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Intercambio Internacional

Vol. I No. 1

Western Kentucky University, Bowling Green, Kentucky 42101

WESTERN KENTUCKY UNIVERSITY
ARCHIVES

Editorial

El proposito de la presente publicacion es el de presentar un medio de comunicacion a la comunidad academica del continente, para comentar y presentar los ultimos avances en el campo de la ciencia, las ideas y juicios sobre los acontecimientos politico-economicos de los tiempos modernos, y la evaluacion de los esfuerzos comunes que se realizan por el mejoramiento de las condiciones de vida de las naciones americanas.

Los objetivos de la ciencia estan por encima de los credos politicos y de las estructuras administrativas y sociales cuando se ponen al servicio del hombre. El conocimiento de los valores culturales de cada una de las naciones es un imperativo para establecer las bases del dialogo. El desarrollo no se puede copiar ni se debe importar. Cada pueblo debe encontrar su propio destino mediante el uso racional de su recursos humanos y naturales.

La Universidad, donde quiera que este localizada, debe ser un instrumento de cambio. Estudiantes y profesores deben buscar la solucion a los problemas de su medio ambiente mediante el uso del metodo cientifico. El mundo no puede soportar la presencia de universidades que funcionen unicamente como centros de sabiduria; esta no tiene valor alguno mientras no se utilice en el mejoramiento del mundo.

Con este fin, invito a mis colegas de Norte, Centro y Suramerica a colaborar con esta publicacion, porque mediante el intercambio de nuestros esfuerzos en la investigacion cientifica basica y aplicada podremos encontrar ideas utiles y aplicables a la solucion de los grandes interrogantes que giran alrededor del hombre en las naciones industrialmente desarrolladas, y en aquellas que se esfuerzan por alcanzar mejores niveles de bienestar economico.

Todos los avances tecnologicos nacen en la mente del hombre; sin este elemento habrian sido imposibles los cambios y las transformaciones ocurridas en el transcurso de los años. El equilibrio entre lo material y lo espiritual debe mantenerse para evitar el alienamiento de la mente; el excesivo enfasis en el desarrollo cientifico tecnologico puede traer problemas que atenten contra la misma existencia del hombre. No seria utopico insinuar que el campesino de los Andes esta mas cercano del concepto de lo que entendemos por vida feliz, que el habitante de las grandes metropolis de los llamados paises desarrollados.

Raymond L. Cravens
Vice President for Academic Affairs

En el nacimiento de esta nueva Revista, dedicada al avance de la ciencia y del conocimiento y al entendimiento entre las naciones, deseo extender mi invitacion a nuestros colegas en las Americas, para participar como socios en esta empresa de la inteligencia.

El exito de esta Revista dependera de las contribuciones tanto de usted como de los profesores de Western Kentucky University. No hay dialogo mientras no exista la participacion de dos o mas personas. Solicitamos y necesitamos sus opiniones y sus articulos; su ayuda permanente es indispensable para el cumplimiento de nuestros objetivos.

W. Lynwood Montell
Coordinator of the Center
for Intercultural Studies

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La inflación ha dejado de ser un problema unico de los países en via de desarrollo. el Dr. Kenneth T. Cann, Director del Departamento de Economía de Western Kentucky University presenta un estudio completo sobre las causas y los alcances del proceso inflacionario de los Estados Unidos en los últimos años.

The Economic Problems of a Mature Economy: Recent Inflation in the United States

I. Introduction

Inflation is a social and economic phenomenon, but it is defined in statistical terms. The definition, therefore, does not identify the causes. Inflation may be defined as a general rise in the level of prices as measured by a price index including many products. We must be careful, however, not to confuse price rises for a few products with inflation, for one would normally expect that relative prices would tend to fluctuate over time. It is possible that the prices for some products may rise, while the prices of other products may fall, or not change. If, statistically speaking, price rises are balanced by price declines during the same time period, the level or the average of prices remains unchanged. As a result, we have price stability rather than inflation or deflation. If, however, when analyzing the price behavior of many products, one finds that price increases exceed price declines, then the price index will rise, and we have statistically identified inflation.

An identification of the causes of inflation is much more difficult. This question alone has occupied economists for many years as they have attempted to find causes, explanations, and cures for inflation. Briefly, however, we may generally identify the major causes of inflation as follows:¹

1. Excess aggregate demand.
2. Excessive increases in costs, particularly wages.
3. Excessive money creation.
4. Insufficient competition: administered prices by companies with market power.

I mention this only by way of introduction because I do not wish to discuss the theoretical arguments about the causes of inflation. What I would like to discuss is the inflation problem in the United States in terms of the history of inflation since 1950, government price stabilization policies, and the nature of current inflationary pressures.

II. Inflationary Trends in the United States

Since 1950

Between 1950 and 1972 the general consumer price index rose by 53%, or at an average rate of 2.3% per year. The index for goods rose by 42% and the index for services rose by 75%. Over the twenty-three year period the prices of services rose almost twice as fast as the prices of goods.

The wholesale price index for the same period shows that the prices of all products rose by 37%, or at an average rate of 1.6% per year. Agricultural product prices by themselves rose 28%, while industrial product prices rose by 40%.

Price increases of that magnitude would be considered mild in many countries, for example Brazil and Chile. They are cause for concern in the United States, however, because the inflation has been persistent and chronic, and in recent months the rate of price increases has tended to grow, indicating the existence of an inflation psychology. Furthermore, the Employment Act of 1946 made price stability one of the country's national economic goals.² It may be interesting, therefore, to identify the main inflationary periods since 1950, and examine the success or failure of government policies designed to control inflation.³

A. 1950-1951: Period of the Korean War and Aggregate Demand Inflation

At the end of World War II the United States economy went through a period of readjustment which culminated in an economic decline in 1948. In 1949, however, the economy began to expand again and recorded increases of \$14 billion (8%) in consumption and \$18 billion (51%) in private investment in 1950. With the beginning of hostilities in Korea government spending increased by \$21 billion (56%) in 1951 over that of 1950, thus adding to an already expanding aggregate demand.

Since total demand rose to a virtual full-employment level, prices began to rise. The consumer price index increased by 6% and the wholesale price index by 10% in 1951. As a result, the federal government took steps to control inflation. Specifically, it increased tax collections by \$15 billion, reduced non-military spending, established price and wage controls, and initiated a restrictive monetary policy. The rapidly applied combination of fiscal and monetary policies were effective in controlling inflation because the consumer price index increased by less than 1% in 1953 and 1954, becoming negative in 1955, and the wholesale price index showed declines in the rate of increase for 1952 and 1953.

B. 1955-1958: "Creeping Inflation"

A mild recession occurred in 1953, but the economy recovered at the end of 1954 in response to tax reductions and an increase in the money supply. Gross national product rose by \$33 billion (9%) in 1955. The economy remained strong through 1958, with gross national product increasing at an average of 3% per year.

The price indexes rose slowly over the four year period at an average rate of less than 2% per year. Although prices increased at slightly higher rates in comparison with those recorded between 1952 and 1954, this was a period of relative price stability with a weak upward bias. The reason why inflationary forces were not stronger rested upon restrictive monetary and fiscal policies. Taxes remained at high levels, the government recorded budget surpluses in 1956 and 1957, and the Federal Reserve System (the Central Bank) kept tight control on the money supply. Although inflation was mild, the government did not attain complete price stability.

C. 1961-1965: A Shift in Government Policies

By 1959 increases in both the consumer and wholesale price indexes fell below 1% per year. Government policy makers now felt that inflation was under control, but that the economy was not functioning up to its potential. The gap between potential and actual gross national product was estimated to be \$40 billion in 1961. Moreover, unemployment was on the order of 6.8% at the beginning of 1961. As a result, the federal government embarked on a program of economic expansion.

Fiscal policies became stimulatory as the government reduced taxes and expanded its spending. Monetary policy changed from restraint to mild expansion in the money supply. Finally, since the government feared that its policy changes might cause a recurrence of inflation, it announced a program of price and wage guides. Specifically, it suggested that wage and price increases should not exceed productivity increases.

During this five year period gross national product grew at a rate of 6.3% per annum, which is approximately twice the long-run rate of growth of the United States' economy. Prices appeared to be stabilized because average increases in both the consumer and wholesale prices indexes were less than 1% per year. Finally, the rate of unemployment fell from 6.7% in 1961 to 4.5% in 1965. In general, the economic policies undertaken by the Kennedy administration were successful. They not only stimulated the economy, but they achieved price stability and reduced unemployment.

D. 1965-1972: Fiscal Excess and Ineffective Policies

By the end of 1965 unemployment was down to 4%, the full-employment level, the economy was functioning satisfactorily, and inflation was under control. The previous period of growth with price stability, however, did not continue because of excessive increases in total demand, expansionary monetary policy, and a recurrence of inflation.

Fiscal policy became strongly expansionary after 1965 as a result of tax reductions and a sharply rising level of government expenditures. Several tax reductions, including a substantial decrease in income tax revenues released approximately \$13 billion for consumption spending. At the same time spending was increased by the federal government for new social programs (The Great Society) and for the Vietnam War. Between 1965 and 1968 federal spending rose by almost \$63 billion or by 46%. Finally the money supply was expanding at a 4.5% annual rate.

The effect of these expansionary fiscal and monetary policies were gradually reflected in various price indexes. The consumer price index, for example, increased from 1.2% per annum in 1964 to 4.2% per year in 1968. The wholesale price index increased from 0.2% per year in 1964 to 2.5% in 1968. At the same time the rate of unemployment fell from 5.2% to 3.8%.

In order to combat inflation the government attempted to reinstate price and wage guides similar to those used during the Kennedy administration. These guides were frequently violated, however, by both business and labor, and were finally abandoned in 1966. Thus, they were never effective in preventing inflation. The Federal Reserve attempted to restrain the renewed inflationary tendencies by means of new controls on the money supply, but it came under presidential criticism. This was an unfortunate occurrence because it marked the end of a long period of cooperation between the Federal Reserve and the Administration in conducting complementary monetary and fiscal policies.

Special mention must be made of the role played by the Vietnam War in pushing total demand to excessive levels. Although the United States was lightly engaged in Vietnam from 1964, its decision to intervene on a massive scale caused increases in military expenditures far beyond initial estimates. In 1967, for example, the Pentagon underestimated Vietnam spending by \$10 billion. To give some idea of the cost of the Vietnam War, the National Industrial Conference Board reported that the United States ultimately made extra military expenditures on Vietnam above general defense expenditures that would have been incurred in the absence of war as follows:⁴

Extra Costs of Vietnam War	
Year	Amount
1967	\$ 17.5 billion
1968	20.0
1969	21.5
1970	17.4
1971	12.0
1972	7.9
Total	\$ 96.3

In an effort to control excess demand and inflation the Johnson administration proposed the imposition of a 10% surtax on the income tax in January, 1967. Most economists supported this action, but the Congress, insisting that the government reduce its spending, let the proposal die in committee. A year later the president resubmitted his tax proposal to Congress, and it was passed in July, 1968. The action was correct, but too late to control inflation for the following reasons: first, the time lag between initial proposal and ultimate passage (eighteen months) allowed people to purchase goods in anticipation of a tax increase, thereby increasing rather than decreasing consumer demand. Second, disposable personal income rose by almost \$45 billion,

therefore, when the tax was finally imposed it did not cause a sufficiently large reduction in consumer demand below the 1967 levels.

The administration of President Nixon faced serious economic problems of an inflationary nature when it entered office in January, 1969. The fiscal excesses and economic programs of previous years had not controlled inflation. The consumer price index rose by 5.6% in 1969 and 6.5% in 1970, while the wholesale price index increased at an average of 4% per year.

The initial economic stabilization policy of the Nixon administration was based upon a reduction in federal government expenditures by means of reduced domestic spending, an end to the Vietnam War, and control of the money supply. The surtax was reduced to 5%, however, and the President said that he had no intention of imposing wage and price controls. In retrospect it seems highly probable that his statement gave business and labor unions an excuse for raising prices and wages, and as a result the economy now became entangled in cost-push inflation on top of an excess demand inflation.

The inflation that took place during 1970 and 1971 eventually caused the administration to change its mind and introduce an incomes policy (wage and price controls) in August of 1971. The President, at that time, announced a 90 day freeze on wages and prices, with the exception of agricultural and food products, and created the Cost of Living Council. In November, 1971 the freeze was replaced by a system of wage and price controls designed to limit wage increases to no more than 5.5% per year, and to hold average price increases to 2.5% per year. This time, however, the guides were enforced by a Wage Board and a Price Commission.

These policies yielded some success in controlling inflation as indicated by the price indexes. Increases for consumer prices fell from 6.5% per year in 1970 to 4% in 1972. Increases in the wholesale price index fell to 3.5% in 1971, but rose again to 5.2% in 1972. Given the limited success of price and wage controls, a continued undesirable rate of unemployment (5.6% in 1972), withdrawal from Vietnam, and continued distaste for a controlled economy by the administration, the government changed to a voluntary system of wage and price controls in January, 1973 and abolished the Wage Board and the Price Commission.

The so-called partial decontrol of Phase III (January, 1973 to June, 1973) proved to be disastrous because preliminary figures show that inflation rose to an average annual rate of 9.2%.⁶ Consequently, the government announced a second price and wage freeze in June, 1973 which lasted for 60 days. In August, 1973 price and wage controls, similar to those that existed between November, 1971 and January, 1973 were reapplied.

During the two price freeze periods most agricultural and food prices were exempted. This may have been a mistake because the indexes show clearly that large price increases occurred for agricultural products. The wholesale price index shows, for example, that between February, 1972 and February 1973, the index for all raw agricultural products rose by 30%, while the prices for animal feeds rose 79%, leather, 26%, and lumber, 23%. Industrial product prices rose at much lower rates (rubber and plastics - 0.9%, paper - 4.9%, machinery - 2.3%, metal products - 4.3%), but then the prices of these products were controlled. The behavior of retail prices was similar. The index for food in general rose by 8.9%, but particular food prices increased by much higher amounts (fresh meats - 16.5%, potatoes - 38%, onions - 68%, and eggs - 40%). The retail prices of most manufactured goods and processed foods increased by much lower rates, but again these prices were being controlled.

The government officials responsible for controlling inflation should not be severely criticized, however, because of the increases in agricultural and food prices. They probably

could not have prevented price increases for these products without causing serious economic distortions. I say this because of a combination of events that simultaneously increased the demand and decreased the supply of agricultural products.

On the demand side, it is well known that the Northamerican public has changed its pattern of food consumption. As personal income increased, people demanded less cereals but more fresh meat, fruits, and vegetables. At the same time United States exports of basic cereals increased substantially to meet foreign demand. Russia and China, for example, purchased large quantities of cereals from the United States during the past year.

On the supply side, United States agriculture suffered from a series of natural calamities over the past two years. During the summer of 1972 the corn harvest was reduced because of the corn blight. During the fall of 1972 heavy rains damaged soya and corn still in the fields and delayed harvests. During the winter of 1972-73 extremely cold weather and heavy snow on the great plains killed many animals. Finally torrential spring rains this year caused the flooding of approximately 20 million hectares of soya, cotton, and corn land, thus delaying or preventing seeding in time to produce a good harvest. In conclusion, therefore, demand increased at a time when supply was falling. Under these conditions prices could only move in one direction - upward.

III. Future Prospects

This has been a very brief review of an extremely complex problem, but I have only tried to provide the essence of the problem rather than the details. My purpose was only to show that the United States has a problem of chronic inflation similar to that experienced by most industrialized nations, and to briefly describe the various strategies used by government to stabilize prices.

As far as the future is concerned, the factors causing inflation may differ from those described here, and government policies may change from time to time in response to variations in the causes. The United States, however, will probably continue to experience persistent but relatively mild price increases because the inflationary pressures spring from basic political and social processes and from the institutional structure of the economy.⁸ On the other hand, the country will not experience explosive inflation because the same institutional structure, and political, and social processes will function in such a way as to prevent uncontrolled inflation.

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Changes in Wholesale Price Indexes By Stages of Production Feb. 1972 - Feb. 1973

Raw Materials	28.2%
Foods	33.1
Non-Food Materials	20.8
Fuels	10.7
Intermediate Goods	8.4
For Industry	5.4
For Construction	6.7
Prepared Fuels	7.8
Containers	5.7
Supplies	22.2
Manufactures	6.2
Consumer Goods	7.3
Producers Goods	2.4

Source: *Monthly Labor Review*, Department of Labor, Washington, D.C.

Consumer Price Indexes United States, 1950 - 1973 1967 = 100

Year	General Index	Change	Goods	Change	Services	Change
1950	72.1	—	78.8	—	58.7	—
1951	77.8	5.7	85.9	7.1	61.8	3.1
1952	79.5	1.7	87.0	1.0	64.5	2.7
1953	80.1	0.6	86.7	-0.3	67.3	2.8
1954	80.5	0.4	85.9	-0.8	69.5	1.9
1955	80.2	-0.3	85.1	-0.8	70.9	1.4
1956	81.4	1.2	85.9	0.8	72.7	1.8
1957	84.3	2.9	88.6	2.7	75.6	2.9
1958	86.6	2.3	90.6	2.0	78.5	2.9
1959	87.3	0.7	90.7	0.1	80.8	2.3
1960	88.7	1.4	91.5	0.8	83.5	2.7
1961	89.6	0.9	92.0	0.5	85.2	1.7
1962	90.6	1.0	92.8	0.8	86.8	1.6
1963	91.7	1.1	93.6	0.8	88.5	1.7
1964	92.9	1.2	94.6	1.0	90.2	1.7
1965	94.5	1.6	95.7	1.1	92.2	2.0
1966	97.2	2.7	98.2	2.5	95.8	3.6
1967	100.0	2.8	100.0	1.8	100.0	4.2
1968	104.2	4.2	103.7	3.7	105.2	5.2
1969	109.8	5.6	108.4	4.7	112.5	7.3
1970	116.3	6.5	113.5	5.1	121.6	9.0
1971	121.3	5.0	117.4	3.9	128.4	6.8
1972	125.3	4.0	120.9	3.5	133.3	4.9
1972 Jan.	123.2	—	118.7	—	131.5	—
1972 Feb.	123.8	0.6	119.4	0.7	131.8	0.3
1972 Mar.	124.0	0.2	119.7	0.3	132.1	0.3
1972 April	124.3	0.3	119.9	0.2	132.4	0.3
1972 May	124.7	0.4	120.3	0.4	132.7	0.3
1972 June	125.0	0.3	120.7	0.4	133.1	0.4
1972 July	125.5	0.5	121.2	0.5	133.5	0.4
1972 Aug.	125.7	0.2	121.4	0.2	133.8	0.3
1972 Sep.	126.2	0.5	122.0	0.6	134.1	0.3
1972 Oct.	126.6	0.4	122.3	0.3	134.6	0.5
1972 Nov.	126.9	0.3	122.7	0.4	135.4	0.5
1973 Jan.	127.7	0.4	123.4	0.5	135.7	0.3
1973 Feb.	128.6	0.9	124.5	1.1	136.2	0.5

Source: *Monthly Labor Review*, Department of Labor, Washington, D.C.

Changes in Retail Price Indexes Selected Products Feb. 1972 - Feb. 1973

Foods in General	8.9%	Rent	4.3
Meat	16.5	House Prices	4.9
Beef	16.2	Real Estate Taxes	9.9
Pork	22.8	Fuels	5.0
Chicken	11.6	Gas	4.8
Fish	14.3	Electricity	5.6
Milk	4.1	Furniture and Accessories	3.0
Butter	0.2	Furniture	2.2
Fruits and Vegetables	9.4	Washing Machine	0.5
Apple	12.7	Refrigerator	0.0
Banana	0.9	Soap	0.7
Orange	7.5	Clothing	
Potato	38.0	For Men	3.6
Onion	68.6	For Women	1.6
Cabbage	-10.4	Shoes	4.9
Tomato	6.0	New Autos	-0.9
Other Foods		Used Autos	9.4
Eggs	39.8	Gasoline	5.7
Margarine	-1.5	Tires	-4.5
Sugar	3.6	Medicines	4.3
Coffee	9.0	Cigarettes	2.2
Tea	3.0	Beer	1.2
Housing	4.4	Wine	3.7

Source: *Monthly Labor Review*, Department of Labor, Washington, D.C.

Wholesale Price Indexes
United States, 1950 - 1973
1967 = 100

Year	All		Agri.		Mfg.	
	Products	Change	Products	Change	Products	Change
1950	81.8	-	93.9	-	78.0	-
1951	91.1	10.1	106.9	13.0	86.1	8.1
1952	88.6	-3.3	102.9	-4.0	84.1	-2.0
1953	87.4	-1.2	96.0	-6.9	84.8	0.7
1954	87.6	0.2	95.7	-0.3	85.0	0.2
1955	87.8	0.2	91.2	-4.5	86.9	1.9
1956	90.7	2.9	90.6	-0.6	90.8	3.9
1957	93.3	2.6	93.7	3.1	93.3	2.5
1958	94.6	1.3	98.1	4.4	93.6	0.3
1959	94.8	0.2	93.5	-4.6	95.3	1.7
1960	94.9	0.1	93.7	0.2	95.3	-0.5
1961	94.5	-0.4	94.7	0	94.8	-0.5
1962	94.8	0.3	94.7	0	94.8	0
1963	94.5	-0.3	93.8	-0.9	94.7	-0.1
1964	94.7	0.2	93.2	-0.6	95.2	0.5
1965	96.6	1.9	97.1	3.9	96.4	1.2
1966	99.8	3.2	103.5	6.4	98.5	2.1
1967	100.0	0.2	100.0	-3.5	100.0	1.5
1968	102.5	2.5	102.4	2.4	102.5	2.5
1969	106.5	4.0	108.0	5.6	106.0	3.5
1970	110.4	3.9	111.6	3.6	110.0	4.0
1971	113.9	3.5	113.8	2.2	114.0	4.0
1972	119.1 ¹	5.2	122.4	8.6	117.9	3.9
1972 Jan.	116.3	-	117.4	-	115.9	-
1972 Feb.	117.3	1.0	119.6	2.2	116.5	0.6
1972 Mar.	117.4	0.1	119.1	-0.5	116.8	0.3
1972 April	117.5	0.1	118.3	-0.8	117.3	0.5
1972 May	118.2	0.7	120.0	1.7	117.6	0.3
1972 June	118.8	0.6	121.3	1.3	117.9	0.3
1972 July	119.7	0.9	124.0	2.7	118.1	0.2
1972 Aug.	119.9	0.2	123.8	-0.2	118.5	0.4
1972 Sep.	120.2	0.3	124.5	0.7	118.7	0.2
1972 Oct.	120.0	-0.2	123.3	-1.2	118.8	0.1
1972 Nov.	120.7	0.7	125.3	2.0	119.1	0.3
1972 Dec.	122.9	2.2	132.6	7.3	119.4	0.3
1973 Jan.	124.5	1.6	137.0	4.4	120.0	0.6
1973 Feb.	126.9	2.4	142.4	5.4	121.3	1.3

Source: *Monthly Labor Review*, Department of Labor, Washington, D.C.

Changes in Wholesale Price Indexes
Selected Products
Feb. 1972 - Feb. 1973

Agriculture Products	30.2%	Fuels	9.9
Cereals	3.52	Coal	14.3
Cattle	38.2	Gas	8.4
Fibers	26.8	Electricity	5.9
Prepared Foods	18.2	Petroleum Products	13.2
Animal Feed	78.8	Chemicals	2.1
Sugar	3.3	Rubber and Plastics	0.9
Oils and Fats	1.2	Lumber	23.3
Textiles	5.4	Pulp and Paper	4.9
Cotton	10.2	Metal Products	4.3
Wool	27.0	Machinery	2.3
Synthetic	5.9	Furniture	2.3
Leather	25.8	Transport Equipment	0.6

Source: *Monthly Labor Review*, Department of Labor, Washington, D.C.

NOTES

¹Gottfried Haberler, *Inflation, Its Causes and Cures*, Washington, D.C., American Enterprise Institute, 1966, p. 2.

²Employment Act of 1946, Public Law 304, 79th Congress.

³for a detailed description and analysis of post-war inflation in the U.S. see: Edward Knight, "Economic Policy and Inflation in the United States," *Price and Wage Control: An Evaluation of Current Policies*, Part 2, Hearings, Joint Economic Committee, 92nd Congress, 2nd Session, Washington, D.C., 1972, pp. 362-435.

⁴Levy, Torres, Smith, and Massaro, *The Federal Budget: Its Impact on the Economy*, Washington, D.C., The Conference Board, 1972, p. 27.

⁶"Freeze II: Back to the Drawing Board," *Time*, June 25, 1973, p. 23.

⁷The Soviet Union purchased \$166 million of corn, \$159 million of wheat and \$43 million of barley and oats in 1972. China purchased \$30 million of wheat.

⁸George L. Bach, *The New Inflation*, Englewood Cliffs, Prentice-Hall, 1973.

Un análisis de los últimos acontecimientos en la Historia de Chile. La tradición democrática chilena y las expectativas de éxito de un gobierno socialista en la América Latina. Un estudio del Dr. John H. Petersen, especialista en Ciencias Políticas de Western Kentucky University.

The Chilean Coup

On September 11 Chile experienced one of the most significant events in its entire political history. A *coup d'état* led by the heads of the military services overthrew the civilian elected government of Salvador Allende. Such an event would not have attracted too much international notice had it occurred in Bolivia, Ecuador or Honduras. However, when it happened in Chile the event drew world-wide attention and can with justification be called a major watershed in Chile's political development. This change in government was especially significant for two reasons; first, because it broke a long Chilean tradition of democratic, electoral politics and second, because it was occasioned by an unprecedented polarization of public opinion and political activism in the country.

Although the roots of the social and political developments which culminated in the *coup* can be traced further back in Chilean history, the period of direct relevance to this crisis in

politics began with the election of Allende to the Presidency of the country in the fall of 1970. In a three-man race, Allende received a plurality of the votes even though his share was only about 36% of the total number cast. In accord with previous practice, the Chilean Senate voted to install Allende in office. He thus became the first constitutionally chosen leader in the Western Hemisphere committed to a marxist program. The inherent dilemma posed by a minority president attempting to institute a radical redistribution of power and wealth in society through constitutional means was created at this point and led, probably inevitably, to the final confrontation which resulted in the *coup*.

During Allende's first two years in office the problem of government under these circumstances remained manageable. The well-established faith of Chileans in democratic institutions, the non-intervention tradition of the military and Allende's skill as a politician combined to keep the system functioning. Gradually, however, the situation deteriorated as inflation grew rampant, illegal land seizures by peasants became wide-spread, the impasse between Allende and the opposition-controlled Congress became intractable and public opinion grew increasingly polarized. Public demonstrations and anti-Allende attacks in the press became more common. Allende attempted to forestall the crisis, with temporary success, by bringing military men into his cabinet. It became increasingly clear, however, during Allende's third year that his

position was untenable and that a confrontation was unavoidable.

The Congressional elections of March, 1973 seemed to offer an opportunity to the opposition parties to increase their majorities and to constitutionally remove Allende through impeachment. Instead, the Allende coalition made small gains, though remaining a minority in Congress. The election had two results which polarized the country further and set the stage for the *coup*; it was interpreted by many Allende followers as a vote of confidence and they therefore demanded that he move faster down the road to socialism; on the other hand, Allende's opponents, who had become convinced that his administration must be ended, concluded that it would probably require extra-constitutional means to do it.

During the summer, rumors of a *coup* became common and opposition groups, such as *Patria y Libertad*, became increasingly violent. A truckers strike which crippled transportation in the country was a final blow. After an abortive attempt, the leaders of the military services and the head of the national police staged a coordinated attack on the government which succeeded in bringing down the Allende regime. The *coup* was unusual by Latin American standards in that it involved much bloodshed and property destruction as well as the death of the former president. Contrary to the expectations of some observers, a general civil war did not break out after the *coup* although the threat of continuing violent opposition to the new military regime remains.

One of the central questions about the events leading up to the *coup* was the role played by the United States. At the one extreme were those who asserted that the *coup* was a CIA engineered plot and that Chilean political events were manipulated from Washington. At the other extreme were views that the United States had played no role in political developments in Chile. The truth lies between these extremes. The primary explanation for the *coup* is to be found in the emergence of an untenable domestic political and economic situation which was reflected in the growing polarization of groups and interests in the country. The military decided to intervene because they became convinced of the necessity of "saving" the country. Although the United States was undoubtedly happy with the move, the decision to intervene is most accurately seen as a Chilean decision responding to Chilean conditions and not a CIA plot.

On the other hand, the United States can clearly be given some responsibility for contributing to the economic and political difficulties of the country which led up to the *coup*. The reduction of economic assistance and the ability of the United States, working through international lending agencies, to cut off sources of credit for Chile certainly contributed to the economic crisis which the country faced. And the continuation of high levels of military aid raises the suspicion that the generals may have been encouraged to act by the

United States. Nevertheless, the U.S. role must be viewed as of secondary importance in bringing about this political change in Chile.

Events in Chile had reached a point where a clash between the polarized lower-class Allende supporters and middle-class Allende-opponents was unavoidable. The relatively strong and long established democratic institutions of Chile were placed under more strain by the two sides than they could bear and they broke down. Unfortunately for Chile, it appears unlikely that these institutions can be put back together in the near future. The non-political tradition of the Chilean military is apparently ended and they give every indication of taking on the politically activist role of so many Latin American military establishments. The civilian political leaders of the Christian Democratic and other anti-marxist parties who encouraged the *coup* as a way of eliminating the marxist Allende regime may find that their own political role has also been undermined. The generals now in power may decide, as their counterparts did in Brazil and Peru, that no civilian politicians can be trusted to run the government. Political freedom and democratic politics, as was practiced in Chile, may have disappeared for the foreseeable future.

What are the international implications of these events? Chile under Allende was the focal point of attention for persons all over the world interested in this experiment of marxism and democracy. It was especially significant for the large Communist Parties in the western European democracies of Italy and France who were watching Chile as a precursor of their own plans to bring socialism constitutionally. The failure of the Chilean experiment may be interpreted as indicating, perhaps incorrectly, that Communist and other marxist parties cannot successfully institute their programs of radical change in a democratic political system.

The Allende government in Chile was also being watched by revolutionary leftists in Latin America and the *coup* confirmed for them their assertion that radical change must involve violent revolution. The *coup*, therefore, may give impetus to a resurgence of rural and urban guerilla revolutionary movements in the hemisphere.

What does the future hold for Chile? It could return to civilian-led democratic politics as before, although this seems very unlikely. More likely, Chile may follow the experience of either Brazil or Argentina. If the military is able to subdue and disperse the Allende supporters, a stable military regime like Brazil's may emerge that could rule Chile indefinitely. If the Allende supporters remain united and defiantly anti-regime as was the case with the Argentine Peronists after Peron was overthrown, a situation of chronic instability may emerge like that experienced by Argentina during the 1960's and early 70's. Whatever her course, Chile has opened a significantly different chapter in her political history.

John H. Petersen

Si Ud. quiere contribuir ir un articulo of comentar sobre cualquier cosa en esta revista, escriba por favor a:

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Los cambios que se requieren en el sistema educativo, los profesores son responsables ante la opinion publica por la calidad de ensenanza que estan ofreciendo a los estudiantes en todos los niveles de la educacion. La comunidad debe interesarse mas por lo que sucede en el salon de clase, los estudiantes protestan porque la ensenanza no tiene sentido y porque quieren una educacion mas activa para realizarse como hombres y como ciudadanos.

Un articulo de gran interes, presentado por el Dr. J. T. Sandefur, Decano de la Facultad de Educacion de Western Kentucky University al "Bureau of Vocational Education, The Bureau's New Technical Report published by Kentucky Department of Education".

The Here and Now: Accountability for Education

While accountability is probably the most over-used word in education today, as a concept it is under-developed and as a reality it is so elusive that to certain segments of the public it seems not to exist at all. What then is accountability and why is it suddenly so important? Haven't vocational educators, perhaps more than any other educational sub-group, practiced accountability in terms of product performance criteria? How can one determine when an educational program can be called accountable? These are three good questions and each should be examined in order.

What is accountability and why is it suddenly so important?

Accountability is the condition of being accountable, liable, or responsible. To be accountable one is liable to be called to account, to be responsible, to be explicable. One of the apparent problems of education today is that of explication. Succinct statements of what is sought, how it is sought, and what has been achieved has not been readily available to the public. Accountability is not "suddenly important," it has always been important. Concisely stated, educational accountability demands that (1) there can be public declaration of the goals and objectives sought, (2) the educational methodologies (the means for achieving the objectives) be explicit, and (3) the product be subject to evaluation through the use of performance criteria. Typically, education has not met these demands. Goals and objectives, when described at all, are often pedantic and unrelated to the interests and needs of the learner. Methodology is most likely to be the result of tradition or fitted to teaching ease rather than designed to effectively accomplish the stated objectives. Evaluation in terms of performance criteria is presently being sought but has not yet become widely used. As a consequence of these shortcomings, the enlightened public is vigorously demanding accountability in education. Accountability appears to be "suddenly important" because of the pressing public demand. Moreover, all indications are that the demands will increase until true accountability is achieved or until the educational system is radically reformed.

Evidence of the pressing public demand for accountability can be found in what could reasonably be called a "landslide" of recent publications. Charles E. Silberman, for example, in his widely read book *Crisis in the Classroom* published in 1970 by Random House, called the public schools "grim and joyless places" and indicated them for "mutilation of the child's spirit." He accused the schools of being "oppressive and petty" in governing, "intellectually sterile and esthetically barren" in atmosphere, lacking in "civility" and full of contempt for children.

The 10th anniversary issue of the Education Supplement of the *Saturday Review* was, as is customary, devoted to articles on education. An examination of the titles of the articles was

revealing—"The Crisis of Confidence," "The End of the Impossible Dream," and "Who Needs Schools." The articles, separately and collectively, stated that the schools were facing a national crisis of confidence.

The editorial, "The Crisis of Confidence and Beyond," took the position that the decade of the sixties closed in a mood of frustration because the schools apparently were not serving the disadvantaged. It further charged that the student rebellion had made it clear that the schools were failing the advantaged as well as the deprived. The point was based on the assumption that the emphases of schools were on *conformity* rather than *creativity*, *discipline* rather than *independence*, the *defensive put-down* rather than *student support*, on *quiet orderliness* rather than the *joy of discovery*, and on the *neatness of administrative convenience* rather than the often *untidy environment of true learning*.²

The Editorial concluded with the statement: "...the fundamental task for education in the seventies...is to put it all back together again—to help, or force, the schools to become more responsive to the varied needs of children, to open up the system so that its most repressive and destructive characteristics are mitigated, if not eliminated, to remember that children, too, are human beings who deserve to be treated with as much dignity and respect as other humans, to keep clearly in mind that the objective is the development of children, not the preservation of an institution."³

It is highly evident that the public press for accountability is not a sudden phenomenon, but an outgrowth of (1) a growing dissatisfaction with present education approaches, (2) the need for greater involvement of communities who feel that the schools have not met the needs of their children, (3) student demands for more relevant education, (4) rising costs of education and the increasing reticence of taxpayers to support these increasing costs, and (5) other crusades for accountability, e.g., Common Cause and Nader's Raiders.⁴

Have vocational educators typically practiced accountability?

When compared to the so-called liberal studies other areas with highly theoretical content, the answer would be a qualified yes. The nature of vocational education has forced an emphasis on performance criteria. The machinist, the dental technician, the draftsman, and most, if not all, of the students in the broad spectrum of vocational/technical education can be judged by performance criteria; that is, they verify their competence through a product or demonstrable skill. However, so do students in music and art, and perhaps to a lesser degree in other academic areas. The major issue, then, appears to be one of relevancy to the student and the extent to which the instructor can identify the educational objectives in behavioral terms and measure educational achievement in terms of observable behaviors instead of the traditional "knowledges and understandings."

Vocational educators have tended to be practical in their approaches to instruction. They have been more inclined to use projects as a means of instruction and they have required their students to be actively involved in the education process rather than passive recipients of information. Students have responded to the "vocational methodology" and generally found it relevant. As a consequence, vocational education has not been subjected to the rash of criticism that has been directed at other educational areas and programs. In fact, vocational education has become in many instances the model upon which other areas have based their methodology. The project approach, the laboratory/clinical method, or hands-on approach, as well as many other effective methods of teaching, have long been recognized techniques of vocational education.

There is now an observable national trend toward encouraging student to enroll in vocational schools as an alternate to the high school and college. Vocational schools are increasing in numbers and size at a rapid rate. Their success, at least in part, must be attributable to their accountability. This

is not to suggest that additional effort need not be made in response to the accountability demands. The response to the next question would appear to be applicable to vocational education.

How can one determine when an educational program can be called accountable?

A program can be called accountable (1) when its goals and objectives have been identified and clearly stated, (2) when the methodology or blue-print for achievement of the objectives has been specified, and (3) when evaluative criteria based on product performance clearly provides evidence that the initial objectives have been achieved. Accountability, then, sounds simple and is simple. Why has it been so hard to achieve?

The above definition has been over-simplified. It is not enough to simply state objectives; the objectives must have meaning to students and to society and they must be functional. It is apparent then that the formulation of objectives is not just a teacher function. It requires a detailed analysis of individual needs, job requirements in terms of skills and functional competencies, changing societal conditions, and advancing technologies. The formulation of behavioral objectives is complex and demands student involvement, parental and/or community involvement, and competent consultative and advisory input. Historically, very few educational programs have given the necessary attention to the formulation of objectives.

As to methodology, the problem becomes even more complex. Unfortunately, somewhere back in time the role of the teacher became distorted. Teachers evolved as authoritative sources of information. Moreover, they became authoritarians. Instruction became the process of telling in which the teacher was active and the student was passive. Fortunately, within the past few years the education profession has been the beneficiary of a wealth of research on teaching and learning. The research was the result of vast amounts of federal money available during the period between 1958 and 1970.

Recently, the author attempted to identify those broad generalizations about the characteristics of good teaching and good teachers which may be drawn from the research and documented with some degree of objectivity. He drew three major generalizations and a number of sub-generalizations from the research which can add significantly to the quest for accountability. The generalizations were:⁵

1. Good teaching utilizes maximal involvement of the student in Direct Experimental Situations.
 - 1.1 Good teachers attempt to foster problem-oriented, self-directed, actively inquiring patterns of learning behavior in their students.
 - 1.2 Good teachers elicit pupil-initiated talk and allow more pupil initiated exploration and trial solutions.
 - 1.3 Good teachers try to elicit independent thinking from their students.
 - 1.4 Good teachers involve students in decision-making processes in active, self-directing ways.
 - 1.5 Good teachers are less prone to dominate the classroom with lecture and other teacher dominated activities.
2. Good teaching encourages maximal "freedom for the student."
 - 2.1 Good teachers use more praise and encouragement for the student.
 - 2.2 They accept and use student's ideas more often.
 - 2.3 They give fewer directions, less criticism, less justification of the teacher's authority, and less negative feedback.
 - 2.4 They use a relaxed conversational teaching style.
 - 2.5 They use divergent questions, do more probing and are less procedural.

2.6 They are more inclined to recognize the "affective climate" of the classroom and are responsive to student feelings.

2.7 They are more likely to use indirect teaching methods and are more open-minded.

3. Good teachers tend to exhibit identifiable personal traits broadly characterized by warmth, a democratic attitude, affective awareness, and a personal concern for students.

3.1 They are responsive, understanding, and kindly.

3.2 They are stimulating and original in their teaching.

3.3 They are responsible and systematic.

3.4 They are poised, confident, and self-controlled.

3.5 They are adaptable and optimistic.

3.6 They are well-versed in subject-matter and give evidence of a broad cultural background.

Since methodology is the teacher's effort or behavior designed to achieve the defined objectives, it is evident that effective methodology is student-centered and responsive to student interests and needs. Accountable teachers must be cognizant of the principle of student involvement in the teaching process.

Lastly, evolution must provide evidence of the achievement of the intended objectives. Since the objective of accountable education is product performance, then the evaluation must be based on observable behavior. Again, fortunately, valid classroom observation systems have been designed and are available to the profession. Educators interested in examining classroom observation systems have several sources available.⁶

In summary, there are few indications that the demands for accountability will lessen. There can be little doubt but that they will increase until the educational system at all levels truly becomes accountable, until educational programs become explicable, and until pedantism is finally eliminated. The blue-print for accountability is available, some have already used it effectively, but it remains for all to make the heroic effort to truly be accountable and accountability is nothing more than (1) identifying and making public the objectives sought, (2) determining and describing the methods to be used in achieving the objective, and (3) showing through evaluation that the objectives have been achieved. There is nothing new about accountability, except that the public is demanding it here and now.

NOTES

¹ American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, "Concern: Newsletter for Teacher Education," Vol. 1, No. 1, September, 1970.

² An Editorial, "The crisis of Confidence—and Beyond", *The Saturday Review*, September 19, 1970, pp. 61-62.

³ *Ibid*, p. 62.

⁴ Schmieder, Allen A., "Competency Based Education: The State of the Scene" American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, PBTE Services No. 9, February 19, 1973, p. 3.

⁵ J. T. Sandefur, "An Illustrated Model for the Evaluation of Teacher Education Graduates." A monograph published by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, One Dupont Circle, Washington, D.C., September 1972. 46 pp.

⁶ Simon, Anita, and Boyer, E. G. "Mirrors for Behavior: An Anthology of Classroom Observation Instruments." Philadelphia: Research for Better Schools, 1967.

⁷ Sandefur, J. T. and Bressler, A.A., "Classroom Observation Systems in Preparing School Personnel," A State of the Art Paper Published by ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education, Washington, D.C. 1970.

Trujillo

Trujillo is world-famous among archeologists for being immediately adjacent to Chanchan, the largest ancient city of the Americas. (Its population in the 14th Century is believed to be in the range 100,000-500,000.) Peruvians here are proud of the duality of their cultural heritage, Spanish and Indian - not only Incan but pre-Incan, especially Chimu and Mochica in this region. With two sizeable hospitals (the University has a medical school), various cultural activities, three large attractive ocean beaches, and an ideal climate all year around, Trujillo has much more than its old Spanish colonial churches to recommend it.

Peru is of course a Catholic country. It is of interest, however, that even in Trujillo there is a Baptist church, a Methodist church, and a Mormon church.

The Universidad Nacional de Trujillo has served this area and the nation for 160 years. UNT is one of eighteen national "universities" and one of thirty-five institutions of higher education in Peru. (Since *colegio* is a secondary school, *universidad* is used for any institution of higher learning, college or university.) Many of these state schools are quite weak. UNT, with its student body of about 6000 and with well-established programs in medicine, law, and engineering, is one of the strongest schools outside of Lima, quite possibly the strongest outside of Lima. Most of its students are Peruvian, but only about one third live close enough to commute.

The Department of Engineering

This department consists of 17 faculty members, none holding the earned doctorate. The department chairman at 53 is probably the oldest man there. Most hold the master's degree and all are baccalaureates in engineering (a five-year degree). The faculty has undertaken to improve itself by seeking opportunities for study abroad. Within the past four years Prof. Garcia earned the M.S. in engineering at Purdue and Prof. Chirinos completed a year's graduate study at Georgia Tech., both on Fulbright awards; Prof. Bobrek spent a year updating himself in organic chemistry and unit processes (he has been out of school about 25 years) at the University of Warsaw; and Profs. Chavez and Bravo each studied for a semester at the Universidad Nacional Autonoma de Mexico, on O.A.S. grants. In addition, quite a number of UNT professors have 'exchanged' for a year with other professors at Latin American universities.

The faculty has also been enriched by several visiting professors from the U.S. Dr. Harold Walton (University of Colorado), Dr. William Rieman (Rutgers), Dr. William Schumacher, and Mr. Howard Sachs (M.S., Princeton, Peace Corps) have all spent at least a year with the Department. More recently the funding of U.S. scholars and U.S. scholarly institutions which had made this possible has run out, but these men are all well and warmly remembered by the UNT people.

The closely supporting departments of chemistry and physics have been the beneficiaries of the Federal Republic of Germany's volunteer service program, through which a number of young German scholars have come over on two-year teaching assignments, working for subsistence salaries. These men are very well considered by everyone I heard mention them at UNT. The young German now teaching organic chemistry uses the same (U.S.) text that is used by Western and by a majority of U.S. institutions.

The younger faculty members impress by their eagerness to learn and to work. They are the first there in the morning, and

the last to leave. Over coffee or lunch they are talking shop, asking me questions about how we do things or how I think they might do something, talking about work and obviously concerned with quality and relevance. One senior professor was clearly just as self-energizing, but by and large the older men seemed considerably more relaxed.

Programs. Engineering is a five-year program at UNT and, like law and medicine here, it is a demanding and highly focussed program, unleavened by the "general education" concept. Admission to UNT is by competitive examination, on the basis of which some 25-30% of the applicants enter the university. In engineering, about 40% of the beginning students fail by the end of their first year. After this selection and initial pruning the attrition rate is fairly low. The syllabus for chemical engineering compares well with that of any U.S. school I know of; it is long and strong. (The one course not included which I would like to see is chemical kinetics.) I have leafed through a number of senior project theses; most would easily pass as master's theses.

The Achilles' heel of the departmental program in chemical engineering is its laboratory programs, a weakness of which the faculty is well aware. The unit operations laboratory has been appallingly underequipped (for example, no equipment for the study of distillation). There has been no unit processes (chemical processes) laboratory. Naturally, research projects have been directed to problems amenable to analytic or calculational solutions, and problems entailing the use of combinations of processes in plant design. As far as I could tell, there has been very little research, by faculty or advanced students, involving the actual carrying out of chemical reactions.

The Chemical Engineering Program at the Universidad Nacional De Trujillo

first semester	general chem I	mathematics I	calculus I	engineering drawing I	English I
second semester	general chem II	physics I	calculus II	engineering drawing II	English II
third semester	analytical chem I	physics II	diff. equation	organic chem I	English III
fourth semester	analytical chem II	physics III	theoret. mech. I	organic chem II	English IV
fifth semester	physical chem I	physics IV	theoret. mech. II	principles engg. chem.	electric. engg.
sixth semester	physical chem II	materials of chem engg	unit oper-ations I	industrial law	engineer. math.
seventh semester	instrument. meth of anal.	thermodyna. for chem engg.	unit oper-ations II	unit oper-ations Lab I	(Two Electives)
eighth semester	instrument. meth lab	design of chem reactors	unit oper-ations III	unit pro-cesses I	(Two Electives)
ninth semester	chem plant design I	engg process economics	unit oper-ations lab II	unit pro-cesses II	(Two Electives)
tenth semester	chem plant design II	company org and admin	Thesis Project		(Two Electives)

Possibilities for Development of Relations with UNT

It is my impression that UNT is a superior school, that U.S. institutions are very highly considered in Peru, and that UNT now has no close ties with a U.S. university. Therefore, if Western is potentially interested in developing an academic relationship in South America, UNT may indeed be an attractive candidate institution. Among the areas which seem inviting to me:

(a) Prof. Pedro Puerto, archeologist, writer and artist, plans a tour of a number of institutions in the U.S.A. later this year (this summer), bringing with him an exhibition of

pre Columbian art and his excellent woodblock prints of the designs in stone and ceramics of the pre-Incan cultures. Western might want to invite him to visit us, perhaps under the auspices of Art and/or Anthropology. He speaks excellent English and would make, I am sure, an extremely interesting lecturer. I have no idea what honorarium would be expected, but probably low.

(b) After looking over their academic programs in science and engineering, I would suggest that, at least in these areas, we might invite science departments to ask their better graduates to apply here for admission to our M.S. programs. This could give us some high quality students. As we learn more about UNT, other departments here may wish to invite applications for graduate study also.

(c) There are certain areas in which Western students with appropriate proficiency in Spanish might wish to study for one or two terms at UNT. Areas in which UNT could provide an

enriching experience would include art, sociology and anthropology, history, foreign languages, and hispanic literature.

(d) UNT might be interested in an exchange of visiting professorships, and/or in extending appointments to Western professors on sabbatical (appointments which could therefore carry rather low salaries).

Of course I have not mentioned any of these possibilities at UNT, except for the general remark that we would certainly be interested in receiving applications from highly qualified graduates seeking masters' degrees.

Conclusion

This was a memorable and rewarding experience. I think that the visit resulted in real help for them; I know it was very worthwhile for me.

Western Kentucky University and Universidad Austral De Chile: A Report on Cooperation

The task for which Universidad Austral de Chile, Valdivia, sought the consulting services of Western Kentucky University, is to develop in such a way that it can best fulfill its special function as a regional university, felt that it could indeed serve in an advising role in this important endeavor. Specifically, Western Kentucky University provided consulting services for Universidad Austral de Chile in the development of a flexible curricular system, in the development and organization of a university information center, and in the selection and purchase of scientific equipment for all academic units of Universidad Austral de Chile except the Medical School.

Contract discussions between the two sister institutions began in the spring of 1972. In May 1972, the first field consultant of Western established personal liaison with Universidad Austral, especially with the persons directing Universidad Austral's ten-year development program and its projects funded by the Interamerican Development Bank. During June and July of the same year six consultants from Western spent between two and eight weeks at Universidad Austral, meeting with almost all faculty members, participating in seminars, and obtaining as much as possible on views, ideas, and needs of Universidad Austral. A five-member team of Universidad Austral faculty visited the campus of Western in November-December 1972, and a final visit by four Western Kentucky University consultants at Valdivia took place in January 1973.

As important as the personal contacts in Valdivia was the enthusiastic support given to this project by a large number of Western's academic and administrative personnel. This was necessary in view of the wide range of advisement sought by Universidad Austral in the three specific project areas. In the development of a flexible and systematic curricular system, work included consideration of a system of academic credits, required and elective curricula proposals, an academic evaluation system, course identification system, catalog and handbook development, and other objectives requested by Universidad Austral's Flexible Curriculum Commission.

In the development and organization of an Information Center, advisement was given of space utilization, inventory use and control, faculty load, instructional resources, and in the conceptualization and development of a computer center, data bank, and its applicability to institutional research.

The acquisition program of scientific equipment for Universidad Austral's basic sciences departments required

advisement from equipment selection, selection evaluation, search for best suppliers, assistance in Universidad Austral's purchasing program, and finally in bidding procedures.

All in all, more than fifty colleagues at Western contributed to the successful conclusion of the first contractual project between Universidad Austral de Chile and Western Kentucky University. What began as a formal contractual agreement evolved into a close professional and personal cooperation between individuals and the two universities. What for practical reasons was called a technical assistance program turned out to be a learning experience for both contract partners and all individuals involved. What easily could have been a matter of impersonal, even imposing advice became a concern characterized by personal friendships and mutual respect on all levels of contact and cooperation.

In March 1973 Dr. Dero G. Downing, President of Western Kentucky University, in his foreword to the Final Report on the first Western-Universidad Austral contract expressed the hope that the completed work "...will initiate continuing relationships between our two universities and will serve as a useful tool in the pursuit of truth and excellence". This hope has been fulfilled: Two new contracts will be signed by President Downing and Dr. Raul Grandjean D. during the latter's visit at Western in November 1973.

The first of these two new cooperative projects is a direct outgrowth of the first contract completed in March of 1973, namely the continuation of technical assistance in the purchase and transportation of scientific equipment. Under the new agreement Western Kentucky University, as authorized by Universidad Austral, will take care of all purchasing procedures, make transportation arrangements, make payments for Universidad Austral, and will handle all warranty and transportation claims.

The other new contract requires cooperation in two specific areas. One area is the development of a teaching and research program for Universidad Austral's Institute of Animal Production, the other deals with curricula, teaching and research methodology in the natural sciences.

As in the first venture of international cooperation, Western Kentucky University will provide factual and objective documentation and professional views on those areas of special needs of Universidad Austral de Chile, outlined in the new contracts. This help is offered not as "expert advice" by outsiders, but in the hope that it may be of use for our Chilean

colleagues in their concern for the excellence of their university. In this way the cooperation between Universidad Austral de Chile and Western Kentucky University will be an expression of common concern for the goals of both universities: to help in providing a fuller and better life for mankind.

Edmund E. Hegen

A Lecture Tour in Central America.

By Dr. Kenneth T. Cann, Head Department of Economics

Western Kentucky University

August 19- September 2, 1973

Summary of his Report

Lecture tour in Central America

Dr. Kenneth T. Cann, Professor of Economics at Western Kentucky University, travelled through Central America this summer on a lecture tour. The trip was sponsored by the United States Information Agency for the purpose of presenting current information on United States economic problems to audiences composed of university faculty, students, and administrators, businessmen, bankers, government officials, and media representatives. Two-day stops were made in the capitals of Panama, Costa Rica, Nicaragua, Honduras, Guatemala, and El Salvador.

Four separate lectures were prepared under the general theme title of "The Problems of a Mature Economy: the United States in the 1970's." This theme was chosen in order to indicate that the United States has economic problems even though it has a highly developed economy. Simply because a country may have reached a high level of economic development does not mean that its economic problems disappear. Mature economies have different kinds of problems in comparison with those of the less developed countries, never an absence of problems. The four lectures dealt with inflation, unemployment, the balance of trade, and the role of regional universities in regional development. The lecture on inflation appears in this issue of *Intercambio Internacional*.

During the first two-day stop in Panama Dr. Cann exchanged ideas dealing with academic programs and organization with Gustavo Garcia de Paredes, Vice Rector for Academic Affairs, and Emilio Clare, Dean of the Faculty of Public Administration and Business, both of the University of Panama. He also spoke to a group of advanced students from the University of Panama and gave a lecture at the University of Santa Maria de Antigua. In San Jose, Costa Rica, two lectures were given at the University of Costa Rica, and United States balance of trade problems were discussed at a meeting of the National Economic Development Association of Costa Rica. During the stay in Managua, Professor Cann met with Julio Vega, Dean of the Economics Faculty at the University of Nicaragua, presented a lecture at the university, and met with press representatives for an interview. In Honduras discussions on curriculum development were held with Rolando Valerio, Dean of the Economics Faculty and Marcial Solis, Head of the Department of Economics at the University of Honduras in Tegucigalpa. A lecture was also presented at the Banco Atlantico. Upon arrival in Guatemala, Professor Cann taped a television interview at the USIA office. He later spoke at two universities: Rafael Landivar and Francisco Marroquin, and took part in discussions at a meeting of the Chambers of Commerce and Industry. During the last stop in San Salvador a lecture was given to the Society of Professional Economists, and an address was made at a luncheon honoring the departure of the American Ambassador.

Dr. Cann reports that he was given a cordial and friendly welcome wherever he went in Central America. He found Central Americans to be genuinely interested in current United States economic problems and feels that the opportunity to meet and talk with many interesting people was a personally enriching and rewarding experience.

Latin American Studies Committee

The Latin American Studies Committee not only has responsibility for the undergraduate minor program in Latin American Studies but also provides a variety of services and activities both on and off campus. Seminars and panel discussions are sponsored and conducted by the Committee regularly. In each of the past two summers a series of three seminars were held for the benefit of high school Social Studies teachers and the general public. The first series was entitled "Contemporary Societies of the Americas," and the second series dealt with "Changing Latin America." The Committee also provides guest speakers to present programs on Latin American topics to classes in area high schools and in University classes.

As a part of the program of the Annual Latin American Conference sponsored by the Committee each April, a number of distinguished Latin Americanists have been brought to campus to deliver addresses. Dr. John Augelli, Dean of International Programs of the University of Kansas and a noted Latin Americanist and geographer, presented an address entitled "Latin America: Geographic Realities for Development and Modernization." Dr. Eric Baklanoff, Dean of International Programs at the University of Alabama and a recognized Latin Americanist and economist, spoke on "The Expropriation of U.S. Investments in Latin America: Perspectives of Development and International Conflict."

Other distinguished speakers who have appeared at the University to take part in panel discussions and to present addresses are Dr. J. Leon Helguera, an historian of Vanderbilt University who spoke on "Indigenismo: Identity Crisis or Racism in Latin America?," and Dr. Ivan Barrientos, a specialist in Latin American education from the University of Kansas. Dr. Barrientos was one of two representatives of the O.A.S. at a seminar on Latin American education in Venezuela in September of 1973. At Western he discussed "Student Activism: Latin America vs. U.S.A.—Some Differences."

A number of seminars have been offered by the Committee in which members of the Committee and personnel from other universities, both in the U.S. and in Latin America, have participated. One such seminar was devoted to "The Role of the Regional University," and the presentation was given by a panel composed of professors from Austral University of Valdivia, Chile, and Western Kentucky. Other inter-university seminars have focused on the topics of "Revolutionary Change in Latin America," "The Chilean Coup: In Retrospect," and "Latin America: Part of the Third World?"

During the past summer Dr. Kenneth Cann, a member of the Committee, was invited by the U.S. State Department to tour Central America where he presented a series of talks on economics. In addition to private travel and research in the Latin American nations, the members of the Committee are also active in developing cooperative programs and relationships between Western Kentucky University and Latin American Institutions, notably the Universidad Austral of Valdivia, Chile, the Universidad Industrial de Santander of Bucaramanga, Colombia, and the Universidad Nacional of Trujillo, Peru. A number of the members of the Committee traveled to Valdivia and served as consultants in Western's cooperative program with that University. The recent appointment of Dr. Nefthali Puentes, a native of Colombia formerly with the Interamerican Development Bank and with extensive experience in higher education in Latin America, should stimulate further development in inter-university programs.

During the past year a number of qualified Western students have been permitted to do their student teaching in binational schools in Guatemala and Colombia. This cooperative arrangement between the College of Education of Western and the binational schools was originally promoted by the

Committee and is proving very successful and mutually beneficial to all institutions concerned.

The University participates in the program of the Latin American Scholars Program of American Universities (LASPAU) which brings promising Latin American graduate students to the United States. Thus far Western has hosted students from Peru and Bolivia, and the students are under the guidance of the Committee and are invited to serve as members of the Committee in its other activities.

In addition to the foregoing activities, which by no means comprise all of the work of the Committee, the Committee has hosted visits to the campus of such noted university rectors as Dr. William Thayer of Chile and Dr. Carlos Guerra of Colombia as well as a number of faculty members of several Latin American universities.

First International Seminar on University Administration

The seminar was held at the Universidad Nacional de Trujillo, Peru from April 10 to April 15, 1972. Invitations from Rector Anibal Espino Rodriguez were sent to Dr. Raymond L. Cravens, Vice-President for Academic Affairs and Dr. J.T. Sandefur, Dean of the College of Education.

Dr. Cravens spoke on the subject "Administrative Reforms in University Organization" and Dr. Sandefur on the subject "New Dimensions of University Teaching".

Conozca a Western Kentucky University

WESTERN KENTUCKY UNIVERSITY

1974-75 Information

WESTERN AT A GLANCE

Location—atop College Heights in the south central Kentucky city of Bowling Green (38,000).

Founded—1906.

Enrollment—11,345 (1971).

Faculty—610 (approximately).

Alumni—20,000 with bachelor's degrees; more than 4,800 with master's degrees.

Physical Plant—approximately 200 acres; over 60 buildings, total value more than \$94 million.

Libraries—seven with over 475,000 volumes, 3,000 journal titles, and other holdings.

Colleges—

- College of Education
- Ogden College of Science and Technology
- Potter College of Arts and Humanities
- Bowling Green College of Business and Public Affairs
- College of Applied Arts and Health
- Graduate College
- Bowling Green Community College

Officers—

- Dr. Dero G. Downing, President
- Dr. Raymond L. Cravens, Vice President for Academic Affairs and Dean of the Faculties
- Dr. John D. Minton, Vice President for Administrative Affairs
- Mr. Harry K. Largen, Vice President for Business Affairs

1974-75 CALENDAR

MAY TERM 1974

Mon.-Fri., April 22-26 Registration
 Mon., May 20 Classes Begin
 Fri., June 7 Term Ends

SUMMER SESSION 1974

Mon., June 10 Registration
 Tues., June 11 Classes Begin
 Fri., Aug. 2 Summer Commencement

FALL SEMESTER 1974

Sat., Aug. 24 Residence Halls Open
 Mon.-Wed.,
 Aug. 26-28 Orientation and Registration
 Thur., Aug. 29 Classes Begin
 Mon., Oct. 21 2nd Bi-term Begins
 Wed. (Noon)-Sun.,
 Nov. 27-Dec. 1 Thanksgiving Holidays
 Thur., Dec. 19 Semester Ends

SPRING SEMESTER 1975

Mon.-Wed.,
 Jan. 13-15 Orientation and Registration
 Thur., Jan. 16 Classes Begin
 Sat.-Sun., Mar. 8-16 Spring Vacation
 Mon., Mar. 17 2nd Bi-term Begins
 Fri., May 9 Semester Ends
 Sat., May 10 Spring Commencement

ACADEMIC PROGRAMS

DEGREES

Western Kentucky University confers six undergraduate degrees: the Bachelor of Arts, the Bachelor of Science, the Bachelor of Music, the Bachelor of Fine Arts, the two-year Associate of Arts and the two-year Associate of Science.

AREAS OF CONCENTRATION

Accounting	General Science
Administrative Services	Health Care Administration
Agriculture	Home Economics Education
Art (Sec. Educ.)	Industrial Education
Business Administration	Industrial Technology
Business Education	Math-Physical Science
Dietetics and Institution Administration	Music
Engineering Physics	Office Administration
Environmental Health	Recreation
English and Allied Language Arts	Social Studies
Foreign Languages	Social Work
	Vocation-Industrial and Technical Education

Government
Health and Safety
History
Home Economics and Family Living
Industrial Education
Library Science
Mathematics
Music
Philosophy and Religion
Physical Education and Recreation
Physics and Astronomy
Psychology
Sociology and Anthropology
Speech and Theatre
Interdisciplinary Programs in Humanities
College Teaching and Public Service

PROFESSIONAL and

PRE-PROFESSIONAL CURRICULA

Engineering Physics	Pre-Medicine
Industrial Technology	Pre-Optometry
Medical Technology	Pre-Pharmacy
Nursing	Pre-Physical Therapy
Pre-Dental	Pre-Social Work
Pre-Engineering	Pre-Theology
Pre-Forestry	Pre-Veterinary
Pre-Law	

Foundation curricula are also available for persons planning to enter a number of other professional or specialized fields.

TWO-YEAR ASSOCIATE DEGREE PROGRAMS

Agricultural Technology and Management	Food Service Administration
Data Processing	Industrial Technology
Dental Hygiene	Medical Secretarial Administration
Engineering Technology (Civil, Electrical, Mechanical)	Nursing
	Small Business Management
	Secretarial Science

ADDITIONAL ACADEMIC INFORMATION

For additional information concerning the various curricula at Western, write the Office of the Vice President for Academic Affairs, Western Kentucky University, Bowling Green, Kentucky 42101.

GRADUATE PROGRAMS

Accounting
Agriculture
Art
Biology
Business Administration
Business Education and Office Administration
Chemistry
Economics
Education, Foundations and Curriculum
Career and Vocational Teacher Education
Education, Counselor
Education, Elementary
Education, Secondary
Education, School Administration
English
Foreign Languages, Spanish, French, German
Geography

UNDERGRADUATE MAJORS AND MINORS

Accounting	History and Government
* Afro-American Studies	Home Economics (Non-Teaching)
Agriculture	Industrial Education
* Anthropology	Institution Administration
* Art (Elementary Education)	Interior Design
Biology	Latin
* Biophysics	* Latin American Studies
Business Administration	Library Science
Chemistry	Mass Communications (Journalism, Radio and TV)
* Child Development and Family Living	Mathematics
Community Health	* Military Science
* Computer Science	Music
Dietetics and Institution Administration	Nursing
Earth Science	Philosophy
Economics	Philosophy and Religion
Elementary Education	Physical Education
Engineering Physics	Physical Education and Recreation
Engineering Technology (Civil, Electrical, Environmental and Mechanical)	Physics
English	Psychology
* Folklore	Recreation
French	Religious Studies
Geography	* Russian
Geology	School Social Work
General Business	Secretarial Science
German	* Social Work
Government	Sociology
Health and Physical Education	Spanish
Health and Safety Education	Special Education
Health Education	Speech
History	Speech and Theatre
	Textile and Clothing Merchandising
	Theatre

* Indicates minor only

Western Kentucky University has been authorized to offer the following degrees: Master of Arts, Master of Arts in Education, Master of Arts in College Teaching, Master of Science, Master of Business Administration, Master of Music, Master of Public Service, and Master of Science in Engineering Physics.

The Specialist in Education (Ed.S.) offered through the Department of Counselor Education is designed for students seeking a degree program beyond the level of study and specialization of the master's.

BASIC EXPENSES

Registration Fee (Kentucky resident)\$210
(non-resident.....\$475)
(registration fee is to be paid at the beginning of each semester)

Books (approximate)\$65

Rooms\$140-157
(Residence Hall rooms are reserved in advance for each semester. Rates listed are for double occupancy; single occupancy rates are one and one-fourth times the fee for double occupancy)

Meals (approximate)\$320
The student may select the place where he wishes to eat from a wide range of choices. Four food service areas are available on campus. The Downing University Center houses a cafeteria and the University Grill. A cafeteria and a snack bar are located in the Garrett Conference Center. Food costs will vary according to individual tastes. Numerous commercially-operated food facilities are available off campus.

ESTIMATED SEMESTER EXPENSE

Estimated Semester Expense
Kentucky resident\$740
(non-resident.....\$1,005)

NOTE: Students should also make budget allowances for miscellaneous personal expenses which will vary greatly depending upon individual habits and needs.

APPLICATION DATES

Applications for admission should be submitted well in advance of the term in which the student plans to enroll. Beginning freshmen should complete the admission procedures early in the senior year in high school. The following deadlines have been established for all students (freshmen, transfer, and readmission) in order that maximum consideration and assistance can be given to each applicant.

Fall Semester

Kentucky Residents Aug. 1
Out-of-State Applicants May 1

Spring Semester

Kentucky Residents Jan. 1
Out-of-State Applicants Dec. 1

Summer School

Kentucky Residents June 1
Out-of-State Applicants May 1

Exception to this policy can be made only with special approval of the Committee on Admissions and/or the Director of Admissions.

HOUSING

RESIDENCE HALL FEATURES

Residence hall living at Western offers the student a number of features designed to enhance the educational process.

All halls are staffed by a full-time director and student resident assistants. Each hall contains at least one kitchen facility for individual student use, a large lobby-lounge, a color television, private study rooms, vending services and mail delivery service. In addition, compact refrigerators are available on a lease basis to residents of all residence halls. Residents who prefer to bring their own compact refrigerator may do so if the unit meets the specifications available at the Housing Office and all halls. Various activities are regularly sponsored by the resident student council of each hall.

The University's residence hall rooms are designed to accommodate two students. Sheets and pillow cases are furnished in each room. All rooms are also furnished with two of each of the following: single beds, chests of drawers, mirrors, chairs and study desks. Sufficient closet space and Centrex telephone service are provided in each room. And, when space is available, a room can be assigned as a single for one and one-fourth times the double occupancy fee.

HOUSING OFF-CAMPUS

A current list of available off-campus housing for single and married students is maintained in the Housing Office. It is recommended that you plan an early arrival to personally inspect rental possibilities.

ADDITIONAL HOUSING INFORMATION

For further information regarding housing, contact the Director of Housing, Western Kentucky University, Bowling Green, Kentucky 42101. Phone: Area Code 502, 745-4350.

HEALTH SERVICE

The University Health Service exists primarily to provide basic medical attention to all regularly enrolled students at a reasonable cost. Staffed by two doctors, nurses, a pharmacist and a laboratory technician, the clinic is open week days and has an emergency room for after hours emergencies. The clinic is located in the Lancaster Wing of the Academic Complex.