value" and "limitless possibilities" have not yet been realized . . . More and improved information center, library, and bi-national center facilities are suggested, both generally and in terms of giving the program broader scope.¹

After an official fact-finding tour of South America from June 23 to July 29, 1953, Dr. Milton Eisenhower also recommended that the bi-national centers, along with other existing programs of intellectual and cultural cooperation, be expanded.²

Before expansion of the centers can be planned, however, careful consideration should be given to their weaknesses. The causes of the faults underlying the entire program of international information also apply to the cultural centers, as one phase of that agency. Edward Ware Barrett, formerly chief of the information division, lists the difficulties as follows: one, the development of reliable evaluation techniques to test the persuasiveness of different phases of the program; two, the inability to recruit top men for executive positions; three, the excessive red tape, too rigid budgets, and bureaucratic rivalry; and four, the necessity, on the part of the execu-

1. U. S. Advisory Commission on Educational Exchange. Ninth Semi-Annual Report on Educational Exchange Activities, July 1 - December 31, 1952 (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1953), p. 8.

2. U. S. President. Report to the President: United States - Latin American Relations (Washington: The State Department, 1953), p. 28.

tives, of spending more time combatting false charges than in the correction of the basic faults.³ In applying the first point to the cultural centers, one realizes that they, too, defy accurate evaluation of their program. Statistical reports, which indicate the number of people participating in the various activities, are meticulously recorded and regularly submitted. Yet, they furnish no indication of how much good-will and understanding are actually generated. For example, occasionally when lectures in English were given at a certain center and attendances were low, a number of classes were dismissed, often against their wishes, to fill the space in the auditorium and increase the figures in the quarterly report. The second difficulty listed above applies to center personnel as well as to the policy-makers in Washington, and is treated in the discussion of the "grantee" which follows. The third cause of the faults of the International Information Agency is not evident in the field program for these reasons: there is a minimum of red tape, local budgets are prepared by the center, and the status of the "grantees" is not enviable. The final point has been a factor for the cultural centers, too. In one instance an executive resigned because more time had to be spent on the defense of the program than on constructive

3. Edward W. Barrett, Truth is Our Weapon (New York: Funk and Wagnalls Company, 1953), p. 292.

planning. This allocation of time is naturally felt by the field personnel and affects the continuity of policy so necessary to the welfare of the institutes.

Assuming that the value of the cultural centers has been established, and that the expansion of the program in Latin America is desirable, specific recommendations can be ventured.

The degree of success attained by a particular center depends to a great extent on the capabilities, attitude, training, and judgment of the staff. The director and the other "grantees" must be selected with great care. Although the educational background of the applicant must be considered and preference is often shown to majors in the social sciences, education, or modern language fields, the personality of the applicant should be the prime factor. No amount of academic training can rectify a deficiency so vital in cultural relations. Although a working knowledge of the language of the country to which he is being sent is also necessary, yet more important is his ability to adjust to a different environment, people, and culture, while still maintaining his balance as a representative of the United States. Fortunately for the continued well-being of the institutes, there have been many more successful directors and "grantees" than inadequate or undesirable persons. Nevertheless, the turnover of administrative personnel in two centers averaged one director per year during a five-

year period. At least one of these proved unsatisfactory and was, therefore, recalled after one year, while others left voluntarily, due to various reasons, i.e., better offers, poor health, dissatisfaction with local conditions, or personal circumstances.

On the other hand, in order to attract better personnel to the center program, the status of the "grantee" must be clarified and improved. The conscientious staff member (director and teachers) devotes approximately fifty hours a week to his job. Besides his regular office hours and classroom work, which generally require his presence at the center until eight o'clock every night, his attendance at the various social and cultural activities is also essential. There are also frequent demands made upon the staff to attend cultural offerings of other organizations and educational institutions. The director's salary, which generally begins at \$4,000 annually plus a living allowance, is not commensurate with the responsibilities and the work involved in the administration of this "three-ring circus;" neither are the salaries of the other staff members, which begin at \$2,750. Furthermore, the years spent in cultural center work do not contribute toward future financial security. No provisions have been made in regard to retirement or pension plans; neither is center work a recognized asset for future employment possibilities. The grantee's status is unofficial

and ambiguous. Although he is awarded a grant by the State Department, which also has the power to dismiss him, yet he can never use the department as a reference in seeking another job. In addition, none of the privileges accorded even to the lowest classification of clerks and stenographers of the embassy is his. All of this is discouraging to the prospective appointee, as well as to those already in the service. It also complicates the difficulties involved in the recruitment of qualified personnel so necessary to the successful continuance and expansion of the program. With the intention of promoting the continuity of center policy, it has, moreover, been suggested that the grantee staff serve longer than the required two years at a given assignment. This would tend to increase the full cooperation of the Latin Americans who generally find it hard to adapt themselves to constantly changing staff members. In light of the above, this is scarcely attainable, however. There also should be more overlapping of personnel, thereby avoiding the awkward situation in which a replacement has arrived after the departure of his predecessor.

The proposed expansion of the cultural centers would necessarily affect the English teaching program, where there is always room for improvement in spite of the progress which has been made. Continuous experimentation with even newer methods can be made. Systematic in-service

training of locally hired teachers should be regularly scheduled, replacing the haphazard instruction generally given now due to lack of time and personnel. The classes in English should be more uniform in their approach and their content through closer supervision and control, thus eliminating student dissatisfaction, especially evident when a change in instructor and class is unavoidable. More time should also be allotted to the director of courses for curriculum and course planning. The creation of more classes to meet the increased demand for the study of English cannot, however, be solved by the majority of the centers until more classrooms are available and more qualified teachers are provided.

The field of cultural and social activities can likewise be widened to embrace a greater variety of interests. The possibility of forming clubs, such as those concerned with drama, sports, music, photography, etc., as have been developed in the institutes at Santiago and São Paulo, can be a future consideration for other centers. This would presumably attract more people from different groups.

The quality of the activities offered by the institutes can also be improved. Through experience it has been found more worthwhile to sponsor one outstanding lecturer of high caliber a year than a half dozen mediocre performers. Providing their services could be obtained, Walt Disney or Helen Hayes, for example, would create a major sensation

and a lasting impression in any South American capital. Generally speaking, however, a better reception results if the lecturer can speak the language of the country and if he has some appreciation of Latin American culture and tradition. The above holds true, although to a lesser extent, for musicians and artists. The "culture-conscious" cities of Latin America would royally welcome a well-known modern American painter or musician, such as Andrew Wyeth or Risè Stevens. The presentation of a North American "big-name" band headed by Xavier Cugat, Sammy Kaye, or Noro Morales would also be an unforgettable experience. The students in Lima still talk about one memorable afternoon when Vincent Price and Barbara Britton visited the Institute. The movie programs would be greater attractions, too, if newer and better films were available. Documentary productions in technicolor with dialogues in Spanish are excellent inducements. In short, the quality of the cultural and social programs offered should receive major emphasis, the quantity being a secondary consideration.

Too frequently the burden of representing the people of the United States falls principally on the grantee staff. The regular attendance of members of the North American colony at social affairs of the center would lessen this responsibility, as well as greatly enhance the various events. This manifestation of genuine interest in the

institutes would also be much appreciated by its students, members, and staff.

The library program, moreover, would be a bigger "drawing-card" if a full-time North American librarian were available at each center. This professional assistance would result in a better organization and in expanded activities which would yield a more satisfied clientele. To allure the Americans, who usually read only the latest books reviewed in current periodicals, the acquisition of recent titles should be expedited; likewise, more Spanish translations of worthwhile new books in English are essential to attract the Latin Americans. Above all, emphasis should always be placed on the actual use of books in accordance with true public library practices, as opposed to the prevalent notion in Latin America that a library is merely a depository.

In most countries a satisfactory solution to the ever-present housing problem has not been found. As previously mentioned, the majority of the centers will never be able to finance the construction of permanent quarters. Neither is it feasible for the United States government to assist in this matter, for it would give the centers an official, and therefore, undesirable aspect. If any additional aid is forthcoming from this source, it would better be used in supplying other needs, as outlined above. One possibility exists, however, that of relying on donations from individuals and companies, as exemplified by the Centro Cultural

Paraguayo-Americano (see chapter IV). Perhaps some North American philanthropic foundation could be interested sufficiently in the cultural centers to undertake this project of building adequate quarters, thus boosting the prestige of both the centers and the foundation. This expression of concern in a non-profit enterprise by "big business" of the United States would clearly demonstrate the true meaning of philanthropy, relatively unknown in Latin America.

It has often been questioned whether the progress of the centers is advanced or handicapped by their financial complexities. Complete withdrawal of State Department assistance would seriously weaken the whole center program, in its achievements as well as in its policy. On the other hand, too generous financial support by the United States government would impair the semi-independent status of these organizations, and tend to curb their flexibility in local decisions. In other words, the value of the program increases as "official sponsorship" decreases. Consequently, the retention of the bi-national financing is imperative, if the center program is to refrain from becoming solely another medium for propaganda.

In fact, the bi-national, or cooperative, character of the center program must be maintained in all its phases, if the common perils inherent in any concerted effort involving the dissemination of information are to be avoided. These dangers include the use of high pressure tactics,

ostentation, boastfulness, and too obvious propagandizing.

The continuance of bi-national centers sponsored by various governments and of the scholarship program, such as the one formally agreed upon at the Inter-American Conference in Buenos Aires, demonstrates the need for better international understanding through cultural relations. In view of this, the prospects for the future success of the cultural centers are good. Their establishment as well as their present existence are based on a genuine need arising from the peoples of the various countries in which they function. With them rests the ultimate decision for the continuance of the program. No governmental decree from Washington can abolish this activity, although it may be handicapped from time to time by insufficient congressional appropriations. On the other hand, it is very unlikely that the government of the host country would take action against the cultural centers, for this might imperil their official relations with the United States which they can ill afford. However, the mutual understanding, which the cultural centers are generating, will be a potent factor in the guaranteeing of their future.

QUESTIONNAIRE ON BI-NATIONAL CENTERS

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

When was the Center founded?

By what groups of people was it founded?

Are there any special events or circumstances in the foundation?

No. of students enrolled the first year _____
No. of students enrolled this year _____

Type of student enrolled (by percentage)	First year of operation	Present year
Professionals	_____	_____
Clerks	_____	_____
Housewives	_____	_____
Students (school and university)	_____	_____

TEACHING OF ENGLISH PROGRAM

Methods employed (phonetic approach, etc.) Textbooks used.

Average number in a class _____

Proportion of American to native teachers

Is there graduation or a diploma awarded after completion of prescribed courses?

Diploma	yes	no
Graduation	yes	no

How many years of study are offered? _____

Are any subject courses offered? Please check.

- Art
- Music
- History
- Literature
- Others (Please specify)

Total number enrolled in subject courses _____

TEACHING OF ENGLISH PROGRAM (cont.)

Are there any special or teaching seminars?

Attendance _____

Activities connected directly to the Teaching of English program--such as conversational teas, etc. Please specify.

Attendance _____

Are there any classes in Spanish or Portuguese?

Enrollment _____

LIBRARY PROGRAM

Current Year

Number of Library Members _____

Students of Center _____

Non-students _____

Nationals _____

Americans _____

Others _____

Names of any outstanding library members of national or international fame

Circulation of books and magazines per quarter _____

Fiction _____

Juvenile _____

Non-fiction _____

Science _____

Literature _____

History _____

Magazines _____

Please list magazines most popular

Reference Questions

Number answered per quarter _____

Samples of typical questions

CULTURAL PROGRAM

Kinds of activities offered (please check)	Attendance
Lectures	_____
Round table discussions	_____
Music recitals or programs	_____
Social Hours	_____
Dances	_____
Sports	_____
Special celebrations and events	_____
Specify	_____
Others (specify)	_____

Observations on activities (value)

PUBLICITY

Please check

Local newspapers _____
Other newspapers _____
Radio _____
Other organs (please specify) _____

FINANCE OF CENTER (current year)

Percentage of self support _____
Sources of income (percentage) _____
Teaching of English and Spanish _____
Activities (dances, etc.) _____
Other means of support (specify) _____

Grant from State Department _____

If more money were available, what specific services or supplies would be recommended?

RECOGNITION OF CENTER

Does the local government (specifically the Ministry of Education) support the activities of the Center? _____
How?

RECOGNITION OF CENTER (cont.)

Does the American Embassy support the activities of the Center?
Officially and unofficially?
How?

Is there any criticism or praise of the Center made by the local press or local politicians?

Has there been any special interest shown in the activities of the Center by members of the United States Congress?
How?

Is there any interest or support shown by non-governmental groups?
National or American?

STAFF, PERSONNEL, AND HOUSING OF CENTER

What is the average length of time served by grantees?

Would a more permanent staff improve the work of the Center?
How?

What ways would be suggested to improve the selection of grantees?

Are the physical quarters of the Center adequate?
If not, is there any solution to the problem?

RECOMMENDATIONS TO BETTER THE CENTER AND ITS ACTIVITIES

ANECDOTES, OBSERVATIONS, AND COMMENTS RELATIVE TO SUCCESS
AND PRESTIGE OF CENTER

Appendix no. 3

BI-NATIONAL CULTURAL CENTERS IN LATIN AMERICA

LOCATION	NAME	DATE OF FOUNDATION
ARGENTINA		
Buenos Aires	Instituto Cultural Argentino-Norteamericano	1927
Córdoba	Instituto de Intercambio Cultural Argentino-Norteamericano	1931
Rosario	Asociación Rosarina de Intercambio Cultural Argentino-Norteamericano	1943
BOLIVIA		
La Paz	Centro Boliviano-Americano	1946
BRAZIL		
Salvador (Bahia)	Associação Cultural Brasil-Estados Unidos	1941
Curitiba	Centro Cultural Inter-Americano	1941
Fortaleza	Instituto Brasil-Estados Unidos	1943
Pôrto Alegre	Instituto Cultural Brasileiro-Norteamericano	1938
Recife	Sociedade Cultural Brasil-Estados Unidos	1946
Rio de Janeiro	Instituto Brasil-Estados Unidos	1937
Santos	Centro Cultural Brasil-Estados Unidos	1943
São Paulo	União Cultural Brasil-Estados Unidos	1938
CHILE		
Concepción	Instituto Chileno-Norteamericano de Cultura	1942
Santiago	Instituto Chileno-Norteamericano de Cultura	1938
Valparaiso	Instituto Chileno-Norteamericano de Cultura	1946
COLOMBIA		
Bogotá	Centro Colombo-Americano	1940
Medellín	Centro Colombo-Americano	1947
COSTA RICA		
San José	Centro Cultural Costarricense-Norteamericano	1945
CUBA		
Habana	Instituto Cultural Cubano-Norteamericano	1942
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC		
Ciudad Trujillo	Instituto Cultural Dominicano-Americano	1947
ECUADOR		
Quito	Centro Ecuatoriano-Norteamericano	1941
GUATEMALA		
Guatemala	Instituto Guatemalteco-Americano	1945

Appendix no. 3 (cont.)

LOCATION	NAME	DATE OF FOUNDATION
HAITI		
Port-au-Prince	Institut Haitiano-Americain	1942
HONDURAS		
Tegucigalpa	Instituto Hondureno de Cultura Interamericana	1939
MEXICO		
México, D.F.	Instituto Mexicano-Norte-americano de Relaciones Culturales	1942
Guadalajara	Instituto Mexicano-Norte-americano de Relaciones Culturales	1951
NICARAGUA		
Managua	Centro Cultural Nicaraguense-Americano	1942
PARAGUAY		
Asuncion	Centro Cultural Paraguayo-Americano	1942
PERU		
Lima	Instituto Cultural Peruano-Norteamericano	1938
URUGUAY		
Montevideo	Alianza Cultural Uruguay-Estados Unidos	1939
VENEZUELA		
Caracas	Centro Venezolano-Americano	1941

Dates of foundation were found in U. S. Department of State. International Information and Educational Exchange Program, Fifth Semi-annual Report of the Secretary of State to Congress, January 1 to June 30, 1950. International Information and Cultural Series, no. 18 (Washington: The Department, 1951), p. 56.

Appendix no. 4

OCCUPATIONAL GROUPING OF AMERICAN CENTERS' CLIENTELE

(Based on Detailed Analysis Made by
14 Centers of 25,086 Persons)

Occupational Grouping	Membership	Enrollment in English Classes	Library Borrowers
White Collar Workers (Clerks, secretaries, etc.)	16%	26%	29%
Students (High School and University)	19%	37%	30%
Housewives	16%	8%	10%
Teachers	8%	4%	7%
Professionals (Doctors, lawyers, librarians, etc.)	18%	6%	8%
Specialists and Technicians	5%	3%	4%
Business Men (Owners, agents, managers, etc.)	8%	5%	6%
Others (Artists, military, laborers, writers, etc.)	10%	11%	6%

Data furnished by the Division of Libraries and Institutes of the Department of State, based on a survey made during the fall of 1950, as found in Charles W. Harrington, *The Cultural Centers, Uncle Sam's Bid for Friendship* (Unpublished paper, University of New Mexico, 1952), p. 23.

Table 19 - Binational Centers in the Other American Republics
(Calendar year 1950)

Location	Staff		Financial Self- sufficiency	Members
	American grantees ²	Locals ³		
Total.....	82	522	Percent ⁴ 61.7	24,637
ARGENTINA-BUENOS AIRES.....		36	97.4	6,348
CORDOBA.....	2	20	53.9	630
ROGARIO.....	1	9	73.5	249
BOLIVIA - LA PAZ.....	4	10	35.4	960
BRAZIL - BAHIA.....	2	10	49.4	1,448
CURITIBA.....	1	15	66.2	580
FORTALEZA.....	1	14	24.8	184
PORTO ALEGRE..	3	15	68.4	1,617
RECIFE.....		10	89.2	560
RIO DE JANEIRO	4	45	75.2	1,188
SANTOS.....	1	5	59.2	207
SAO PAULO.....	5	47	61.5	946
CHILE - CONCEPCION.....	2	7	70.2	614
SANTIAGO.....	5	32	66.9	2,851
VALPARAISO.....	2	7	42.6	348
COLOMBIA-BOGOTA.....	6	29	57.6	350
MEDELLIN.....	3	14	61.7	184
COSTA RICA-SAN JOSE.....	4	10	51.5	321
CUBA-HABANA.....	2	10	84.3	6,910
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC-				
CIUDAD TRUJILLO.....	3	11	33.5	560
ECUADOR-QUITO.....	3	14	20.4	404
GUATEMALA-GUATEMALA.....	4	17	47.7	1,986
HAITI-PORT AU PRINCE.....	3	9	11.2	366
HONDURAS-TEGUCIGALPA.....	2	9	16.7	147
MEXICO-MEXICO, D.F.....	6	28	63.7	3,837
NICARAGUA-MANAGUA.....	1	11	19.0
PARAGUAY-ASUNCION.....	3	14	51.9	1,004
PERU-LIMA.....	5	44	54.1	427
URUGUAY-MONTEVIDEO.....		4	82.0	300
VENEZUELA-CARACAS.....	4	16	43.3	6,110

¹ Binational centers operate on a calendar-year basis, with attendance figures cumulative from January - December.

² American staffs provided by Department.

³ Administrative and teaching staffs paid from local income of centers.

⁴ Percent of total operating costs, including Department assistance, covered by local income.

⁵ Programs open to the general public include lectures, exhibits, concerts, social events, forums.

⁶ Estimated.

English class en- rollment	Public Library			Public Program attendance ⁵	
	Number of Volumes	Circulation of Volumes	Library Users		
Total	50,513	145,145	170,702	323,703	620,268
⁶ 4,750	⁶ 6,316	⁶ 567	⁶ 500	⁶ 4,400	
⁶ 1,050	⁶ 3,334	⁶ 2,910	⁶ 13,460	⁶ 9,305	
403	3,463	2,610	886	5,340	
⁶ 1,765	⁶ 2,705	⁶ 3,009	⁶ 10,478	⁶ 23,379	
⁶ 744	⁶ 4,525	⁶ 2,637	⁶ 3,097	⁶ 8,217	
⁶ 425	⁶ 3,440	⁶ 2,030	⁶ 1,050	⁶ 12,045	
365	5,451	2,197	7,303	18,742	
⁶ 1,549	⁶ 4,358	⁶ 6,585	⁶ 20,159	⁶ 31,979	
⁶ 89	⁶ 1,400	⁶ 570	⁶ 500	⁶ 2,700	
3,600	8,942	10,181	19,198	18,890	
781	1,944	963	4,379	14,521	
⁶ 7,528	⁶ 8,746	⁶ 13,812	⁶ 43,550	⁶ 64,281	
⁶ 1,023	⁶ 3,407	⁶ 4,168	⁶ 1,140	⁶ 16,417	
2,952	6,843	20,056	13,200	55,565	
527	2,562	2,021	7,907	11,755	
2,264	5,717	7,644	23,511	48,065	
1,023	2,997	2,426	29,098	28,077	
⁶ 1,199	⁶ 6,794	⁶ 10,770	⁶ 8,620	⁶ 35,887	
⁶ 830	⁶ 18,283	⁶ 5,299	⁶ 2,000	⁶ 13,121	
655	3,065	3,466	9,768	31,433	
1,204	2,712	5,481	18,613	12,977	
1,184	8,089	20,888	20,544	24,680	
575	4,030	1,135	3,682	9,871	
352	6,261	14,533	5,834	3,354	
5,317	7,537	71,562	75,000	35,213	
847	(?)	(?)	(?)	8,006	
956	6,331	6,474	18,927	29,794	
3,832	4,501	8,181	26,933	21,324	
⁶ 1,100	6,000	
⁶ 1,624	⁶ 8,392	⁶ 8,507	⁶ 4,366	⁶ 15,000	

⁷ Small collection of English-teaching materials only; center uses separate U. S. Information Center maintained by Department.

*The above table was reproduced from:
U. S. Department of State. Launching the Campaign of Truth: First Phase, Sixth Semi-annual Report of the Secretary of State to Congress on the International Information and Educational Exchange Program, July 1 to December 31, 1950. Publication no. 4375 (Washington: The Department, 1951), p. 63.

Appendix no. 6

Instituto Guatemalteco-Americano

Texts - Sept. - Nov. 1953 Trimester

- English I....."Speak American English," Book I
or
"El Inglés Hablado"
(To be used for Eng. I, II, III, IV)
- English II....."Speak American English," Book II
- English III....."Speak American English," Book III
- English IV....."Speak American English," Book IV
- English V....."Speak American English," Book IV
and
"People in Livingston"
- English VI....."Pratique Su Inglés"
- English VII....."Pratique Su Inglés"
- Conversation I....."People in Livingston"
- Advanced Conversation...(Assignments to be made in class)
- Beginning Speech Lab...."Pronunciation Drills in English"
(Harlee)
- Advanced Speech Lab....."Pronunciation Exercises in English"
(Dixson)
- Children's Classes....."Fries, American English, Book One"
- Commercial Corre-
spondence....."Business English"
(workbook free to those registered
in course)
- Beginning Shorthand....."Gregg Shorthand"
- Advanced Shorthand....."Gregg Speed Studies"

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This publication and the others listed below published by the centers are valuable for the first-hand information they contain.

- *Centro Ecuatoriano-Norteamericano. Prospecto, año escolar, 1953-54. Quito: Centro Ecuatoriano-Norteamericano, 1953. c3, pp.

Harrington, Charles W., The Cultural Centers, Uncle Sam's Bid for Latin American Friendship. Unpublished Paper, University of New Mexico, 1952. 28 pp.

Written by a former director of the Institute in Ciudad Trujillo, this paper is valuable for its personal anecdotes.

- *Instituto Cultural Dominicano-Americano. Cursos de inglés, trimestre, 1953-1954. Ciudad Trujillo: Instituto Cultural Dominicano-Americano, 1953. c4, pp.

- * Vistas, número I, septiembre y octubre, 1953. cCiudad Trujillo: Instituto Cultural Dominicano-Americano, 1953, 10 pp.

- *Instituto Cultural Mexicano-Norteamericano de Jalisco. Curso intensivo para profesores de inglés, en cooperación con la secretaria de educación pública, 3 de julio - 18 de julio, 1953. Guadalajara: The Institute, 1953. c3, pp.

- * Explicación de los cursos, segundo trimestre de 1953. Guadalajara: The Institute, 1953. c1, p.

- * Prospecto. Guadalajara: The Institute, 1953. c2, pp.

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Departamento de cursos. Información...tercer trimestre, 1953. Guatemala: The Institute, 1953. c4, pp.

Instituto Mexicano-Norteamericano de relaciones culturales.
Program, July, 1953. Mexico City: The Institute,
1953. c4, pp.

Johnson, Gloria, Cultural Centers and their Libraries in Latin
Countries. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Carnegie
Institute of Technology, 1951.

This thesis proved of very little value, for it is
based on relatively few periodical articles and
government documents. The majority of numbered pages
consists of clippings, pictures, and information
sheets from the various centers.

*McCallum George P. The Role of the Binational Center.
cWashington: Government Printing Office, n.d.]
c4, pp.

*U. S. Department of State. Information Center Service.
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*Chapman, Charles Edward, Republican Hispanic America; A History. New York: Macmillan Company, 1937. 463 pp.

*Chase, Stuart and Marian Tyler, Roads to Agreement; Successful Methods in the Science of Human Relations. 1st ed. New York: Harper, 1951. 250 pp.

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*DeConde, Alexander, Herbert Hoover's Latin American Policy. Stanford, Calif. : Stanford University Press [c1951]. 154 pp.

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*Diez de Medina, Raúl [pseud. Nerval, Gaston], Autopsy of the Monroe Doctrine; The Strange Story of Inter-American Relations, New York: Macmillan Company, 1934. 357 pp.

*Duggan, Lawrence, The Americas, The Search for Hemisphere Security. New York: Henry Holt and Company, [c1949]. 242 pp.

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Kendel, I. L., United States' Activities in International Cultural Relations (American Council on Education Studies, Series I, Reports of Committees and Conferences, no. 23, vol. IX, Sept., 1945). Washington: American Council on Education, 1945. 102 pp.

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* "Bookmen Join to Protest Cuts in Cultural Relations Budget," Publishers' Weekly, 151 (May 17, 1947), pp. 2498-2499.

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* "Books Perform Vital Service in 'Campaign of Truth'; with editorial comment," Publishers' Weekly, 158 (Nov. 16, 1950), pp. 2200-2204.

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* Brecker, Richard L. "Truth as a Weapon of the Free World," American Academy of Political and Social Science Annals, 278 (Nov., 1951), pp. 1-11.

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* Gjelsness, Rudolph H. "Story of an American Library in Mexico," Musican, 50 (Sept., 1945), pp. 171-173.

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* Heiliger, Edward, "American Library at Nicaragua," Library Journal, 70 (Aug., 1945), pp. 663-665.

* Heindel, Richard H. "American Libraries in Foreign Service," Special Libraries, 38 (Jan., 1947), pp. 3-5.

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* _____ "United States Libraries Overseas," Survey Graphic, 35 (May, 1946), pp. 162-165.

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- * Ludington, Flora B. "Congress Asked to Extend Information Program," Library Journal, 76 (Aug., 1951), p. 1175.

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- * "Mexico Holds Book Fair as Franklin Library Opens," Publishers' Weekly, 141 (June 13, 1942), pp. 2203-2205.
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- * Shaw, Ralph R. "Biblioteca Benjamin Franklin," Library Journal, 74 (June 1, 1949), p. 884.

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- * Thomson, Charles A. "The Emerging Program of Cultural Relations," American Library Association Bulletin, 38 (Feb., 1944), pp. 75-81.

- * Truman, Harry S. "Fight False Propaganda with Truth," Vital Speeches, 16 (May 1, 1950), pp. 442-444.

- * Tellez, Hernando, "Yankee Culture Seeps in ..." Americas, 1 (Oct., 1949), pp. 22-23.

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* Woodbridge, Hensley C., "Cuba: Soviet Propaganda Center," American Mercury, 61 (Sept., 1945), pp. 378-379.

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