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THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE BULLETIN

MARCH 25, 1944

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The War

BASES OF THE FOREIGN POLICY OF THE UNITED STATES

[Released to the press March 21]

On March 21, 1944, Secretary of State Cordell Hull informed press and radio correspondents that after returning from his recent trip to Florida he had noted a growing interest in the foreign policy of the United States and an increasing number of requests for information about various points in our foreign policy. He said that he was glad of this increased interest. The Secretary said that, in addition to many statements and declarations by the President, he had himself made a number of basic statements on foreign policy during the past two years. He thought it would be a convenience and help to the public generally if there could be compiled a brief memorandum of a number of them. Accordingly, the following has been prepared:

OUR FUNDAMENTAL NATIONAL INTERESTS

In determining our foreign policy we must first see clearly what our true national interests are.

At the present time, the paramount aim of our foreign policy is, to defeat our enemies as quickly as possible.

Beyond final victory, our fundamental national interests are the assuring of our national security and the fostering of the economic and social well-being of our people.

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

Cooperation between nations in the spirit of good neighbors, founded on the principles of liberty, equality, justice, morality, and law, is the most effective method of safeguarding and promoting the political, the economic, the social, and the cultural well-being of our nation and of all nations.

INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION BACKED BY FORCE

Some international agency must be created

which can—by force, if necessary—keep the peace among nations in the future.

A system of organized international cooperation for the maintenance of peace must be based upon the willingness of the cooperating nations to use force, if necessary, to keep the peace. There must be certainty that adequate and appropriate means are available and will be used for this purpose.

POLITICAL DIFFERENCES

Political differences which present a threat to the peace of the world should be submitted to agencies which would use the remedies of discussion, negotiation, conciliation, and good offices.

INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE

Disputes of a legal character which present a threat to the peace of the world should be adjudicated by an international court of justice whose decisions would be based upon application of principles of law.

REDUCTION OF ARMS

International cooperative action must include eventual adjustment of national armaments in such a manner that the rule of law cannot be successfully challenged and that the burden of armaments may be reduced to a minimum.

MOSCOW FOUR-NATION DECLARATION

Through this declaration the Soviet Union, Great Britain, the United States, and China have laid the foundation for cooperative effort in the post-war world toward enabling all peace-loving nations, large and small, to live in peace and security, to preserve the liberties and rights of civilized existence, and to enjoy expanded opportunities and facilities for economic, social, and spiritual progress.

SPHERES OF INFLUENCE AND ALLIANCES

As the provisions of the four-nation declaration are carried into effect, there will no longer be need for spheres of influence, for alliances, for balance of power, or any other of the special arrangements through which, in the unhappy past, the nations strove to safeguard their security or to promote their interests.

SURVEILLANCE OVER AGGRESSOR NATIONS

In the process of re-establishing international order, the United Nations must exercise surveillance over aggressor nations until such time as the latter demonstrate their willingness and ability to live at peace with other nations. How long such surveillance will need to continue must depend upon the rapidity with which the peoples of Germany, Japan, Italy, and their satellites give convincing proof that they have repudiated and abandoned the monstrous philosophy of superior race and conquest by force and have embraced loyally the basic principles of peaceful processes.

INTERNATIONAL TRADE BARRIERS

Excessive trade barriers of the many different kinds must be reduced, and practices which impose injuries on others and divert trade from its natural economic course must be avoided.

INTERNATIONAL FINANCE

Equally plain is the need for making national currencies once more freely exchangeable for each other at stable rates of exchange; for a system of financial relations so devised that materials can be produced and ways may be found of moving them where there are markets created by human need; for machinery through which capital may—for the development of the world's resources and for the stabilization of economic activity—move on equitable terms from financially stronger to financially weaker countries.

ATLANTIC CHARTER: RECIPROCAL OBLIGATIONS

The pledge of the Atlantic Charter is of a system which will give every nation, large or small, a greater assurance of stable peace, greater opportunity for the realization of its aspirations to freedom, and greater facilities for material advancement. But that pledge implies an obligation for each nation to demonstrate its capacity for stable and progressive government, to fulfil

scrupulously its established duties to other nations, to settle its international differences and disputes by none but peaceful methods, and to make its full contribution to the maintenance of enduring peace.

SOVEREIGN EQUALITY OF NATIONS

Each sovereign nation, large or small, is in law and under law the equal of every other nation.

The principle of sovereign equality of all peace-loving states, irrespective of size and strength, as partners in a future system of general security, will be the foundation-stone upon which the future international organization will be constructed.

FORM OF GOVERNMENT

Each nation should be free to decide for itself the forms and details of its governmental organization—so long as it conducts its affairs in such a way as not to menace the peace and security of other nations.

NON-INTERVENTION

All nations, large and small, which respect the rights of others are entitled to freedom from outside interference in their internal affairs.

LIBERTY

There is no surer way for men and for nations to show themselves worthy of liberty than to fight for its preservation, in any way that is open to them, against those who would destroy it for all. Never did a plainer duty to fight against its foes devolve upon all peoples who prize liberty and all who aspire to it.

All peoples who, with "a decent respect to the opinions of mankind", have qualified themselves to assume and to discharge the responsibilities of liberty are entitled to its enjoyment.

DEPENDENT PEOPLES

There rests upon the independent nations a responsibility in relation to dependent peoples who aspire to liberty. It should be the duty of nations having political ties with such peoples, of mandates, of trustees, or of other agencies, as the case may be, to help the aspiring peoples to develop materially and educationally, to prepare themselves for the duties and responsibilities of self-government, and to attain liberty. An excellent example of what can be achieved is afforded in the record of our relationship with the Philippines.

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PHILIPPINE INDEPENDENCE

Statement by the President

[Released to the press by the White House March 24]

On this, the tenth anniversary of the passage of the Tydings-McDuffie act, I take the opportunity of conveying again a message of friendship and good-will to the people of the Philippines. American-Filipino friendship has had a long history. The bill for Philippine independence which I signed just 10 years ago was a manifestation of

that friendship. It is a source of deep gratification to me to be able to say to the brave people, who are now bearing the yoke of Japanese domination, that the return of freedom to their Islands draws closer with each Allied victory. The Philippine government temporarily residing here possesses all the attributes of an independent nation. America will fulfil its pledge.

WAR REFUGEES

Statement by the President

[Released to the press by the White House March 24]

The United Nations are fighting to make a world in which tyranny and aggression cannot exist; a world based upon freedom, equality, and justice; a world in which all persons regardless of race, color, or creed may live in peace, honor, and dignity.

In the meantime in most of Europe and in parts of Asia the systematic torture and murder of civilians—men, women, and children—by the Nazis and the Japanese continue unabated. In areas subjugated by the aggressors innocent Poles, Czechs, Norwegians, Dutch, Danes, French, Greeks, Russians, Chinese, Filipinos—and many others—are being starved or frozen to death or murdered in cold blood in a campaign of savagery.

The slaughters of Warsaw, Lidice, Kharkov, and Nanking—the brutal torture and murder by the Japanese, not only of civilians but of our own gallant American soldiers and fliers—these are startling examples of what goes on day by day, year in and year out, wherever the Nazis and the Japs are in military control, free to follow their barbaric purpose.

In one of the blackest crimes of all history—begun by the Nazis in the day of peace and multiplied by them a hundred times in time of war—the wholesale systematic murder of the Jews of Europe goes on unabated every hour. As a result of the events of the last few days, hundreds of thousands of Jews, who while living under persecution have at least found a haven from death in Hungary and the Balkans, are now threatened with annihilation as Hitler's forces descend more heavily upon these lands. That these innocent people, who have already survived a decade of Hitler's

fury, should perish on the very eve of triumph over the barbarism which their persecution symbolizes, would be a major tragedy.

It is therefore fitting that we should again proclaim our determination that none who participate in these acts of savagery shall go unpunished. The United Nations have made it clear that they will pursue the guilty and deliver them up in order that Justice be done. That warning applies not only to the leaders but also to their functionaries and subordinates in Germany and in the satellite countries. All who knowingly take part in the deportation of Jews to their death in Poland, or Norwegians and French to their death in Germany, are equally guilty with the executioner. All who share the guilt shall share the punishment.

Hitler is committing these crimes against humanity in the name of the German people. I ask every German and every man everywhere under Nazi domination to show the world by his action that in his heart he does not share these insane criminal desires. Let him hide these pursued victims, help them to get over their borders, and do what he can to save them from the Nazi hangman. I ask him also to keep watch and to record the evidence that will one day be used to convict the guilty.

In the meantime, and until the victory that is now assured is won, the United States will persevere in its efforts to rescue the victims of brutality of the Nazis and the Japs. In so far as the necessity of military operations permits, this Government will use all means at its command to aid the escape of all intended victims of the Nazi and Jap executioner—regardless of race or religion or color. We call upon the free peoples of Europe and Asia

temporarily to open their frontiers to all victims of oppression. We shall find havens of refuge for them, and we shall find the means for their maintenance and support until the tyrant is driven from their homelands and they may return.

In the name of justice and humanity let all freedom-loving people rally to this righteous undertaking.

GERMAN INVASION OF HUNGARY

Statement by the Secretary of State

[Released to the press March 24]

The rapid decline of Nazi tyranny has never been so apparent as today, when Hitler, in growing awareness that he cannot withstand the united efforts of the freedom-loving peoples of the world, has shown his desperation by turning with his accustomed treachery upon a former ally.

Only by firm resistance to the hated invader can Hungary, the first of the Axis satellites to feel the Nazi whip, hope to regain the respect and friendship of free nations and demonstrate its right to independence.

FALSE RUMORS OF POSSIBLE FUTURE COLLABORATION BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND THE VICHY REGIME

[Released to the press March 21]

The following statement by the Department of State was issued in response to a request for com-

ment on reports emanating from Algiers to the effect that concern had been expressed there that the United States Government might in the future collaborate with officials of the Vichy regime:

The absurd reports and rumors periodically occurring, which are evidently inspired, endeavoring to create the impression that this Government upon the liberation of France intends to deal with the Vichy regime or with certain individuals directly or indirectly supporting the policy of collaboration with Germany, are false on their face. The fact that this Government kept representatives at Vichy for some time for such vital purposes as combating Nazi designs, the preservation of the French fleet from German hands, and the prevention of Nazi occupation of French Africa or the establishment of military bases there, has been most amazingly and falsely represented as founded upon a sympathetic relationship between the American Government and pro-Axis supporters at Vichy. Every person at all informed knew that throughout the entire period just the opposite was the truth.

No loyal supporter of the Allied cause would make the ridiculous charge that the United States Government, while sending its military forces and vast military supplies to the most distant battlefields to prosecute the war against the Axis powers, would at the same time have any dealings or relations with the Vichy regime except for the purpose of abolishing it.

THE DUTIES AND OBLIGATIONS OF AMERICAN CITIZENSHIP

Address by Assistant Secretary Berle¹

[Released to the press March 22]

FELLOW TEACHERS: We are gathered to take counsel together tonight on a part which may fall to the United States as the war comes to a close and the post-war era begins. Your counseling is of unlimited importance, for you have under your guidance the boys and girls who will sustain that part and the high privileges and great burdens which go with it. No greater responsibility exists anywhere.

The world crisis through which we are passing came from causes deeper than the mere villainy of certain groups of men. It is true beyond doubt

that in the Axis countries, and to some extent elsewhere, small groups of evil people banded together to seize power with force and violence, to share that power with others who would likewise deny any moral basis for society, and so to make themselves dictators of their own country, slave-drivers to their own peoples, and attempted to make themselves conquerors of the rest of the world. It is undeniable that this effort is now doomed to certain defeat. Yet it came closer to success than we like to think.

¹ Delivered at Schoolmen's Week Convention, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Mar. 22, 1944.

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After the fall of France, a Nazi cabinet minister visited Prague and there collected his trusted lieutenants—the hangmen of the secret police, the systematic plunderers of the economic administration, the dark men who profaned the name of education by endeavoring to train the Czech nation into a population of illiterate slaves. With certainty of success he proclaimed that the Nazi Government already had plans in preparation, backed by adequate force, sufficient to conquer Britain in 1940, Soviet Russia thereafter, and, in good time, to deal with the United States. Indeed, nothing but the thin ribbon of the English Channel stood between the greatest army in the world and the only western nation then seriously resisting. So sure were these dark men of victory that they had built the arches and prepared the festoons for the celebration of triumph in Berlin in that fateful fall of 1940.

We in the United States had greater good fortune than has befallen any nation. Stout English hearts manned the Royal Air Force; the beginning of the trickle of lend-lease from the United States assisted in supplying them with coast defense; and the German arms were turned back in the autumn air from their onslaught on the British Isles. By that narrow margin, time and understanding were vouchsafed us to use our energy in producing weapons, equipping an army, putting an air force into action. But it is not too much to say that from the summer of 1940 to the summer of 1941 only the bravery of one nation, aided, it is true, by colossal strategic mistakes on the Nazi side, saved the Western world from disaster.

Clearly, although the situation was saved, something was vastly wrong or else it would not have arisen at all. The Nazis had no hesitation about pointing this out. They said that the democracies were fat and foolish, that they had forgotten how to believe passionately or to sacrifice for their beliefs. They said that anyone on the democratic side would consider his comfort and his profit ahead of the welfare of his country and his kind. Particularly they said that any country could be bought off for a time by promise of profit or, by hope of temporary immunity from attack, and that by this simple device they could attack nations one by one, defeat them individ-

ually, enslave them and their resources as they went along, and so emerge dominant throughout the world. They were wrong, as it proved; but they were closer to being right than we like to remember. For that reason it is plainly our task to convince the generation which now struggles, and the generation which you are training, that citizenship in general, and American citizenship in particular, is not merely a privilege and a benefit. It is also a collection of obligations and duties, many of them difficult, some dangerous and tragic. On the fulfilment of these duties today and tomorrow depends the place of our country, or any country, in the world to come.

Consider for a moment the burden which the United States must shoulder as the necessary price of her continued safety and her continued proud position. She has the greatest developed land mass in the world. This was originally a protection in itself, as the greater land mass of the Soviet Union still is, in a sense, the greatest defense of that country. In addition she has an ocean east and west. Yet the oceans no longer guarantee immunity; planes can cross them in a few hours. In the not-distant future it will be possible to do from the other side of the Atlantic to the United States what Allied air forces are today doing to Germany across the English Channel. And our highly developed mechanical progress carries with it a certain weakness: destruction of key plants and resources can derange the entire mechanism of defense. A bridgehead anywhere on the Western Hemisphere could mean, all too easily, a struggle of extreme danger. Should the post-war world break up into states devoted to power politics, this country would have its work cut out for it. Unless we were to know war in our own borders as Europe is learning it today, we should have to maintain a defense system capable of dealing with a threat from the far side of the Pacific and the far side of the Atlantic alike. This sounds fantastic. Yet it is not so long ago that a Japanese attack based on the Marshall Islands crippled the American defense at Pearl Harbor, two thousand miles away; and the art of destruction has developed vastly since then.

If we were to put our only trust in our isolated national force, the tasks of Americans would be heavy indeed. We shall not wholly escape those tasks in any event.

But it should be clear that another and perhaps a greater duty is placed on us—forced on us, if you will. We must endeavor to create a condition of affairs in which war shall become improbable and in which peace can be compelled. This is the combined task of endeavoring to create a world of friendly states, of good neighbors, and of being prepared to prevent war, by force if need be, when it once more threatens. We have twice learned that a war anywhere, remote from our shores and from our minds, nevertheless can force us to stand to arms. It should not be necessary to learn that lesson a third time.

And yet, because memory is short, we have to teach this year in and year out. Who does not remember the systematic teaching that war could accomplish nothing; the pathetic assertion that a nation which behaved itself need not fear any wrong-doer; that foreign disputes were of no interest to us? And one remembers, grimly, the French traitor, Marcel Déat, urging his country not to keep its alliance with Britain and resist Germany, by trying to make out that the Nazi plan of world conquest was a local row between Germany and Poland. "Why die for Danzig?" he asked, while the German fifth columnists (his friends) were undermining the very defenses of Paris. Yet there are people even now who favor in their innocence what Déat said in his treason, who ask why Americans should be concerned with North Africa or with Italy, with a second front, or with the Solomon Islands. The answer is the same: the enemy which seized Danzig was thundering into the north of France a few months later. The enemy which seized the islands of the Pacific boasted—and actually hoped—that it would dictate surrender in Washington. The savage truth of Litvinov's remark that peace is indivisible, proved in blood and sorrow, must not and cannot be forgotten.

It follows, therefore, that the United States, if she is to retain her place as a land of peace and progress and self-fulfilment, must do her utmost to create a condition of affairs and to organize world relations so that the peace can be kept.

To do this we must face a number of tasks to which we are not accustomed and which we shall find extremely hard. Let us look at a few of them.

First is the necessity of making, keeping, and holding an American point of view. This is essential. The time has long since passed when formation of American opinion in foreign relations could safely follow lines laid down abroad. Most countries are interested in promoting their own national interests. Many of them have relied on shifting policies and on changing alliances, and some have been opportunist in their policies, doing what seemed and perhaps was necessary to them for their own safety. We need not claim moral superiority. It happens that through good fortune and geography we are relatively more secure than most countries and therefore can exercise the high privilege of endeavoring to deal in foreign affairs on a basis of fairness and justice. We have resources enough so that we can respect the needs of other, more crowded populations who must export in order to feed their people. We have learned that neighbors who are highly developed and widely industrialized do not threaten us by their competition but are actually better customers. Accordingly, we find it both advantageous as well as neighborly to assist the less developed countries in their technical education and advance. We have learned that the cooperation of a friend is far more useful to us and to the world than the reluctant help dragged from a dominated country. In the language of diplomacy, we have learned to recognize that good-neighborship, accompanied by recognition of the sovereign equality of our neighbors, is not only honesty but also good policy.

The position of the nation does not depend alone on its armed force or war potential. Even more than arms, the ideals and policies for which a country stands determine its influence. The policy and practice of the good-neighbor doctrine is responsible, in large measure, for the influence which the United States has beyond its fighting lines. More than that, the hope of making the good-neighbor policy general throughout the world is perhaps the most solid basis for believing that we can arrive at a successful world organization capable of making and maintaining permanent peace. The maintenance of the good-neighbor policy, which means also patience and understanding, becomes one of the great duties of the United States.

Hand in hand with this goes another duty—the duty to assure that American business interests acting abroad actively contribute to building up

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the welfare of the countries in which they operate. This is essential. We have and will hold a powerful commercial position outside our borders. Exercising wise judgment, the American merchants and miners and manufacturers, the men who operate airlines and refineries, factories, and communications, can contribute to the countries in which they work as much or more than they take out for American profit. If their work is to be permanent, they must do this; and the process becomes an essential part of American foreign relations. The day of the exploiter is gone, and exploitation can be no part of American policy. The success of an American enterprise outside the United States will be measured even more by the working-conditions it creates, by the health and homes of its employees, and by the growing capacity of the people with which it works, than by the mere size of its profit-account piling up in banks in New York or Chicago. This is a task for industrial statesmanship—an idea which is steadily growing among American businessmen. But if the task is to be done, the generation coming of age must be taught that foreign business and foreign trade is the art of contributing to the foreign country rather than the art of seizing an exploiter's profit.

In this respect we have learned much and can learn more from our American neighbors. We are learning from men like Guani of Uruguay; from Padilla, the Foreign Minister of Mexico; from Aranha, the Foreign Minister of Brazil; from men like the great Venezuelan, Lopez Contreras; and I hope we are also learning from the writers and thinkers, in government and out, throughout Central and South America.

Peace, when it comes, will not last long if it is merely a grab-bag in which each nation or groups within each nation seek to take reckless advantage of their associates and their neighbors. It was just this condition of affairs which so weakened Europe that Hitler and a group of Nazi criminals could attempt the conquest of a continent as a preface to the plunder of the planet.

America's position in the post-war world will be strong. It will rest in great measure on the bravery and devotion of many millions of young men and many hundred thousands of young women serving in our armed forces. But its continued existence will rest upon the strength, the ideals,

and the faith of these young men and women and others coming into maturity in the democratic way of life.

We have heard a great deal about the difficulties of America. It has become fashionable, indeed, in some circles to emphasize them. Surely we have many weaknesses and many faults. Yet, man for man and woman for woman, America has done better by her children than any other country. Her faith has been in individual effort, individual responsibility, and individual achievement.

This is the great heritage of the West. We are co-heirs of European civilization, of the great revolutions which were Greek and then Roman; which were Christian and Catholic; which were the Renaissance and the Reformation; which destroyed feudalism in the time of the French Revolution. This has been a continuous revolution toward greater achievement and opportunity for the individual, and we have steadily maintained that faith against people who would unduly exalt the state and against people who would enthrone the cartel. We have believed in freedom, inspired by kindness, and have accepted restraint so that freedom should be greater.

We shall pass some years in a world of strident voices. It cannot be otherwise, for catastrophe is steadily forcing a great readjustment which will end by being world-wide. In this readjustment America has much to say, for she is the greatest champion of the kindly revolution which has been the dominant note in our national history.

The Foreign Service

CONFIRMATIONS

On March 20, 1944 the Senate confirmed the nomination of Avra M. Warren to be American Ambassador to Panama, Leland B. Morris to be American Ambassador to Iran, Orme Wilson to be American Ambassador to Haiti, Willard L. Beaulac to be American Ambassador to Paraguay, Ellis O. Briggs to be American Ambassador to the Dominican Republic, Louis G. Dreyfus, Jr., to be American Minister to Iceland, Gen. Thomas Holcomb to be American Minister to the Union of South Africa, and Kenneth S. Patton to be American Minister to New Zealand.

American Republics

WATER TREATY BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND MEXICO

By *Charles A. Timm*¹

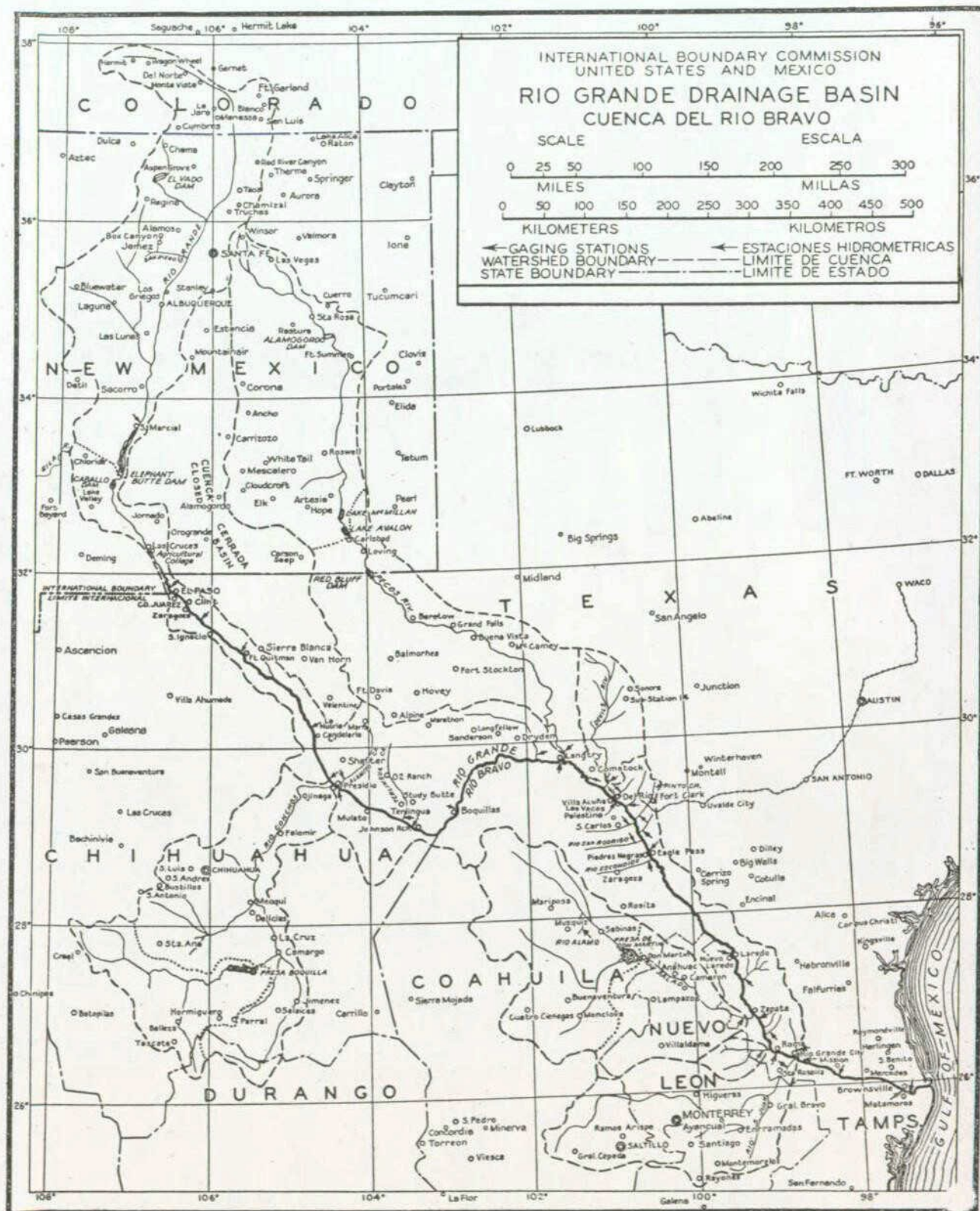
The signature on February 3, 1944 of the treaty relating to the conservation, control, distribution, and use of the available water supply of the Rio Grande below Fort Quitman, Texas, and of the Colorado and Tijuana Rivers marked the culmination of nearly a century of diplomacy relating to these streams. When it is considered that the people, communities, industries, and agriculture along the two thousand miles of this boundary are dependent to a very large degree upon the water supply of the Colorado River and the Rio Grande, it will be readily understood that this treaty is one of tremendous importance.

A few basic facts regarding the boundary region and the basins of the Colorado River and the Rio Grande (see maps, pp. 283, 286, and 289) may be useful in understanding the scope of the provisions of this treaty. Along the boundary are found, on the United States side, the States of California, Arizona, New Mexico, and Texas; and on the Mexican side, the Territory of Baja California and the States of Sonora, Chihuahua, Coahuila, Nuevo León, and Tamaulipas. The basin of the Colorado River covers an area of 244,000 square miles and includes parts of Arizona, California, Colorado, Nevada, New Mexico, Utah, and Wyoming in the United States and a small part of Baja California and Sonora in Mexico. The seven States of the Colorado River Basin in the United States are divided for practical purposes into the upper basin (Colorado, New Mexico, Utah, Wyoming) and the lower basin (Arizona, California, Nevada). The basin of the Rio Grande covers approximately 180,000 square miles in Colorado, New Mexico, and Texas on the United States side and Chihuahua, Coahuila, Nuevo León, and Tamaulipas on the Mexican side. Both of these rivers rise in the high mountains of Colorado, and most of their water supply is derived from precipitation in the form of rain or snow in the mountainous regions of the headwaters of the main streams and their tributaries. There is very little rainfall in the lower

basin of the Colorado River, and even in the case of the Rio Grande the relatively heavy rainfall at the mouth adds little water to the river, which must depend for the most part on the run-off from its main tributaries—the Conchos and San Juan Rivers in Mexico and the Pecos and Devils Rivers in the United States. It is the basins of these two rivers, together with the basin of the diminutive Tijuana and the territory in the region of the nearly 700 miles of strictly land boundary that will be affected in many ways by the terms of the treaty in question and that require, for their greatest possible development, the cooperative endeavors of the United States and Mexico. The basis for this co-operation is carefully laid in the provisions of this treaty.

The treaty itself is but the latest of a long series of United States-Mexican conventions relating to the Rio Grande and the Colorado. The treaties of February 2, 1848 (9 Stat. 922) and December 3, 1853 (10 Stat. 1031) defined certain parts of these rivers with reference to the boundary and regulated the use of their waters for purposes of navigation. Aside from some conventions between 1880 and 1890 which related to the land boundary, the next treaty concerning the boundary was that of November 12, 1884 (24 Stat. 1011), which resulted from the difficulties caused by accretive and avulsive changes in the Rio Grande and the Colorado. This treaty defined the general laws of accretion and avulsion to be applied to the boundary rivers and prescribed the rules to regulate or control artificial changes in their channels, monuments on bridges across them, and property rights on cut-offs caused by avulsive changes in the river channels. The need of an international body to execute the provisions of the treaty of 1884 led to the signing of the treaty of March 1, 1889 (26 Stat. 1512), which provided for the organization, jurisdiction, and authority of the present International Boundary Commission, United States and Mexico.

¹The author of this article is a Divisional Assistant in the Division of Mexican Affairs, Department of State.



Since 1889 three treaties of considerable importance relating to these boundary rivers have been negotiated. The treaty of March 20, 1905 (35 Stat. 1863) provided for the elimination from the effects of the treaty of November 12, 1884 of certain categories of bancos or cut-offs. The following year there was signed, on May 21 (34 Stat. 2953), a treaty by the terms of which the United States allocated to Mexico 60 thousand acre-feet of water from the Rio Grande at Ciudad Juárez.¹ After an additional quarter of a century of difficulties occasioned by the meanders and floods of the Rio Grande in the El Paso-Juárez Valley, the two countries signed, on February 1, 1933 (48 Stat. 1621), a treaty by the terms of which the river channel between El Paso-Juárez and Box Canyon was rectified and controlled by means of levees. One other treaty, the arbitral convention of June 24, 1910 (36 Stat. 2481), related to the boundary rivers only to the extent that it provided for the settlement by arbitration of the so-called "Chamizal dispute" involving a small tract of land built up by accretion on the El Paso side of the Rio Grande. This effort proved futile, and the problem of the Chamizal still remains to be settled.

It will be noted that, with the exception of the treaties of 1848 and 1853, the practical importance of most of these treaties is restricted chiefly to the Rio Grande. This is understandable when it is considered that the boundary runs along the Rio Grande for more than 1,200 miles, whereas the Colorado River divides the two countries for only 18 or 20 miles. Had navigation on the Colorado become important, the diplomatic history of this stream might have taken another turn, but it remained for the development of irrigation in both countries to bring this river to the forefront in both interstate and international relations.

As a matter of fact, with the exception of the treaty of 1906, none of these conventions relates directly to the use of the boundary streams for irrigation. This indicates that agricultural development in the boundary region was not significant at the time the treaties were negotiated, although it is true that for centuries before the Spanish occupation of the Southwest the Indians had prac-

ticed some irrigation in the Upper Rio Grande Valley and in the Gila basin, and that a considerable increase in irrigated acreage accompanied the establishment of Spanish villages along the Rio Grande. Soon after the United States acquired the Southwest, agriculture, based very largely upon irrigation, began to develop in the upper basin of the Colorado River. Beginning in the 1880's the use of water for irrigation in the basins of both the Rio Grande and the Colorado increased so rapidly that the Rio Grande system now irrigates about 1,500,000 acres in the States of Colorado, New Mexico, and Texas, and 100,000 to 200,000 acres in Mexico, and the waters of the Colorado River system are now irrigating about 2,500,000 acres in the seven States of the Colorado basin and an additional 300,000 acres in Mexico. The result has been that the natural flow of each of these streams no longer suffices to insure enough water for the present irrigated areas, not to mention projects calling for a great expansion of acreage. It became necessary, therefore, not only to consider means to conserve and control the available water supply of these rivers but also to reach agreements for the equitable apportionment of the supply, both among the States of the United States and between the United States and Mexico.

As between the United States and Mexico the first critical situation developed in the El Paso-Juárez Valley, in which irrigation has been carried on for more than 300 years. Here the rapid upstream development in New Mexico and Colorado endangered the irrigation project in the Mexican part of the valley, with the result that after years of diplomatic exchanges and technical investigations the two countries concluded the treaty of 1906, which solved the problem by allocating to Mexico 60,000 acre-feet each year from the Upper Rio Grande.

Shortly thereafter, irrigation development began in the delta of the Lower Rio Grande Valley and proceeded so rapidly that by 1940 several hundred thousand acres were under irrigation in that area, which now supports a population of over 200,000 and has a capital valuation of approximately \$300,000,000. So long as there were no large developments on the Mexican side of the Rio Grande, there was no serious danger of a prolonged water shortage in the Lower Valley of

¹ An acre-foot of water is the quantity required to cover one acre to the depth of one foot.

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Texas. Beginning, however, in the early 1930's the Government of Mexico made plans for the ultimate irrigation of nearly 500,000 acres along the main stream and the tributaries of this river. These projects have already reached the point where the natural flow of the Rio Grande is insufficient in years of low run-off.

During the first two decades of this century, this problem of the lower Rio Grande received the attention of the two Governments on several occasions and was the object of study by joint commissions. No material results came from these early efforts, and beginning in 1924 another serious attempt was made to reach an agreement between the two countries regarding the distribution of the waters of the Rio Grande. In that year the Congress of the United States passed an act (43 Stat. 118) approving the establishment of an International Water Commission, United States and Mexico, to make a study regarding the equitable use of the waters of this river below Fort Quitman, Texas. The refusal of the Government of Mexico to consider the Rio Grande without also considering the Colorado led to the passage by the Congress of the joint resolution of March 3, 1927 (44 Stat. 1043), amending the act of 1924 to make it cover not only the Rio Grande but also the Colorado and Tijuana Rivers. This Commission made an investigation of these rivers but was unable to reach an agreement regarding the distribution of their waters. So far as the Rio Grande was concerned, the chief difficulty lay in the fact that, whereas 70 percent of the water supply below Fort Quitman, Texas, had its origin in Mexico, most of the irrigated acreage was in Texas, and Mexico was unwilling to guarantee the perpetuation of the Texas developments, insisting instead that the water of the main stream should be divided equally, with each country retaining the right to develop its tributaries to the fullest extent.

Following the failure of the International Water Commission to reach an agreement on the Rio Grande, the situation facing the water-users grew steadily worse. In the effort to discover a rational solution for the problem, a thorough investigation was made by a panel of engineers associated with the United States Section of the International Boundary Commission, on the basis of which there was developed what is known as the Valley Gravity and Storage Project (Federal

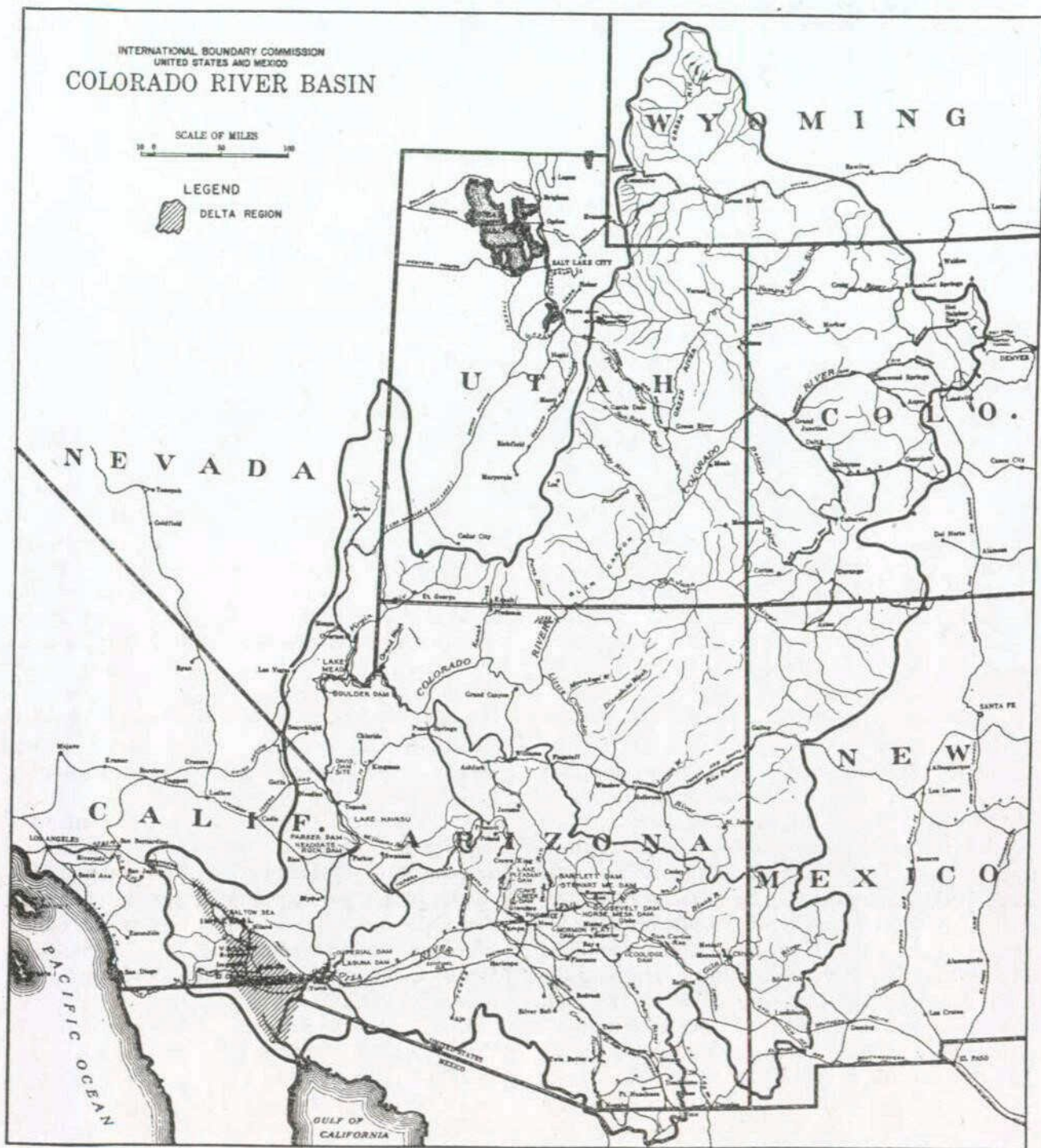
Project 5). Under this project, an initial appropriation for which was made in 1941 (55 Stat. 303), the lower valley of Texas would be protected by means of off-river storage, a gravity diversion canal to tap the Rio Grande near the town of Zapata, Texas, and a system of feeder and distribution canals, the total to cost in the neighborhood of \$55,000,000. Ultimately it was planned to build storage reservoirs on the Pecos and Devils Rivers, both tributaries of the Rio Grande. This project, while technically feasible, must be regarded as a second choice, the first choice being always a workable treaty with Mexico to provide for international storage dams and other works on the main stream. Even with a treaty of this kind, those features of this project located below Roma or Rio Grande City, Texas, would still be needed to complement the treaty works.

Turning now to the Colorado River, it will be noted that the problems of this river system were approached also from both the interstate and the international angle. Mexico became involved when the Imperial Valley Project was first begun, for this development was based upon a gravity canal that headed in the Colorado River immediately above the international boundary, crossed the boundary into Mexico, and then turned west and northwest back across the boundary to the Imperial Valley of Southern California. The construction of this canal required a concession from Mexico, under the terms of which Mexico could use half the capacity of the canal.

At the same time that the two Governments were making efforts early in this century to reach an agreement on the distribution of the waters of the Rio Grande, they were seeking agreement also on the Colorado. These early diplomatic efforts failed and were not renewed until the International Water Commission, mentioned above, undertook its studies in 1928.

Meanwhile, the great increase in irrigation in the seven basin States, coupled with the gravity of the flood menace, led to efforts to reach an interstate agreement for the apportionment among these States of the water supply of the Colorado River system. In view of plans to construct a storage reservoir in the Boulder Canyon region for the better regulation of irrigation supply, for flood control, and for power production, it became important for the basin States to know in advance

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the extent of their rights in respect of the water supply. The result was the establishment of a Colorado River Commission composed of members from each of the seven States. This Commission finally agreed in 1922 upon the terms of a compact to govern the allocation of the waters of the Colorado River system (H. Doc. 605, 67th Cong., 4th sess., serial 8215). This compact apportions to the upper basin and lower basin respectively 7,500,000 acre-feet of water each year for beneficial consumptive use, with the lower basin having the right to increase its use by 1,000,000 acre-feet each year. The compact provides, in addition, that should the United States allocate by treaty any Colorado River water to Mexico such allocation shall be supplied first from the waters that are surplus above the 16,000,000 acre-feet apportioned to the two basins, and if this surplus is insufficient the deficiency is to be borne equally by the two basins. By still another provision the States of the upper basin guarantee to deliver during each period of 10 years not less than 75,000,000 acre-feet at Lee Ferry, which is above Boulder Dam. This compact, approved by the Congress in 1928 (45 Stat. 1057), was ratified promptly by all of the basin States except Arizona, which delayed its ratification until February 1944.

The next step was the passing of the Boulder Canyon Project Act, approved December 21, 1928 (45 Stat. 1057), by the terms of which Boulder Dam and appurtenant works were built at a total cost of approximately \$150,000,000. This cost was to be repaid for the most part out of revenues from the power contracts made between the Department of the Interior and certain power interests.

In pursuance of the Colorado River Compact and Boulder Canyon Project Act, the Department of the Interior entered into certain other contracts, these being for the supply of water to California projects as follows: the Metropolitan Water District of Southern California (Los Angeles and certain nearby communities), the Imperial Irrigation District (including Coachella Valley), the Palo Verde Irrigation District, and the city of San Diego. These water contracts are for permanent service and call for the delivery of water from storage created by Boulder Dam. They recite the order of priorities set up by the State of California, but the actual delivery of water under them is

made subject to the availability thereof, for use in California, under the Colorado River Compact and Boulder Canyon Project Act. Following the execution of these water contracts, the Metropolitan Water District built an aqueduct from Parker Dam to the Los Angeles area, and the Department of the Interior built Imperial Dam on the Colorado above Yuma, Arizona, and the All-American Canal running from this dam to the Imperial Valley, which thus no longer depends upon the Mexican Canal. By the terms of the All-American Canal contract the Imperial Irrigation District is obligated ultimately to repay the Government of the United States for the actual cost of the dam and the All-American Canal.

Since the California contracts were entered into, the Department of the Interior has made a contract with the State of Nevada to supply a maximum of 300,000 acre-feet each year, and the legislature of Arizona has recently approved a contract calling for the annual delivery of a maximum of 2,800,000 acre-feet, plus one half of the surplus, to that State. Both of these contracts are subject to limitations and reservations which are the same as, or similar to, those which are contained in the California contracts.

While the States of the Colorado basin and the Congress of the United States were making efforts to solve the interstate problems of this river, the International Water Commission, United States and Mexico, was endeavoring to reach an agreement on the quantity of water that the United States should guarantee to Mexico. Just as in the case of the Rio Grande, the Commission failed to reach a decision. The Mexicans demanded up to 3,600,000 acre-feet each year, but the United States representatives were willing to grant only the maximum amount that had been used in Mexico up to that time—that is, approximately 750,000 acre-feet—plus main canal losses and other waters not definitely set forth.

The 10 years following the collapse of the efforts of the International Water Commission were marked by a steady increase in the amount of land placed under irrigation in the Colorado River basin, both in the United States and in Mexico. It became apparent to most of the States of the basin that a treaty with Mexico was advisable, not only because of general international relations but

also because it seemed desirable to establish known limits for future development on both sides of the border. Not to make a treaty would, in their view, mean the gradual worsening of a difficult situation.

In this same period the Department of State renewed its study of the whole matter, this time in cooperation with the Committee of Fourteen and Sixteen representing the interstate water and power interests of the Colorado River Basin States. Several conferences have been held during the past two or three years between this Committee and representatives of the Department. At one of these conferences held in Santa Fe, New Mexico, in April 1943, a resolution defining suggested limits for a treaty with Mexico was approved by a large majority of the members. On the basis of this resolution, the Department reopened the negotiations with the Government of Mexico that resulted in the treaty which was signed on February 3, 1944.

For an analysis of the treaty it is sufficient to quote the letter of transmittal from the Secretary of State to the President:

"The undersigned, the Secretary of State, has the honor to lay before the President, with a view to its transmission to the Senate to receive the advice and consent of that body to ratification, if his judgment approve thereof, a treaty between the United States of America and the United Mexican States, signed at Washington on February 3, 1944, relating to the utilization of the waters of the Colorado and Tijuana Rivers, and of the Rio Grande (Rio Bravo) from Fort Quitman, Tex., to the Gulf of Mexico.

"The treaty consists of a preamble and 7 parts, and contains 28 articles.

"Part I, with three articles, contains preliminary provisions. Article I defines certain important terms used in the treaty. Article 2 prescribes the general powers and functions of the International Boundary and Water Commission. By the provisions of article 2 the general administration of the treaty is entrusted to the International Boundary Commission organized under the convention of March 1, 1889, between the United States of America and Mexico, the name of the Commission being changed to International Boundary and Water Commission. The Commission is given the status of an international body,

consisting of a United States section and a Mexican section, and it is provided that each Government shall accord diplomatic status to the Commissioner and certain of the other officers of the section of the other Government. Article 2 specifies the Department of State of the United States of America and the Ministry of Foreign Relations of Mexico as the agencies to represent the two Governments in every case wherein action by the Governments is required. Article 3 prescribes an order of preferences for the joint use of international waters.

"Part II, consisting of five articles, has particular relation to the Rio Grande (Rio Bravo). Of the waters of this river below Fort Quitman, the United States, by article 4, is allotted—

"1. All of the waters contributed to the main stream by the measured United States tributaries, chiefly by the Pecos and Devils Rivers.

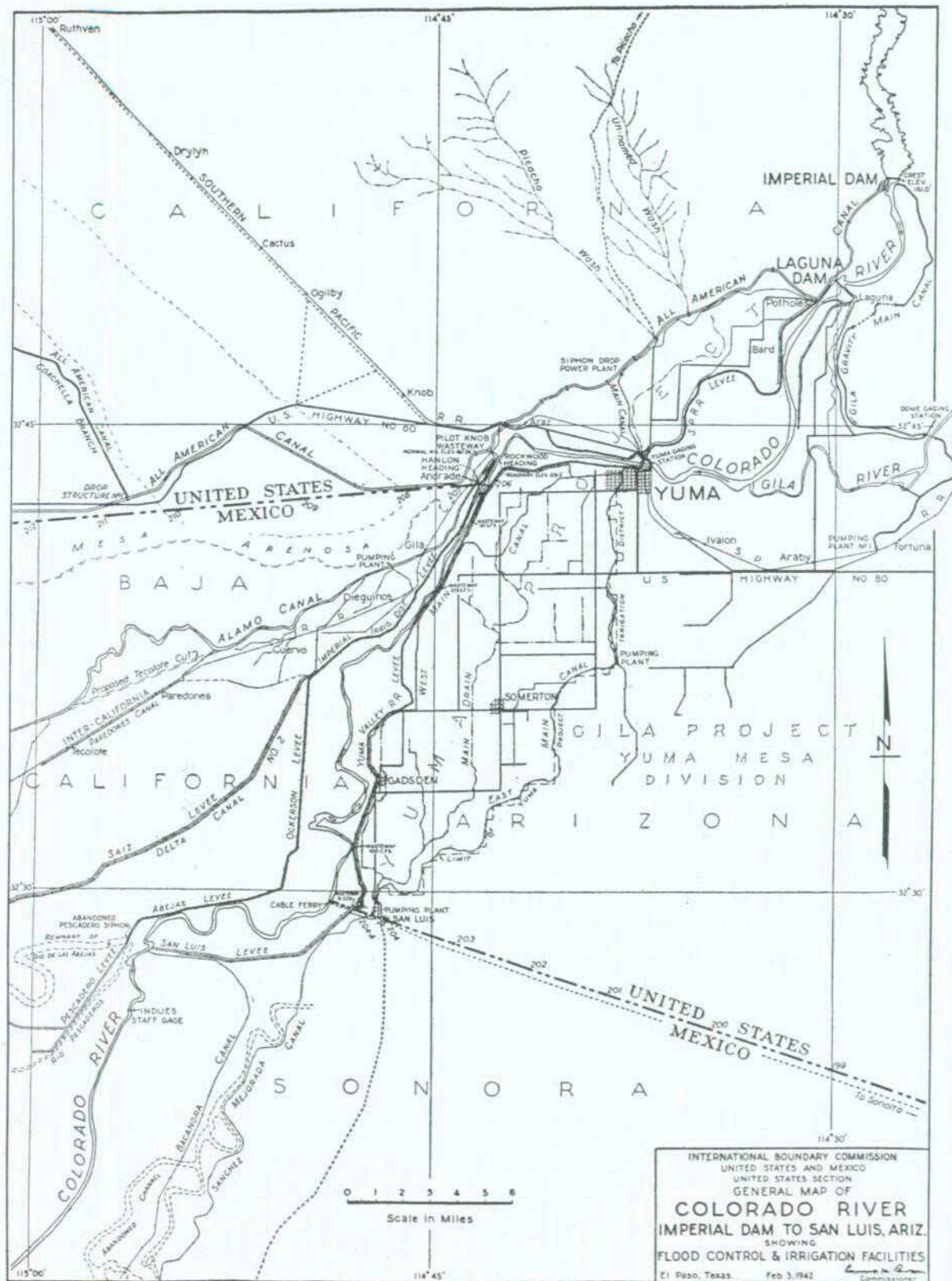
"2. One-half of the flow in the Rio Grande below the lowest major international reservoir so far as this flow is not otherwise specifically allotted by the treaty.

"3. One-third of the flow reaching this river from the measured Mexican tributaries above the Alamo River, provided that this one-third shall never be less than 350,000 acre-feet each year as an average in 5-year cycles.

"4. One-half of all other flows occurring in the main channel of the Rio Grande.

The quantity thus allotted will not only supply existing uses but also will permit, by an efficient use of the water, considerable expansion of irrigated areas in Texas.

"The remaining articles in part II make provision for the construction and operation of international works on the Rio Grande. Of chief importance is the provision, in article 5, for construction, by the two sections of the Commission, of three major international storage dams between the Big Bend and the head of the Lower Valley of Texas to provide capacity for water storage, for flood control and for the retention of silt. This article also makes provision for the construction of international auxiliary works in the Rio Grande. The cost of storage dams is to be divided in proportion to the conservation capacity allotted to each country, and the cost of other works is to be prorated in proportion to the benefits each country



is to receive from each of these works. Articles 6 and 7 authorize the Commission to study, investigate, and prepare plans for flood-control works and for international hydroelectric plants on the Rio Grande. Articles 8 and 9 charge the Commission, subject to the approval of the Governments, with the preparation of rules and regulations for the storage, conveyance, and delivery of the waters of the Rio Grande, including the assignment to each country of capacities in the reservoirs. The Commission also is entrusted with the keeping of records of the waters belonging to each country and of all uses, diversions, and losses of these waters.

"Part III, which is divided into six articles, prescribes the rules that are to govern the allocation and delivery to Mexico of a portion of the waters of the Colorado River. By article 10 the United States guarantees to Mexico a minimum quantity of 1,500,000 acre-feet of water each year, this water to be delivered in accordance with schedules to be furnished in advance by the Mexican section of the Commission. Beyond this minimum quantity the United States will allocate to Mexico, whenever the United States section decides there is a surplus of water, an additional quantity up to a total, including the 1,500,000 acre-feet, of not more than 1,700,000 acre-feet per year. Mexico may use any other waters that arrive at her points of diversion but can acquire no right to any quantity beyond the 1,500,000 acre-feet. These quantities, which may be made up of any waters of the Colorado River from any and all sources, whether direct river flows, return flow, or seepage, will be delivered by the United States in the boundary portion of the Colorado River, except that until 1980 Mexico may receive 500,000 acre-feet annually, and after that year 375,000 acre-feet annually through the All-American Canal as part of the guaranteed quantity. By another provision the United States will undertake, if the Mexican diversion dam is located entirely in Mexico, to deliver up to 25,000 acre-feet, out of the total allocation, at the Sonora land boundary near San Luis.

"In order to facilitate the delivery and diversion of Mexico's allocation, Mexico, as provided in article 12, is to build at its expense, within 5 years from the date the treaty enters into force, a main diversion structure in the Colorado River below the upper boundary line. If this dam is built in the

limitrophe section of the river, its plans and construction must be approved by the Commission. Wherever it is built, there shall be constructed at the same time, at Mexico's expense, the works which, in the opinion of the Commission, may be necessary to protect lands in the United States against damage from floods and seepage which might result from the construction, operation, and maintenance of this dam. The United States, as provided in article 12, is to build a regulating dam, known as Davis Dam, at a point between Boulder Dam and Parker Dam, and is to use a portion of the capacity of this dam and reservoir to make possible the regulation, at the boundary, of water allotted to Mexico. Furthermore, the Commission is to make all necessary measurements of water flows, and the data obtained as to deliveries and flows are to be periodically compiled and exchanged between the two sections. Article 12 provides also that the United States, through its section of the Commission, is to acquire or construct and permanently own, operate, and maintain the works required for the delivery of Colorado River waters to Mexican diversion points on the land boundary. Article 13 provides that the Commission shall study, investigate, and prepare plans for flood control on the Lower Colorado. Article 14 provides that Mexico is to pay an equitable part of the construction, maintenance, and operating costs of Imperial Dam and the Imperial Dam-Pilot Knob section of the All-American Canal, and is to pay all of such costs of works used entirely by Mexico. Article 15, relating to the annual schedules of deliveries to Mexico of Colorado River waters, provides that Mexico, in advance of each calendar year, is to supply two schedules, one to deal with the water to be delivered in the Colorado River and the other to deal with the water to be delivered through the All-American Canal. These schedules are subject to certain limitations, especially in regard to rates of flow at different times of the year, in order to provide assurance that the United States, in the period of ultimate development, will obtain credit for practically all of the flows that will be expected in the river as the result of United States uses and operations.

"Part IV, consisting solely of article 16, places upon the Commission the duty of making investi-

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gations and reports regarding the most feasible projects for the conservation and use of the waters of the Tijuana River system and of submitting a recommendation for the allocation of these waters between the two countries.

"The nine articles of part V contain provisions of a general nature relating to certain uses of the river channels and of the surfaces of artificial international lakes, to the international works, and to the Commission. By article 20 the two Governments, through their respective sections of the Commission, agree to carry out the construction of works allotted to them. By article 23 the two Governments undertake to acquire all private property necessary for the construction, maintenance, and operation of the works and to retain, through their respective sections, ownership and jurisdiction, each in its own territory, of all works, appurtenances, and other property required for the carrying out of the treaty provisions regarding the three rivers. However, the jurisdiction of each section of the Commission is definitely restricted to the territory of its own country.

"Article 24 entrusts to the Commission certain powers and duties in addition to those specifically provided in the treaty. These powers and duties include the making of investigations and preparation of plans for works and the control thereof; the exercise of jurisdiction by the respective sections over all works; the discharge of the specific powers and duties entrusted to the Commission by this and other treaties; the prevention of any violation of the terms of the treaty; the settlement of all differences that may arise regarding the treaty; the preparation of reports and the making of recommendations to the respective Governments; and the construction, operation, and maintenance of all necessary gaging stations.

"It is provided in article 25 that the Commission shall conduct its proceedings in accordance with the rules laid down by articles III and VII of the convention of March 1, 1889. In general, the Commission is to retain all duties, powers, and obligations assigned to it by previous treaties and agreements, so that the present treaty merely augments the Commission's powers, duties, and obligations.

"Part VI, having two articles, contains transitory provisions. By article 26 Mexico undertakes, during a period of 8 years from the effective date

of the treaty or until the beginning of operation of the lowest major international reservoir on the Rio Grande, to cooperate with the United States to relieve, in times of drought, water shortages in the Lower Rio Grande Valley of Texas. To this end, Mexico, if requested, will release up to a total of 160,000 acre-feet of water during these 8 years from El Azúcar Reservoir on the San Juan River for the use of such lands in Texas, provided that Mexico shall be under no obligation to release for this purpose more than 40,000 acre-feet in any one year. By article 27, during the 5 years before Davis Dam and the Mexican diversion dam are built, the United States will permit Mexico, at its own expense, to build, under proper safeguards, a temporary diversion structure in the Colorado River for the purpose of diverting water into the present Alamo Canal. Furthermore, the United States undertakes to cooperate with Mexico to the end that the Mexican irrigation requirements during this temporary period may be set for the lands under irrigation during 1943, provided that the water needed therefor is not currently required in the United States.

"Part VII, consisting solely of article 28, contains the final provisions relating to ratification, entry into force, and termination. It is provided that the treaty shall enter into force on the day of the exchange of ratifications, and that it shall continue in force until terminated by another treaty concluded for that purpose between the two Governments.

"Finally, it should be noted that the treaty provides that, in case of drought or serious accident to the hydraulic works in the United States, deliveries of Colorado River water to Mexico will be curtailed in the same proportion as uses in the United States are reduced, and that, if for similar reasons Mexico cannot provide the minimum 350,000 acre-feet from its measured tributaries of the Rio Grande, the deficiency is to be made up from these tributaries during the following 5-year cycle."

Considered in the light of previous treaties relating to the use of water from international streams for various purposes, it is not improbable that the treaty of February 3, 1944, now awaiting action in the Senate, may come to be regarded as the most important of its kind in the history of the world, both in the range and scope of its pro-

visions and in its social and economic significance. It is more than a mere division of water between two countries: it provides the administrative machinery and the principles for international cooperation in the development of these water resources. As such, it may well be taken as a model for future treaties governing international streams.

The treaty is comprehensive in its terms. However, it is in line with precedents already established. Attention has already been drawn to the treaty of 1906 providing for the equitable distribution of the waters of the Rio Grande in the El Paso-Juárez Valley, in which existing uses in Mexico as of the date of the treaty were protected. There is also the treaty of 1929 between Egypt and Great Britain, the latter acting for the Sudan (93 League of Nations Treaty Series 43, 86-88), governing the use for irrigation of the waters of the Nile. By its terms, the taking of water in the Sudan was limited in a manner to protect developments in Egypt. The proposed treaty with Mexico not only assures water for lands now under irrigation in both countries but also provides measures for the better utilization of the available supply, both for the present developments and for the greatest possible number of feasible future projects. Furthermore, it does not overlook the possibility of power development.

It is fortunate for both the United States and Mexico that they have ready at hand a competent and experienced Boundary Commission to administer the treaty. Organized under the convention of 1889, this Commission has been especially active since 1927 in the administration of boundary matters, which include the elimination of *bancos* under the convention of 1905, the marking of the boundary by means of monuments, and the construction, by its two national sections, of flood-control and sanitation projects. Probably the greatest joint undertaking thus far has been the rectification project in the El Paso-Juárez Valley under the treaty of 1933, by which the entire channel of the river was rectified and controlled from El Paso to Box Canyon, effecting a shortening of the river from 155 miles to 85 miles in that reach. Furthermore, the United States Section has canalized the Rio Grande for most of the 125 miles from El Paso to Elephant Butte Dam, and in the Lower Valley of Texas it has under construction a vast flood-control program. It is this Commis-

sion which now stands ready to execute the provisions of the present treaty.

INTERRUPTION OF OPERATIONS IN ARGENTINA OF ALL AMERICA CABLES, INC.

[Released to the press March 25]

The Department has received information from Buenos Aires to the effect that the Argentine authorities have ordered All America Cables, Inc., to suspend all operations during the 24-hour period which expires March 25 at midnight. A fine of 1,000 pesos has been imposed upon the company. These penalties are the result of an alleged violation of censorship regulations.

It is charged that on March 8 three cables from Lima, Peru, were mistakenly forwarded by the local office of All America Cables, Inc., in Buenos Aires to the censorship official in the office of the United Press, to which the messages were addressed, instead of having received the prior approval of the censorship official in the office of All America Cables, Inc.

Thus an essential inter-American communications link serving a number of the American republics, including the United States, has been interrupted on the ground of an apparently trivial violation of the Argentine censorship regulations. This action would appear to indicate a complete failure to appreciate the importance to the citizens of the republics concerned, including Argentina, as well as to their governments of the services performed by these communication facilities.

The Department

DIVISION OF PROTOCOL

On March 21, 1944 the Secretary of State issued Departmental Order 1243, effective March 20, 1944, which reads as follows:

"The functions and responsibilities of the Protocol Division (page 37, Departmental Order 1218 of January 15, 1944)¹ shall henceforth be exercised under the direction of the Special Assistant to the Secretary and Chief of Protocol, Mr. George T. Summerlin.

¹ BULLETIN of Jan. 15, 1944, p. 45.

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"These functions and responsibilities shall be subject to the fiscal control of the Assistant Secretary, Mr. Shaw, who shall also be consulted fully by Mr. Summerlin and his staff concerning other administrative aspects of protocol matters.

"Mr. Stanley Woodward will continue as Chief of the Division of Protocol which shall report to the Secretary through the Special Assistant, Mr. Summerlin.

"Mr. Raymond D. Muir is hereby designated Ceremonial Officer of the Department.

"The routing symbol of Mr. Summerlin's Office shall be SA/S and the routing symbol of the Division of Protocol shall be PR."

APPOINTMENT OF OFFICERS

By Departmental Order 1241 of March 20, 1944, effective March 18, 1944, the Secretary of State designated Mr. Donald Hiss as Deputy Director of the Office of Economic Affairs.

By Departmental Order 1242 of March 20, 1944, effective March 18, 1944, the Secretary of State designated Mr. C. Easton Rothwell as Executive Secretary on Political Affairs and Mr. John H. Fuqua as Executive Secretary on Economic Affairs of the Committee on Post-War Programs.

International Conferences, Commissions, Etc.

CONFERENCE OF ALLIED MINISTERS OF EDUCATION IN LONDON

[Released to the press March 25]

The Secretary of State announced on March 25, 1944 that this Government proposes to send a delegation in the near future to collaborate with the Conference of Allied Ministers of Education in London.

The delegation will consist of:

The Honorable J. William Fulbright, *Chairman*
Archibald MacLeish
John W. Studebaker
Grayson N. Kefauver
Ralph E. Turner

The Conference of Allied Ministers of Education in London is concerned with the many press-

ing problems connected with the restoration of the intellectual and educational resources destroyed by the Axis. Interest in these problems and in the work of the Conference has been widely expressed in educational and other circles in the United States. This work and its development along sound and practical lines are of the highest importance.

Mr. Fulbright, a member of Congress from Arkansas, is a member of the House Committee on Foreign Affairs. Mr. MacLeish, who has been Librarian of Congress since 1939, is a member of the American Commission for the Protection and Salvage of Artistic and Historic Monuments in Europe. Dr. Studebaker has served as United States Commissioner of Education since 1934. Dr. Kefauver, who has been professor of education and dean of the School of Education at Stanford University since 1933, has served since December 1943 as Consultant to the Department of State. Dr. Turner is Assistant Chief of the Division of Science, Education, and Art of the Department of State.

Treaty Information

HALIBUT FISHERY REGULATIONS OF 1944

By a note dated March 18, 1944 the Canadian Ambassador in Washington transmitted to the Secretary of State Order in Council No. 1486 dated March 7, 1944 issued by the Governor General of Canada approving the 1944 Halibut Fishery Regulations, which were prepared by the International Fisheries Commission pursuant to articles I and III of the Convention between the United States and Canada for the Preservation of the Halibut Fishery of the Northern Pacific Ocean and Bering Sea, signed at Washington on January 29, 1937 (Treaty Series 917).

The President of the United States approved the regulations on March 20, 1944.

The above-mentioned regulations, which will be printed in the *Federal Register*, supersede the 1943 regulations approved by the President on February 15, 1943, which were published in the *Federal Register* of March 2, 1943, pages 2608-2610.

INTER-AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF AGRICULTURAL SCIENCES

Guatemala

By a letter dated March 21, 1944 the Director General of the Pan American Union informed the Secretary of State that the Convention on the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences, which was opened for signature at the Pan Amer-

ican Union on January 15, 1944, was signed for Guatemala on March 16, 1944.

The convention was signed on January 15, 1944 for the United States of America, Costa Rica, Nicaragua, and Panama; on January 20, 1944 for Cuba and Ecuador; on January 28, 1944 for the Dominican Republic and Honduras; and on February 18, 1944 for El Salvador.

Publications

DEPARTMENT OF STATE

During the quarter beginning January 1, 1944, the following publications have been released by the Department:¹

- 2032. Health and Sanitation Program: Agreement Between the United States of America and the Dominican Republic—Effectuated by exchange of notes signed at Ciudad Trujillo June 19 and July 7, 1943. Executive Agreement Series 346. 6 pp. 5¢.
- 2033. Papers Relating to the Foreign Relations of the United States, 1929, vol. II. cxxxix, 1132 pp. (buckram).
- 2036. Foreign Service List, September 30, 1943. iv, 132 pp. Subscription, 50¢ a year (65¢ foreign); single copy, 20¢.
- 2037. Military Service: Agreement Between the United States of America and Czechoslovakia—Effectuated by exchange of notes signed at Washington April 3, 1942 and September 29 and October 21, 1943; effective September 29, 1943. Executive Agreement Series 341. 6 pp. 5¢.
- 2038. Military Aviation Mission: Agreement Between the United States of America and Paraguay—Signed at Washington October 27, 1943; effective October 27, 1943. Executive Agreement Series 343. 10 pp. 5¢.
- 2040. First Session of the Council of the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration: Selected Documents—Atlantic City, New Jersey, November 10–December 1, 1943. Conference Series 53. vi, 215 pp. 35¢.
- 2041. The Department of State Bulletin, vol. IX, no. 235, December 25, 1943. 14 pp. 10¢.²
- 2042. Reciprocal Trade: Agreement Between the United States of America and Iceland—Signed at Reykjavik August 27, 1943; effective November 19, 1943. Executive Agreement Series 342. 28 pp. 10¢.
- 2043. The Department of State Bulletin, vol. X, no. 236, January 1, 1944. 24 pp. 10¢.
- 2044. Diplomatic List, January 1944. ii, 122 pp. Subscription, \$1 a year; single copy, 10¢.

¹ Serial numbers which do not appear in this list have appeared previously or will appear in subsequent lists.

² Subscription, \$2.75 a year.

- 2045. Publications of the Department of State (a list cumulative from October 1, 1929). January 1, 1944. iv, 27 pp. Free.
- 2046. The Proclaimed List of Certain Blocked Nationals: Cumulative Supplement No. 4, January 14, 1944, to Revision VI of October 7, 1943. 55 pp. Free.
- 2047. The Department of State Bulletin, vol. X, no. 237, January 8, 1944. 16 pp. 10¢.
- 2048. Health and Sanitation Program: Agreement Between the United States of America and Venezuela—Effectuated by exchange of notes signed at Caracas February 18, 1943. Executive Agreement Series 348. 8 pp. 5¢.
- 2049. Health and Sanitation Program: Agreement Between the United States of America and Mexico—Effectuated by exchange of notes signed at Mexico City June 30 and July 1, 1943. Executive Agreement Series 347. 5 pp. 5¢.
- 2050. Purchase by the United States of Exportable Surpluses of Dominican Rice, Corn, and Peanut Meal: Agreement Between the United States of America and the Dominican Republic Approving Memorandum of Understanding Dated May 20, 1943—Effectuated by exchange of notes signed at Ciudad Trujillo June 10, 1943. Executive Agreement Series 350. 11 pp. 5¢.
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