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The **AMERICAN FOREIGN SERVICE JOURNAL**

VOL. 23, NO. 5

MAY, 1946





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Cover Picture:

The Taj Mahal

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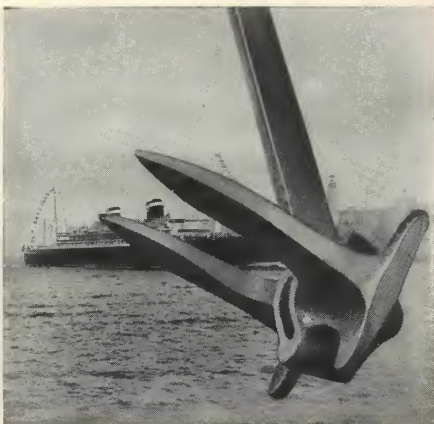
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LETTERS TO THE EDITORS

The Foreign Service Exams

Department of State,

TO THE EDITORS,

THE AMERICAN FOREIGN SERVICE JOURNAL:

After reading in your March issue the very interesting letter by Mr. Conrad on the Foreign Service Examinations, and also the one by Mr. Meadows which touches on the same subject, I thought you might like to hear from a person whose experience was almost the opposite from Mr. Conrad's. Most of my comments are in connection with points raised in these letters.

After two years' service as a Departmental Officer I took the examination given in November, 1945. I have been informed that I received the highest mark of any of the 100-odd candidates from the Department or the Auxiliary Service, though I understand that there were a few among the 3400 military candidates who received slightly higher marks. Mr. N. P. Davis, who acted as Chairman of the Orals Board, said that mine was the first case within his memory where a mark of over 90 had been received in each of the four parts of the general examination. (91, 97, 97, 96 respectively.) I received a mark of 67 in the German Exam, and a rating of 90 in the Orals.

I have been out of college since 1936; my record there was good but not brilliant. Although I have taken two courses in Graduate Schools in Washington in recent years, I did no cramming or special studying for the general exam. Like many others I tried for my own amusement the questions from the March exam which the JOURNAL printed. Based on the questions I saw I would say that the March and November exams averaged out to about the same level of difficulty. I had never taken a Foreign Service exam previously.

There is no question but that the examination as given favors certain aptitudes and backgrounds. Some of the more important factors seem to me to be the following:

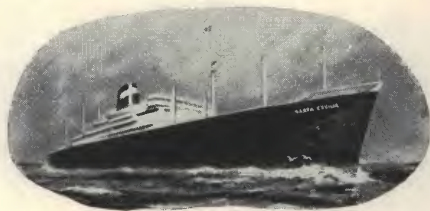
1. Speed in reading. In Part I, which involved reading fairly difficult passages for comprehension, it was not an easy matter to do justice to all the questions in the two hours allowed. Being a very fast reader, however, I was able to read each passage over several times in answering each question. A slower reader with just as much intelligence could not have done as well. I would suggest that instead of the 110 questions, all in one section, the exam

(Continued on page 19)

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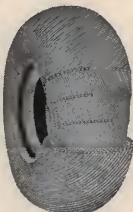
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The West Indian Conference

By ELIZABETH H. ARMSTRONG, *Division of International Organization Affairs.*

The second session of the West Indian Conference was held at St. Thomas, Virgin Islands of the United States, from February 21 to March 13, 1946 (the first session was held at Barbados, March 1944) under the auspices of the Caribbean Commission, formerly the Anglo-American Caribbean Commission, which in December 1945 was reorganized to include France and the Netherlands.

The West Indian Conference is the only international conference participated in by governments in which the people of colonial and overseas territories were directly represented and in which their hopes and aspirations were freely expressed by their own freely chosen representatives. When the Conference adjourned after the three weeks, it had become clear that there were certain fundamental principles on which future sessions of the West Indian Conference would be based; that there should be full and free expression of opinion by freely selected representatives of the people of the region; that there should be prompt review of the recommendations of the Conference by the metropolitan governments concerned, combined with effective action by these governments on the acceptable recommendations; that there should be open, public and well organized deliberations and that every effort must be made in order to permit the peoples of the Caribbean to enjoy higher standards of living, greater income, education and free political institutions, as well as an equal proportionment of respect for the individual of whatever race, color, creed or sex.

Two delegates from each of the following fifteen Caribbean territories, accompanied by advisory staffs, participated in the session:

France:—French Guiana, Guadeloupe, Martinique.

Netherlands:—Curacao, Surinam.

United Kingdom:—Bahamas, Barbados, British Guiana, British Honduras, Jamaica, Trinidad, Leeward Islands, Windward Islands.

United States:—Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands.

The meetings of the conference were also attended by the following members of the Caribbean Commission: *France*—Mme. Eugénie Eboué, Member from Martinique of the French Constituent Assembly and widow of the late Félix Eboué, Governor General of French Equatorial Africa; Governor Parisot of Martinique; and M. Jean de la Roche; *Netherlands*—Dr. J. C. Kielstra, Netherlands Minister to Mexico; Mrs. L. A. H. Peters, Agricultural Attaché of the Netherlands Embassy at Washington; *United Kingdom*—Sir John Macpherson, Comptroller of Colonial Welfare and Development at Barbados; Brigadier R. D. H. Arundel; *United States*—Mr. Charles W. Taussig; Governor Rexford Tugwell of Puerto Rico; and Mr. Ralph J. Bunche, Associate Chief, Division of Dependent Area Affairs, Department of State.

Mr. Taussig, as United States Co-Chairman and chief representative of the host Government, acted as Chairman of the Conference. He was accompanied by a staff of fifteen advisers from the Departments of State, Agriculture, Labor and other government agencies. The United States advisers also served as secretaries of the conference committees and sub-committees.

The Conference was held on the United States Marine Corps Air Station situated some four miles

from the capitol town of Charlotte Amalie. All the meetings were held at the base. Buildings, which during the recent war housed officers, were re-opened and placed in condition to serve as dormitories for the members of the Conference. Excellent cafeteria style meals were provided in a mess hall by a detachment from the Quartermaster Corps, United States Army. Navy buses were also provided to take Conference members to and from meetings as well as into town. Moving pictures were shown each night at the base and the Officers' Beach Club, complete with bar as well as most excellent swimming, was placed at the disposal of the Conference. The United States armed forces vied with each other in catering to all the needs and desires of the members of the Conference. Opportunities were provided by the Chamber of Commerce at Charlotte Amalie for members of the Conference to take sight-seeing tours on the Island of St. Thomas. Those who were able to get away from their duties for a sufficient period of time also visited the other islands of the Virgin Island group, St. John and St. Croix. In the course of the Conference some of the visitors derived considerable interest from attending the sessions of the Municipal Council of St. Thomas. For leisure moments the most delightful occupation was to sit on the famous terrace of the government-owned Blue Beards Castle Hotel, whose view over the picturesque harbor of Charlotte Amalie is famous throughout the Caribbean region.

The West Indian Conference was formally opened on February 21, 1946, by Mr. Morris de Castro, Acting Governor of the Virgin Islands, who welcomed the delegations from all Caribbean territories. Chairman Taussig read a message from

President Truman which stated that the United States policy in the Caribbean region would be guided by the following basic tenets:

1. Encouragement of the effective application by all practicable means of the fundamental principles set forth in Chapter XI of the Charter of the United Nations, this Government noting with satisfaction that in non-self-governing territories the interests of the inhabitants are to be considered paramount.

2. Support of the Caribbean Commission's work to the end that regional problems may be approached as a whole and not piece-meal.

3. Assistance by appropriate action in carrying out the economic objectives recommended by the first session of the West Indian Conference held at Barbados in March, 1944.

4. Support for any suitable plan which would bring the non-self-governing territories of the Caribbean region into greater cooperation with each other with a view to developing the educational, social and cultural institutions of the region, improving the standards of living of the people and strengthening the foundations upon which self-governing institutions may be developed.

The presidential message was most favorably received by the Conference. As the sessions went on it became evident that the policies announced were acceptable to the great majority of the delegates who felt that the support of the United States in their application would be of the greatest value in the solution of Caribbean problems.

The first ten days of the Conference were occupied in plenary sessions in which the delegates discussed regional problems along broad and generalized lines. In the course of these meetings, the delegation from Puerto Rico proposed that



THE CARIBBEAN COMMISSION

Standing, left to right: Jean de la Roche, France; Governor Parisot, France; Governor Tugwell, U. S. A.; Brigadier R. D. H. Arundel, United Kingdom; L. A. H. Peters, Netherlands; Ralph J. Bunche, U. S. A. *Front row, left to right:* Sir John MacPherson, K.C.M.G., United Kingdom; Mme. Eugene Eboue, France; Charles W. Taussig, U. S. A.; and Dr. J. C. Kielstra, Netherlands.

Plenary Session of the
West Indian Conference.



the Conference should implement a suggestion made in Mr. Taussig's opening speech for the drawing up of a bill of human rights and obligations. The Puerto Rican delegation suggested that a committee should be set up to draft such a charter for the Caribbean which should express the aspirations and hopes of the peoples of the area on economic, social and political matters. This proposal led to much discussion and considerable difference of opinion. It was approved by a number of the more politically advanced British West Indian delegates and generally opposed by the delegates from French and Dutch territories who argued that the proposed charter bordered on the political field and was thus beyond the Caribbean Commission's terms of reference. When it became evident that full discussion of the proposed charter of human rights and obligations would lead to considerable controversy and delay, the Puerto Rican delegation agreed to table its proposal. In the closing days of the session the Puerto Rican delegation proposed that before the next session of the West Indian Conference, the Caribbean Commission should gather information on the question and submit a bill of human rights and obligations based on these findings for discussion at the next session. This suggestion was unanimously approved by the entire body of delegates.

On the conclusion of the plenary sessions, the Conference split up into three main committees and some twelve sub-committees which for one week considered respectively: Organization Matters, Cer-

tain Basic Problems of the Area, and Recommendations for Specific Action. In the field of organization the responsible committee recommended that the West Indian Conference should meet bi-annually, that a central secretariat headed by a Secretary-General and located in the region itself should be created, that all the territories of the region should be fully consulted well in advance of the opening of any session as to proposed agenda, and that the territories should seek suggestions from their respective legislative bodies or general councils. The final agenda of the West Indian Conference thus would be largely prepared from the comments received from the territories themselves.

In considering basic area problems, the responsible committee made recommendations on agricultural diversification, on soil surveys, on plans for small conferences dealing with health education, for a survey of nutritional needs, and for quarantine regulations for humans, plants and animals. This committee's most important recommendation was a proposal that a conference on industrial development, whose terms of reference should also include trade and transportation within the Caribbean, should be convened by the Commission not later than February, 1947.

The first business of the committee considering suggestions recommended for specific action was the implementation of the tourist project, originally proposed by the Anglo-American Caribbean Com-

(Continued on page 39)

The National War College

By ROBERT F. EVANS

Special Assistant to Director, Office of the Foreign Service

In the past few months there have been a number of articles devoted to a discussion of training for the Foreign Service. Recently two steps have been taken which carry this subject out of the sphere of pure speculation in the direction of concrete action. The State Department has been asked to participate in the National War College and to send ten Foreign Service officers to the College in the fall. Secondly, the Secretary of State has sent to the Bureau of the Budget recommendations for new legislation for the Foreign Service Institute.

In view of these important developments, the JOURNAL is running two articles on training in the current issue. The first describes the National War College; the second summarizes the present thinking in the Office of the Foreign Service on the role of the Foreign Service Institute.

A NEW step towards the further integration of the thinking and planning of the State Department, War Department, and the Navy Department will be taken on September 3rd when classes will start in the new National War College. The National War College, which will be the highest level educational institution of the State Department and the armed forces, will be staffed by key officers of the Army and Navy, and chosen personnel from the State Department and the Foreign Service. In addition, a limited number of leading civilian professors will be borrowed from American universities.

Organized under the authority of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, the College will have an enrollment of at least 100 students of which it is hoped that ten will be from the Foreign Service. The course will take approximately ten months, the first group of students being scheduled to graduate on June 21, 1947. The buildings and grounds of the Army War College in Washington will be utilized.

The Commandant of the new college is Vice Admiral Harry W. Hill, U.S.N., former Commander of the Fifth Amphibious Force. Assistant Secretary of State Donald Russell is directing the State Department participation, while the Deputy Commandants are Major General Alfred M. Gruenther, U.S.A.,

who is presently Deputy Commander of the Army and Navy Staff College, and Brigadier General T. H. Landon, Army Air Force, now Chief of the Air Section of the Army and Navy Staff College.

Admiral Hill and Assistant Secretary Russell, together with Generals Gruenther and Landon, are currently drawing up a curriculum for the first session. A Board of Consultants, consisting of Dr. James P. Baxter, III, President of Williams College; Dr. Calvin B. Hoover, Dean of Graduate School of Duke University; Dr. William L. Langer of Harvard; Professor Arnold Wolfers of Yale University; Dr. Edward M. Earle and Dr. W.L. Wright of Princeton are conferring with them in making plans for the curriculum.

The course of instruction will cover a wide range of subjects pertinent to national planning and national defense, including a study of foreign policy, international law, and international relations. The instruction will be principally by the lecture system and seminars with committee studies and reports, as well as analyses by individual students.

Certain parts of the course will be held in conjunction with the Army-Navy Industrial College of which Brigadier General Donald A. Armstrong is Commandant. Close liaison is being maintained



Robert F. Evans

The Army War College, Washington, D. C.



with the Naval War College at Newport, and the other training organizations of the armed forces such as the Command and General Staff School at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, and Air Forces University at Maxwell Field, Alabama.

The studies to be pursued may start with an indoctrination course covering the organization, capabilities, and limitations of the Army, Navy, and Air forces. A second course may deal with scientific research and development, and include atomic energy together with the atomic bomb and other new weapons and their effect on future warfare. A third course may discuss war as an instrument of national policy taking up the objectives sought by nations through war, military action short of war, and those measures which may be taken to make war unnecessary. This course could also include the various phases of economic warfare, psychological warfare, and the various means of directing national policy at the outbreak of war. Another course may be a study of the factors effecting the military potentialities of nations to include the various rolls of air, sea, and ground forces and the potentials of production, technology, and transportation.

The international commitments of the United States and the military potentials for supporting these commitments may constitute another course which would include the problem of State Department policies, coordination with the armed forces, military government, and central intelligence. Still other courses may cover the military potentials of other countries, the mobilization of such military potentials, and joint operations.

In a course dealing with joint operations it would

appear that organization would constitute a major part of the study. The Joint Chiefs of Staff, joint expeditionary staffs, command relations, joint intelligence and logistics would be studied together with the effect of airborne operations, amphibious warfare, and similar subjects.

It is contemplated that the latter part of the course may deal with strategic considerations, analytical studies of joint operations, and the development of war plans. Foreign Service officers and State Department officials may omit this portion of the studies, but it is contemplated that at least a few will continue on for the full ten months. In these later months, it is contemplated that intensive studies will be made of our strategic frontiers and outlying bases, together with an analysis of the over-all strategy of World War II. Studies of World War II and joint operations which made up the various campaigns would be made on the levels of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, the theater operations, and the Joint Expeditionary Forces. The principles of joint planning in the development of war plans would be analyzed together with the problems involving the preparation of estimates of the situation in relation to joint operations.

Concerning the assignment of Foreign Service officers to the course, Mr. Selden Chapin, Director of the Office of the Foreign Service, has stated that he hopes to have ten officers for the first session of the College and that he is aiming for personnel with approximately fifteen years' service. Other Foreign Service officers will be assigned to the faculty. Officers interested in attending the course may make application to the Chief of the Division of Foreign Service Personnel.

A Foreign Service Institute

By EDWARD T. LAMPSON, *Division of Foreign Service Planning*

THIS month the Secretary of State sent to the Bureau of the Budget recommendations for legislation in regard to the Foreign Service which include provisions for the establishment of a Foreign Service Institute. Under the terms of this proposed legislation the new training school will be on a graduate level under the direction of a Director who will receive a salary equal to that of an Assistant Secretary.

Under these circumstances it may be of interest to sketch briefly the present thinking in the Office of the Foreign Service concerning the future Institute. The following discussion is written throughout in the conditional mood; naturally it would be premature to lay down rigid specifications before the first Director, whose influence over the future of the Institute will be decisive, has even been selected.

The Institute's activities should range from taking part in setting examinations for the Foreign Service and giving orientation courses to directing advanced studies conducted by Foreign Service officers and other experts in foreign affairs—studies which will train high-ranking officers in diplomatic strategy.

Upon establishment of the Institute, the Executive Director of the Board of Foreign Service Examiners should be assigned to the Institute staff, and two assistants appointed to aid him in the preparation and administration of the Foreign Service examinations. It will be possible to test the adequacy of the examinations as a selective mechanism if they are handled by men who are in a position to follow the later careers of successful candidates. Members of the Institute, working in close contact with the Division of Foreign Service Personnel, can do this, and such constant "validation" will insure the maximum effectiveness of the examinations. Furthermore, these men in their role as educators (for they should be trained in educational methods) should weigh the advantages of various new examining techniques and determine their applicability to the needs of the Service.

For example, they should consider the feasibility of adopting a system of *two* qualifying written examinations.

According to this plan, the first examination can be made a qualifying test designed solely to narrow the field and prepared so that it can be corrected

mechanically. It might follow the same lines as the present Foreign Service short-answer questions, but serious consideration should be given to adopting intelligence tests similar to those used by the Army for Officer Candidate Schools and legal aptitude tests such as are used by Yale University Law School.

Possibly only the top thirty per cent of the men taking the first examination would qualify to take the second. The number of candidates would be small enough so that the second written examination could be read with care by a group of examiners with relatively similar standards of judgment.

This being the case, it would be possible to set up the second examination solely on the basis of essay questions. If this were done, the examination would reveal more clearly than the present examinations an ability to think clearly and write well.

Upon entering the Service a new officer should be given a three-month orientation course designed to introduce him to his new career, its organization, traditions, duties, standards, and mores, to describe briefly the position of the United States in world affairs, and to teach him some of the "tools" of his new trade.

After this training the officer should be sent to a training post in the field. The instruction which the beginner receives during this period will be, in the main, a humble and concrete grounding in the fundamentals of the operation of the Foreign Service. It is essential, however, that his experience be both varied and interesting. The training assignment should be organized on the principle of rotating the student through several sections of the consulate or mission; he should serve a specifically limited term performing each type of work. During this eighteen-month period a number of the probationary officers would be found unsuited for the Service. Let us assume that about ten per cent are eliminated at the end of eighteen months.

The successful candidates should be brought to Washington for a year's training, during which half of the officer's time should be spent at the Institute, the other half in divisions of the Department, learning by doing.

Some officers should be given a "general line" course, others assigned to a course of area specialization in which they would spend all of their training time working on matters pertaining to one geographic area. In order to develop an understanding

of various aspects of the work of the Department, both general line and area student officers should be rotated through four functional divisions. The normal order of assignment might be administrative, economic, informational, and political divisions, in that order.

Morning courses at the Institute should be integrated with the work done at the Department. They would naturally fall into one of two groups: General seminars pitched at a rather high theoretical level, and detailed and thorough area courses or courses in specialized Foreign Service functions. For this instruction the Director should employ a panel of visiting professors appointed for one year, who should also act as consultants for various offices of the Department.

During this phase an area student officer should receive intensive training in reportorial methods. In the past too many foreign Service despatches have been written on an *ad hoc* basis and have dealt with immediate crises, interpreting general events from the point of view of a particular emergency. It is highly important to build up a new type of reporting from the field—basic monographs setting forth the underlying, more or less permanent, and often dominant, factors at work in shaping immediate political events. It might be advisable to place some men directly in research divisions where they could analyze, under proper direction, reports from the field on certain political and economic aspects of current affairs. The process of studying despatches from the field and integrating them with the immediate policy problems and decisions of the Department is most revealing. Officers might also be assigned to the preparation of detailed background studies. In this phase of training the cooperation of the Office of Intelligence would be of great importance.

At the conclusion of the third year a probationary officer should either be separated or promoted and made a regular officer. (Perhaps twenty to thirty per cent of the probationary officers would be eliminated.) He should then be assigned to the field.

No officer should normally be assigned to a post



Edward T. Lampson

where he does not speak the language without intensive language training. Where possible, his wife should be included in the course. There should be established in the Institute intensive four-month courses in the major Romance, Germanic, and Slavic languages and in Chinese and Japanese, and short-term instruction in other languages such as Burmese, Rumanian, Greek, etc.

The courses of training described up to this point have been devoted chiefly to developing in new Foreign Service officers the knowledge and skills needed in general work. In the future, however, the Federal Government's representatives abroad will be called upon to do much more highly specialized

work than was the case before the war. A large part of this work can be effectively done by Foreign Service officers, but if the Foreign Service accepts such responsibility it must furnish special training to make its officers competent in these new fields.

In the future economic reporting and economic negotiation will certainly be more technical and more complex. The Foreign Service officer must be prepared to deal in problems concerning labor and housing, former enemy assets, reparations and restitution, decartelization, economic intelligence, transportation, telecommunications and many other matters. With the return of peace the important job of promoting American trade abroad and furnishing commercial reports must be done on a much larger scale than during the war.

Foreign Service officers will work closely with numerous international organizations. Some of them may be assigned as members of the staff of the American delegation to U.N.; others may serve as members of international conferences, or sit on plebiscite commissions, or take part in the proceedings of the International Court. The staffs of the Allied Control Councils in Germany and Japan will require Foreign Service officers for some time to come. Thus officers will certainly need special training in international administration and international law.

Furthermore, a number of special technical subjects will come directly into the area of respon-

(Continued on page 43)

Gripsholm Becomes Legend in Foreign Service Annals

By HARRY W. FRANTZ

THE motor liner *Gripsholm* soon will complete its service in charter for the Department of State, and with its return to home port of Goteborg a splendid tradition will have been added to the diplomatic annals of the United States of America.

In story and book for a century will grow the legends of the ship that served humanity through the explosive years of World War II. Passenger, sailor and officer will share memories of ship's passage through submarined seas, and countless homes will perennially rejoice with those who "came back on the *Gripsholm*."

Through the prisoner exchanges and repatriation of 25,000 victims of the war, officials of the Department of State and the American Foreign Service are entitled to a special pride in the efficient organization and manifold personal services that made the voyages of the *Gripsholm* successful.

At Rio or Goa, Manila or Marseilles, in reminiscent sundown hour, the *Gripsholm* will cruise anew through the table talk of men from home. They will remember the tedious paper work that went with the assembly of passengers, the exciting hours on waterfront, the painful errands for sick or wounded, the occasional grateful note from repatriate.

The *Gripsholm* sailed from New York February 27 on its tenth voyage for the Department of State. Outbound passenger list was for Cobh, Plymouth and LeHavre, being substantially a commercial operation under auspices of the United States Lines. But the return cruise would bring from Europe and England a final contingent of nearly 1,500 Americans, "stranded" across the Atlantic as aftermath of war.

With conclusion of this cruise at the end of March, the *Gripsholm* was to return to the Swedish-American Line, and would sail to Goteborg for overhaul preparatory to resumption of normal peacetime service.

In the *Gripsholm* log-books would be the records of ten voyages, of which five were made primarily for exchange of prisoners and five for the repatriation of Americans unable otherwise to reach home. Six of the voyages were made before and four after V-E Day.

Hundreds of supplementary services of mercy and convenience were rendered, such as the emer-

gency transport of medical supplies and blood plasma, the removal of wounded soldiers, and the transportation of diplomats, including those of many American republics. Most of the Christian missionaries in the Orient returned home on this vessel. Many countries of the Far East, Near East, Mediterranean, North and South Americas, benefitted by one or another of these historic cruises. Thousands of households were gladdened by return of sons and daughters whose homecoming in wartime merged on the miraculous.

The *Gripsholm* steamed in Seven Seas, a neutral ship flying the Swedish flag, fully lighted, identified to friend and foe by the huge lettering on the hull:

DIPLOMAT GRIPSHOLM—SVERGE

The *Gripsholm* was chartered from the Swedish-American Line in 1942, having been known earlier as a cruise ship in North Atlantic during summer and Caribbean during the winter. She is a vessel of 18,000 tons, has Diesel engines, and normally cruises at about 15 knots. She had de luxe, first and second class accommodations, but in wartime was operated as a single class ship, with cabin preferences given to the aged, mothers with sick children, the ill and wounded.

Captain Erickson was in command on the first three voyages, and thereafter, Captain Harry Nordensson. The regular crew numbered 450. At first nearly all were Swedes, but eventually about 100 Americans were signed on. There was a small purser's staff of Americans. American physicians performed splendid feats of surgery and medical treatment on board.

Officers of the Department of State and the neutral government of Switzerland accompanied each voyage, and Foreign Service personnel at all ports of call had instructions to render every possible assistance. Such assistance, in fact, often went far beyond the bounds of official service and routine entertainment, as great personal efforts were made ashore to add relief and pleasure to the ship's passengers. Clothing was assembled, local sightseeing arranged, and emergency financial assistance often given out of private pocket.

Before the *Gripsholm* was chartered, the S. S. *Drottningholm* took some Axis nationals and officials to Lisbon for exchange. But that vessel was

too small for the exchanges between the United States, Latin American countries, and nationals from Japan. The *Gripsholm* was then chartered.

The *Gripsholm* departed from New York on its first exchange voyage in June 1942 for Lourenço Marques in Portuguese East Africa with Japanese diplomats and civilians, and returned with United States diplomats and civilians from Japan, China, Indo-China and Siam.

The second voyage started from New York in September 1943, with an outbound list of 1330 Japanese civilians from New York and 173 from Rio de Janeiro. These were exchanged at Morinugao and Goa in Portuguese India for American civilian refugees from Japan, China and the Philippines. Later American diplomats were brought home.

In February 1944, the *Gripsholm* left New York on a third voyage. German civilians and some sick and wounded soldiers were taken to Lisbon and exchanged for an American list which included United States diplomats formerly accredited to the Vichy Government, and sick and wounded American soldiers and sailors.

The *Gripsholm* in May 1944, went to Barcelona,

exchanging German civilians, sick and wounded war prisoners for American civilians, sick and injured soldiers.

The fifth voyage was to Goteborg, Sweden, in August 1944, to exchange German sick and wounded prisoners for United States and Canadian sick and wounded prisoners.

A sixth voyage to Marseilles was for a similar mission.

After V-E Day, there was an urgent problem of repatriating distressed American citizens and their families. Large numbers of missionaries and educators had reached India from China and other Far Eastern countries. The first repatriation voyage was therefore to Bombay, where 1132 Americans boarded. At Greek ports the remainder of a total list of 1500 were picked up.

The second repatriation voyage brought American refugees from the Near East and Italy, including 175 American Red Cross workers from Naples.

The third repatriation voyage was again to the Mediterranean. During the eastbound trip, engine trouble developed. Repairs were made by the Navy at Palermo. This voyage brought home 1500 war-

(Continued on page 52)

The *Gripsholm* in Rio Harbor November, 1943.



Appointment of Additional Foreign Service Officers in the Classified Grades

From the Congressional Record, April 12, 1946.

After the "Manpower Bill" (see FOREIGN SERVICE JOURNALS of October, November and December 1945) had been reported favorably by the House Committee on Foreign Affairs and reached the floor of House of Representatives, Mr. Rabaut of Michigan introduced two amendments to the bill. The bill has not yet been acted upon by the Senate.

Mr. BLOOM. Mr. Speaker, I ask unanimous consent for the immediate consideration of the bill (H.R. 5244) to authorize the appointment of additional foreign-service officers in the classified grades.

The Clerk read the title of the bill.

The SPEAKER. Is there objection to the request of the gentleman from New York?

Mrs. ROGERS of Massachusetts. Mr. Speaker, reserving the right to object—and I shall not object—this bill was reported unanimously by the Foreign Affairs Committee and is considered extremely necessary if our foreign service is to function adequately during the next few months. It is an emergency measure.

Mr. MARTIN of Massachusetts. Mr. Speaker, reserving the right to object, will the gentleman explain the bill?

Mr. BLOOM. Mr. Speaker, H.R. 5244 is a bill to employ 250 foreign-service officers in the Department of State to fill the urgent need caused by the 4-year suspension of recruitment during the war.

The question has been asked, What is the foreign service? Before 1939, the Treasury Department, the Agriculture Department, the Department of Commerce, the Bureau of Mines, in addition to the State Department, all had foreign-service officers serving in our embassies and legations abroad as commercial attachés and in various technical capacities.

In 1939 these men were all unified under the supervision and control of the Department of State. Through them, the State Department carries out necessary functions for the various other departments of our Government as well as necessary activities of the Department of State.

Additional foreign-service officers are especially needed for economic work. Their shortage has been felt most directly and acutely in connection with the reopening of posts in the liberated areas of Europe and the Far East.

In 1939, the State Department had 833 men in the classified foreign service. Now it has only about 800. Energetic measures have been taken to bring in new men at the bottom. An examination for candidates in the auxiliary and clerical services produced 45 new officers last fall, while an examination recently held for young men in the armed forces and another to be held this year are expected to yield 400 new junior officers.

This bill, however, provides for highly skilled, mature men, over 31 years of age, who have either served in the armed forces during the war, or who have had qualifying experience in a responsible Government position during the war. These men are immediately needed to take care of the deficiency in special knowledges and technical skills and would be appointed to the classified grades commensurate with their ability and age.

The approximate cost of employing all 250 of these new foreign-service officers, including their salaries and allowances would probably be between \$1,500,000 and \$2,000,000.

Mr. MARTIN of Massachusetts. This bill carries the unanimous report of the gentleman's committee?

Mr. BLOOM. It has an unanimous report. It is very necessary to have these additional people.

Mr. REED of New York. Mr. Speaker, reserving the right to object, are those men needed in this country or abroad?

Mr. BLOOM. They are needed abroad. The Department of Commerce, the State Department, and other departments of the Government have heretofore had these people, but now this is all placed under the head of one department, the State Department.

Mr. RABAUT. Mr. Speaker, reserving the right to object, I have two amendments to the bill which I submitted to the committee.

The SPEAKER. Is there objection to the request of the gentleman from New York [Mr. BLOOM]?

(Continued on page 55)

A SUGGESTED APPROACH TO THE PROBLEM OF IMPROVING THE ADMINISTRATIVE EFFICIENCY OF THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE

(Continued from the April issue)

By FRANK SNOWDEN HOPKINS
Assistant Chief, Division of Training Services

An important consideration in setting up a chain of command is to distribute duties and responsibilities in such a way that each person is used to capacity, but is not loaded with work beyond the point of optimum efficiency. In industrial organizations the usual rule is that an executive should not have more than six subordinates reporting to him directly for orders. This is about the maximum number which the average executive can advise and control, and still have time for creative thinking and planning and for handling the technical operations which must be performed on his level. The executive who has twelve or fifteen subordinates reporting directly to him will spend too much time on them and their problems, and not enough on his own responsibilities.

In the Department of State, where executives have technical duties to perform which are of great national urgency and importance, the number of men reporting to a single executive should be kept as small as possible, so that adequate time is left for the executive's technical functions. He cannot possibly organize his time effectively if a constant stream of people is coming to him with problems and decisions.

For this reason, it is my belief that the organizational pyramid in the Department of State should be a fairly steep one. It is highly probable that there should be two Under Secretaries of State, one to handle foreign affairs, as at present, and one to be responsible for the effective working of the entire administrative machinery of the Department and that these two men are all who should, in the chain of command, report directly to the Secretary of State.

The creation of an Under Secretary for Administration would seem to be the best method of getting the proper recognition for the importance of internal planning and of giving the responsible official the power and prestige he needs. It would not, of course, do away with the need for an Assistant Secretary in charge of the administrative divisions, but would rather fill the requirement for a top executive with enough authority to deal directly with the White House and the Congress on matters relating to the proper functioning of the Department. If the right man can be found for

such a post, he should obviously be non-partisan and permanent, so that no matter what party is in power the Department of State should be an effective instrumentality for carrying out the national will in foreign affairs.

It should be understood, of course, that while the chain of command should be narrow and steep, any executive would naturally wish to have his staff of advisers and consultants, including subordinates on various levels, who would be available to inform and advise him on the various matters for which the executive is responsible. The important thing to remember is that the *command* relationship is one thing, and the *advisory* relationship quite another. An executive can call upon any one for advice, but orders should be given in most cases directly to the man next below him in the chain of command, and in all cases either through him or with his full knowledge.

DANGERS OF TOO MUCH SUPERVISION

At this point it may be well to consider a point which has been raised with the writer by Harry C. Hawkins, Minister-Counselor for Economic Affairs, at London. Mr. Hawkins feels that the recent tendency to stratify the Department by layer on layer of supervising officers is not a sound one, as it tends to submerge high-calibre professional people, who work best when they are given a high degree of responsibility, rather than under several organizational layers, particularly if there is close supervision and review at each stage.

If, indeed, the steep pyramid proposed here were to result in stultifying high-grade officers by subjecting them to too close supervision, I should be the first to deplore it. Such a result could come about only through a misunderstanding of the real purpose of the chain of command. Its *raison d'être* is not to provide criticism and review at each stage, but to distribute responsibilities in an even and logical manner.

Mr. Hawkins writes, "It seems to me that the executive has done nine-tenths of his job when he (a) gets the right man for a job and (b) clearly defines his responsibilities. The other tenth is reviewing and assuming specific responsibility on questions of special difficulty and importance which line officers, on their own volition, ask him to re-

view, and for which they feel he should take direct responsibility." With this I am in entire agreement, with particular emphasis on the clear definition of responsibilities. Again it should be emphasized that an organizational structure can be used properly or misused, and that the answer has to be found not primarily in changing the structure, but in educating personnel in the proper operating techniques.

The essential principle of the steep organizational pyramid is that it should result in each executive's responsibilities being held down to a burden which he can reasonably be expected to handle with full effectiveness. If this is done, then the executive will be more free to think, to plan and to deal with such problems as are appropriately handled by him personally because of his experience, technical qualifications or position in the organization.

The chain of command will never work effectively, however, unless it is thoroughly understood. It must be clearly determined in advance what kinds of decisions are to be made on each level of operating responsibility. The idea should never be to bury officers under too much supervision, but to give them maximum freedom by clear definition of duties and authority, and a simple, expeditious way to get a higher decision on matters which they find to be beyond their competence.

Each executive must guard against two common faults; he must never pass on to some one else a decision which he himself should make, and he should never make a decision which should properly be made by either his superior or his subordinate. In such a system, knowledge of proper operating procedure is the *sine qua non*. One of the chief requirements of a good executive is that he should know when to make and when not to make a decision. Neither the buck-passer nor the decision-grabber make effective officers in a large organization, where they disturb the smooth working of the executive machinery.

THE "INFORMAL SOCIAL ORGANIZATION"

One other thought should be introduced here. Every person sophisticated in organizational procedure knows that one factor in making an organization run smoothly is the personal relationships that develop between people who work together. People must learn to know one another's minds and dispositions. They must learn to put confidence in one another. They must adjust to one another's ways of operating. No matter how individually able a man may be, he must be removed from an organization if he cannot learn to work with his fellows and to adjust to the procedure of operation.

Generally speaking, when people work for some time together, something develops which in sociological terminology is called the "informal social

organization." It consists of an informal grouping of people in certain close relationships to one another, which may entirely disregard the structural organizations as it appears on paper. No matter what an executive does, such informal social organizations inevitably appear. It is the executive's responsibility to realize the importance of this phenomenon and to control it for the good of the formal organization.

It is particularly essential that the importance of the informal social organization be recognized at the very top of the pyramid. When no close relationship exists at the heart of an organization between the key executives, it is extremely difficult to make the organization function properly, no matter how able and earnest the persons concerned may be as individuals. The problem is particularly acute in organizations in which there are frequent changes of personnel, as every change disturbs the informal social organization and makes necessary a new grouping.

From what has been said above, it should follow logically that extensive "reorganizations" are very expensive in terms of morale and efficiency. For the sake of getting a better organizational structure, well established social relationships between fellow workers are drastically disrupted. New relationships and new operating techniques have to grow and develop, and this takes time.

Meanwhile, there is temporary bewilderment and uncertainty, and administrative efficiency drops. Morale suffers damage as feelings of insecurity develop, and the efforts of each member of the organization to win recognition in the eyes of his chiefs and his co-workers are subjected to a serious setback. Worst of all, established policy, which every one learned slowly and painfully, is suddenly fluid and uncertain, and on every level operating decisions are blocked until policy again becomes clear.

This is not to say that reorganizations are not sometimes necessary, but that when undertaken there should be full awareness of the price which will have to be paid.

THE CHANNEL OF COMMUNICATION

It is now time to introduce the third element in our scheme of organization—that is, the establishment and maintenance of a satisfactory system of communication. The longer the chain of command, the more necessary it is to have channels of communication to short-circuit the passage of information from the top of the executive hierarchy to all lower levels, and conversely to get information from the lower levels transmitted upward.

The responsibility for keeping channels of com-

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Letters to the Editors

(Continued from page 5)

The Foreign Service Exams—Continued

be divided into two sections. The first would have perhaps 50 questions. If the candidate wished to spend his whole time on these he could, and would receive a mark of 80 if he answered all correctly. This would be a test of comprehension solely. The second section would have another—50 questions or so, and the fast worker could go on to that, earning an additional 20 points if he got all correct. This would leave the fast reader just where he is now, but would give the slower one a break which he deserves.

2. Type of mind. There are a wide variety of mental characteristics, many of which have no intrinsic superiority over others. An examination of the type given definitely favors the analytical mind, and the one which can move rapidly and easily from one subject to another making quick decisions in each case. The imaginatively creative mind, and the one which is at its best making a thorough and intensive study of a single subject over an extended period of time, have little opportunity to demonstrate their strong points; yet these qualities are certainly needed in the Foreign Service. I have a feeling that too much has been sacrificed for ease in marking the examinations, although it is true that the rating of part IV was not purely mechanical. I think that the Examining Board should direct its efforts toward finding some way to test these other aptitudes, without giving undue weight to one particular kind of experience.

3. Range of background reading. The mark I received in Part III (Vocabulary and General Information) must be largely attributed to very wide and extensive reading of both books and periodicals over a period of many years. Availability of reading matter, facility in reading, and rather catholic interests have all contributed to this. If the nature of Foreign Service work, or the opportunities to get hold of reading material at posts abroad, have resulted in such reading being made difficult or impossible for any officer or employee who has the inclination, then not only for the sake of the examinations but for the sake of the Foreign Service itself this situation must be corrected. It is a field in which improvement will probably require a combination of official and unofficial effort, and a place where a collaboration between Foreign Service Planning and the Foreign Service Association might be extremely profitable.

With respect to Part II (interpretation of statistical data) and Part IV (condensation, expansion, etc.) I must say I felt that these were not only fair

but were pertinent to the kind of work which a Foreign Service Officer would be expected to do. Mr. Meadows suggests that examinations be based on actual Foreign Service duties such as drafting telegrams and despatches, although he recognizes that this would be fair only if all candidates had had some actual field experience. However, it seems to me that the qualities needed for this kind of practical work are well tested in the exam as given, with the further advantage that by putting the questions in neutral terminology there can be no question of favoring candidates with one kind of experience as against another.

With respect to the language examination, it is of course difficult to make a comparison between my German exam and the one in Spanish to which Mr. Conrad refers. Possibly since Spanish is usually considered to be the easier language there was a conscious effort to make that exam more difficult. At any rate, after ten years without using my German, and only ten or twelve brush-up lessons before the exam, I could not complain of the grade I made. The exam was one in which conversational fluency would probably have made only a small difference; again it seems to me that an attempt was made to give a break to the person who had not had an opportunity to use the language abroad but had had only academic training.

My main criticism of the language portion would be the narrowness of the choice. Certainly officers with a command of the rarer languages are urgently needed, yet only French, Spanish, and German were offered. Although these are the traditional school languages, no unfairness would have resulted from offering Russian, Portuguese, Arabic, etc., in addition. It seems to me that if the Board of Examiners would announce a policy of expanding this area they would be encouraging the study of these scarcer languages in the colleges and schools offering special Foreign Service training. This ought to be highly desirable since a student wishing to specialize, for example, on Russia could concentrate on the language while taking his related subjects.

I think Mr. Conrad should be congratulated for his courage in tackling this subject, particularly when he has to risk the cry of "sour grapes" being hurled at him. It is especially important that every Auxiliary Officer who has demonstrated marked competence for Foreign Service work be given every opportunity to qualify for a career appointment.

In the event that you wish to use this letter for publication, I shall be obliged if you will withhold my name: not only for the obvious reason of mod-

esty, but so that, in case I do enter the Service, I will not be called "that d . . . brightie" or "the Quiz Kid" for the rest of my career.

DEPARTMENTAL OFFICER.

"You're Not Supposed to be Humble at All"

American Embassy
La Paz, Bolivia
March 18, 1946.

To the Editors

THE AMERICAN FOREIGN SERVICE JOURNAL:

I was deeply shocked by the article "A Humble Foreign Service Clerk" in the January issue of the JOURNAL, which has just arrived in La Paz. Undoubtedly there are pills in every organization, including the Foreign Service. It is to be regretted that the writer of the article, who appears to be a person of superior education and intelligence, happened to hit a bad spot for his or her first post.

Before passing final judgment on the Foreign Service, this clerk should give it another try by changing posts. In La Paz we have no undue heat, no bugs and no caste system. The writer would be most welcome here.

The American staff was immediately called to my office to discuss this letter and to make sure no such system exists in La Paz. It doesn't. By duty and by choice we do not all go to the same social gatherings. But there is no system preventing people from going out because of their positions.

Most of us here in La Paz come from the same kind of average American home; we were educated and brought up the same; and we enjoy the same things. Rank has little part in the groups which are formed from congenial tastes, and parties frequently find staff members of all ranks present. Our Washington's Birthday reception included all members of the Embassy as well as all the Ambassadors, Ministers and Secretaries stationed in La Paz.

In conclusion, may I say to "A Humble Foreign Service Clerk" you are not supposed to be humble at all. Each person has his or her part to play and can and should be proud so to serve the Government. Also, do not think the higher classes of officers are all heels; the great majority of them are good fellows right through.

HECTER C. ADAM, JR.
Charge d'Affaires a. i.

A Privilege to Pay Federal Income Tax?

Port-au-Prince, Haiti

April 4, 1946
TO THE EDITOR,
THE AMERICAN FOREIGN SERVICE JOURNAL:

The letter from Francis C. Jordan of December 10, 1945, published in the February issue of the Journal, with regard to the exemption from Fed-

eral Income Tax of Foreign Service personnel serving abroad, constitutes a step in the right direction: this is a move that merits the wholehearted support of the Service *in toto*.

Apart from being deprived of the benefits of residence in the United States mentioned by Mr. Jordan, we of the service who spend the greater part of our career abroad are faced with the nightmare of excessive prices for practically everything we purchase. In many posts the non-career and clerical personnel are not granted free entry and are, therefore, unable to order clothing or foodstuffs from home. During the recent war prices skyrocketed out of all reasonable bounds, and diplomatic immunity suffered the same ignoble fate as did the business and financial standing of merchants, manufacturers and importers. With no added stipend, Foreign Service personnel was (and still is) hard put to meet ordinary living expenses and to maintain the prestige incumbent upon it. And then, as if to add a bitter aftermath to the onerous burden, income tax had to be figured and paid.

It has been said that paying income tax is a privilege. That cannot be denied in the main, but it is hardly true in the case of the Foreign Service. The men and women who serve in the field really deserve some consideration in the matter of taxation apart from the period of grace granted for the return: regardless of the delay allowed, the money must be forthcoming, and budgets, especially of those in the lower salary brackets, are gone over and checked and re-checked and talked about in desperate efforts to squeeze out the money required for the tax payment.

We all want to do our part in the strict maintenance of our system of government, and if there is no hope of legislation tending to exempt us from the payment of income tax, we will dig down and pay it, regardless, but it is believed that we do have a legitimate claim for a hearing on the question and if there are valid reasons why such exemption should not be allowed, we should hear about them and discuss them, then, if still required, abide by the decision rendered.

Certainly others in the Service have ideas pro and con, and they should express them through the JOURNAL.

LEONARD E. THOMPSON
American Vice Consul

CORRECTION

The following name should be added to the list of Retired Foreign Service Officers which appeared in the February 1946 issue:

Randolph, John, 5350 Central Ave.,
St. Petersburg, Fla.

Press Comment

THE AMERICAN SOLDIER AS A DIPLOMAT

Editorial in THE FIELD ARTILLERY JOURNAL, March 1946

ON February 14th, President Truman announced that he had accepted the resignation of Mr. Averell Harriman as Ambassador to Russia and named Lieutenant General Walter Bedell Smith, USA, as his successor. This is the second time that the President has turned to a soldier for an important diplomatic assignment. More pertinent here is the unprecedented fact that the United States now has soldier-diplomats (Generals Marshall and Smith) in what are unquestionably the two most difficult and delicate ambassadorial jobs in the world—China and Russia. Notable success by either or both can go far toward furthering good will and peace among nations. The price of either's failure is not pleasant to contemplate.

These two appointments, one right after the other, are of considerably more than passing interest. The placing of soldiers in these high posts was not a decision taken lightly. Such decisions are of first importance in the conduct of our foreign affairs. Why did the President select soldiers? Are these two appointments but two special and isolated cases, or is there something deeper here? Lacking the full facts, this column cannot furnish conclusive answers to these thought-provoking questions. However, certain observations can be made; observations of significance to the military and non-military reader alike.

The essential attributes of a diplomat, let alone the specific qualifications for a particular diplomatic post at any given time, do not lend themselves to nice definition. Obviously, there are always many special and contributing factors to be considered in any diplomatic appointment; certainly, there are a-plenty in both Russia and China today. No one will quarrel, however, with the contention that in any event an accomplished diplomat must have a *national outlook* and be well aware of the *instruments of power*, which include *force*.

Infrequently mentioned is the fact that regular Army officers invariably approach any problem with a *national outlook*. This national outlook is derived from the Army way of life, the character of duty performed, and the extensive travel it entails. These combine to bring about a weakening, early in an officer's career, of former ties and allegiances to a particular town or state or county. With lengthening years of service, in most cases this initial weakening develops into what is virtually a complete severance of "local" associations. Other

than our brother officers in the Navy, and certain career men in the State Department, there is no other sizable group in America which maintains a national outlook consistently. That most Americans *think locally* is, of course, the logical and perhaps the most important single derivative of our federal structure of government. Our greatest strength in some ways, the "colloquialism" of our collective thinking makes for weakness in the pattern of the conduct of our foreign affairs. Incidentally, it utterly baffles foreigners, and particularly Europeans. . . .

. . . the more forward-looking regular officers find the underlying realities of international relationships a field not only of stimulating intellectual interest but also one that impels their close attention professionally. Being realists, these officers are acutely conscious of the role of *force* in the continuous interplay of the instruments of power in the world of diplomacy. It is not surprising, therefore, that many regular officers possess a peculiar appreciation of the numerous relatives that press upon, and must be balanced by, the diplomat.

Although the degree and extent of Mr. Truman's use of soldier-diplomats is entirely without precedent, the idea is far from new. Likewise, the use of Navy officers—Admirals Leahy and Kirk being the most recent examples. In the Army, the names of Generals Leonard Wood, John J. Pershing, Tasker Bliss, and Frank McCoy stand, perhaps, at the head of the pre-World War II list of soldier-diplomats. Of these, General Frank McCoy stood quite apart in this role. His most prominent assignment was as our representative on the Lytton Commission which investigated the Manchurian Incident of 1931. Recently, General McCoy took time off from being President of the Foreign Policy Association to serve again as a soldier-diplomat as the Chairman of the Far Eastern Commission.

As indicated at the outset, there are no firm conclusions to be drawn now from what was obviously something more than the merely coincidental use by our President of two outstanding American soldiers in the most difficult and delicate ambassadorial jobs in the world. It is most flattering to the Army, in any event, and should serve to stimulate an increased appreciation, particularly among the younger regular officers, of the challenging opportunities offered from time to time by their chosen profession for service in other than a purely military capacity.

(Continued on page 36)

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The American Foreign Service Association

The American Foreign Service Association is an unofficial and
voluntary association of the members of *The Foreign Service of
the United States*. It was formed for the purpose of fostering
esprit de corps among the members of the Foreign Service and
to establish a center around which might be grouped the united
efforts of its members for the improvement of the Service.

UN-WANTED

As the JOURNAL goes to press news is published
that the homeless United Nations has found a make-
shift and temporary home. This decision was
reached after months of indecision; months in
which it might fairly well be questioned by other
members of the United Nations whether, in fact,
the United States was really sincere in its offer to
welcome the new organization for peace and do
everything possible to assure its success.

Although only last December both Houses of
Congress by unanimous resolution urged the United
Nations to establish its headquarters in this country,
and although at the Preparatory Commission of the
United Nations in London delegation after delega-
tion from American municipalities gave the fifty-
one states the decided impression that to secure the
site of the organization for the United States was
their dearest wish, nevertheless when it came down
to brass tacks, when the actual choosing of the site
was in question, there was a notable reluctance on
the part of the municipal and Federal Governments
to implement their fine promises by action.

When the Interim Site Committee of the United

Nations visited the Northeastern Seaboard last De-
cember and January, it finally decided to recom-
mend to the General Assembly that the permanent
headquarters of the United Nations be on the
boundary of New York and Connecticut in the
Westchester-Fairfield area and that the temporary
headquarters should be in the vicinity of New York
City. This decision resulted in an angry chorus of
complaint from citizens of the Westchester-Fair-
field region. Vehement town meetings were called,
resolutions passed and referendums carried out
suggesting in no subtle terms that the United Na-
tions was not wanted. As for temporary site in
the vicinity of New York, the city was strangely
laggard in offering the hand of hospitality and the
Federal Government itself displayed no excess of
zeal in this direction. Having opened the door to
the United Nations we left it on the doorstep.

Now, for want of better quarters, the United Na-
tions has been forced to establish itself in a surplus
war factory far removed from metropolitan New
York. The General Assembly to meet next Septem-
ber will convene in a converted skating rink on
Flushing Meadow. It is to be questioned whether
the thousands of staff members of the United Na-
tions will be pleased with this change in venue.
Certainly they will commute to the Sperry Gyro-
scope Factory at Lake Success on Long Island,
twenty-five miles from Manhattan, less speedily
than the Secretary-General of the United Nations
escorted by Mr. Grover Whalen and a cavalcade of
motorcycle policemen. Assembly Delegates travel-
ing the twelve miles from their mid-town hotels to
Flushing Meadow may look quizzically at the Em-
pire State Building, where fourteen floors are
occupied by Federal Government agencies.

The foreign delegate to the United Nations might,
in fact, be inclined to wonder how it is that the
United States, so mighty in war, so able at the touch
of its wand to bring into being vast structures in
the shortest possible time and at disregard of cost—
how it is that this same United States is so unable
in peace to do more than make available abandoned
factories, gymnasiums and skating rinks to that
organization to whose success its policy is pledged.

The Editors of the FOREIGN SERVICE JOURNAL
urge that when the final, permanent site is found
this country not be niggardly. It is their hope
that the United States Government will take this
opportunity to place the principles and purposes of
the Charter into practice by providing the best
possible environment to the United Nations. What
the American atmosphere has done for free men,
so can it do for free nations. Surely it is not too
late for American hospitality to retrieve its repu-
tation.

News from the Department

By JANE WILSON

Personals

HOWARD BUCKNELL, former FSO who is now Vice President of International Telephone and Telegraph has been assigned to Washington, D. C. as the resident representative for I. T. & T. in the Nation's Capital.

ROBERT F. EVANS has been designated as Special Assistant to the Director of the Office of the Foreign Service. In addition to other duties Mr. Evans is handling the information and public relations programs for the Foreign Service. Before the war he was a partner in the book publishing firm of Carrick & Evans and has had experience as a newspaper writer and editor. He came to the State Department from the Army where he held the rank of Lieut. Colonel.

MANNIX WALKER who is now an Economic Analyst at the Department of Commerce, specializing in South Africa, is giving evening courses in preparation for the Foreign Service examinations. His present course is in preparation for the Third General. As soon as the regular examinations begin again—those including the special sections—Mr. Walker will reopen his preparatory school.

Retired FSO and MRS. EMIL SAUER planned to pay a visit to Mr. Sauer's home town in Fredericksburg, Texas, in May. He was invited to be the guest of the city for its centennial celebration May 5-8. Mr. Sauer's grandfather was one of the original founders of the town.

Included among the Advisors in the Delegation to accompany Assistant Secretary of State Clayton, U.S. Member of the Council of UNRRA, to the Fourth Session of the Council which convened at Atlantic City on March 15th, were JOSEPH F. MCGURK, Ambassador to the Dominican Republic; FSO JOSEPH C. SATTERTHWAITE, Assistant Chief of the Near Eastern Division, and, as one of the Special Advisers to Mr. Clayton (to attend if called) JOHN CARTER VINCENT, Director of the Office of Far Eastern Affairs.

MRS. MARY ELLEN SNYDER retired from the State Department after 23 years service. She served all of this time in the same Division, having charge of the Records and Files section in the Consular Bureau which later became the Division of Foreign Service Administration.

CONSUL GENERAL LEO STURGEON, who was sent recently to Dairen to reestablish the Consulate there, has been assigned to the staff of GEORGE ATCHESON, JR., Political Advisor to General MacArthur. Taking Mr. Sturgeon's place as Consul General at Dairen will be H. MERRELL BENNINGHOFF, who has been on the political advisory staff of the U.S. military authorities in Korea and was formerly Assistant Chief of the Division of Far Eastern Affairs.

H. L. MILBOURNE, Second Secretary and Consul at Chungking, has retired from the Foreign Service and will make his home at 2294 Sutter St., San Francisco, California.

Headquarters of the Division of Training Services, Lothrop House, 2001 Connecticut Ave., N. W.



Emblem for the Foreign Service

From JOHN GOODYEAR

Now that the war is over and millions of coat lapels are blossoming forth with the trim gold emblem of the honorably discharged from the armed forces of the United States, I have given some thought to the plight of the benighted FSO whose coat lapel is bare. I believe I voice the feeling of at least a part of the Service when I say that the selection and approval of a distinctive lapel button badge would fill a crying need.

With this thought in mind, I have cast about for a suitable device, and in the end have drawn upon Mr. Drew Pearson and others who share his views for inspiration. The device may be described as follows:



A pushed cookie (crowned with raspberry) couchant on a field of striped pants.

Perhaps some of the readers of the JOURNAL would be interested in this idea. A badge manufacturing concern could strike any number of buttons from a special steel die made to order, and buttons could be had in various price ranges depending upon quality of metal used.

Black Maria Saves the Day

An INS story recently appeared to the effect that Assistant Secretary Clayton, unable to find a train or taxicab which would get him from Philadelphia to Atlantic City in time for a scheduled appearance before the UNRRA council session, hired a hearse.

He rode in the front seat.

University Baby Sitters, Inc.

Five young men, all students in the Foreign Service School at Georgetown University, have gone into the business of baby-sitting. This idea was born, they explain, when they tried to figure out some way to earn extra money to pay for their school expense and at the same time keep up with their studies. In this new business they just combine business with study.

They charge 50 cents an hour for their baby-sitting service; and they take children from the age where you have to put things on them and take things off—

Tribute for Us

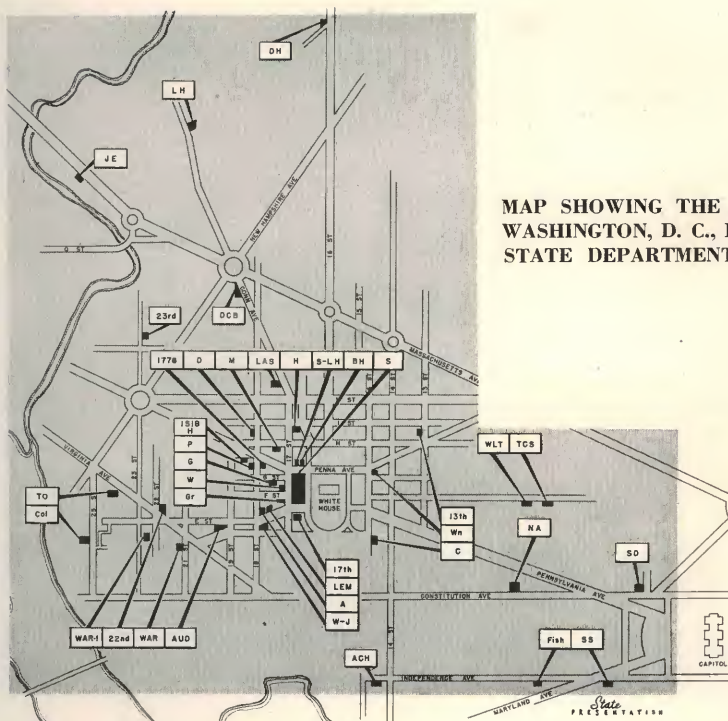
Tribute to the Service was recently paid by SYDNEY MOSELEY the radio commentator and author in his address to members of the Overseas Press Club of America in New York. Mr. Moseley—Vice President of the Club—recently returned from a post-war investigation in Europe and told members that as a result of what he had heard and seen he came to the conclusion that excellent work has been done by the American Foreign Service representatives abroad. In many still secret episodes they more than outwitted the Nazis and he said it was his decided view that the consular and diplomatic offices abroad made a decided contribution to the winning of the war and that from knowledge which Moseley had gained from Russian, German and British sources on this latest trip the Service deserved far greater tribute than it has so far received. He came across one such officer who made one of the most persistent and valuable intelligence contributions of the war. He had heard people describe this American Foreign Service officer—one of those “pink-tea” American diplomats—as Number One spy. A pity the full story cannot be told, Moseley concluded.

Distending the Distaff

Another woman, Helen R. Nicholl, has passed the Foreign Service Examinations. This makes three since 1930. The other two were Betty Anne Middleton and Laura Bryning.

Miss Nicholl is at present in charge of the Speaking Arrangements Unit of the Division of Public Liaison of the Department, and took the In-Service Exam. She attended Barnard (A.B.) and Mt. Holyoke (M.A.). She also took courses at the University of Grenoble. For three years she was at Yale University as a Research Assistant at the Institute of International Studies and did war work of a confidential nature before entering the Department.

(Continued on page 63)



MAP SHOWING THE BUILDINGS IN WASHINGTON, D. C., IN WHICH THE STATE DEPARTMENT IS LOCATED

Symbol	Building	Location	Symbol	Building	Location
A	Architects Bldg.	1735 NY Ave.	NA	Archives Bldg.	10th & Const
ACH	Auditors Court House Bldg.	14th & Indep SW	O	Otis Bldg.	810 18th St.
AUD	Walsh Auditorium	19th & E Sts.	P	Premier Apts.	718 18th St.
BH	Blair House	1651 Penna. Ave.	S	State Bldg.	17th & Penna. Ave.
B-LH	Blair-Lee House	1653 Penna. Ave.	SL	Stone Bldg.	Broad St. bet. G & H SW
C	Commerce Bldg.	14th St. between E St. & Constitution Ave.	SO	Standard Oil Bldg.	261 Constitution Ave.
CA	Court of Appeals Bldg.	5th & E Sts.	SS	Social Security Bldg.	4th & Indep Ave.
Col	Coliseum	26th & E Sts.	TO	Toner School	24th & F Sts.
DCB	Dupont Circle Bldg.	1334 Conn. Ave.	TCB	Tariff Commission Bldg.	F St. bet. 7th & 8th Sts.
DH	Dorchester House	16th & Euclid	W	Winder Bldg.	604 17th St.
Fish	Fisheries (Old)	8th & Independence	WAR	New War Bldg.	21st & Virginia Ave.
G	Grant Bldg.	1712 G St.	WAR-1	War Annex No. 1	401 23rd St.
Gr	Grant Bldg.	532 17th St.	WJ	Walker-Johnson Bldg.	1734 NY Ave.
H	Hill Bldg.	17th & Eye Sts.	WLT	Washington Loan & Trust Bldg.	9th & F Sts.
JE	Japanese Embassy Bldg.	2428 Mass Ave.	Wn	Washington Bldg.	15th & NY Ave.
LAS	La Salle Bldg.	1034 Conn. Ave.	13th	818-820 13th St.	818-820 13th St.
LEM	Lenon Bldg.	1729 NY Ave.	17th	501 17th St.	501 17th St.
LH	Lothrop House	2001 Conn. Ave.	22nd	515 22nd St.	515 22nd St.
M	Metropolitan Club Annex	1712 H St.	23rd	1253 23rd St.	1253 23rd St.
			1818 H	1818 H St.	1818 H St.

News From the Field

FIELD CORRESPONDENTS

Australia—John R. Minter
Bolivia—Hector C. Adam, Jr.
Brazil—Walter P. McConaughy
China—James O'Sullivan
Costa Rica—J. Ramon Solana
Dutch West Indies—Lynn W. Franklin
Ecuador—George P. Shaw
El Salvador—Robert E. Wilson
French West Indies—William H. Christensen
Greece—William Witman, 2d
Ireland—Thomas McEnelly
Jamaica—John H. Lord
London—Dorsey C. Fisher

Mexico—Robert F. Hale
Morocco—Charles W. Lewis, Jr.
Nassau—John H. E. McAndrews
Nicaragua—Raymond Phelan
New Zealand—John Fuess
Panama—Arthur R. Williams
Peru—Maurice J. Broderick
Southampton—William H. Beck
Spain—John N. Hamlin
Tangier—Paul H. Alling
U. S. S. R.—Edward Page, Jr.
Union of South Africa—Robert A. Acly
Venezuela—Carl Breuer

BOGOTÁ



Photograph taken on the occasion of General Arnold's recent visit to Bogotá. Left to right: General Harold H. Arnold (wearing the Cruz de Boyacá awarded him while on the visit), President Alberto Lleras Camargo and Ambassador John C. Wiley.

CALCUTTA

Consul General and Mrs. S. J. Fletcher celebrated their silver wedding anniversary on February 10. The evening before they gave a large cocktail party to mark the event, but very modestly did not announce it even then. The week previous an informer had appeared in the office and declared to the best of his knowledge and belief the anniversary was the tenth. The staff immediately decided that the Fletchers deserved notice being taken of such an important day, and plans were laid. The staff gathered for tea the correct afternoon—the informer was reported to have fears and misgivings—a little before the Fletchers should arrive. It was almost a surprise—the “bearers” from the office lingered in the driveway to welcome the guests of honor with many salaams! Mrs. LeFranc, who has been with the Consulate General twenty-five years, presented to the Fletchers on behalf of the staff an engraved silver tray. In the excitement Mrs. LeFranc's speech was not recorded but she made clear the warm good wishes which accompanied the gift.

(Continued on page 63)

Upper right: American Legation, Jidda, Saudi Arabia

Photo by C. J. McIntosh

American Consulate, St. George's, Grenada

Photo by Charles H. Whitaker

**Entrance to the Chancery
of the American Embassy,
Avenida de los Insurgentes
No. 105, Mexico, D. F.**

Photo by Don Vasque



The Bookshelf

FRANCIS C. DE WOLF, *Review Editor*

THE UNITED STATES AND BRITAIN, by Crane Brinton, *Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1945. pp. 305 \$2.50.*

As the first of twenty-five volumes to be published by Harvard University Press under the editorship of Sumner Welles, the American Foreign Policy Library is offering "The United States and Britain" by Crane Brinton, Professor of History at Harvard. This handy survey of Anglo-American relations in eleven easy chapters is fittingly timed in the light of current debate on the British loan. It might well serve, in fact, as a first reader for Congressmen, their constituents, or any others who profess to hold an opinion on the latter subject.

Mr. Brinton undertakes to examine the contemporary scene in England on the basis of a wartime intelligence mission, during which he met and talked with all manner of people, including Harold Laski on Tuesday nights. His blunt but by no means malicious observations are balanced by comparisons showing what Americanisms pain our British cousins most. Written in simple, even colloquial language, such an impartial analysis of our respective faults and virtues can be a distinct contribution to Anglo-American understanding if properly digested on both sides of the Atlantic.

It is astonishing how much information Mr. Brinton manages to pack into his relatively short volume. He treats of everything from Lend-Lease to the Hollywoodization of the British masses, from island bases to the origins of perfidious Albion and "the white man's burden". He explains why Britain "must export or die" and why the United States "must import or fight another World War". He furnishes an Appendix of Vital Facts about Britain, another on Suggested Reading, and, in addition, a useful index to the wide range of subjects touched upon.

Some of the chapters already seem a bit dated, so fast does the world move nowadays. For instance, there can scarcely be grounds any longer for the doubt expressed by Britishers (on page 217) that America is *really* going to assume international responsibilities this time. Again, the optimism among Britishers discerned (on page 109) at the time the book was written may not be so widespread in the face of circumstances today. If anything is even clearer, however, it is that

Britain must pin her hopes for the future on the desperate necessity of making the international organization work.

One may infer that in spite of Britain's grave handicaps in the post-war economic struggle the author staunchly believes there'll always be an England. He feels strongly that we and the British are more and more coming to "speak the same language" both literally and figuratively, and that while we have plenty of points of conflict the weight of the testimony is in favor of our working together—but *not as one*, as he takes care to underline. On the prospects for such collaboration, Mr. Brinton thinks, depends in large measure the success of the international organization as well as the peace and security of the world.

H. S. VILLARD

THE INTERNATIONAL SECRETARIAT, by Egon F. Ranshofen-Wertheimer, *Columbia University Press, New York, 1945, 500 pages, \$4.50.*

A GUIDE TO THE PRACTICE OF INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES. By Vladimir D. Pastuhov, *Columbia University Press, New York 1945, 275 pages, \$2.50.*

These two books by former League officials are easily the most authoritative and comprehensive studies in their respective fields. Written by men who have the advantage of practical experience plus scholarship, they constitute a constructive summary of international experience in the period which followed World War I. They appear at an opportune time, thanks to the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace which in 1942 began a program of studies in anticipation of renewed international collaboration following World War II.

Mr. Wertheimer's volume deals with the internal organization and administrative machinery of the League. While conscientiously pointing out the many problems and difficulties of selecting and maintaining an international staff, the tone of the book is not pessimistic. The decline of the League is pictured only indirectly as events in the outside world which broke into and eventually overwhelmed the life and work of the secretariat in Geneva. Considerable emphasis is placed on the conflict between the official's national loyalties and his international obligations. It is evident throughout that Mr. Wer-

theimer maintains a very high concept of the duties and status of the international civil servant.

Mr. Pastuhov summarizes the vast experience gained since the last war and comes nearer to the codification of the procedure of international conferences than anything hitherto attempted. The book covers the entire field of conference practices with particular emphasis on the experience of the League at Geneva, but it does not neglect the inter-American Conferences and recent United Nations conferences. Concisely but thoroughly the author takes up the problems of planning, staffing, budgeting, organizing, directing, and the actual holding of conferences and committee meetings with special emphasis on the follow-up work. The carefully chosen appendices constitute an important addition to the text. The concentration of the best conference practices into the one compact handbook should make it a bible for all conference officials and students.

Officials of the new international organization who read these and related volumes of a semi-official character have no reason to feel that they are starting work in an unknown field. The course has been charted, the obstacles are known, and they are fully aware of the prospects of success and the consequences of failure.

LYLE L. SCHMITTER,

Division of International Conferences.

TOMORROW'S TRADE, by Stuart Chase. *The Twentieth Century Fund, New York. 1945. 156 pages. \$1.00.*

In the fifth of his series of reports on postwar problems, Mr. Chase discusses how nations are going to exchange goods and services now that the war is over. His discussion includes not only a consideration of commerce but of other important factors influencing foreign trade. These include the gold standard, the prospects of a world state, the Bretton Woods Agreement, Dumbarton Oaks, Mr. Hull's Trade Agreement Program, and the policies of the "Big Three". It makes interesting reading, as all of Mr. Chase's books do, and is written in his usual simple and forthright manner with enough lightness to relieve the concentration necessary in following the intricacies of international finance and Lend-Lease.

Mr. Chase points out, among other things, that our refusal to buy German goods after the first war left Germany without the money to pay reparations, so that in the end the victors were financially the losers since they had neither German money nor German goods. This time, he says, we must

take German goods, and he adds, "People in Congress, or out of it, who demand that Germany and Japan pay cash reparations should be examined by a competent psychiatrist."

Of the Trade Agreement Program, quoting Mr. Percy W. Bidwell of the Council on Foreign Relations, he says, "The agreements 'have not accomplished a real reform in the American tariff, consequently their effect on foreign tariffs has also been limited.'"

Concerning Lend-Lease: "There should be no net debt left when Lend-Lease terminates. If the national interest of the United States demanded that Britain and Russia and China be kept in the war, then Lend-Lease was the most sensible way to do it. We got as much out of it as did our allies, and probably at a smaller sacrifice."

The world state is something he hopes we will some day achieve, but he does not expect to live to see it, since his idea of a world state is something the powers cannot now swallow. His world state must be a functioning political organization with a legal code and courts to interpret it. A genuine world police force must possess the power to enforce the code. Hence, it follows that nations can no longer be sovereign, and the era of nationalism comes to an end.

First and foremost of home remedies to stimulate foreign trade, he lists full employment. Next, he advises as moderate a tariff as possible. Third, he advises considering imports ahead of exports. This is a theme which he constantly repeats in the book, namely, that the less we import and the more we export the more badly out of balance our trade becomes. If we do not buy from other nations they will have no money with which to buy our products.

There is much more in the book, and it is highly recommended as a brief, succinct, thought-provoking discourse on the problems of our foreign commerce.

H. G. KELLY.

BLACK SHIPS OFF JAPAN. By Arthur Walworth. Alfred A. Knopf, New York, pp. 278. \$3.00.

This is an account of the American expedition to Japan in 1853 led by Commodore Matthew Calbraith Perry. The author has undertaken to make a readable and lively story out of the dry bones of historical records, and in this he has succeeded admirably. Never before, to our knowledge, has this episode in our national history been presented in such a way that the average reader can appreciate

(Continued on page 60)

Language Study in the Foreign Service

By ALBERT E. PAPPANO, *Third Secretary, Mexico City*

AN American Foreign Service Officer going abroad today to his post of duty represents the most powerful, the richest and the most widely esteemed nation in the world. He has behind him uncounted natural and industrial resources, a body of public opinion second to none in influence and a national prestige never equaled in modern times. Obviously these factors provide him with a tremendous advantage in facing the grave and weighty tasks which he must perform and help to clear many potential obstacles from his path. Yet in weighing his own effectiveness as a representative of his government it would perhaps be instructive to him to imagine the United States as small, weak, poor and with little prestige or influence in world affairs. How would he then perform his duties? Would he work harder than he now does to represent his country adequately and to promote its interests? Would he put forth greater effort to know and understand the country of his assignment and its people? Would he be more active in cultivating the acquaintance and friendship of the people to whose government he is accredited, as well as of government officials and of his foreign colleagues? Would he be more assiduous in learning their attitudes and ways of thought and more diligent in presenting his own government's point of view on current problems? A candid review of the activities of some of his colleagues who *do* represent the smaller entities of the world might point the way to unexpected but stimulating answers to these questions.

One important requisite for these tasks which seems to be too little cultivated by Foreign Service Officers, and by their wives as well, is facility in the use of a foreign language. It is obviously impossible to state the matter categorically but it seems to be agreed by experienced officers, and is all too often readily apparent, that the general level of linguistic attainment in the Service is not high and that relatively few officers are at ease in any language other than English. Our deficiencies in this respect grow principally, I believe, out of three factors common to most Americans: lack of linguistic talent, poor or misdirected language instruction in the United States, and a wrong approach to later study or self-instruction in the field. Unfortunately also in many cases these conditions nurture a diffidence and self-consciousness which aggravate their effect.

It is sometimes said and written that, making due allowance for individual differences and given proper instruction, Americans are as good linguists

as anyone. I do not believe that frank self-examination will bear out this claim. In most communities of the United States not only has no foreign language been heard and used regularly for generations, but development in this direction is inhibited by a certain innate repugnance and resistance to anything foreign whatever. Almost nowhere in the United States is there the need, constant and well-nigh universal in Europe, to cultivate at least one additional language for the ordinary purposes of everyday living. Inevitably the acquisition and use of a foreign language is more difficult for Americans than for nationals of most other countries and we may well accept the fact with good grace and set about counteracting it as best we can.

The quality, direction and emphasis of foreign language instruction have, through military necessity, become matters of major concern during the war period, and the revolutionary innovations in teaching and learning technique which have been developed for the armed forces and intelligence services will undoubtedly become available for Foreign Service use in due time. It must be remembered, however, that these new techniques were originally devised for the training of young and flexible minds under conditions of intensive and extended concentration and may be found somewhat less productive for more mature persons. Moreover, the objective of most of the armed service courses is naturally no more than to provide members of an occupying force with a sufficiently extensive superficial acquaintance with the local tongue to enable them to carry out their military functions efficiently.

Modern language instruction in the United States prior to World War II seldom rose above mediocrity and was often below it. In most schools and colleges it was, at best, an academic exercise conscientiously performed. It consisted in general of routine study of forms and rules accompanied by laborious translation and written exercises, perfunctory oral drill and, perhaps, attendance at a language club where subjects of desultory interest were discussed in halting and stumbling phrases. Under average conditions an apt pupil learned to read with some ease and to write simple prose correctly, if not always idiomatically. He received in addition a reasonably sound basis for advanced study in grammar and literature. He was not equipped, however, for easy comprehension of the language as spoken by someone to whom it was native, nor could he achieve much more than bare intelligibility in addressing such a person. The

so-called "direct method," that of conducting all classroom activities in the language being taught, although it seemed to promise better results, was never universally accepted, since it was considered by many authorities to be either pedagogically unsound or too exacting for available teachers.

It is an almost inevitable result of the general attitude toward language study and teaching in the United States that members of the Foreign Service, like most of their compatriots, should approach a new language with the tenseness and resolve of a high school honor student beginning a new term. The logical end of their efforts, were they ever to be carried to conclusion, would be an accurate knowledge of all forms and inflections, perfect observance of all rules of syntax and speech impeccably accented and pronounced. Typical of this attitude toward language study is a somewhat ingenuous faith in lessons or classes, even though in most cases past experience and observation should suffice to demonstrate the unlikelihood of any considerable benefit. In many instances the teachers, while serious, sometimes well-connected socially and often charming, prove to have little real qualification for giving instruction. In any event interest soon wanes, attendance at lessons or classes becomes a perfunctory sop to conscience and is sooner or later dropped altogether.

Study of this type is clearly a misdirection of initial effort as well as, at all times, a waste of hours and money. Even though pursued faithfully as intended, its tendency is to aim at a perfection that can never be attained. It engenders a consciousness of error and a reluctance to make mistakes which can only lead in the beginner to a hesitation to speak at all. The student tends to refrain from using the new language until he has learned it and to avoid contacts in which its use would be required of him, even though it should be self-evident that he will never learn it without extensive practice and that unless he uses it widely and constantly, it has no real value for him. Thus his earnest striving for a mastery which fades farther and farther into the impossible is likely to prevent his utilizing constructively whatever little he may actually have been able to acquire.

For Foreign Service purposes nothing could be less productive than this academic, perfectionist approach to a foreign language. The primary objective of language study in the Service is, of course, purely utilitarian. Any cultural or academic aspects of such study are secondary to its real purpose, which is clearly not prize elocution but the ready and easy interchange of conversation on any desired subject. This is not to discount

the desirability of correct diction and pleasing pronunciation, but to emphasize the precedence of readiness, ease and fluency over the more scholarly and ornamental qualities.

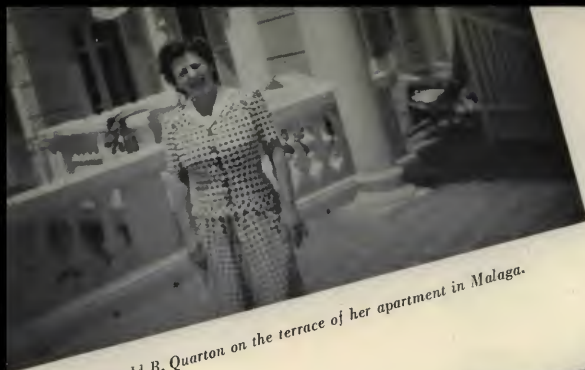
With a quite elementary knowledge of the structure of the language, the observation of a few fairly simple grammatical principles and a very modest vocabulary, a beginner at one of the common European languages can make himself understood at once and can attain some degree of fluency within a very few months. Success depends upon two indispensable conditions: mastery of the basic material contained in some such brief, systematic presentation as the short courses presently being planned by the Department, and constant use in conversation from the outset. The inevitable grammatical errors should, as far as possible, be disregarded. As acquaintance and ease with the language grow, these errors will, for the most part, disappear naturally. Pronunciation or, as it is usually termed, "accent" also should be seen in its proper perspective. Native-sounding pronunciation, if it can be attained, is highly desirable, but the combination of sensitive ear and agile tongue necessary for its acquisition is unfortunately rare among Americans. Granted the real objectives of language cultivation in the Foreign Service, fluency with a baldly "American accent" is preferable to the careful enunciation of a few words and phrases in a good imitation of native speech.

A potent factor in the acquisition of any foreign language, and one too little noticed, is the development of aural comprehension. Every region as well as every language has its own peculiar characteristics of intonation and of phrase and sentence rhythm more subtle than mere pronunciation. Attuning the ear to these peculiarities is one of the basic steps in understanding a spoken language and merely hearing the language spoken is insufficient without conscious and constant effort to comprehend each word. "Getting the idea" is not really good enough and leads to no improvement in vocabulary or expression. In addition to ordinary conversation, the radio, the theater and the movies offer assistance in increasing comprehension and will amply repay the time devoted to them.

It will be observed at once that the natural divisions of common speech are phrases and word-groups rather than words, and that the same groupings of words recur again and again. These groups or phrases, representing whole ideas, statements, questions or answers, are easily acquired, and once acquired come readily to the lips fully formed, leaving the speaker's mind free of the necessity to grope for words or forms.

(Continued on page 40)

Service



Mrs. Harold B. Quarton on the terrace of her apartment in Malaga.



Vice Consul L. Pittman Springs being awarded the Medal for Merit from Selden Chapin, Director of the Office of the Foreign Service. Mr. Springs received this award for exceptionally meritorious conduct in connection with the Allied landings in North Africa in November 1942.



Consul General William Beck at his desk in Southampton with Mrs. West (and daughter) who were among twenty-two British wives and alien children of American Army Service personnel who received emergency visas.

STAFF OF THE CONSULATE AT TIJUANA, MEXICO, MARCH 1946

Left to right: Janitor Carlos de l. Paz, Jorge R. Penaloza, Enrique Gonzalez, Armande Ruiz, Paul B. Carr, Mrs. Elizabeth J. Heath, Vice Consul Willys A. Myers, Consul Earl T. Crain, Consul Francis C. Jordan, Vice Consul Francis Withey, Mrs. Penrod, Miss Bertha Friedberg, and Jose L. Romero.



Comdr. George M. Rouzee and family who have been recently assigned to Lima. Left to right: George M., Jr., Mrs. Rouzee (nee Julia Brett), Linda Joy with Comdr. Rouzee and Roberta Ann.



Glimpses



The Honorable Raphael O'Hara Lanier at the State Department just prior to departure to Liberia where he has been appointed Minister.



Consul General Robert L. Buell at his desk in Leopoldville.



On the occasion of the presentation of the Medal for Merit to Ambassador John G. Winant and the Hon. Joseph E. Davies. Left to right: Mr. Winant; Mrs. Fitch and Mrs. Tydings (Mr. Davies' daughters) behind Secretary Byrnes; Mr. Davies and Mrs. Davies.

In the garden of the Chancery of the Managua Embassy, February 7, 1946, on the thirtieth anniversary of Raymond Phelan's entry into the Service. Left to right: Barry T. Benson, Commercial Attache; Ambassador Fletcher Warren; Maurice M. Bernbaum, Secretary; and Raymond Phelan, Administrative Officer.



Washington's Birthday reception at the Consulate in San Luis Potosi. Left to right: Lic. Luis Noyola, Secretary General; Sr. Don Gonzalo N. Santos, Governor of San Luis Potosi, Consul Curatus C. Jordan; the State Attorney General and Gen. Silvestre Pinal Villanueva.



The Taj Mahal

By ADRIAN B. COLQUITT

(Cover picture by the author)

IT IS difficult to convey an adequate impression of the strangely delicate and moving beauty of the Taj Mahal. The perfection of its proportions and the superb fluidity of its design are combined in a gem of exquisite and graceful architecture. There is an impression of ethereality about this poetic edifice which is perhaps evoked by the Makarana marble of which it is built, a marble of delicate graining that reflects variations of light at different hours and in varying atmospheric conditions with great subtlety of tint and tone.

The Taj Mahal is, of course, a mausoleum. The Moghul emperor Shah Jahan built it in his grief at the death of his favorite wife, Arjunand Banu, who was known under the titles of Mumtaz Mahal (Chosen of the Palace) or Taj Mahal (Crown of the Palace), whence the name of the building is derived. The beauty of the queen and the emperor's devotion to her are legendary.

The Taj was under construction from 1630 to 1650 at the height of the fabulous splendor of Moghul rule in India, when the best artists, artisans and architects from Persia Arabia and Central Asia contributed to a great epoch of Moghul art that was soon to decline and never to be equalled. It was in this era of immense regal wealth that Shah Jahan drew upon the resources of his great empire to construct in memory of his beloved wife a mausoleum that would be one of the wonders of the world. The broad concept of the memorial is ascribed to the emperor himself, but the name of the architect who translated his ideas into definite form is unknown. It is related that twenty thousand workmen were employed for twenty years in its construction. The total cost is estimated to have been roughly eighteen million dollars.

In 1658, eight years after the completion of the Taj Mahal, the emperor was deposed by his son Aurangzeb and confined to a section of the palace in the great Fort at Agra from which the Taj Mahal could be clearly seen in the bend of the river below. In 1666 Shah Jahan died in a tower of his palace prison, his eyes fixed upon the marble vision.

The Taj lies at the end of a spacious formal garden measuring a thousand feet square, while back of it the Jumna river flows past its base. An elevated lotus pool in the center of the garden mirrors

the building in its placid water. In its early days the favorite approach was by river, the emperor and his court being conveyed by a magnificent state barge to the landing steps of the terrace. Originally the Taj was intended to be seen from across a foreground of water for the beauty of its reflection, but only the land approach is now used. The entrance to the gardens is through a fine archway of red sandstone ornamented with inscriptions from the Koran. Through this archway the visitor catches his first glimpse of white marble dazzling in the glare of the Indian sun and contrasting sharply with the green of the gardens and cypress trees.

The base of the building is a marble platform twenty-two feet in height and 313 feet square. The great central dome rises to a height of 187 feet, surmounted by a metal pinnacle of 30 feet. The height of the facade equals the height of the dome. At each corner of the platform are three-storied white marble minarets, 137 feet tall, which serve to extend the architectural effect while giving coherence to the whole.

The interior of the building consists of an octagonal central room and four subsidiary chambers connected by radiating passages. A beautifully trellised screen of white marble encloses the tomb of the queen directly under the center of the dome. Shah Jahan's tomb is at her side. In the Indian manner, however, these are not the actual sarcophagi; the bodies lie in plainer tombs in a vault directly below. On the queen's tomb are carved the ninety-nine names of Allah. History records that Shah Jahan had intended to build for his own tomb a duplicate of the Taj Mahal in black marble, to be constructed on the opposite bank of the river and joined by a bridge of silver. The plan was never carried out, but the monument that Shah Jahan created in his boundless grief has preserved through three centuries the sensuous charm of that lyric age of Indian architecture.

IN MEMORIAM

LOCKHART. Mrs. Ruby H. Lockhart, wife of Foreign Service Officer Frank P. Lockhart, Chief of the Division of Philippine Affairs, died on April 7 in Washington, D. C.

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PRESS COMMENT

(Continued from page 21)

WOMEN ARE NEEDED IN WORLD DIPLOMACY TODAY

From the Washington Post, April 12, 1946

By MALVINA LINDSAY

Usually after a war a few more doors are unlocked to women. One small but highly important door now slightly ajar for them is diplomacy.

There seems to be a general, though as yet slight awakening to the idea that men and women, rather than men alone, are needed in making and maintaining peace. Even the super-stodgy British Foreign Office has broken down and announced that women will be admitted to both diplomatic and consular posts—their number, however, to be limited to 10 per cent.

France, its slate of tradition wiped clean, has passed special legislation to admit women to diplomatic service. It already has six women in its Ministry of Foreign Affairs, serving chiefly as consulate attaches and secretaries. French newspapers and magazines are concerning themselves over a correct uniform for these women at official functions on foreign soil.

Here in the staid old State Department's Foreign Service, so long a nineteenth century man's world, feminine influence is slowly infiltrating. But much bolder use of women's talents in conducting international relations is needed, many American women leaders feel.

Theoretically the American Foreign Service has been open to women since the consolidation of Civil Service in 1924. But today it has only nine women who could be called career diplomats.

However, the war left it a legacy of able young women in foreign outposts who had been with the OWI, now absorbed by the department's Office of International Information and Cultural Affairs. After cuts in this service have been completed, the department will decide on the permanent status of those employees retained. Most of these are working as assistant cultural relations officers, in the roles of librarians and research and information specialists, and in liaison work with communities. The department also has inherited some capable women who served during the war with the Foreign Service Auxiliary, to be discontinued a year from now.

How many of these women will be retained, and how they will be used has yet to be settled. Also in the matter of retraction, how will women fare in the Foreign Service now that men are available?

If State Department tradition concerning women,

and congressional myopia concerning appropriations could be overcome, much solid, longrange building for international understanding and American prestige could be done abroad by a wide use of women in educational and cultural activities. Most masculine diplomacy has been inept in its contacts with the ordinary people of foreign countries. It has been too busy or too social to meet other than a coterie of the right people—who so often turn out next week to be the wrong people.

Naturally there is the prospect also of the woman diplomatic snob. But usually the woman who gains a foothold in Foreign Service in any country has to work so hard for her job, and has to have so much mental equipment, that she does not easily degenerate into a futile role of any kind. France has appointed some of its most mentally vigorous achievement women to its consulates. And the few women who have come up through the years in the American Foreign Service are definitely capable and effective.

Those familiar with women's work in diplomacy believe that the information and cultural field offers the best opportunity for their talents. Liaison work with communities through the consulates could be a great aid to peace, they believe. They even suggest that Britain might now be finding more friends for its American loan had it long ago staffed its consulates through the Middle West with alert, tactful women.

To give women a bigger chance at diplomacy in any of its fields would be a logical step since men alone haven't been shining successes at it—if we accept the prevention of war as its major aim. But women diplomats could not be expected to work miracles alone. All that both men and women can contribute are desperately needed in conducting those delicate activities on which the peace of the world may hinge.

MARRIAGES

GATEWOOD-LANGENBERG. Miss Merle Langenberg and Foreign Service Officer Richard Duncan Gatewood were married on December 18 in Colombo, Mr. Gatewood is Second Secretary at New Delhi.

HOLDER-COOPER. Miss Jane Cooper and Foreign Service Officer Oscar Holder were married on October 20, 1945 in Elmira, New York. Mr. Holder is assigned to the Division of Eastern European Affairs.

KRENTZ-WIELANDT. Miss Jean McLaren Wielandt and Foreign Service Officer Kenneth Krentz were married on February 21 in Washington, D. C. Mr. Krentz is Assistant Chief of the Division of Foreign Service Administration.

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THE WEST INDIAN CONFERENCE

(Continued from page 9)

mission. This committee's recommendations included a suggestion that the feasibility of creating a regional tourist organization should be considered in detail. The committee pointed out that an unusual opportunity existed for the post-war development of a major tourist industry in the Caribbean and endorsed the so-called "regional approach" to Caribbean tourist development. It supported the Caribbean Commission's recommendation for a conference of Caribbean tourist interests which, it was suggested, should be held in New York not later than June 30, 1946. This committee also made recommendations concerning the development of handicrafts as well as for meetings of soil scientists and the organization of studies on levels of living, overpopulation, unemployment, etc.

Throughout the Conference, the Caribbean Commission held frequent meetings at Government House, the picturesque old Danish mansion overlooking the magnificent harbor of Charlotte Amalie. The three weeks of the conference's duration provided an excellent opportunity for the Commissioners of all four member nations to get acquainted and to work together on a day by day basis. At the end of the Conference, there was general agreement among the Commissioners that much had been accomplished during these weeks of common work in laying the foundations for the future development of the Caribbean Commission on its new four-power basis. A considerable portion of this work was prepared in a committee on organization matters under the chairmanship of Mr. Bunche, whose recommendations the Commission adopted unanimously. One of the most important recommendations of this committee was for the establishment of a central secretariat for the Commission to be located in the Caribbean to be organized on sound principles of international responsibility and recruited as far as possible from the peoples of the region. It was specifically recommended that the Secretary General should be responsible to the Commission, be its first administrative officer and be selected on the basis of highest qualifications for the office. It was made clear that each member of the Commission should respect the international character of the responsibility of the Secretary General and his staff, and should not seek to influence them in the discharge of their duties. It will be clear that these provisions for the secretariat of the Caribbean Commission were based on the provisions of the United Nations Charter, as well as on the plans for the secretariats of the specialized agencies. No decision was arrived at as to the site of the central secretariat as it was agreed that this was a matter for negotiation among the

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four metropolitan governments, members of the Commission.

It was decided by the Commission that the Secretary General should be responsible for the preparation of an annual budget covering the expenses of the Commission, its auxiliary bodies and the secretariat, which should be submitted to the Commission for its approval and for eventual consideration by the four metropolitan governments. It was also suggested that the Commission should recommend to the metropolitan governments, after an ample joint fund had been established to meet these expenses, that it should be financed by contributions from the four member nations of the Commission in such proportion as might be determined from time to time.

The Commission agreed that each Caribbean territory, colony, or group of colonies of the four member nations should be entitled to send two delegates and such advisers as it might consider necessary to each future session of the West Indian Conference which meets bi-annually.

At the conclusion of the discussions by the three main committees, their recommendations were submitted to the Conference as a whole and unanimously adopted in a final plenary session held on March 12, 1946. Considerable discussion took place concerning a proposal that the legislative bodies of all the Caribbean territories should outlaw any form of racial discrimination in hotels and other facilities open to tourists. The suggestion was finally adopted. The Conference closed in the same atmosphere of mutual understanding and harmony which had marked all of its meetings. The great majority of delegates and advisers seemed to feel that this second session of the West Indian Conference had been instrumental, not only in bringing together representatives of all Caribbean territories, but in laying some concrete foundation for their future collaboration, as well as that of the four metropolitan governments concerned. In a speech at the final session, Governor Tugwell stirred the delegates to enthusiasm when he said "if there are those who hope quietly to assassinate your proposals and to embalm them in the vastness of minutes and pigeon-holes, I warn them from long experience that this time the old methods will not work." He added that the Caribbean Commission and the West Indian Conference were not governing bodies, had no legislative, executive or judicial powers, but were nevertheless important as a consultative and advisory body; as the repository of local tradition and achievements, and as the standard conscience of the region.

No one who was present at the recent West Indian Conference could fail to be impressed, not only with the evident need for social and economic reform in

the Caribbean area, inhabited largely by non-self-governing peoples, living under adverse social and economic conditions, but also with the reasonable spirit in which demands for social and economic reforms were presented by the great majority of delegates. The West Indian Conference and the Caribbean Commission itself may well serve as an extremely useful channel for the expression of the hopes and desires of the peoples of all the Caribbean territories. The very existence of such institutions constitutes a considerable guarantee of peaceful, orderly and evolutionary development.

LANGUAGE STUDY IN FOREIGN SERVICE

(Continued from page 31)

After mastery of whatever basic material is included in the elementary short course mentioned above, it would be well to restrict the study of grammar and vocabulary to a minimum. Attentive listening to correct speech will inevitably be reflected in the listener's own conversation, and usage so acquired is easily assimilated. With constant conversation vocabulary is never a problem and every individual develops precisely the vocabulary which he needs for current use. Trips to grammar or dictionary in these circumstances become few and infrequent and are likely to be prompted oftener by curiosity than by conscience.

Formal lessons or classes are usually not worth the time and money expended on them. Less effort in other directions is almost certain to be more rewarding as well as more pleasant. If it should be felt that a certain amount of conscious practice is necessary, an informal conversation group is probably the most satisfactory solution. Such a group, made up of a congenial and well-informed selection of the learner's foreign friends, meeting periodically to discuss current events, is valuable not only for language cultivation but also, incidentally, for the ideas and viewpoints brought out in its discussions. Equally beneficial is regular participation in some sport, hobby or activity with a group in which the constant use of the language being learned is required. There are, for instance, bridge groups meeting regularly almost everywhere, as well as organizations devoted to various other sports and pastimes.

Specific suggestions could be multiplied almost without limit but enough has been said, I think, to indicate the possibilities offered by a more matter-of-fact approach to learning languages. Whatever medium of cultivation is followed, the essential means is constant use, not in exercises but in conversation, and with emphasis on ease and readiness rather than grammatical precision and elegance of expression.

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A FOREIGN SERVICE INSTITUTE

(Continued from page 13)

sibility of the Foreign Service. Among these are civil aviation, petroleum, mineral requirements, etc.

For these reasons the Foreign Service Institute should as one of its major responsibilities provide specialized training for certain qualified Foreign Service officers. The most logical time for such training would be about four or five years after the completion of the probationary training. This would coincide roughly with the time a promising officer might expect to be promoted from Class V of the new Service to Class IV.

It should be recognized that such specialized training should not be given to all officers, and should not be considered necessary for advancement to the top of the Service. The Foreign Service will require a number of general officers who can assume command positions without such training. A certain number, however, will want to become specialists in finance, public relations work, or other types of work. The number of officers given specialized training should be determined by the general needs of the Service, the number of vacancies for the particular type of work, the availability of specialists therein, and the desire to keep important functions in the hands of regular Service officers.

In providing specialized training, the Director will act as an educational broker. He should know exactly what courses are given in various universities of the country and be able to tell where an individual officer should go for a special type of training. He should be in close enough touch with university authorities to arrange for special courses for the Foreign Service if necessary, but should not limit himself to purely academic institutions. In some cases, perhaps, the best training may be formulated by the training school of a large corporation, a research foundation, or another department of the Government.

A consistent policy should be adopted whereby an officer is permitted to carry on in the work for which he is trained for at least four or five years after his training assignment. This will not mean that a man will necessarily be a specialist for the rest of his life. It will mean, however, that he will become thoroughly competent and experienced in his chosen field. This should promote his advancement in the Foreign Service and should not militate against his being given general assignments and command positions later on.

Men who live abroad for the greater part of their lives will perforce lose touch with their own country. In the past, no matter how widely representative of this country Foreign Service officers

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may have been upon entering the Service (and statistics show that they have been drawn from a much wider segment of American life than is generally realized), they have tended to find themselves isolated by their continuous service abroad.

To do his job abroad properly an officer should have firsthand experience of major developments at home. For example, our friends abroad are often keenly interested in such subjects as the Tennessee Valley Authority, Wall Street, the Chicago stockyards, the Ford Plant, or Boulder Dam. An American diplomat creates a poor impression if he is unable to speak of any of these things on the basis of personal observation. Furthermore, he must know them as they are today—not as they were ten years ago.

The State Department, through the Institute, must provide Foreign Service officers with opportunities to get to know America.

When an officer comes home he should of course be given leave. But approximately once for every five years which he has served abroad he should, if possible, be assigned to the Foreign Service Institute for intensive study of developments in this country. An assignment in Washington will not suffice; whenever possible he should be sent into the heart of America.

An officer's training should not end with the completion of the programs described above. The Institute should continue its influence throughout his entire career. Before he is promoted to Class III an officer might be assigned to the Institute for a period of nine months, at which time he would be given refresher courses in economics, American history, geography, international law, and other appropriate subjects. These courses in general would be given at non-government institutions. For example, it might be possible to establish Foreign Service fellowships by which officers could attend a leading university at government expense on terms similar to those by which the Nieman Fellows attend Harvard University.

As a general procedure it is proposed that a Foreign Service officer before he is promoted from Class II to Class I should be assigned to the Department for a period of approximately one year for advanced training. The promotion to Class I is a significant milestone in an officer's career. A man who never reached that class could continue to be occupied with special or technical subjects throughout his entire service. Upon reaching it an officer rises into the uplands of the Service. He becomes directly concerned with the formation of broad policy.

Thus it is logical that at this point the officer should be recalled to the United States. This will

give him an opportunity to refresh his knowledge of this country. Some of his time should be spent on leave and in travelling so that he can again get the feel of his own country. After this he should be assigned to the Institute.

An officer should then work in collaboration with other specialists; he might be made a member of a team including an Army officer, a scholar, an American business man primarily concerned with foreign trade, an officer in the Department of State, and perhaps one or more officers from other departments of the Government. It should be the function of this team to prepare a long-range report upon some major aspect of foreign policy.

Under the direction of the Foreign Service Institute, teams of experts, including Foreign Service officers, should study such crucial problems as the clash of British and Russian interests in the Near East, the internationalization of the Dardanelles, the position of India in the British Empire, or the need for a modification of the Monroe Doctrine. These are only a few of the many problems which call for careful examination in an unhurried, thorough and scholarly fashion. To such a study a Foreign Service officer with his intimate knowledge of conditions abroad, his experience in negotiation, and his awareness of the limits of practical international politics, can make most important contributions. His knowledge and vision should be pooled, however, with the special knowledge of other persons.

Upon the completion of its studies the group should submit a report (which should be classified as "top secret") to the Secretary of State and the President, possibly to all the members of the Cabinet and the Joint Chiefs of Staff.

One of the premises upon which the plan outlined in the previous pages is based is that a training program should not prescribe an excessive number of years devoted to purely academic instruction at the expense of practical experience. Furthermore progressive training should be provided at appropriate periods in an officer's career, so as to precede assignments of increased responsibility.

In brief, it is recommended that the following general training pattern be adopted:

1. General introductory training to be given in the course of the first three years in the Service.
2. Specialized training for selected officers after approximately seven years of Service experience.
3. Intermediary training for selected officers after approximately twelve years of Service experience.
4. Advanced training for selected officers after approximately twenty years of Service experience.



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(Continued from page 18)

munication open is primarily that of the chief executive of an organization. No one but he can address all the personnel of the organization in tones of complete authority and prestige, because it is to him that every one looks for the expression of thoughts and sentiments that set the tone of the entire enterprise. It is one of the executive functions, one of the inescapable duties of leadership, which the top man in an organization can never delegate. And the more completely he uses his facilities of communication to establish rapport with all employees, the higher the morale of the organization and the more willing and effective its cooperative effort.

In addition to written and oral statements from time to time to all the personnel, the chief executive must take steps to establish as much contact as possible with the key people in his organization. The Secretary of State may have but one or two men reporting to him in the chain of command, but it is important that he see a great many others in an advisory or consultative capacity, and that he talk with groups of key men in the Department as often as possible, to give them as complete an insight into his policies and methods as it is possible for him to give them. There is no complaint in the average organization so bitter as that of the executive or sub-executive who says that he is working for a man whom he does not know personally and rarely sees. There is a natural human craving among people to establish some kind of personality contact with the top man to whom they look for leadership. This is well understood in the military world, where generals realize how important it is to the morale of their troops that they see and get a personality impression of their leader.

However, communication responsibilities do not begin and end with the chief executive. Each subordinate executive also has responsibilities to see that all pertinent information is passed downward to his subordinates, and upward to his superiors. Moreover, while in the chain of command the aim should be to have a very limited personal contact between executives, in the channel of communication the opposite principal should prevail. For example, an Assistant Secretary of State might give orders to only three men, but he might hold staff conferences and talk on purposes and policies and methods to thirty or sixty, or any number he might judge appropriate. The important purposes of the channel of communication are to make policies clearly understood, to disseminate current information as promptly, accurately and completely as pos-

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THE NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC MAGAZINE—Gilbert Grosvenor, Litt.D., LL.D., Editor—Washington 6, D. C.

sible, and to maintain morale through the building up of human relationships.

These, then, are the three principles advocated: that policy be made at the top, that it be passed down the line through a chain of command so that work and responsibility can be distributed, and that the chain of command be supplemented by using channels of communication to inform and unify the personnel of the organization and get them to work as a cooperative group.

APPLICATION OF THE THEORY OF ORGANIZATION

No theory of organization is any good as a theory only. If it is not applied in practice, one has only been engaging in mental gymnastics. Supposing that the theory of organization outlined above were to be accepted by the Department of State, how then could it best be put into practice?

First of all, it is necessary to restate one of the basic premises of these two essays, which is that effective organization is not so much a matter of structure as it is proper exercise of executive functions by all persons in positions of responsibility. The most beautifully logical structure will not work effectively if the officers of the organization don't

understand how to make it work. A structure which is logically far from perfect can be made reasonably effective, in spite of this handicap, if the executives right down the line display the proper leadership functions.

The solution which is proposed in this paper is that the entire executive personnel of the Department of State be thoroughly indoctrinated in a theory of organization and administration—preferably the theory outlined in the previous section of this paper, which is one tried and proven effective in industrial practice, but at any rate a good, sound, practical theory of organization and administration. The best method of doing this is a problem to which a great deal of thought has been given, but space forbids any discussing it here. At any rate, once the responsible officers understand thoroughly the role of the executive, then they can to a large extent reorganize the Department themselves by applying the theory to the situations for which they happen to be responsible.

One point which should be emphasized to all executives is that they should plan with imagination, and try to think ahead to the enormous responsibilities of the United States in the postwar



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world. The Department has suffered again and again from inadequate planning. It has been unable at times to assume new responsibilities because of lack of personnel, and at present it is suffering grievously from its lack of budgetary foresight. There is no valid excuse for the wealthiest country in the world to stint its most important governmental instrumentality, and to refuse it the funds and the personnel it needs to do its job properly. One may hazard a guess that if the Department is developed to meet its responsibilities of the next ten years effectively, it virtually will have to double its Washington personnel. The prospect is one which makes more urgent than ever the need for a sound system of organization and operation.

Since the program indicated eventually would involve substantial increases in budget, it is of the greatest importance that the Bureau of the Budget and key members of the Congress shall be included in planning at every stage of the discussions. When the final budget estimate is submitted, it should be a generous and imaginative one, and it should be explained to the White House and to the Congress by the Secretary of State personally, with a full statement as to what the Department needs if it is to represent American interests effectively.

CONCLUSION

The plan outlined is a simple one, but it should not for that reason be suspect. It has very real advantages, in that it could be applied quite quickly, and without turning the problem of organizational changes completely over to outside experts who would have to spend months familiarizing themselves with complex Departmental problems. It would, on the contrary, enlist to the fullest extent the abilities of the men now in the Department, who already know the situation, and who could make their own contribution to structural and procedural planning.

It has the final advantages of putting the emphasis where it really belongs—not on expensive changes in structure, which might or might not help, and which most certainly would be costly in terms of lost morale and efficiency, but on a more enlightened method of operation. In other words, executive know-how should be developed first, and structural and procedural planning should follow. In this structural and procedural planning, Department executives will no doubt be grateful for all outside assistance they can obtain. If executives can be sold on the necessity of putting more time and thought on what has been described in these essays as the "executive functions," then the final result should be to slacken the pressure of work upon them, and make them more free to think and



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plan and formulate policies.

It is surely not possible to over-emphasize the importance of bringing about such an accomplishment. The development of an efficient instrumentality for the formulation and execution of American foreign policy is so absolutely essential to the nation's future peace and security that it fairly screams for attention. As long as the Department of State is organized as it is today, the United States role in world affairs can hardly be more than a holding action, with our policy largely negative and defensive. For the positive, creative and hard-hitting policy that we need in order to strengthen democratic forces in the postwar world, the Department must be planned and operated by men of imagination, who can make it into an effective and smooth-running machine.

In a word, imagination is needed; and it is needed first of all on the administrative level, in the creative performance of the executive functions, before it can hope to be effective on the diplomatic front. In one of the most interesting interviews of my tour, one of our best-known Chiefs of Mission told me that he considered that men of imagination were the greatest single need of the Foreign Service. If this be true of the field service, it is doubly, triply and quadruply true of the headquarters in Washington. When I made this statement to another Chief of Mission, he replied rather grimly that imagination, in combination with practical ability, was one of the rarest of human qualities. But surely there are people in our great and gifted nation who can supply talents of mind and personality adequate to the tasks before us.

One final word. The ideas in these two essays are the joint product of many minds. The basic scheme of organization presented is an adaptation of that outlined by Chester I. Barnard, for many years president of the New Jersey Bell Telephone Company, in that most illuminating of all books on personnel administration, "The Functions of the Executive." Insights into the workings of the Foreign Service and of the Department of State have most generously been given me first and foremost by Ambassadors Messersmith, Norweb, Winant, Hornbeck and Caffery and by Ministers Wadsworth, Tuck and Eddy. But I am even more indebted to scores of able and intelligent younger officers, who are deeply disturbed over the present situation.

The ideas, in short, have come from the place where one would naturally go to look for ideas—from the field, and from the operating level. If this essay should prove to be in any way useful in clarifying the problems of the Department, and in

leading to the better administrative conditions so bitterly needed, it will be because the able men and women of the field have their hearts and minds in their work, and have given generously of their time to provide me with the material included herein. It is in the hope of stimulating improvements and thus enabling them to do the better job they eagerly want to do that these essays have been submitted.

GRIPSHOLM

(Continued from page 15)

distressed Americans and their families for Christmas holidays (1945) in their own country.

The *Gripsholm's* fourth repatriation voyage brought to the United States 986 American citizen repatriates and 388 immigrant aliens from Alexandria, Salonika, Piraeus, Naples and Marseilles. Between Salonika and Piraeus fire broke out in the engine room and the line hove to while the crew fought flames for nearly an hour.

The trans-Atlantic commercial travel facilities, having gradually improved and the urgent cases of stranded Americans having been cared for, it was decided that the fifth repatriation cruise would be the last. The *Gripsholm* therefore was released to normal maritime services.

The service of the *Gripsholm* was rendered in accordance with business principles, but always with due consideration to the emergency confronting distressed persons seeking passage to their home-lands. Fares were established comparable to those of commercial shipping in 1941 prior to Pearl Harbor. These fares during the war were somewhat lower than those on neutral Spanish and Portuguese steamers which occasionally operated on several of the routes.

Distressed persons admitted to the passenger lists for repatriation when unable to pay were allowed to give promissory notes. These are being rapidly paid. Many were settled by business concerns and missionary societies whose personnel were returned from the Far East. The War Department will compensate the State Department for return of wounded soldiers and exchanged military prisoners, and the passage of diplomats would be settled by their respective governments.

The net loss, or possible gain, from four years of operation will not be officially revealed until a final audit is made. The net costs in any event would be negligible when compared to the tremendous humanitarian—frequently life-saving—services rendered to individuals and their countries.

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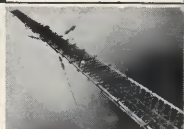
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APPOINTMENT OF ADDITIONAL FSOs

(Continued from page 16)

There being no objection, the Clerk read the bill, as follows:

Be it enacted, etc., That the President is authorized to appoint, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, not to exceed 250 persons to positions as foreign-service officers. Each such appointment shall be by commission to a classified grade and shall be in addition to all other appointments of foreign-service officers.

SEC. 2. A person appointed under this act may, under such regulations as the Board of Foreign Service Personnel for the Foreign Service may prescribe, be commissioned as a foreign-service officer of any classified grade, depending upon his age, experience, and ability. Upon appointment, any such foreign-service officer shall receive the lowest basic salary of the classified grade to which he is appointed.

SEC. 3. No person shall be eligible for appointment as a foreign-service officer under this act unless—

(a) he is an American citizen and has been such at least 15 years:

(b) he has served (1) in the active military or naval service of the United States on or after September 16, 1940, and has been separated or released therefrom under honorable conditions after active service of 90 days or more, or by reason of an injury or disability incurred in service in line of duty, or (2) since December 7, 1941, for not less than two years in a position or positions of responsibility as an officer or employee of the United States, or of any corporation, wholly or partly owned by the United States, which is an instrumentality of the United States;

(c) he has been designated by the Secretary of State as a candidate for examination for appointment as a foreign-service officer and has passed such examination as the Secretary may prescribe; and

(d) he was at least 31 years of age at the time of application.

SEC. 4. No appointment under this act shall be made after the expiration of 2 years after the date of enactment of this act.

With the following committee amendments:

Page 2, line 10, after the semicolon, insert the word "and."

Page 2, line 21, strike out the word "States" and insert the following; "States, whose service and experience can qualify them as a foreign officer; and."

The committee amendments were agreed to.

Mr. RABAUT. Mr. Speaker, I offer an amendment.

(Continued on the next page)



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The Clerk read as follows:

Amendment offered by Mr. RABAUT: On page 3, at the end of the bill, add a new section, as follows:

"SEC. 5. Each employee who has been designated as vice consul, not of career, by the Secretary of State shall, upon completion of 15 years of service in that capacity, be appointed as foreign-service officer without examination, at a salary not lower than the employee received at the time of such appointment: *Provided*, That during the next two succeeding fiscal years not less than 40 of such employees shall be so transferred during each fiscal year: *Provided further*, That thereafter such employees as become eligible for transfer in pursuance hereof shall be so transferred."

Mr. MARTIN of Massachusetts. Mr. Speaker. I move to strike out the last word. Will the gentleman explain what departure this is from the past?

Mr. RABAUT. Mr. Speaker, up to the present time there has been sort of a class system in the Department in which some men are called officers of the foreign service and others are called foreign-service officers. This takes the personnel who were in the position of vice consul and puts them into the foreign-service-officers class after they have served a period of 15 years. It makes quite a dif-

ference in the status of these people, because they deal with officials of other governments who have that status. The way it exists today, they are really clerks dealing with others who are officers.

Mr. MARTIN of Massachusetts. Does it carry any pay increase?

Mr. RABAUT. No. They must get the same pay.

Mrs. ROGERS of Massachusetts. It is truly a very democratic thing to do, and gives the men in that group a little recognition.

Mr. BLOOM. It is very constructive too.

Mrs. ROGERS of Massachusetts. Yes.

Mr. MARTIN of Massachusetts. It is sort of a promotion system?

Mr. RABAUT. It puts them in the proper category.

The SPEAKER. The question is on the amendment offered by the gentleman from Michigan.

The amendment was agreed to.

Mr. RABAUT. Mr. Speaker, I offer another amendment.

The Clerk read as follows:

Amendment offered by Mr. RABAUT: On page 3, at the end of the bill insert a new section, as follows:

"SEC. 6. The provision of 22 United States Code



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23h is hereby amended to read as follows:

"The correspondence and records of the Division of Foreign Service Personnel shall be confidential except to the President, the Secretary of State, the members of the Board of Foreign Service Personnel, the Assistant Secretary of State supervising the division, the legislative and appropriations committees of the Congress charged with legislating for and appropriating for the Department of State, or their duly authorized representatives, and such employees as may be assigned to work on such correspondence and records."

Mr. MARTIN of Massachusetts. Mr. Speaker, I move to strike out the last word.

Will the gentleman please explain what this accomplishes?

Mr. RABAUT. I will be very pleased to explain it to the minority leader. This adds the provision that the two committees of Congress, the Legislative and the Committee on Appropriations, or their agents, may investigate the status of the people in the foreign service in addition to those who were permitted to investigate it heretofore.

Mr. MARTIN of Massachusetts. They never had this power before?

Mr. RABAUT. It gives these congressional committees the power to investigate.

Mrs. ROGERS of Massachusetts. Mr. Speaker, will the gentleman yield?

Mr. MARTIN of Massachusetts. I yield to the gentleman from Massachusetts.

Mrs. ROGERS of Massachusetts. It really is a great move against communism and a great protection to the country.

Mr. RABAUT. It gives Congress an opportunity to make these further investigations.

Mr. BLOOM. It gives them power that they did not have before.

Mr. RABAUT. In further explanation of my two amendments, I wish to say the following:

These employees have served for 15 years or more as vice consuls, and not of career, at that. It is a reflection on them as well as on the Department. The Department tried to ease their feelings by calling them "officers of the foreign service", as contrasted with the regular term "foreign-service". These employees are required to perform international functions and make contacts with foreign offices of other governments. It is embarrassing to them to be known as clerks. If they perform international functions they should be given international status, that is, a title recognized by the other governments. If an employee has not proved his worth in 15 years sufficiently to be recognized he should be asked to resign or under such circumstances, he could be asked to resign his designa-

tion as vice consul and be retained only in an administrative capacity. The Foreign Service Journal is replete with references to the status of noncareer vice consuls. Many of the foreign-service officers do not like the situation. As one foreign-service officer so aptly put it—"they are neither fish nor fowl". I feel that no additional appointments, or designations of vice consuls, not of career, should be made. The Department should gradually abolish this service, but if it should desire to continue the system generally, it should certainly give recognition to the employees who have served 15 years in that capacity.

With respect to the second amendment, this will merely give the two committees of the Congress, responsible for legislating and appropriating for the Department of State, an opportunity to review the records of foreign service officers. They do not have this right at the present time. . . .

The amendment was agreed to.

The bill was ordered to be engrossed and read the third time, and passed, and a motion to reconsider was laid on the table. . . .

BIRTHS

KRIEG. A son, Laurence John, was born on December 11, 1945, to Foreign Service Officer and Mrs. William Laurence Krieg in Caracas where Mr. Krieg is Vice Consul.

BARNES. A daughter, Elizabeth Louise, was born on March 22 to Foreign Service Officer and Mrs. William Barnes in Springfield, Ill. Mr. Barnes is Second Secretary at Lisbon.

RITT. A daughter, Maura Elizabeth, was born on March 25 to Mr. and Mrs. Charles H. Ritt, Jr. Mr. Ritt is a Foreign Service Courier and Mrs. Ritt was before her marriage Miss Martha Green, formerly Foreign Service Clerk at Cairo and Athens.

JOHN DAY FOREIGN SERVICE BOOK CONTEST

The John Day Company announces that the closing date of its Foreign Service Book Contest has been postponed from May 31 to September 30, 1946, to allow sufficient time for the completion of several manuscripts now in preparation.

The competition is for an award of \$1,000, of which \$500 is an outright prize and \$500 an advance against royalties. It is open to any member of the Foreign Service, of any grade, active or retired, or the wife or husband of a member. Judges are Pearl S. Buck, Henry S. Villard, and Vincent Sheehan. Donald Dunham, author of *Envoy Unextraordinary*, is contest editor.

Members of the armed services are not eligible—only those of the American Foreign Service as such.



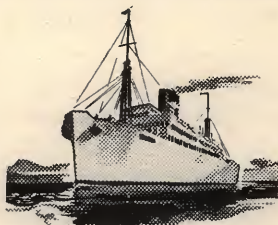
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THE BOOKSHELF

(Continued from page 29)

ciate its extraordinary dramatic qualities.

This country has always been peculiarly fortunate in producing the right man when a critical job needs doing. Commodore Perry was such a man, of commanding presence, great patience, and no small amount of wile. He must be accounted one of our great military statesmen in the direct line from General George Washington to General Eisenhower. It is high time that the full stature of this great American leader should be appreciated by his countrymen, and this book will go far toward serving that purpose.

The story starts with the various attempts made during the early period of Western contacts with the Orient to gain a commercial foothold on the fabulous islands of Japan, attempts which had invariably been frustrated by the determination of the Japanese to have no dealings with other peoples. It recounts the two visits of the squadron of Commodore Perry bringing a demand for the conclusion of a treaty and the opening up of Japan to the West, and describes the momentous events which led to the successful conclusion of the mission.

Perry succeeded where others had failed, partly because of the care with which his expedition had been planned and organized, partly because of the skill with which he handled the negotiations, but most of all because of the realization by the Japanese themselves that their isolation could not last much longer. They were not as ignorant of the course of world events as was then generally assumed. The author makes it clear that Japan in 1853 was ripe for a change and that Perry's visit was the blow which caved in the weakened shell of isolation.

There are significant parallels between this first successful effort to impose by force our will on the Japanese, and the present situation wherein we find ourselves the masters of Japan. The Japanese, in deciding to open the gates of their country, were influenced not so much by the desire to abandon their traditions as by the realization that only through a policy of seeming cooperation could they acquire the knowledge and skills which would enable them to oppose the West. Students of the Japanese doctrine of "Wa," or bending without breaking before an irresistible force, may reflect on the motives which impell the presentday Japanese to yield with such grace to the conqueror and to pursue with such avidity the ways of democracy.

The student of our foreign relations in the Orient will find in this book interesting interpretations;

the historian will discover in it considerable new material. The general reader will find it a fine story of adventure.

Sir George Samson, eminent British historian and diplomat, has contributed an interesting preface to the book.

WILLIAM T. TURNER

DYNAMITE ON OUR DOORSTEP: PUERTO RICAN PARADOX. By Wenzell Brown. Greenberg publishers, New York, 1945. Pp. 301. \$2.75.

Wenzell Brown arrived in Puerto Rico in 1936 with a group of young men hastily recruited as special teachers of English. As many of them came from New York City, their adjustments to primary teaching in remote villages frequently proved difficult. The author led a turbulent life in his two years on the Island.

There are characterized in facile, expressive stories the jibaro (landless peasant), a Spanish Falangist landlord, and impoverished school children. Working class family life is vividly portrayed, with a prevailing strident and noisy *ambiente*.

A number of striking black and white sketches by Jack Crane emphasize the not infrequently sordid locale of the incidents described by the author.

A graphic episode is the breaking up of a political demonstration in Ponce. Here appear at once the latent emotion, patriotism, hysteria and controversy that mark a triangular problem: adjusting the sentiment of the local people to the administrative perplexities confronting the insular government in view of the distant policy determinations of the Federal Congress.

Despite a sympathetic attitude to the problems of the Island, Mr. Brown does not probe profoundly into political currents. He tells of isolated items of antagonism between local residents and continental Americans. He adds journalistic descriptions of the characters and works of two political leaders, Albizu Campos and Luis Munoz Marin. But whether reporting on democracy or Marin or the role of the Popular Party, his theme often wanders, with the author, into a nearby bar.

NOTE: An historic effort to solve the "Puerto Rican Paradox" has been made during the elapsed weeks since this book's publication: a special message to Congress by President Truman on October 16, 1945 (reiterated in January 1946) advocating the granting to Puerto Rico of its choice of local election of governor, independence, statehood, or dominion status.

WILLARD F. BARBER.

(Continued on the next page)

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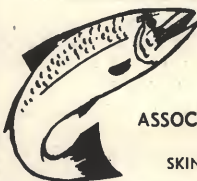
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PEACE, SECURITY AND THE UNITED NATIONS. By Hans J. Morgenthau. University of Chicago Press. Chicago, 1946. 129 pp. \$1.50.

Hans J. Morgenthau has here collected five lectures which were given in July of last year at the Twenty-first Institute of the Norman Wait Harris Foundation. The lectures on these various phases of the United Nations Charter are all eminent observers of the international scene—Percy E. Corbett, Arthur R. Burns, Malbone W. Graham, Frederick L. Schuman, Eugene Staley—and they present their theses with expected logic and thoroughness. But it is doubtful that their words will succeed in "relating the Chapter to the world," a hope the publishers express. If, instead of being addressed to "the world," this book were addressed to the highly specialized small group of students of international politics it would have been more to the point, since these lectures go far beyond the Charter and deal, not only with the "legal and organizational aspects of peace and security of the postwar world, but also with the concrete political factors upon which the legal and organizational developments, envisaged at San Francisco, will largely depend."

In his preface Mr. Morgenthau states that the "legalistic positivist approach . . . no longer dominates American thinking on foreign affairs without serious challenge." The five chapters presented here partly underline the new school of thought which derives its meaning not from the text of international treaties alone but from "their text in conjunction with the political considerations which gave rise to them . . ." The implications of this theory certainly could be far-reaching in our warring world.

Among the lectures Mr. Schuman's study on "Regionalism and Spheres of Influence" is particularly interesting in the light of recent events. There is much plain-speaking here and the basic problems confronting the world are revealed in staccato sentences which would look well engraved on the marble portals of the UNO assembly hall. Here are just two of these: "Peace and security are never threatened by relations among the weak, except when the weak become pawns of rival powers or are permitted to recover strength to challenge the strong." And: "In the unity of the strong lies the only available basis of peace."

Nevertheless, whether the reader, anxious to round out his political education, will confront these discerning theories with a feeling of frustration or one of cognizance, will depend on the more immediate reality of that morning's headlines.

ALICE L. RAINE.

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

(Continued from page 27)

On February 15 Mr. Kenneth S. Patton who was formerly American Consul General here, stayed overnight on his way to Bangkok where he is advisor to the Government of Siam. Mrs. Patton arrived the following Tuesday and had a chance to see many of her friends that evening at a large party given by the Chinese Consul General.

RUTH YEARNs.

March 13, 1946.

On February 8, 1946, the Consulate General staff at Calcutta assembled in the office of the Consul General to congratulate Mr. Sures Chandra Datta, on the completion of 25 years' service with the United States Government. He was appropriately "garlanded" and was presented with a scroll of signatures of all members of the Consulate General staff and with a purse of money.

Mr. Datta has been in the employ of the American Consulate General at Calcutta since February 7, 1921.

SAMUEL J. FLETCHER

DUBLIN

February 25, 1946

Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt flew to Dublin on February 17 to visit her aunt, Mrs. David Gray, wife of the American Minister. Among those who attended a reception in her honor at the Legation were the Most Rev. Paschal Robinson, Apostolic Nuncio; Prime Minister De Valera; Mr. Sean MacEntee; the President of the High Court and Mrs. Maguire, American Consul General and Mrs. McEnelly; Colonel K. R. Kreps, American Military

Attache, and Montgomery Colladay. Mrs. Roosevelt, accompanied by the Minister and Mrs. Gray, motored to Rineanna to join other American delegates to U. N. O. who were returning by plane to the United States.

The American Cardinals-designate on their way to Rome were welcomed by Mr. David Gray, American Minister, at the airport at Rineanna on February 11 and 12.

Mr. J. Alfred La Freniere, who arrived in Dublin on December 28 with his wife and small daughter, was recently commissioned Vice Consul to serve in the Consulate General.

Prepared by Elizabeth C. Bouch;
Submitted by Thomas McEnelly.

NEWS FROM THE DEPARTMENT

(Continued from page 24)

Book Reviews for the Caribbean

One of the most popular features of the West Indian Radio Newspaper, a unique broadcast beamed by short wave to the Caribbean, is the program called "Books in Review". WILLIAM W. HARRIS is director of WIRN and brings to the program a long and friendly association with the Caribbean countries. This broadcast was originally a war project, begun by the Anglo-American Caribbean Commission in 1942, and has changed now to a peace-time project of cultural information, still under the same auspices.

Members of the Foreign Service will be interested in these reviews. Some of the recent ones broadcast have been: "Modern Man is Obsolete" by Norman Cousins, "Germany is our Problem" by Henry Morgenthau, Jr., "The Best American Short Stories" edited by Martha Foley, "Congo" by La-touche and Goucin, and many others.

VISITORS

The following Foreign Service Personnel signed the Department Register upon returning from or departing for their posts:

March:

Leland C. Altaffer, Lorenzo Marques
Don L. Sullivan, Cairo
James Breman, Johannesburg
A. J. Thomas, Jr., Rotterdam
Walter C. Isenburgh, Jr., Istanbul
Albert H. Robbins, London
F. Terrassa, Cali

E. R. Williams, Stuttgart
John M. Kavanaugh, Munich
Nathalie D. Boyd, HongKong
Weiffo A. Forsten, Caracas
Margret P. Ezzell, Athens
Patricia Geraty, London
Robert L. Hartzell, Munich
Leroy G. Denman, Jr., Buenos Aires

Joseph F. Walker, Algiers
Emmet Mashburn, Tegucigalpa
Fred A. Motz, Vienna
Mary K. Richmond, Oslo
Charlotte M. Reed, Bremen
Robert D. Connraf, Port Said
Nathan S. Barnes, Moscow
Thomas G. Dumy, Tunis

May, 1946

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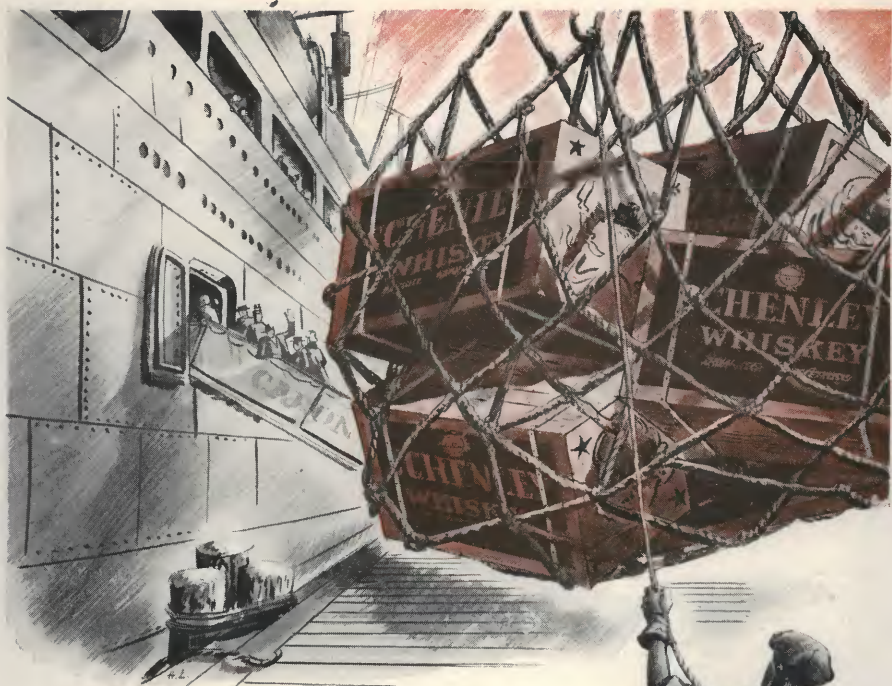
Dorothy H. Watson, Tientsin
 Robert C. Burton, Chungking
 Kathleen M. Anderson, Stuttgart
 Elizabeth J. Cawley, Stuttgart
 P. D. Balog, Moscow
 Arlene Hoftten, Madrid
 Janet Dickey, Madrid
 Irene L. Rossi, Leopoldville
 Margery Millwood, Leopoldville
 Joseph F. Burt, Danzig
 Janice Race, Munich
 Hope Hurd, Frankfurt
 Meade T. Foster, Buenos Aires
 Howard K. Forlowski, Moscow
 Louise E. Luke, Moscow
 M. E. Blake, Cracow
 Rosa L. Dickenson, Berlin
 Anne Kelly, Algeria
 Charlice Eubanks, Ceylon
 Frances M. Wilson, Lima
 Ruth J. Torrance, Marseille
 Georgine C. Brown, London
 Arthur S. Abbott, Harbin
 A. Ruth Green, Vancouver
 Dorothy R. Faxon
 Walter J. Donnelly, Lima
 Dorothy R. Ward, Bangkok
 Walter M. Furguson, Rome
 Edward W. Clark
 James C. Lobenstine, Lima
 Robert W. Weise, Jr., Valencia
 Ray H. Crane, Sao Paulo
 Mazine E. Short, Cali
 Vincent Lavista, Rome
 Mary Jane Henry, London
 William D. Moreland, Jr., Cork
 Robert L. Hunter, Casablanca
 Richard T. Lankenau, Buenos Aires
 Grant M. Smith, Buenaventura
 Charles W. Booth, Karachi
 Jones R. Trowbridge, Buenos Aires
 Albert J. Malo, Lima
 Irma B. Mathis, London
 Loretta A. McDonald, Buenos Aires
 Albert C. Cizauskos, Batavia
 Edward Kardas, Cairo
 William E. Cole, Jr., Trieste
 Louise MacMillan, London
 William P. Wright, Caracas
 Halleck L. Rose, Quito
 Mary Ann Hunimel, Johannesburg
 Ellen Collins, Caracas
 Edward M. Groth, Hamburg
 Elliott H. Miller, Bremen
 John L. Rawlinson, Tientsin
 Dr. H. J. Schoettner, Jidda
 Dwight Dickinson, Mexico
 Adele M. Callais, Naples
 Loris F. Craig, Shanghai
 Joseph H. Bulik, Moscow
 George S. Roper, Ottawa
 William Penneman, Jr., Santiago
 Cecil M. P. Cross, Sao Paulo
 Evangeline J. Constantine, Madrid
 J. Kittredge Vinson, Bremen
 Marybelle Bouchard, Shanghai
 Rita M. Baner, San Salvador
 Marguerite E. Mullen, Paris
 Henry W. Nicklasson, Rome
 Samuel Berry, Tehran

Elmer E. Yelton, Nairobi
 R. English, Hamilton
 Lawrence W. VonHellsens, Stockholm
 Charles V. Kolt, Bogota
 Alice Magee, Rome
 Gloria M. Rusch, Manila
 Josephine Gruenwald, Shanghai
 Frederick P. Latimer, Jr., Panama
 William A. Ehelebe, Paramaribo
 George P. Spishock, Caracas
 Virginia McAuliffe, Lima
 Mary Ann Pardue, London
 L. Pittman Springs, Suva
 Earl Crain, Santiago
 James G. Powers, Cork
 Horace W. Greenway, Mexico
 George A. Armstrong, Munich
 Jesse M. Orme, Port Limon
 Hon. Raphael O'Hara Lanier, Monrovia
 Charles A. Hutchenson, Pretoria
 Harvey R. Wellman, Habana
 Dale H. Baker, Dhahran
 Moyer L. Cliff, Jidda
 Don H. Shroul, Alexandria
 Lorraine G. Haight
 Carl E. Christopherson, Wellington
 Harold Sims, Angola
 Everett K. Melby, Bern
 Hon. Louis G. Dreyfus, Jr., Reykjavik
 G. E. Robert Meyer, Shanghai
 Frank DeStasio, Paris
 Carl E. Johnson, Warsaw
 Eleanor R. Borrowdale, Budapest
 Lunnra Burgman, Cairo
 Sophie F. Venz, Naples
 Marguerite Klindt, Berlin
 George W. Uderitz, Rome
 Marguerite MacDonald, Barranquilla
 Alfred Hollen, Budapest
 Elizabeth Jorjick, Shanghai
 Addison G. Foster, Paris
 Mary Eliz. Chaffee, Bremen
 Henry Hawson, Jr., Accra
 Louis G. Levine, Berlin
 Ida I. Lindstrom, Oslo
 Lucie Gay, Madrid
 Dorothy D. Dunham, Paris
 Elizabeth E. Garver, Managua
 Meade Foster, Ottawa
 Joyce M. Fries, Frankfurt
 Kathleen N. McHugh, Stuttgart
 Isabelle Walsh, Frankfurt

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Clarence J. McIntosh, Johannesburg
 Catherine Anderson, Stockholm
 Grace E. Dollenmayer, London
 E. F. Penrose, London
 Charles C. Carson, Lima
 Bettye Bohanon, Lima
 Mary C. Forbes, Lisbon
 Mrs. Lucile C. Keating, New Delhi
 Robert J. Catto, Shanghai
 Hubert F. Ferrell, Paris
 William H. Dennis, Shanghai
 William C. Lakeland, Quebec
 Paul A. Casey, New Delhi
 Dorothy L. Donini, Natal
 June M. Pithanen, Helsinki
 Harry L. Troutman, Istanbul

James D. Mason, Trieste
 Ivan B. White, Paris
 Roland A. Hall, Madrid
 Sarah B. Purnell, Marseille
 H. L. Milbourne, Chungking
 Marcelyn Cremer, Madrid
 Ralph C. Fratzke, Stockholm
 Lois M. Lange, London
 Penelope Royall, Paris
 Mariana M. Smith, Paris
 Clifford C. Taylor, Warsaw
 Nelle R. Johnston, Berlin
 James W. Anderson, Bangkok
 Bernice R. Spears, Managua
 Helen M. Forbes, Brussels
 Horace W. Greenway, Jidda
 Ernest H. Fisk, India
 Marybelle Bouchard, Shanghai
 Vera Fedak, Warsaw
 Maria Ramos, San Salvador
 F. Taylor Gurney, Tehran
 Paul W. Frillmann, Shanghai
 Jessie M. Brewlon, Tokyo
 Norris S. Haselton, Santiago
 Avis Tallackson, New Delhi
 Hon. John D. Erwin, Tegucigalpa
 Dorothy F. Solon, Stockholm
 Charles L. Ribera, Montevideo
 Don B. Reynolds, Berlin
 Virginia E. Terry, Berlin
 Jose Gonzalez Padron, Teneriffe
 Henry E. Allue, Mexico
 Sybillia D. Jones, Algiers
 Cecil W. Gray, Vienna
 Walter W. Sholes, Basel
 Beatrice Comeau, Tokyo
 Turner C. Camron, Jr., Paris
 Claude G. Ross, Athens
 Herman Moss, Geneva
 Joran J. Birkeland, Copenhagen
 Temple Wanamaker
 Henry V. Rann, Copenhagen
 John H. Straight
 George R. Vitale, Montevideo
 John F. O'Grady
 James K. Morrison, Moscow
 James J. O'Neil, Paris
 William P. Fuller, Jr., Moscow
 Darrell Meek, London
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 Herbert L. Jacobson, Trieste
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