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The Role of the U.S. Diplomatic Community in France, 1914

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About the Preview Edition

The Office of the Historian has generated this electronic preview edition of “Views From the Embassy: The Role of the U.S. Diplomatic Community in France, 1914.” Over the upcoming months, this preview edition will be superseded by a more complete version, which will include more information on the role of the American Ambulance Hospital in Neuilly and the American Chamber of Commerce in France in facilitating the work of the U.S. Embassy in Paris in 1914, as well as a literature review, which will further situate the present narrative within the larger context of U.S.-French relations.

In addition to supplemental content, readers should note that the final version will likely differ from this draft because style, formatting, and pagination may change. We advise all those citing this version to specify “Preview Edition, September 15, 2014” in their references.

Several documents referenced in “Views From the Embassy” are highlighted on U.S. Embassy France’s World War I Centennial website, located at <http://france.usembassy.gov/ww1centenary.html>. Readers may view full copies of these unclassified documents through links on that page’s “Interactive Timeline.”

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Executive Summary

To commemorate the First World War Centenary, U.S. Embassy France and the Office of the Historian investigated the role of the U.S. diplomatic community in France from 1914 until 1918. Much is known about the United States’ actions and contributions following its April 1917 entry into the conflict as a belligerent power associated with the Allies. Yet, the stories of France-based U.S. diplomats, consuls, and their family members prior to April 1917 have long been overshadowed by subsequent events of the twentieth century.

“Views From the Embassy” sheds light on often unknown or overlooked aspects of diplomatic work, such as the everyday tasks involved in the execution of policy. It illustrates the challenges U.S. diplomats confronted in their dueling obligations to maintain, and even strengthen, the bilateral relationship while representing the United States as a formally neutral nation. “Views From the Embassy” also sketches out how U.S. diplomats, consuls, and their family members responded to a myriad of crises. At times they improvised and adapted to rapidly changing on-the-ground conditions. While the story occurred one hundred years ago, it exemplifies certain perennial tensions, such as difficulties between politically appointed Chiefs of Mission and their career-diplomat colleagues as well as commonalities, including the varied ways in which people react to situations of extreme stress.

Our research revives a fascinating account of how actions spearheaded by U.S. diplomats and U.S. citizens in France during 1914, when the German Army threatened Paris, significantly strengthened U.S.-France relations in unique, unprecedented ways. This is an important consideration, given that until the late nineteenth century, despite a long history of diplomatic relations, the French and U.S. publics had relatively little direct, personal interaction with each other (when compared, for example, with the extensive contacts with Irish or Italian expatriate communities). As Yves-Henri Nouailhat noted, French public opinion often stereotyped “Americans” as caring too much for money, and felt that U.S. citizens knew and cared little about France, its people, or culture. At the same time, U.S. public opinion tended to associate the Third Republic and the French with the decadence and laïcité typified in popular memory of the Belle Époque.¹ An influx of U.S. businessmen, heiresses, and students to France at the turn of the twentieth century began to foster greater cultural, commercial, and personal ties between the two countries.² While impressions about the United States began to change, by 1914 many older, preconceived notions remained.

The response of the U.S. diplomatic and expatriate communities in France, particularly during 1914, did much to change French views towards the United States. From the first days of war, U.S. diplomats and consuls provided food, shelter, and funds to in-need U.S. citizens waiting to be evacuated safely to the United States. They also took care of German and Austro-Hungarian interests and subjects in France, obligations handed over to the Swiss Government upon U.S. entry into the conflict in 1917. These actions mirrored those undertaken by U.S. diplomats and consuls in the United Kingdom, Belgium, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Serbia, and Russia during the fall of 1914. Thus, “Views From the Embassy” also imparts how, prior to 1917, the United States served as the preferred neutral power representative for war-torn Europe.

In addition to these “official duties,” the responsibilities of U.S. Ambassador to France Myron T. Herrick and his staff grew once the Government of France departed Paris for Bordeaux on September 2, 1914. Herrick, with the blessing of French President

Raymond Poincaré, remained in Paris to protect U.S. interests and citizens. Accounts differ whether Herrick also pledged to protect Parisian monuments and museums or whether it was merely the Government of France's hope that the U.S. Ambassador's presence in the capital as a neutral government representative would deter any possible German Army destruction of the city's treasures. Thus throughout autumn 1914, while other Embassies and Legations were dark, the U.S. Embassy was a beehive of activity on multiple fronts. In addition to diplomatic duties, the unofficial roles of U.S. diplomats expanded exponentially as the war continued.

The Embassy became a nucleus of partnerships that provided financial relief and medical aid to those in France impacted by the war. Those measures caused some, including the German and French Governments, to question the degrees of neutrality maintained by the U.S. Embassy in Paris.³ Yet, such actions were undertaken with the approval of the Department of State. Assisted by a corps of U.S. citizens who volunteered their time, energy, and funds, U.S. diplomats and consuls developed new relationships with each other, the Government of France, and the French public. Their actions shaped public memory of the U.S.-France partnership in 1914, and laid a firm foundation of friendship that weathered the tests of subsequent decades.

Introduction: Prelude to War

The modern world was sufficiently developed by 1914 that twenty-first century readers would recognize many elements of daily life. The seismic changes in science and technology of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries transformed the industrialized world in a short time and fueled globalization. Far-flung places around the globe were connected to the main hubs of business and finance through the telegraph, telephone, and ever-faster trains and ships. Automobiles were common for the wealthy, buses and taxis cluttered the streets of Paris, and underneath the city the Metropolitan (Métro) shuttled people around via several subterranean train lines. The film industry was in its early years. Newspapers were prevalent, cheap, and frequent. French remained the *lingua franca* of diplomacy, but English rapidly became the language of business and commerce around the world.

In the summer of 1914, France was preoccupied with many things, least among them the events in the Balkans. It was a seminal year, the centennial of Napoleon's first defeat and forced exile to the island of Elba as well as the 125th anniversary of the 1789 Revolution. Paris was titillated by the trial of Madame Caillaux and enraptured by the June visit of former U.S. President Theodore Roosevelt.⁴ The city was also abuzz with the June 27 world heavyweight championship fight between U.S. boxers Frank Moran and Jack Johnson at the Velodrome d'Hiver. Against this backdrop, the members of the U.S. diplomatic community in France went about their daily business.

U.S. Diplomats and Consuls

The assemblage of U.S. diplomats, consuls, and family members in France was part of a small collective that constituted the U.S. Diplomatic and Consular Services in the early twentieth century. Prior to the 1924 Rogers Act, which combined the two services to create one professionalized Foreign Service, U.S. representational presence around the world was relatively small. In 1910 there were only 1,043 overseas personnel attached to the Department, despite the growing involvement of the United States in international relations.⁵ The U.S. Embassy in Paris was maintained by one ambassador, three diplomats, a few military and naval attachés, and a handful of support staff (clerks, secretaries, messengers, and the ambassador's private secretary).

At the helm in June 1914 was U.S. Ambassador to France Myron T. Herrick, former Republican Governor of Ohio and appointee of President William Taft. Herrick and his wife Carolyn arrived in Paris in April 1912. They asked departing U.S. Ambassador to France Robert Bacon and his wife to remain with them at the Ambassador's residence, at 5, rue François Ier, a mansion owned by the Count de Ganay, for a few extra days to help them acclimate. Bacon was a close friend and confidante of Roosevelt, a former member of Roosevelt's famed "tennis cabinet" which also included French Ambassador to the United States Jean-Jules ("J.J.") Jusserand. A good friend of France, Bacon was fluent in the language and much-beloved by Parisians for his assistance during the 1910 flood of the Seine. The Bacons obliged the Herricks in April 1912, postponed their return, and gave up their scheduled transatlantic crossing—aboard the *Titanic*.

During his years in France, Herrick charmed the French and learned the language. He forged strong personal friendships, including one with President Raymond Poincaré. Such relations served the Ambassador well. When Herrick learned on June 2, 1914, that he would be relieved by his successor, William Graves Sharp, later that summer, he prepared his return to the United States with a mixed heart—happy to return home, sad to leave his dear new friends.

The Herricks' return to the United States was much delayed. When President Woodrow Wilson took office in 1913, Herrick followed the usual custom of submitting his letter of resignation. However, there were difficulties in locating someone to take the position. One of the names put forward to succeed Herrick was George T. Marye, a California banker and lawyer. The Government of France, however, objected based on Marye's advocacy of California wine interests against those of the French in a congressional tariff bill debate. Instead, Marye was appointed to serve as U.S. Ambassador to Russia in June 1914. Wilson thus asked Herrick to remain at post until a suitable candidate could be nominated, confirmed, and dispatched to Paris.

Wilson eventually appointed Sharp to fill the post of U.S. Ambassador to France on June 19, 1914. A lawyer and three-term Congressman from Ohio, Sharp was deeply interested in the sciences and was known as the "astronomer of Congress." After his nomination,

Sharp did not immediately sail for France as his wife was too ill to travel. Nevertheless, Herrick began his farewell rounds in Paris while Carolyn oversaw the packing of their belongings for overseas shipment.

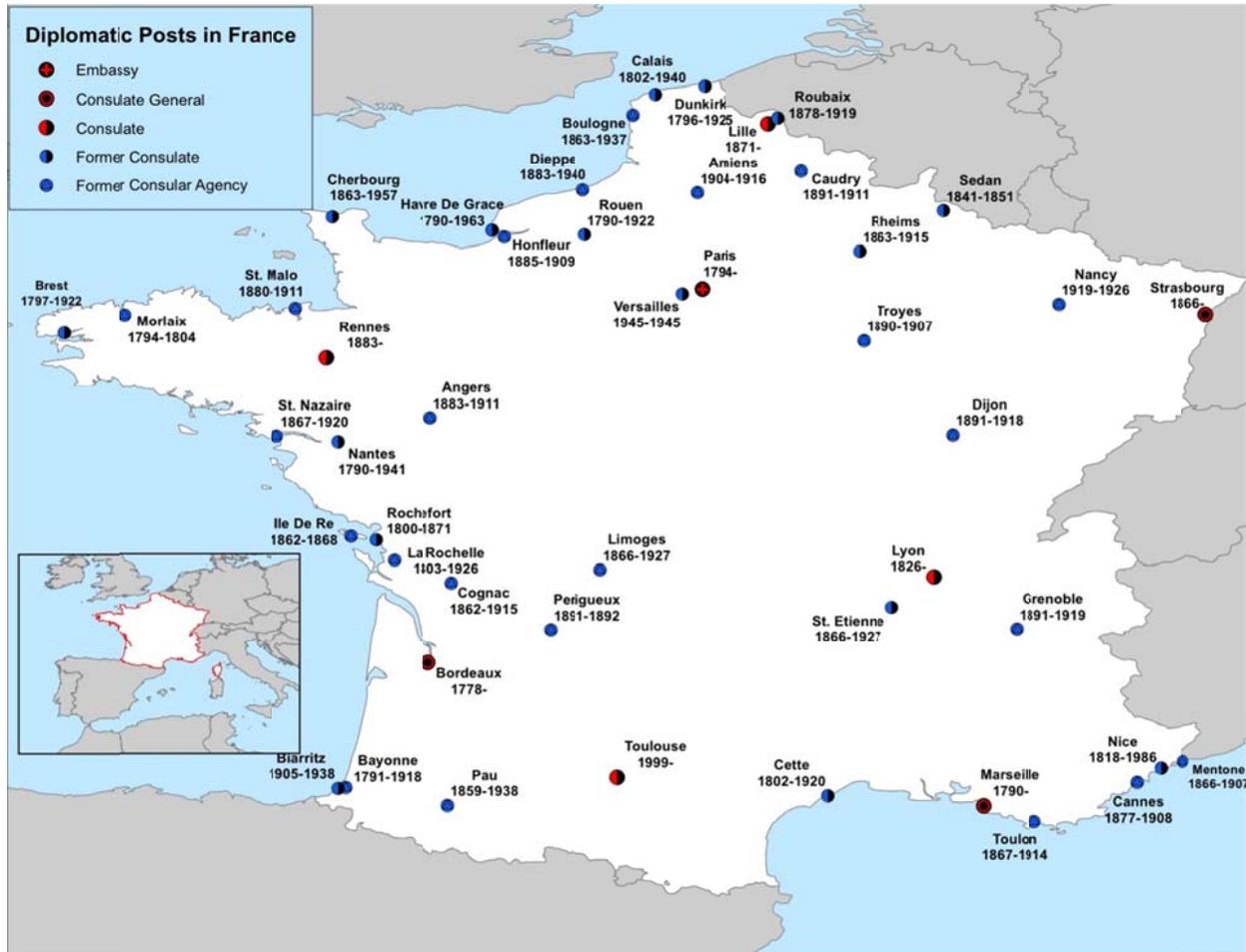
There were three diplomats who helped Herrick tend to Embassy business during the summer of 1914. Embassy First Secretary and Counselor Robert Woods Bliss was a career diplomat who arrived in Paris in February 1912 after serving as Secretary at the U.S. Legation in Buenos Aires. Married to his stepsister Mildred Barnes, heiress of the Castoria patent medicine fortune, Bliss relished his work at the Embassy. He was aided by Second Secretary Arthur Hugh Frazier, whose studies at the Royal College of Viticulture in Geisenheim, Germany, and former career as a vineyard owner in California were assets in France. Third Secretary Louis A. Sussdorff Jr., who arrived in Paris for his first diplomatic assignment earlier that spring, rounded out the Diplomatic Service members at the Embassy in 1914. Their work was augmented by Military Attaché Maj. Spencer Cosby, an engineer well-known for his work designing the White House's Oval Office and overseeing the planting of Washington D.C.'s cherry trees, who filed reports on military matters.

Ann Singleton, an Embassy clerk, was a rare professional woman in the Diplomatic Service at the time. Appointed to U.S. Embassy France on September 1, 1912, Singleton wished to travel the world and worked as a clerk and secretary to save money for her dreams. In the summer of 1914, Singleton prepared to depart Paris and embark upon an around-the-world trip. Her fellow clerk, Augustus Biesel, was a naturalized U.S. citizen originally from Saarbrücken, Germany, who had served the Embassy since his June 4, 1872, appointment as a messenger.

The work of U.S. diplomats in Paris was enhanced by the work of their Consular Service colleagues posted in major French ports and commercial cities. Through the 1910s, U.S. consuls were selected for political reasons and, as Paris Vice Consul in 1914 DeWitt Clinton Poole Jr. noted, “there were a very good number of bums who were sent abroad by families who wanted them to drink themselves to death somewhere away from the home town.”⁶ This began to change around 1906 when the “undesirable element” was “shaved off.”⁷ Many U.S. consuls in France during the 1914–1918 period proved their mettle and the benefits of a merit-based system.

The U.S. Consulate in Paris in 1914 fell under the leadership of recently appointed Consul General Alexander M. Thackara, who worked closely with the American Chamber of Commerce in Paris to strengthen French and U.S. business interests. His wife Ellie Sherman Thackara, daughter of U.S. Civil War General William T. Sherman, built a vibrant social life that included French and U.S. friends. Poole, the new Vice Consul and close friend of the Thackaras, arrived in Paris that June. Business continued as usual for U.S. Consul at St. Étienne William H. Hunt, the only African-American consular official serving in France that summer. U.S. Consul at Reims William Bardel

was occupied by the Champagne industry and concern over the increased price of Champagne, a result of a much smaller crop the previous year.⁸ In addition to these, there were several other U.S. Consulates within the mainland *métropole* as well as throughout the French Empire.⁹ For this study, the posts at Paris, Reims, and St. Étienne were selected as the focus of research, reflecting their importance in trade (Paris and St. Étienne) or history of the war (Reims).



U.S. Diplomatic and Consular Presence in Metropolitan France Over Time

Paris on the Precipice

On June 28, Herrick, Poincaré, much of the diplomatic community, and Parisian society attended the races at Longchamp. Herrick noted that Austro-Hungarian Ambassador to France Count Nicholas Szecsen, a “tall, handsome man” who Herrick thought “in appearance precisely my ideal of a real Ambassador,” was in attendance. In the middle of the day’s entertainment, word reached Ambassador Szecsen of Austrian Archduke Franz Ferdinand’s assassination by Black Hand militant Gavrillo Princep in Sarajevo.¹⁰ Yet, few thought such political intrigues of special significance. That evening Poole was at the Café de Paris when the evening newspapers spread word of the assassination. “It

was accepted by almost everybody as simply another Balkan assassination,” he recalled.¹¹

Life continued. Philippe Thys won the twelfth competition of the Tour de France and the social season in Paris wound down as everyone prepared for or embarked upon vacation. Thousands of wealthy and middle class U.S. citizens fanned out to the far corners of France and Europe for sightseeing and repose. Wilson’s sister, Annie Wilson Howe, vacationed in France. Further afield, Mildred Barnes Bliss went to Switzerland to unwind. U.S. Minister to the Argentine John Work Garrett was on home leave in the United States while his wife Alice and their children summered in St. Moritz, Switzerland (the Garretts were good friends of the Blisses). Poole set out for his father’s house in Madison, Wisconsin, while U.S. Ambassador to Italy Thomas Nelson Page began his voyage to the United States via Paris. Ambassador Jusserand and his wife Elise (a French-born U.S. citizen), already on home leave, were frequent companions of the Herricks that month in Paris as the U.S. Ambassador, his wife, and their dog Billy awaited their homeward journey on August 8.¹² The relaxing summer plans of U.S. and French officials were quickly laid aside after the July 28, 1914, Austro-Hungarian declaration of war on Serbia and the subsequent diplomatic crises.

From Peace to War

Few foresaw how quickly war would arrive. On the afternoon of July 28, Herrick hosted a reception for a group of U.S. businessmen and local Parisian officials at his residence. The event was bittersweet, serving as one of Herrick’s last official duties prior to presenting his recall letter and sailing home. The fête came to an abrupt halt later that evening with the arrival of Bliss, fresh from the Quai d’Orsay, who imparted news of the Austro-Hungarian declaration of war on Serbia. Eric Fisher Wood, a 25-year old U.S. student at the École des Beaux Arts, noted that in Paris, “the atmosphere of the city became so surcharged with excitement that to persist in study was difficult.”¹³

Events unfolded rapidly thereafter. Herrick reevaluated his departure plans since Sharp was still in the United States. On July 31, Herrick cabled the Department of State that “on account of unusual pressure of business at the Embassy I have arranged postponement of presentation of letter of recall until just before sailing.”¹⁴ Secretary of State William Jennings Bryan agreed. In an August 1 cable, Bryan instructed Herrick “in view of the critical situation in Europe you will please remain until Ambassador Sharp arrives.”¹⁵

Orders for general French mobilization were issued on Saturday, August 1. Elizabeth Dryden, who lived in Paris for nearly a decade prior to the war’s outbreak, wrote that the morning after mobilization orders were announced, the entire city of Paris was charged with activity. “People were hurrying,” she noted in her diary, “so I thought I must be in New York.”¹⁶

As it became clear that war would not be averted this time, the Embassy rapidly became a beehive of activity. People began to prepare for the worst.¹⁷ France entered into a state of war with Germany at 6:45pm on August 3, 1914. That evening the German Ambassador to France, Baron Wilhelm von Schoen, departed the country. Herrick informed the Quai d'Orsay that the United States was now responsible for German interests in France.¹⁸ The war spread as the United Kingdom entered the fray on August 4. That same day, Wood went to the Embassy at 5, rue de Chaillot and volunteered his assistance. "I was put to work with such suddenness," he wrote, "that no time was spent in determining my official status. I cannot say whether I am the doorman or an Attaché. At present the duties of the two seem to be identical."¹⁹

Embassy Amid Crisis: August 1914

Thousands of U.S. citizens in Europe were stranded as the Continent passed from peace to belligerency within a week. The crisis was compounded for those in France by their inability to withdraw funds from banks. The wealthy were just as helpless as their middle-class compatriots. School teachers who saved their earnings to take a Cook's travel tour were stuck. So, too, was Wilson's sister, Annie Wilson Howe. As France was the port of call for travelers stuck in Germany and Switzerland, thousands of U.S. citizens descended upon the Embassy in Paris in those early days.

It was not just U.S. citizens whose vacations were interrupted and found themselves with a dearth of transportation options. Diplomats of various nationalities scrambled to return to their posts. The Department of State immediately cabled the Embassy in Paris and instructed Ambassador Page, still in transit and in Paris, to cancel his leave and return to Rome. The Jusserands, anxious to return to Washington, departed Paris by car in order to sail for the United States on August 3. The couple stored some of their luggage with the U.S. Embassy for safekeeping. On August 22, nearly three weeks later, the Jusserands arrived on U.S. soil after an arduous voyage via Le Havre and London that included traveling under false names.²⁰ Jusserand's August 30 report to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs detailed a voyage likely more normal than extraordinary in those early days of chaos. On the other side of the Atlantic Ocean, Poole arrived at his father's home just hours before he was summoned to Washington and dispatched to Paris on the U.S.S. *North Carolina* alongside other U.S. diplomats bound for Europe.²¹

Money Matters

Between July 28 and mid-August, inability to access funds presented a major problem for foreigners as French banks refused to cash traveler's checks so as to retain currency and gold reserves. Such measures were not unprecedented. In previous international crises, French banks preserved their gold holdings. Thousands of tourists and expatriate residents in France were thus rendered temporarily penniless. The fiscal crisis hit all

strata, including the diplomatic corps. Herrick lent the German Ambassador to France nearly 25,000 francs to help tide over German citizens affected by the financial crisis.²² By July 31, cafés in Paris refused to change 50- and 100-franc notes.²³ *The Times* of London reported that “English and American millionaires were wandering round Paris with their pocket-books full of bank notes, unable to purchase a meal at any restaurant.”²⁴ To alleviate the suffering of U.S. citizens, the Herricks opened their home and fed those who had nothing, funded in those early days from their own fortune.

Word of the fiscal strain reached the United States. Poole was instructed to bring as much gold with him as possible upon his return to Paris. At the Riggs National Bank in Washington, D.C., he purchased all the gold that his small savings allowed, roughly a few hundred dollars. He also purchased a chamois belt to hold this treasure. Poole recalled that, “this was August fourth or fifth in Washington and it was a very hot day. I remember this gold principally because by the end of the day I was saddled and would gladly have thrown the gold away.”²⁵

In the meantime, back in Paris, Herrick convened a committee of U.S. businessmen at his residence on August 2. He appointed Judge E.H. Gary as Chairman and banker Hermann Harjes, head of Morgan, Harjes & Co., as Secretary. Other members of this initial committee included Laurence Benet, Frederick R. Coudert, James Deering, Chauncey M. Depew, future Secretary of State Frank B. Kellogg, and Vice President of the American Chamber of Commerce in Paris Percy Peixetto.

Herrick charged the group with devising a way for U.S. citizens to access funds. Their plan hinged upon the fact that the French government needed a way to pay for war-related goods purchased in the United States. Thus, facilitated by Harjes, an account was created at Morgan, Harjes & Co. in Paris through which U.S. citizens could withdraw French francs while a reciprocal account was established at J.P. Morgan & Co. in New York so that the Government of France could pay for its U.S.-based purchases.²⁶ The program enabled funds to flow to U.S. citizens in France by mid-August. While the details were hashed out, the committee established a fund for U.S. citizens in need in France. In order to receive this money, distributed by Maj. Cosby, each recipient pledged to take the first available transport back to the United States.

Currency and liquidity problems also plagued Embassy staff and volunteers. Wood wrote that when war broke out, he only had 300 francs of his personal funds available. Help arrived on August 14, when he received six \$10 gold pieces from his family back home. “When the first one arrived I had spent virtually all the money which I had on hand at the beginning of the war,” he wrote. “This good American gold will tide me over until drafts can be sent through to Paris.” Sixty dollars was a small amount that normally would not last long in New York. In wartime France, however, Wood noted, “300 francs in gold looks a small fortune. At least, it insures plenty of good food.”²⁷

The committee of U.S. businessmen organized transportation home for U.S. citizens and planned ways to protect U.S. property and citizens. These volunteers of the first hour greatly aided the small Embassy staff, which seemed to do a million things at once. In order to comply with new French regulations, the Embassy issued emergency passports and certificates of nationality. Previously, the only European countries that U.S. citizens required a passport to visit were Russia and the Ottoman Empire. That August, the Embassy went into overdrive and produced 4,500 new passports in a week.²⁸ At one point, Herrick joked that the Embassy functioned as a bank, relief society, and railway exchange rolled into one.²⁹

Germans and Austro-Hungarians

It was not just U.S. citizens that the Embassy contended with as tensions quickly escalated. Responsibility to care for German subjects fell to the U.S. Embassy, as previously agreed upon between Washington and Berlin (with the acquiescence of Paris) in the event of a Franco-German war. Stranded Germans, many on vacation in France, were in a delicate situation. Events, Wood wrote, “caught them like rats in a trap and exposed them to the doubtful fate of being lost in an enemy’s country during war time.”³⁰ Many feared for their safety, concerns reaffirmed by the early looting of German- and Austro-Hungarian-owned stores in Paris. In the city’s “German” section along rue d’Hauteville near the rue Lafayette, most shops were quickly shuttered.

Germans flocked to the U.S. Embassy by the hundreds for assistance and protection. Wood described the chaos on the building’s ground floor, which was converted into an “impromptu German Embassy,” and noted “German women sank down in corners of the halls or on the stairs, weeping for joy to have found a haven of refuge.”³¹ He found that “each day is now a haze of Germans and their troubles.”³² The Germans required food, lodging, protection, and papers from the French police. Embassy officials gave each German a few francs with which to purchase food, and Herrick organized temporary lodging at the Lycée Condorcet in rue du Havre. The school was “a great barn of a place” and was guarded by a police squad.³³ After Austria-Hungary went to war with France on August 10, Embassy employees and volunteers added Austro-Hungarian subjects to their roster of charges. German and Austro-Hungarian civilians were removed and interned in one of 12 detention camps by August 21.³⁴

Staffing U.S. Embassy Paris

The exponentially increased duties and responsibilities of the Embassy strained the small staff. The ground floor of the chancellery was converted from the military attaché offices to those charged with caretaking German and Austro-Hungarian interests as well as the “Fund Distributing Committee.” The first floor housed all operations related to assisting U.S. citizens.

The Embassy relied significantly on volunteers, diplomats' family members, and other U.S. expatriates living (or stranded) in Paris. To alleviate the staffing burden, on August 6 the Department of State assigned John Work Garrett as Special Agent to the American Ambassador at Paris. Several retired diplomats also volunteered to aid their colleagues in Paris, but that measure soon proved insufficient. On August 13, Herrick cabled the Department of State and requested clerks fluent in English and French to help alleviate the workload.

Despite the additional assistance supplied by volunteers like Wood and sculptor Herbert Hazeltine,³⁵ the Embassy struggled to keep up. Staff, volunteers, and Herrick reported for work at 5, rue de Chaillot before 9 a.m. each day, including Sundays, and did not leave until after midnight. According to Wood, "meals are hurriedly swallowed at odd moments and at irregular hours."³⁶

The work was stressful and fatiguing. Some fell ill, including Herrick, Carolyn, and both Blisses. "We do look a little forelorn [sic] at the Embassy," Carolyn wrote.³⁷ Others were unable to cope with the stress. On August 22 Herrick notified the Department of State that one of the Embassy clerks was granted a leave of absence because the gentleman was believed to have become temporarily unhinged. Nobody imagined that things would get worse.

Life in Paris, August

With France fully engaged in the war, life in and around Paris quickly changed. Much of the city's bustling life abruptly halted as men mobilized and shipped off to the frontlines. In their place, wives, daughters, sisters, and mothers filled the labor gap. Many shops closed, though those selling food and other daily provisions remained open. Several of Paris' big hotels, devoid of guests and much of their staff, transformed themselves into hospitals.

The Tour Eiffel, at the time one of the highest wireless masts in the world, was overnight turned from a wonder into a vital, strongly defended communications hub.³⁸ As the structure exchanged messages with Washington and St. Petersburg, many feared it might be subject to attack. It was guarded against sabotage on the ground and encircled by a ring of heavy barbed wire, while a system of anti-aircraft guns defended the towering structure from German airplanes and zeppelins.³⁹

Another protective measure undertaken by French officials was imposition of an 8pm curfew and blackout. Wood wrote on August 4, that "all night the beams of searchlights comb the sky for invaders and cast a tragic reflected glow upon the city beneath."⁴⁰ Later that month he relayed,

It is an uncanny experience to walk through a great city which is absolutely dark. The Champs-Elysées is probably at present the darkest avenue on

earth. All those monumental lamp-posts which used to stand like beacons in the midst of the stream of traffic now shine no more. The sun seldom rises without revealing the ruins of one of these lamps and of an automobile, the two having mutually destroyed each other in the darkness.⁴¹

People adjusted to the new rhythm of life. The racetrack at Auteuil was converted into a cow pasture, and sheep en route to the eastern-bound train stations were a common sight. While fruits and vegetables were in decent supply, government officials put restrictions on certain commodities. By August 8, the government regulated the milk industry and by August 12 controlled grains and flours. U.S. journalist William J. Guard bemoaned,

No more fancy bread! The police stopped that. No more of those delicious croissants and crisp rolls that we enjoy so much with our early morning coffee. The making of them means waste of flour, butter, and milk. The only bread to be had is just common ordinary bread.⁴²

There were other impositions upon daily life. The August 12, 1914, edition of *The Day Book* (Chicago, Ill.), reported that Herrick, while talking on the telephone in Paris, was cut off for speaking in English. “War regulations are that all telephone conversations must be in French,” the paper noted.⁴³ The French-language restrictions were imposed upon the diplomatic community for several years. First Secretary and Embassy Counselor Robert Woods Bliss was not given official permission to speak on the telephone in English until 1916.⁴⁴

Another of the war’s immediate impacts was on transportation—or the lack of it. The Métro closed at 7:30pm to comply with the 8pm curfew. Taxis, much in demand, became scarce and prohibitively expensive while private automobiles were requisitioned by the French military. Those working at the Embassy thus grew creative in how they traveled around the city.

Herrick asked U.S. automobile owners in Paris to donate their cars for official Embassy service. Instead of being enfolded into the French military, these vehicles were pressed into diplomatic duty and enabled U.S. diplomats and volunteers to be an effective force from the first days of crisis, an accomplishment of which Herrick was very proud.

Other solutions were also employed. Wood hired a fiacre to get around the city. His driver, Paul, and an old horse, Grisette, supplied Wood with a one-horsepower transportation option. Wood wrote that Paul,

Considers it a great honor to drive for a member of an Embassy and always sits up very straight on his box, for to come and go on missions concerning “les affaires des États-Unis” has imbued him with a great sense of dignity and importance. When waiting in front of the Embassy among the

limousines he maintains a rigid and dignified position and insists that Grisette, for her part, shall hold up her head and stand on all four feet. Each noon Paul drives [Herbert] Hazeltine and myself down the nearly deserted Champs-Élysées for lunch at the Café Royal. We must make an absurd spectacle with so much dignity on the box and a total lack of it behind, for Hazeltine and I, relaxing from the strenuous work of the morning, lounge in the seat with our feet far out in front, as we discuss with great vehemence affairs connected with our Embassy work.⁴⁵

Retention of Herrick

The rapid escalation of events created an unusual situation of U.S. diplomatic representation in France, one in which the outgoing Ambassador was retained at the same time that the incoming Ambassador arrived. On August 25, Bryan notified Herrick that Sharp would sail for France the following day. Bryan confided that Wilson wished for Herrick to remain in charge in Paris for the time being, given the extraordinary circumstances, and that Sharp not assume charge until the strain of the German threat to Paris passed.⁴⁶ Herrick acquiesced but received permission to make public the Department's instructions to minimize any misunderstandings of his role—or that of Sharp—in France.⁴⁷

The French were equally as interested in whether Herrick would remain at the helm of U.S. operations in France. On August 25, Jusserand cabled Foreign Minister Théophile Delcassé that “M. Robert Bacon, former Ambassador at Paris, without knowing in what way he can aid us but passionately desiring to be there, will embark tomorrow on *La France*. It is possible but not certain that M. Sharp, the new American ambassador, takes the same ship.”⁴⁸ The *La France* set sail on August 26. Since Sharp's wife remained too sick to travel, his eldest son George made the trip to keep his father company (and would be smitten enough by Paris to spend most of the war years there). Aboard the ship, Bacon wrote to his wife, “I seem to be conscious of a sort of feverish desire to do something for somebody, with not enough aggressiveness or ability to make it worthwhile.”⁴⁹ He was indeed anxious to aid France.

For the French, the return of Bacon, a much-beloved former Ambassador, was a boost to morale. Moreover, the symbolism of three U.S. Ambassadors on the ground was perceived within French circles as an indication of the United States' high regard for its sister republic. The triumvirate of U.S. Ambassadors bolstered French mettle in the dark days of September.

September 1914: Everyone's Embassy

The Germans neared Paris by early September and the sense of crisis grew. Wood wrote that by September 1, “panic conditions of the most pronounced order exist today,” as

many sought to escape Paris ahead of a possible German invasion.⁵⁰ There was a run on the banks, the railway stations and streets overflowed as people tried to flee, and it was impossible to hail a taxicab.⁵¹ Much of the Parisian working class remained in the city, but as they worked during the day, the city seemed deserted. *The Times* of London reported that “the boulevards in the middle of the morning came to be more like the streets of a country town than those of the capital of France.”⁵² Yet, some areas remained hotbeds of activity.

Herrick visited Poincaré at the Elysée Palace on September 2, as the Government of France prepared to remove its seat to Bordeaux. Poincaré recalled that Herrick “arrived strongly moved, the face decomposed under his jolly crown of curly hair.”⁵³ Herrick informed the French President of his intent to remain in Paris—pending, of course, the government’s approval. Herrick, Poincaré noted, resolved to do anything he could to guard Parisians from the possible pillages and problems in the event the Germans captured the city. “He had tears in his eyes when he spoke to me,” Poincaré wrote.⁵⁴

At 10:50pm that evening, the diplomatic corps departed for Bordeaux. The Herricks went to the Gare d’Orsay to see the 11-carriage-long diplomatic train off.⁵⁵ Herrick wrote to his son Parmley that many of his diplomat colleagues “seemed cheerful at the thought of leaving Paris; others were crestfallen, as though they were running away from something—as though they were going to ‘miss’ something.”⁵⁶ The train did not reach Bordeaux until after lunchtime on September 3. The trip, normally a 10-11 hour jaunt, was a slow slog, according to British Ambassador to France Sir Francis Bertie, who was on the train in one of the three first-class compartments reserved for the British Diplomatic Service. Bertie wrote Herrick that though the trip had “many long stops,” it was “not uncomfortable.”⁵⁷ One man’s assessment of “not uncomfortable” was another man’s terror. Long after the diplomatic train arrived in Bordeaux, *The Times* reported, “terrible stories were told of Excellencies sitting five a-side, and fighting with third secretaries at wayside refreshment rooms for a scrap of something to eat.”⁵⁸ Herrick dispatched Garrett to Bordeaux to represent U.S., German, and Austro-Hungarian interests to the Government of France. Garrett took Sussdorff and Captain F. H. Pope, one of the Embassy’s military attachés, with him. It is unclear whether the U.S. diplomatic party traveled to Bordeaux on this train or whether they motored down from Paris in Embassy cars.

The United States was now caretaking interests for eight nations in Paris (the United States, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Great Britain, Japan, Serbia, Guatemala, and Nicaragua). Parisians warmly embraced the U.S. diplomatic corps for its decision to remain behind when most other diplomats fled to Bordeaux. Herrick maintained an aura of calm that blanketed the capital’s population. Wood wrote that Herrick’s picture “is in all the newspapers and shop windows, and even the most humble member of the Embassy shines by reflected glory.”⁵⁹ The Government of France was also a huge supporter of Herrick. In a September 2 telegram, Delcassé asked Jusserand,

In your opinion, in these conditions is it possible to have President Wilson understand that the Government of France would like to see Mr. Herrick maintained in his functions in Paris until the end of the conflict that France and her allies fight with the German powers?⁶⁰

On September 3, martial law was declared in Paris, the city in a state of siege. Curfews were imposed. There was no exit or entry of the city gates between the hours of 8pm and 5am without military passes. Cars were only allowed to exit the city with special permits, although they were freely able to enter the city. Those who brought fresh fruits and vegetables into the city were some of the only people allowed regular and frequent access into the city throughout the evening hours.⁶¹ Those who brought U.S. Ambassadors into the city were also allowed to pass.

The Three Amigos? Discord and Amité

The transfer of the government to Bordeaux coincided with the September 3 arrival of the Sharps and Bacon in the quickly emptying capital. Bacon, never idle, spent his time at sea reading about pan-Germanism and the Balkans to better understand the events and region that launched Europe into total war within a matter of days.⁶² The *La France* docked at Le Havre in the early morning hours of September 2, where U.S. Consul John Ball Osborne met the two Ambassadors. In midafternoon, Bacon and the Sharps set out for Paris via automobile, accompanied by Louis Jaray, Secretary of the Comité France-Amérique. The trip was a long and dusty one that passed via Rouen, Pacy-sur-Eure (where they stopped for dinner around 10pm), and Versailles.⁶³ Sharp wrote that the walls of the Palace of Versailles that night had, “the impressive, almost unearthly appearance ... as we passed it in the lengthening shadows of the waning moonlight.”⁶⁴

Around 4am on September 3, the party pulled in front of the Hôtel de Crillon on the Place de la Concorde. George Sharp wrote his mother that upon arrival “my hair was matted with dirt and both of us were covered from head to foot” in dust from the roads.⁶⁵ The Sharps took a suite of rooms that overlooked the Place de la Concorde—their residence for the next several months—while Bacon checked into the apartment he kept at the hotel.

Sharp did not immediately assume his role as Ambassador, an arrangement agreed upon prior to Sharp’s departure by Bryan, Wilson, and Sharp himself. Herrick continued to serve in an official capacity, freeing Sharp to immerse himself in his new environment as a private U.S. citizen. Sharp visited the battlefields to better acquaint himself with the war’s realities and learned about the people of France. He also searched for a new Ambassador’s residence, as the lease on the mansion occupied by Herrick was costly and not to be renewed. Ellie Thackara, wife of Consul Thackara, helped Sharp

secure a house at 14, avenue d'Eylau, which served as the Sharp family residence from Spring 1915 until April 1919.

The presence of the three U.S. Ambassadors was immediately reported in the press. Reporter Charles Inman Barnard noted, "The Paris newspapers seem highly pleased at this 'strong diplomatic manifestation'...constituting a delegation from the United States to see that the rights of universal humanity are respected."⁶⁶ Yet, the unusual situation bred tensions. On September 5, Bryan cabled Herrick,

President fears from a private telegram received there may be misunderstanding in regard to Sharp's position there. He will be engaged in personal matters such as renting and furnishing house, et cetera, until time arrives to transfer Embassy. If he assists you it will be in the capacity of a private citizen and not officially. The President will desire to consult both of you in regard to the proper time to transfer Embassy.⁶⁷

Herrick later confided to his personal secretary Col. Bentley Mott that "I was much relieved by these instructions," for he felt that such arrangements "never work satisfactorily, whether in business, war, or diplomacy. Under the conditions then confronting me...I knew that any divided responsibility would be fatal."⁶⁸

From the earliest days, Herrick clearly stated his willingness to step aside and hand the reins of the Embassy over to Sharp as soon as the new Ambassador arrived and settled in enough to do so in the midst of crisis. Sharp himself knew,

I was not to assume immediate charge of the mission, as the exigencies of the unusual situation seemed to dictate a deviation from the custom of the outgoing representative leaving either before or upon the arrival of his successor.⁶⁹

Despite such public and professional sentiments, there was little love lost between Herrick and Sharp. Perhaps the seed was sown in those early September days when an incident surrounding publication of Sharp's interview with the *New York Herald* bred suspicion between the two gentlemen.⁷⁰ The fact that Sharp corresponded with Wilson and others via letters posted privately by his son, George, to avoid Embassy or Department officials reading their contents perhaps did not aid matters. Nor did the fact that as early as mid-September Sharp lobbied Herrick to take control of Embassy operations on October 1.⁷¹ Sharp maintained that the period he was in Paris waiting for Herrick to depart "became one of increased embarrassment to me."⁷²

While Sharp suffered from perceived embarrassment over his circumstances, Herrick was personally embarrassed for what he considered his successor's lack of qualifications. In a draft of a September 15 letter to his friend James Parmelee, Herrick noted,

Mr. Sharp has arrived and of him I will say very little... he seems to me to be unaware of the responsibilities and utterly lacking in qualifications of the post: one which requires some sort of tact in ordinary times, but in such a time as this, if one were not well acquainted with the condition of things it would be seriously handicapped.⁷³

Relations between Herrick and Bacon were much warmer. The Herricks often had Bacon to lunch or dinner. "Mr. Bacon is such a help," Carolyn wrote her son and daughter-in-law. "We have asked him to come here and stay with us but he is afraid he will make us trouble."⁷⁴ Myron Herrick considered "Bob" to be "a fine fellow, and deeply impressed over all the things he sees and hears."⁷⁵ Bacon likewise had high regard for Herrick. "The French people and government are all crazy about him," Bacon wrote.⁷⁶

Assistant Secretary of the War Department Henry Breckinridge was also a Herrick enthusiast. Sent to Europe to assess the war situation on August 6, Breckinridge arrived in Paris close on the heels of the Sharps and Bacon, and also checked into the Crillon. Immediately Breckinridge picked up on the "very anomalous situation" between Herrick and Sharp.⁷⁷ Yet, he found that Bacon's presence was more than welcome. "In those critical days," he wrote, Bacon,

Was a real, though unofficial, Ambassador of the spirit of America to the French nation. He was everywhere. One day he was consulting with allied officials in Paris. The next day he was racing to various points of the front, following the operations and encouraging his many friends in the French and British armies. His very presence radiated encouragement and spoke to the French and English the moral support of America which had not as yet been translated into official expression.⁷⁸

Such encouragement as derived from Bacon arrived just in time, for the Germans were at the gates of Paris. Since late August, German proximity to the capital was announced via airplanes that dropped bombs on the city. Poole noted that the first such attacks were met with general panic, death, and excitement, but quickly bred opportunism. "On the second day," Wood wrote of the bombings, "there were even enterprising vendors in the Place de la Concorde who would rent you opera glasses with which to look at the Boches more closely."⁷⁹ The German planes—Taubes—flew and dropped their bombs over Paris regularly at sunset in those first weeks. Wood recalled the throngs of people who gathered outside to watch the regular displays. The planes "looked very like a bug crawling across the sky. With our glasses we could see the German aviator looking down at us, and could distinguish on the underside of each wing the black Maltese cross which all German aeroplanes carry as 'uniform.'"⁸⁰ While "the French already take their daily Taube as much as a matter of course as their daily café," he observed that the frequent bombings had an immense psychological effect upon the population.⁸¹ The battle to save Paris had an equally strong impact on Parisians.

Battle of the Marne

In early September the German Army threatened Paris. In an extraordinary move, military governor of Paris General Joseph Gallieni (a personal friend of U.S. Consul William H. Hunt) orchestrated one of the most famous maneuvers of the war—the taxicab brigades. General Gallieni enlisted Parisian taxicabs and busses to ferry troops to the battlefront lines just outside of the city, which left Paris “denuded of transportation.”⁸² The evening of the first taxicab brigades, the noise awoke Sharp, who rose and watched the odd procession from his hotel window. He did not learn until much later that the progression of automobiles, carriages, and other miscellaneous types of vehicles ferried troops to the front.⁸³

It was par for the course that U.S. diplomats—and Parisians in general—had little information as the Germans threatened Paris, since French authorities and the press limited news that might have agitated the population into a panic. In order to glean first-hand news, several members of the Embassy staff, such as Wood, toured the frontlines of the battle. “I was not so horrified in viewing these ghastly sights as I had expected,” he wrote, “because I could not pull from me a sense of their unreality.”⁸⁴ On September 13, Second Secretary Frazier was dispatched to the frontlines at Meaux to report on conditions. Frazier “reported that French troops showed respect to German dead by covering their faces with straw while awaiting burying squad.”⁸⁵

Once it was clear that the German offensive was stalled and Paris beyond immediate danger, U.S. diplomats and consular officials refocused their efforts on taking care of German and Austro-Hungarian prisoners-of-war and interned civilians. Herrick visited the internment camp for German and Austro-Hungarian subjects in Flers, but the bulk of this responsibility fell to Garrett as many of the camps were within the Bordeaux vicinity. In September, Garrett visited the three sites closest to him. The camp at Blaye contained roughly 1,200 prisoners of war, nearly half of whom were wounded.⁸⁶ Garrett noted that, “my impression of the care given them, the medical treatment, food, etc., was excellent.”⁸⁷ The male refugee camp at Bazas was located on a race track with temporary wooden buildings to serve the camp’s internees. Garrett reported,

The refugees said the food was good. There was a lack of blankets and the holes in the grand stand cover and in the other buildings will certainly let in a lot of cold air when the weather changes. Not half of these refugees had blankets a deficiency which I am trying to supply.⁸⁸

Their chief complaints were “that they had no money to buy extras with.” To remedy the situation, Garrett provided 3,000 francs to the Préfet of the Gironde (2,000 for Austro-Hungarians, 1,000 for Germans) that could be used by the refugees to purchase such extra comforts.⁸⁹

On September 29, Garrett, Captain Pope, and their wives visited two camps in Libourne for women and children.⁹⁰ While conditions were satisfactory and clean, a blanket shortage was again noted. Upon return from this visit, Garrett sent 1,000 blankets to the Sous-Préfet of Libourne to provide for those in need.⁹¹ Some camp conditions deteriorated as the autumn progressed. Herrick reported on visits to several camps, two of which had conditions “not altogether satisfactory.” He believed difficulties were partly unavoidable given the circumstances. “I am convinced,” he reported to Bryan, “that the French Government desires that all such establishments shall be properly arranged and maintained.”⁹²

American Ambulance Hospital

In addition to these many official duties, the U.S. expatriate community in France pulled together to provide unofficial assistance in the form of war relief societies and medical aid. First and foremost of these initiatives was the American Ambulance Hospital in Neuilly. Established on August 9, the American Ambulance Hospital was a private hospital funded and staffed by U.S. volunteers to treat wounded soldiers from both sides of the conflict. Championed by Herrick, the American Ambulance Hospital was quickly accepted by the Government of France as a military hospital, though it retained its independence.

The institution was not without precedent. In 1870, a private ambulance was established by George B. McFarland, a U.S. citizen, and his wife to convey battlefield wounded to Parisian-area hospitals during the Franco-Prussian War. At the time, U.S. Minister to France Elihu Washburne helped solicit funds and support for this ambulance, which was credited with saving hundreds of lives, French and German.

Carolyn Herrick was an equally prominent, supportive proponent of the fledgling American Ambulance Hospital in August 1914. As President of American Ambulance’s Women’s Committee, she smoothed over differences of opinion among committee members, kept the group on-track, and ensured the organization’s potency. Carolyn utilized her friendships with French and American women to raise funds and secure volunteers. Her work was facilitated by Mrs. Hermann Harjes (Treasurer), Mrs. Laurence Benet (Secretary), Ellie Sherman Thackara, Mildred Barnes Bliss, members of the American Chamber of Commerce in Paris, and others.

The American Ambulance Hospital was given the Lycée Pasteur in Neuilly, a building so new that it lacked doors and windows. Several U.S. architects from the École des Beaux Arts volunteered their time and expertise to convert the unfinished Lycée Pasteur into a first-rate modern hospital. By September 1, the American Ambulance Hospital was ready for service, and received its first patients within a few days. On September 14, Carolyn informed her son and daughter-in-law that, “the Ambulance has many wounded and doing such work.” However, she stressed, “we shall need more money if we have

more beds.”⁹³ Her husband, Ambassador Herrick, quickly recognized the hospital’s utility. He speculated—perhaps correctly—that the American Ambulance Hospital did more than anyone could fathom to strengthen Franco-American relations.

Another key volunteer from the U.S. expatriate community in Paris was Anne Harriman Vanderbilt. The daughter of Edward Harriman and the wife of W.K. Vanderbilt, Anne immersed herself in war relief work. She took direct management of the nascent nursing corps in Paris, and used her personal fortune to purchase the first 10 automobiles for the American Ambulance Hospital. Later, she purchased the first Nieuport planes for the Escadrille Lafayette.

Diplomats Under Fire

On Sunday, September 27, the Germans nearly killed Herrick. That afternoon, Herrick and Frazier hopped into an Embassy car outside 5, rue de Chaillot, to inspect the German Embassy buildings in the rue de Lille. They passed Wood at the Pont d’Alma and a minute later, a German bomb fell on the Avenue du Trocadéro around the corner from the Embassy. It killed an old man and severely maimed a little girl, who lost her leg, but just missed the Ambassador. The following day, Wood overheard a Frenchman at the Café Royal tell his lunch companion that despite the man’s great regard for Herrick, “it would nevertheless have been an excellent service against the enemy had he [Herrick] tactfully allowed himself to be annihilated by the German bomb.” Upon learning of this remark, Herrick “was much amused.”⁹⁴

While he took the incident in stride, not all diplomats could handle the stress of war and being under fire with as much grace or aplomb. Reims was in a state of siege by early August, and things quickly grew worse as the German Army bombarded the city in September. U.S. Consul at Reims William Bardel, a naturalized U.S. citizen originally from Germany, was known among the Champagne producers of Epernay as capable and efficient. Yet, even the staunchest of officials broke under the stress. The strain of constantly being under fire grew onerous.

In his October 10 dispatch, Bardel informed the Department that, “since my last dispatch (no. 151) of September 4, 1914, I have had to undergo the most terrible experience of all my life.” He described the city’s destruction and scarcity of food. The Bardel family—and likely, much of the Reims population—went without milk, butter, eggs, and even for a time, bread.⁹⁵ The electricity and gas lines were cut, and kerosene lamps and candles were the main sources of light.⁹⁶

The Bardels regularly sought safety in a wine cellar down the street from their house, which lay in a heavily-damaged area.⁹⁷ “Finally,” the Consul noted, “we all became so exhausted from the hardships we had to undergo, and from the horrors we experienced on our runs for safety, that we could stand it in the cellars no longer.” Despite his strong

sense of duty, Bardel took his family to Troyes as his wife and daughter showed signs of severe anxiety and trauma from the stress.⁹⁸

Bardel left Vice Consul William Stanford in temporary charge of the U.S. Consulate, and asked the Department for permission to remain at Troyes. The Department acquiesced after receiving a report from Stanford a few days later. The continued, intermittent bombardment of the city was, Stanford wrote, “even more trying than in the early days, when it was done systematically.”⁹⁹ He found it to be “a nerve-racking life.”¹⁰⁰ Yet Stanford remained in Reims until the closure of that Consulate in early 1915 to field inquiries from German, British, and French subjects about missing relatives.¹⁰¹ Bardel proceeded to Épernay on November 4, and performed his consular functions at a temporary Consulate established at 20, rue du Commerce until his reassignment to St. Michael’s (the Azores) in October 1915.

Past the Danger: October-November 1914

The immediate threat posed to Paris by the German Army passed after mid-September. The Allied armies held the Germans to a standstill and the war along the Western Front transformed into a standoff in the trenches—one that lasted until the German offensive in the spring of 1918. In the meantime, in October 1914, the Government of France settled into life in Bordeaux, as did the members of the diplomatic corps who followed them to that city.

Garrett, Sussdorff, and Captain Pope were overwhelmed with representational duties. The U.S. diplomats’ primary French contact was Under Secretary Pierre de Margerie, although Garrett dealt directly with Delcassé for important matters.¹⁰² Garrett’s office was also inundated by requests asking for help ascertaining information about missing French citizens in Germany and Austria-Hungary, in addition to prisoner of war and internment camp visits. Fortunately, help was on the way.

Garrett’s brother Robert, a Baltimore-based businessman, searched for a young man willing to go to Bordeaux and serve as John’s personal secretary. In October, Robert selected a young man working towards his master’s degree in History at Harvard who volunteered for the position and passed muster. The recruit, Nicholas Roosevelt, cousin of Theodore Roosevelt, sailed on October 21 aboard the *Mauretania* for Liverpool and London, where he dined with his fellow *Mauretania* passenger Kathryn Page and her father, U.S. Ambassador to the United Kingdom Walter Hines Page.¹⁰³ Roosevelt then proceeded to France and Bordeaux where he assumed his new position.

Much of the French press also relocated to Bordeaux at the same time as the Government of France and the diplomatic corps. Georges Clemenceau moved the office of his newspaper *L’Homme Libre* to the temporary seat of government. The formidable editor and politician known as “The Tiger” lived on the second floor of a small house in

the Cours St. Jean, and gained intelligence from U.S. diplomats as to what U.S. citizens said and thought about the war.¹⁰⁴ This was a topic that also greatly interested the Government of France. Jusserand filed regular reports from Washington as to the nature of U.S. public opinion of the war and, in particular, its outlook on French and German participation. Roosevelt often saw Clemenceau and observed that the elder man had vigor “such that it was hard to believe that he was 73-years old.” The Tiger, Roosevelt noted, “poured his own overflowing faith into his people.”¹⁰⁵

Writing Home

Despite the continuous press of work, U.S. diplomats and consuls in France found time to write home and share eyewitness accounts once the immediate danger and chaos subsided. From Bordeaux, Garrett wrote his brother Robert in November about the difficulties of remaining in contact with loved ones back home. “I am going to begin a letter to you,” he wrote, “but I have no idea whether I shall be able to finish it or not, there are so many interruptions every minute that I find it practically impossible to get time enough for anything outside of the absolutely necessary.”¹⁰⁶ The diplomat asked his brother to send magazines, noting that “we are entirely without them here and I long for them,” and also asked about the score of that year’s Princeton-Harvard football game. “I hope we won,” Garrett wrote, “if for no other reason than because all three of my secretaries are Harvard men and I don’t want them to have an opportunity to gloat over me.”¹⁰⁷

War Work

Others began to settle into the new status quo that fall. The U.S. expatriate community that remained in France expanded significantly upon initial efforts such as the American Ambulance Hospital, to establish many war relief charities and medical aid organizations to benefit the French (and belligerent wounded in France). At the forefront were the female members of the U.S. diplomatic community, whose sacrifices were at times enormous.

Carolyn Herrick led by example in her role as wife of the U.S. Ambassador. She chaired the American Ambulance’s Women’s Committee, and raised significant funds for it as well as for the American Relief Clearing House after its November 1914 establishment. She died in 1918, and her husband attributed her death to lingering effects of illness contracted during her war relief work in France in 1914. In 1919 the French government decorated Carolyn posthumously for her war relief efforts.

Mildred Barnes Bliss founded and served as Vice President of Enfants de la Frontière, a French-American child welfare organization. She toured battlefields and visited sanatoriums and refugee centers throughout France. From her personal fortune, Bliss funded private hospitals and charities. She received numerous decorations from the

French government for her war relief efforts. (See Appendix VI for a more detailed account)

Ellie Sherman Thackara founded the Servian (Serbian) Ambulance, run through her residence in the Hôtel Belmont, and in October 1914 established the Urgent Fund for Servian Wounded. Thackara was also active with the Red Cross. Her July 1915 death was attributed by many to over-exertion from her war work in Paris.

Eleanor Thackara, daughter of Ellie and Consul-General Alexander Thackara, arrived in Paris in early December 1914 to volunteer her services for war relief efforts. She took over some of her mother's work with the Servian Ambulance, and worked to raise funds for war widows, orphans, and injured as well as for hospitals and ambulance services.

There were also the many contributions of Robert Bacon, who actively immersed himself in war relief work from the moment he stepped foot on French soil in early September 1914 until the conflict's end in November 1918. Bacon's primary efforts were concentrated upon the American Ambulance Hospital, its organization, fundraising efforts, and recruitment of U.S. doctors, surgeons, and nurses for its staff. He funded other medical enterprises as well, such as a hospital train to ferry wounded soldiers. Martha Bacon, his wife, was deeply involved in raising funds for the American Ambulance from the United States and called the couple's personal networks into action on behalf of this military hospital.

Bacon also helped found the fledgling American Ambulance Field Service, the predecessor of the American Field Service (AFS). Composed predominantly of male university student volunteers from the United States, the American Ambulance Field Service drove ambulances for the American Ambulance Hospital. The young men paid their own way so as to not add further burden to already strained French resources. Bacon vouched for his young volunteers; a recommendation from Bacon quashed any French military suspicions that the ambulance drivers who entered France on U.S. passports were German spies.

New Arrivals, New Obligations...

While war relief efforts occupied the U.S. volunteer community in France, U.S. diplomats found their already significant duties augmented with the November 1914 entry of the Ottoman Empire into the war on the side of the Central Powers. The Embassy took over representational duties for the Turkish Ambassador as well as the responsibility to care for Ottoman subjects in France. Fortunately for the United States, Ottoman subjects in France were not as heavy a burden as Germans or Austro-Hungarians: the Ottomans in France were typically hostile to the Sultan's regime in Constantinople and not interned by French authorities.

To help ease the continued need for Embassy staffing, the Department of State appointed John Gardner Coolidge as Special Agent to U.S. Embassy Paris on November 24. The nephew of Isabella Stewart Gardner, Coolidge, a veteran of the Diplomatic Service who spoke French, sailed for France aboard the *Lusitania* on December 4.

...And Departures

By mid-November it was clear that the crisis of the war's early weeks was past and Sharp again agitated to take over control of the Embassy. On November 17, he cabled the Department that, "If agreeable would very much like to have change made here at an early date...Continuance of present conditions only increases embarrassment of my position."¹⁰⁸

Not everyone agreed with Sharp. According to Coolidge, "it would have been better, from every point of view, to have Mr. Herrick retained at his post in this crisis."¹⁰⁹ Herrick, however, acquiesced and on November 28, nearly four months after their originally planned departure, Myron and Carolyn Herrick left Paris for the United States. The Herricks were fêted at the Gare des Invalides by a crowd of French officials and U.S. expatriates as they waved farewell. Not everyone who wanted to attend could make the send-off ceremony. Poincaré, for example, remained with the Government of France in Bordeaux. Herrick, sad to not see the French President again to personally say goodbye, wrote his friend, "be certain that nothing between us will be forgotten."¹¹⁰

Garrett was also unable to leave Bordeaux. Instead, he telegrammed Herrick aboard the *Rochambeau*, "good luck and bon voyage."¹¹¹ The friendship between the two men continued throughout the war and beyond. Garrett later wrote Herrick that "my wife and I often recur to your kindness to us during the early days of the war, and we look forward to a time when it is over and we shall be able to come home again and see you and Mrs. Herrick."¹¹² Herrick reciprocated the sentiment. In February 1917, he wrote Garrett,

My mind goes back to those early days of the war, when you became my ambassador to Bordeaux and thus gave the United States in effect two ambassadors in France. I can now see from this side what you perhaps cannot see there, that our group in Paris, composed of men like yourself, Bliss, and Frazier, contributed something of great value in that difficult time.¹¹³

There was a special bond formed by those at the Embassy in the first months of the war that bound them together in subsequent years. Such ties did not form between Sharp and the Embassy family, perhaps due to differences in personal or professional conduct or perhaps because the conditions that forged the closeness of this group that fall did not exist in the same way afterward.

December: Returning to the 'New Normal'

Sharp finally assumed control of the Embassy at 5, rue de Chaillot on November 28. On December 1, he and his son George boarded the night train to Bordeaux. The Sharps arrived the following day and lodged with the Garretts. On December 3, Sharp met with Delcassé at the Foreign Office at 12:30pm, then lunched with Delcassé and the British, Japanese, and Russian Ambassadors. The next day at 9am, Sharp, accompanied by Garrett, Sussdorff, Roosevelt, and Capt. Pope, presented his credentials to Poincaré—and also Herrick's letter of recall. The newly accredited U.S. Ambassador to France then paid personal calls upon other ambassador colleagues in Bordeaux (Britain, Russia, Japan), and left calling cards for French officials and the Ministers of other countries present in the makeshift seat of government.

The brief time spent in Bordeaux with Poincaré and Delcassé, the first time that Sharp met either statesman in person, deeply marked the new U.S. Ambassador. "Your President impresses me as a strong and well-poised man, full of reserved strength," Sharp wrote Jusserand on December 12. "Monsieur Delcassé is not only a statesman for whom I have the highest opinion, but, best of all, a man of heart."¹¹⁴

A few days later, the Government of France returned to Paris. On December 9, Garrett closed the U.S. diplomatic outpost in Bordeaux and on December 10, relocated to Paris, where he continued as Special Agent attached to the Embassy until his appointment as U.S. Minister to the Netherlands and Luxembourg in 1917.¹¹⁵ Once in Paris, Garrett was tasked with running the Embassy's German and Austro-Hungarian affairs division. This was no small matter; by mid-December it was estimated that roughly 15,000 German and Austro-Hungarian subjects remained interned within French borders.¹¹⁶ The Department thus assigned Percival Dodge to the U.S. Embassy in Paris to share the burden with Garrett.

Neutrality and War, 1915–1918

The return of the government and the diplomatic corps to Paris conferred some degree of normalcy—the 'new normal' in what increasingly looked like a prolonged war. Rationing and food restrictions were more noticeable. There were fewer numbers of courses served in hotel restaurants, and meatless days were added to citizens' food restrictions by the end of 1915.¹¹⁷ The U.S. diplomatic community was not immune from the privations of war. By May 1918, the Blisses relied upon sugar rations purchased by their parents in the United States and shipped to them in France.¹¹⁸ The increased pressure on foodstuffs and basic resources such as fuel translated into tighter border restrictions for goods—and people. Foreign women as of 1915 were only welcome in France if they did nursing or charity work. Otherwise their presence was viewed as a burden on already strained resources.

Further aspects of daily life changed. Prices increased. By December 1915, the U.S. Consul at St. Étienne asked the Department for an increase in salary as, “it has been found simply impossible to live on the salaries at present allowed...because of the tremendous increase in the cost of all staple commodities, fuel, and clothing.”¹¹⁹ Clothing became more expensive at the same time that dress regulations and ‘norms’ also transformed to better conform to the new realities of life during war. Men’s evening dress, for example, was replaced with dinner coats or uniforms.

Still, some ‘normal’ traditions continued, such as the French President’s customary New Year’s Day reception for the diplomatic corps. On the afternoon of January 1, 1915, Poincaré hosted approximately 200 diplomats at the Elysée Palace.¹²⁰ Roosevelt, freshly back from Bordeaux, attended and observed not only the full dress uniforms of diplomatic representatives but the appearance of various French officials. According to Roosevelt, Delcassé looked “as beaver-like as ever,” Renée Viviani was “tall and unpleasant-looking,” while Aristide Briand appeared “partly fierce and partly bored.”¹²¹

Embassy Work Continues

As representatives of a neutral power, U.S. diplomats and consuls in France continued to promote U.S. interests. They protected the rights of U.S. business, transportation, and telecommunications entities. There were also other issues that the Embassy contended with, such as restrictions on exportation of rice from French Indochina to the U.S.-held Philippines.

There also remained, until 1917, the U.S. responsibility to represent Austro-Hungarian and German interests to the Government of France. Numerous complaints of abuse against German and Austro-Hungarian prisoners of war that required investigation remained one of the Embassy’s more difficult jobs. Originally, the Department forbade Sharp from visiting the POW or civilian internment camps, but in early 1915 Sharp protested his orders as they hindered his ability to fully perform his duties. The Department acquiesced, and Sharp organized teams from the Embassy to visit camps throughout France. He often took George with him on such visits. That April, they toured camps at Chartres, Le Mans, Tours, Poitiers, Chateauroux, Issoudun, Orléans, and Paris.¹²² When Garrett or Dodge visited the camps, often accompanied by Roosevelt, they invited the local French officials for a meal or drink.¹²³ In an unusual twist, U.S. diplomats were occasionally in a position to aid old friends. In one such instance in August 1916, Garrett and Bliss argued that Embassy personnel in Germany visit the son of Delcassé, a prisoner of war in Germany, as a nice gesture to the former Foreign Minister.¹²⁴

In general, relations between U.S. diplomats and their French interlocutors ranged from close to friendly to, in the rare instance, disdain. Jusserand, for example, the great statesman who prided himself on his close relationship with U.S. citizens and

understanding of the United States, never fully warmed up to Sharp. Following Wilson's November 1916 reelection, Jusserand reminded the Ministry of Foreign Affairs that U.S. tradition was to replace Ambassadors following each presidential election. Surely, the replacement of Jusserand's friend Herrick by Sharp in 1914 and the controversy that surrounded it was at the forefront of the French diplomat's mind. "Many diplomats named to South America by Mr. Bryan will be replaced," Jusserand reminded his colleagues in 1916. "Only one Ambassador in Europe has the chance to be replaced, Mr. Sharp, who is judged soft and not active."¹²⁵ If Sharp was not as highly regarded as his predecessors, perhaps because he observed U.S. neutrality more strictly, other U.S. officials in France helped to compensate.

In St. Étienne

The German Army's occupation of northern France, the heart of French industry and mining, forced the migration of these industries to the Department of the Loire by 1915. For Hunt, in the Loire's major city of St. Étienne, this translated into a significantly increased workload as well as more attention from authorities in Paris, New York, Washington, and beyond. While not the first African-American consul to serve in France, at the time of the war's outbreak in August 1914, Hunt was the only one in France and likely all of Europe. Yet, there is little reference to his skin color in French government archives from this period; U.S. Department of State records include a small "colored" designation next to Hunt's name on the official Consular Service card for St. Étienne.

One of Hunt's good friends was General Joseph Gallieni, a relationship first formed in the early 1900s when both men were stationed in Madagascar. Throughout the first months of war in 1914, Hunt traveled frequently to Paris to confer with Herrick and, as Hunt's biographer Adele Logan Alexander alludes, to visit Gallieni.¹²⁶ It is unknown whether Hunt frequented Paris as often once the Embassy was under the control of Sharp and Gallieni departed for the front.

Throughout the Loire, Hunt replicated the work of his colleagues at U.S. Embassy Paris in caretaking of German and Austro-Hungarian subjects. Yet, the Consul began to bypass the Department before taking action, and increasingly served the French citizens in his consular district in obtaining information about their captured loved ones in Germany and Austria-Hungary. Hunt believed that "my name was familiar in all the German prison camps where French soldiers were interned."¹²⁷

Life In Wartime Paris

In the smaller city of St. Étienne, Hunt was active in the local community. He was the long-serving president of the rugby club, and presided over events that raised funds for French war relief efforts. Hunt was perhaps more deeply embedded into local French

society in St. Étienne than his counterparts in Paris. There, in the capital, the U.S. diplomatic community was much larger and created networks, friendships, and social activities that bound its members together. It also included the sizable U.S. expatriate community.

Senior diplomats, such as the Garretts, Blisses, and Sharps, regularly included junior Embassy officials in their social plans and often invited them to meals and cocktail parties, as the Herricks did during their tenure.¹²⁸ Alice Garrett, an expert of the arts, offered entrée to young Embassy attachés into the rarified Parisian world of artists, writers, and musicians. She invited Roosevelt and the Embassy's other young secretaries to the Garrett residence at the Hôtel Ritz for salons as well as for her weekly Sunday morning gymnastics classes, taught by a "middle-aged ex-dancer."¹²⁹

The personal life of others associated with the U.S. diplomatic community continued to develop despite the war. Sharp's family sailed aboard the *Patria* on March 25, 1915, and docked at Marseille in early April.¹³⁰ George Sharp, who originally accompanied his father to France with plans to return after a year to the United States for university, pursued a different path once in Europe. In the fall of 1914, the younger Sharp joined a local pension in Paris as a daytime guest so that he could work on his French language skills.¹³¹ By Spring 1915, his language abilities were much improved, and he started to serve as his father's private secretary. That fall, George deferred entrance to Oberlin College and instead enrolled in classes at the Sorbonne, which he attended twice a week from 8:30am until 5pm.¹³² Sharp eventually graduated from the *École des Sciences Politiques* with high honors.

Embassy At War

The work of the Embassy increased with the U.S. entry into the conflict in April 1917. Bliss wrote his father on June 15, 1917, that despite the augmented workload, "I revel in it all and am keeping remarkably fit."¹³³ The diplomat noted that due to the valuable experience he gained and professional development on offer, "I would not exchange any other post for Paris."¹³⁴ As U.S. involvement in the war grew, the Department sent an influx of diplomats to the Embassy to help out. The convergence of the peace-makers upon Paris beginning in December 1918 and lasting into 1920 continued this trend.

Conclusions

The activities of U.S. Embassy personnel in 1914 signaled the arrival of the United States as a major player in the diplomatic and humanitarian realms as American officials and private citizens assumed an impressive array of duties at a time of unprecedented distress. Thus throughout autumn 1914, while other Embassies and Legations were dark, the U.S. Embassy was a beehive of activity on multiple fronts. In addition to

diplomatic duties, the unofficial roles of U.S. diplomats expanded exponentially as the war continued. The Embassy was a nucleus of partnerships that provided for financial relief and medical aid to those in France impacted by the war. Assisted by a corps of U.S. citizens who volunteered their time, energy, and funds, U.S. diplomats and Consuls developed new relationships with each other, the Government of France, and the French public. Their actions shaped public memory of the Franco-American partnership in 1914, a solid foundation that helped further form the sense of a special French-American *amitié*, one that endured despite the trials of subsequent decades.

Office of the Historian

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Appendix I: Biographies

Robert Bacon (1860–1919). *Former U.S. Ambassador to France, 1909–1912; Former U.S. Secretary of State, 1909.* Robert Bacon was born in Jamaica Plain, Massachusetts, in 1860 to a prominent merchant family. He attended Harvard, where he befriended future President Theodore Roosevelt, and graduated in 1880. Bacon spent a year travelling the world and then returned to Boston to begin a successful career in business. In 1905, he became Assistant Secretary of State at the behest of his friend President Roosevelt. In 1909, he was asked to serve as Secretary of State for the duration of the Roosevelt administration after Secretary of State Elihu Root resigned. Bacon served 37 days as Secretary of State until March 5, 1909, when President Theodore Roosevelt left office. From December 1909 until April 1912, Bacon served as U.S. Ambassador to France, winning great fame and endearment from Parisians for his assistance during the 1910 flood of the Seine.

After war broke out in August 1914, Bacon was eager to provide assistance. He sailed for France on August 26 aboard the *La France*, and arrived in Paris during the early hours of September 3 where he proceeded to his apartment at the Hôtel de Crillon, his base of French operations intermittently for the next several years. As one of Bacon's first acts, he located un-requisitioned automobiles to serve as makeshift ambulances. He worked in close conjunction with French military authorities to ferry wounded soldiers from the front to the hospitals in Paris, and occasionally served as driver.

Bacon greatly augmented his legacy—and that of the United States—in French memory during the war years. He dedicated himself to raising money for the American Ambulance Hospital of Paris, his pet project, and recruited the first group of U.S. doctors (from Harvard) to serve in the hospital. At several points during the war, Bacon traveled between France and the United States, and following the U.S. entry into war in April 1917, joined the U.S. Army. He returned to France under General Pershing's command, and received several medals from the French government after the war for his endeavors, such as the Croix de Guerre. In March 1919, Bacon left Paris for New York in order to undergo surgery on his neck for mastoiditis, contracted while ill with influenza. Unfortunately, Bacon developed blood poisoning as a result of the operation, and died that May.

William Bardel (1846–1926). *U.S. Consul at Reims (Rheims).* William Bardel was born in Germany on September 20, 1846. Little is known about his early years, but he attended State Commercial College in Nuremberg, Germany. Bardel moved to the United States, settled in New York, and worked in the jewelry wholesale business. On October 22, 1872, Bardel became a naturalized U.S. citizen. In December 1900, he passed the Consular Service examination and was appointed Commercial Agent at

Bamberg, Bavaria (Germany). On December 16, 1902, Bardel was elevated to Consul, and was assigned to Reims, France, in 1908. Bardel asked the Department of State for a transfer to a station in Germany in April 1914, but was still in France when war broke out that August.

Reims lay in the path of the German Army, which entered the city September 4 and occupied it until September 17. Once the French Army re-took Reims, the Germans began to bombard the city, including its famed cathedral. Bardel, his wife, and two of their children took shelter in a wine cellar a half block away from their house, and the Bardel residence took a direct hit from a shell, which destroyed half of the building. Ambassador Myron T. Herrick and the Department of State were deeply concerned for the welfare of Bardel. U.S. war correspondent Richard Harding Davis was in Reims on September 19 to cover the story and failed to locate Bardel. Finally, a few days later, the Bardels were reported safe, though alarmingly low on funds. In October Bardel was reposted to the relative safety of Épernay and then to Troyes.

Bardel was posted to St. Michael's on October 7, 1915, where he remained until his next consular posting, to Nueva Gerona, Cuba, on June 15, 1918. Bardel retired in 1920 and returned to the United States. He died at his home in Brooklyn, New York, on December 31, 1926.

Mildred Barnes Bliss (1880–1969). *Wife of Robert Woods Bliss.* Mildred Barnes was born in 1880 in New York, the daughter of Demas Barnes and Anna Dorinda Blaksley, and heiress to the Castoria patent medicine fortune. As a young woman, Barnes attended Miss Porter's School then continued her education at private schools in Paris. In 1908, she married Robert Woods Bliss, thus embarking upon the life of a diplomat's wife. At the time, this consisted of frequent moves from one posting to another around the world. The couple was sent to Latin America in 1909, and in 1912 to Paris, where they remained for the next eight years.

During the Great War, Bliss was known for her fundraising efforts and medical aid in France. She donated enormous sums of money to the American Ambulance Hospital in Neuilly, helped maintain the American Distributing Service, which delivered medical supplies to French hospitals, and funded other programs to provide medical relief, such as hospitals and ambulances. Bliss founded and served as the Vice President of Enfants de la Frontière, a French-American child welfare organization, in addition to participating in many other war relief efforts. Strikingly, she was not a passive supporter; Bliss was highly active. She toured battlefields and visited sanatoriums and refugee centers throughout France, despite the at-times dangerous conditions. The French government conferred several awards upon Bliss in recognition of her work.

The Blissess returned to Washington, D.C., in 1920, and purchased a house at R Street and 32nd Street NW, which came to be known as Dumbarton Oaks. In 1940, the couple

donated it to serve as a specialized research and art center for Byzantine and Medieval learning. Dumbarton Oaks hosted the 1944 international conference which discussed creation of an international organization that would replace the League of Nations. Bliss was known for her decades-long philanthropy. She died in her home in January 1969 at age 89.

Robert Woods Bliss (1875–1962). *First Secretary, U.S. Embassy Paris, 1912–1916; Embassy Counselor, 1916–1920.* Robert Woods Bliss was born on August 5, 1875, in St. Louis, Missouri. He graduated from Harvard University in 1900 and then spent several years working in Puerto Rico. In June 1903, Bliss passed the Department of State qualifying examination, and entered the Diplomatic Service. He was appointed Consul at Venice on June 18, 1903, then held several posts throughout Europe. In April 1908, he married Mildred Barnes, his close companion for the next several decades. They did not have children. On August 4, 1909, Bliss received his first assignment in Latin America as Secretary of the Legation at Buenos Aires. While in Argentina, the Bliss family met and developed a close personal friendship and professional relationship with U.S. Minister John Work Garrett and his wife, Alice. In February 1912, Bliss was appointed Secretary of the Embassy at Paris, a post he held for the next several years.

Bliss was at the Quai d'Orsay on the afternoon of July 28, 1914, and thus learned first-hand that Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia that day. He quickly returned to the Embassy and conveyed the news to Ambassador Myron T. Herrick and his guests (U.S. businessmen and French officials). From that point through November, Bliss helped Herrick navigate the Embassy from one war crisis to another; fed, lodged, and evacuated U.S. citizens from France; served as protective power for many nations; and protected U.S. interests as a neutral nation. Bliss continued these duties after Ambassador William Graves Sharp assumed control of the Embassy that December.

From 1916 until 1920, Bliss served as Counselor of the Embassy, though he was temporarily assigned to the U.S. Legation at The Hague in 1918 to serve as chargé d'affaires. In 1920 Bliss returned to Washington and served in a succession of increasingly senior positions within the Department of State. He was appointed U.S. Minister to Sweden in 1923, and U.S. Ambassador to Argentina in 1927 before retiring from diplomatic service in July 1933. Bliss returned to duty as a special assistant to Secretary of State Cordell Hull during World War II, but retired again in November 1945. Both Bliss family members were known for their philanthropic efforts. Robert Bliss died in 1962 at age 87.

Spencer Cosby (1867–1962). *Military Attaché, U.S. Embassy Paris.* Spencer Cosby was born on October 2, 1867, in Maryland. He was appointed a cadet in the U.S. Military Academy in June 1887, and received several promotions through the service while honing his engineering skills. Cosby was honorably discharged on December 31, 1898, at the rank of major. In March 1909, President William Howard Taft appointed him, at the

rank of colonel, in charge of public buildings and grounds in the District of Columbia. That September, he married Yvonne Shepard in Southampton, Long Island. As part of his new responsibilities, Cosby managed the design and construction of new White House executive offices, including what ultimately became the Oval Office. In 1912, he supervised the planting of Japanese cherry trees in the U.S. capital, and on August 7, 1913, Cosby was assigned duty as the Military Attaché at U.S. Embassy Paris.

After war broke out in August 1914, Cosby visited battlefields, wrote reports, and transmitted his observations to the War Department in Washington, D.C. In addition to his engineering background, Cosby was an aeronautics expert, and thus closely observed the nascent French air corps. Another of Cosby's responsibilities that August was to help guard and distribute the gold sent by the U.S. Government to help U.S. citizens stranded in France. In late September, Cosby risked the trip from Paris to Reims in order to bring money—desperately needed—to U.S. Consul William Bardel, a survivor of the German bombardment of that city.

Cosby remained at his post in Paris until the United States entered the war in April 1917, at which time he returned to the United States to help train engineer regiments for wartime service. Once the war ended, Cosby held a series of diplomatic and military positions prior to retiring in 1928. He died in his Washington, D.C. house on March 26, 1962, at age 94, and is buried in Arlington National Cemetery.

Arthur Hugh Frazier (1888–1963). [*Second Secretary, U.S. Embassy Paris.*](#) Arthur Hugh Frazier was born on August 12, 1868, in Heidelberg, Germany, to U.S. citizens. Educated by private tutors, he graduated from Lehigh University in 1889. From 1889 until 1891, Frazier studied at the University of Halle, at the Royal College of Viticulture, Geisenheim, and at Fresimus Chemical Laboratory. He put some of this learning into practice with his 1892 purchase of a California vineyard, later sold in 1898. Frazier was a volunteer in the U.S. Army Signal Corps in 1898, then worked for several years in Puerto Rico. In May 1907, Frazier passed the Department of State qualifying exam, and received his first appointment as Secretary of the Legation and Consul-General at San Salvador on August 5, 1908. After postings in Bogotá, Vienna, and Rome, Frazier was appointed as Second Secretary at U.S. Embassy Paris on February 11, 1914.

That August, Frazier was one of Ambassador Myron T. Herrick's "first responders" in Paris. He sprung to action as the Embassy's workload quickly multiplied and they became responsible for maintaining the German Embassy. Frazier remained attached to the Embassy in Paris through most of the war, rising to First Secretary and then Embassy Counselor by June 1918.

In January 1918, Frazier was designated by the Department of State to attend the supreme war council as a diplomatic representative of the United States and report on its proceedings until the permanent U.S. delegates could arrive. After the war, Frazier

continued his career in the Diplomatic Service. In 1921, he served as chargé d'affaires pro tempore in Vienna, the first U.S. diplomatic representative there since the December 1917 severance of relations between the two countries. Frazier later settled in Westport, Connecticut, and passed away in 1963.

John Work Garrett (1872–1942). *Special Agent of the Department of State to Assist the American Ambassador at Paris, 1914–1917.* John Work Garrett was born in Baltimore, Maryland, on May 19, 1872. He graduated from Princeton University in 1895 and worked in banking before embarking upon a career as a diplomat. Garrett was appointed Secretary of the Legation at The Hague on April 26, 1901 and served at various European posts over the following decade. In 1905, Garrett met Alice Warder, a noted authority on modern painting, while posted to Embassy Berlin as Second Secretary. The couple married in 1908 and maintained a vigorous correspondence for the next several decades. On December 15, 1910, Garrett was appointed U.S. Minister to Venezuela, and on December 14, 1911, U.S. Minister to Argentina.

When war broke out in August 1914, Alice was in Switzerland while John remained in the United States. On August 6, Garrett was named Special Agent of the Department of State to Assist the American Ambassador at Paris, and on August 7 he sailed for Europe aboard the North Carolina. Upon arrival in France, Garrett was promptly dispatched to Switzerland to evacuate U.S. citizens from a continent that quickly descended into war. Subsequently, Ambassador Myron T. Herrick sent Garrett to Bordeaux on September 2 as the official U.S. Representative to the Government of France in that city. For the next three months Garrett represented U.S. concerns as well as those of other belligerent countries the United States agreed to act for. This included Germany, Austria-Hungary, and the Ottoman Empire. He visited detention camps, and maintained constant communication with the U.S. Embassy in Paris. Garrett returned to the capital that December along with the Government of France. For the next several years his portfolio consisted of German and Austro-Hungarian issues, notably the care and treatment of enemy nationals in POW and internee camps.

In August 1917, Garrett was appointed U.S. Minister to the Netherlands and Luxembourg, resident at The Hague, returning to the post where he began his diplomatic career in 1901. During the post-war years, Garrett remained active in the diplomatic community and returned to Europe yet again as U.S. Ambassador to Italy from 1929 until 1933. He maintained a warm friendship with the Blisses, who he and Alice first served with in Latin America during the pre-war years, as well as with Herrick. Garrett died at his home in Baltimore on June 26, 1942, at age 70.

Carolyn “Kitty” Parmely Herrick (1858–1918). *Wife of Myron T. Herrick.* Carolyn “Kitty” Melville Parmely was born in 1858 and grew up in Dayton, Ohio. Little is known about her earliest years. On June 30, 1880, she married Myron T. Herrick, a banker,

businessman, and lawyer in Cleveland, Ohio, and gave birth to their only son, Parmely Webb Herrick in 1881.

Kitty accompanied her husband to France in 1912, and became a regular fixture within the U.S. expatriate community in Paris, known for her Thursday afternoon tea receptions. By the summer of 1914, she, Myron, and their dog Billy looked forward to sailing for home on August 8. Kitty oversaw the packing of the Herrick belongings and dismantling of the Ambassador's residence at 5, rue François I^{er} (the mansion's lease was expensive and not set to be renewed by in-coming Ambassador [William Graves Sharp](#)). And then war broke out.

In early August, Kitty quickly inserted herself in efforts to fund the newly established American Ambulance Hospital in Paris and the American Relief Clearing House. Her labors were reportedly tireless, and both she and Myron fell ill from overwork. Parisians called her "The American Angel" for her war relief and Red Cross work. Upon her return to the United States that December, Kitty continued fundraising for the two organizations in Paris, and also served in several other prominent women's clubs, including the YWCA.

In August 1918, Kitty and Myron vacationed at the Tallyrand Cottage in Bar Harbor, Maine, where she died on September 15. Myron attributed her death to the lingering impact of her wartime illness, derived from the strains of her many duties and activities in Paris 1914. The Government of France awarded Kitty a posthumous "medal of French gratitude" in August 1919 for her work with the American Ambulance Hospital in Paris and contributions throughout the war.

Myron T. Herrick (1854–1929). [*U.S. Ambassador to France, 1912–1914*](#). Myron T. Herrick was born in Huntington, Ohio, on October 9, 1854, to Timothy R. and Mary Herrick. Raised in humble circumstances, Herrick attended Oberlin College and Ohio Wesleyan University and also served as a school teacher and journalist before enrolling in law school. After being admitted to the Ohio bar in 1878, Herrick established a law firm in Cleveland and eventually expanded his interests to business and banking. Herrick ran for and served as Republican Governor of Ohio from 1904 until 1906. By the time President William Howard Taft nominated him as U.S. Ambassador to France in February 1912, Herrick had amassed a personal fortune and was prominent in the national Republican Party.

Herrick and his wife, Carolyn (nicknamed "Kitty"), arrived in Paris that April, and settled into a mansion at 5, rue François I^{er}, which served as their residence. He charmed the French and forged strong personal friendships with many during his years in Paris, such as with President Raymond Poincaré., These ties grew in intensity and importance when war broke out in 1914.

On June 2, 1914, Herrick learned that he would finally be relieved by his successor, [William Graves Sharp](#), later that summer. As was (and remains) custom, sitting U.S. ambassadors submit their letters of resignation when new Presidents are elected. When Woodrow Wilson took office in 1913, Herrick submitted his letter of resignation; however, Sharp was not nominated until June 1914 and did not immediately sail for France. That summer, Herrick began his farewell rounds in Paris. On August 1, however, Secretary of State [William Jennings Bryan](#) cabled Herrick, and asked that he remain in place for the time being because of the increasingly critical situation in Europe. Tensions mounted over the next several days as France went to war against Germany and Austria-Hungary.

Herrick's tasks—and those of the U.S. Embassy in Paris—multiplied exponentially as they provided for and evacuated stranded U.S. citizens from France and Switzerland. The Herricks opened their home and fed those who had nothing, funded in those early days from their own fortune. Both became ill from overwork, but soon returned to putting in twelve- and fourteen-hour days alongside Embassy employees and volunteers to contend with the crowds. Herrick also assumed diplomatic custodianship of German and Austro-Hungarian interests in August 1914, and, following the departure of the Government of France for Bordeaux on September 2, responsibility for other belligerent interests, including those of the United Kingdom, Japan, and Serbia.

By November the height of the crisis passed, and arrangements were made for Sharp to assume control of U.S. diplomatic interests and responsibilities in France in early December. Thus, on November 28, Herrick and Kitty left France and sailed aboard the *Rochambeau* for New York harbor. Back in the United States, both Herricks worked tirelessly to raise money for the American Ambulance Hospital in Paris and the American Relief Clearing House so that these organizations could continue to provide financial and medical relief.

Herrick's efforts and actions in the war's first months endeared him further to France and reinforced his love for the country. Appointed to serve as U.S. Ambassador to France a second time in 1921, Herrick reveled in his return to France. In late March 1929, he caught a cold while walking in the funeral procession of his friend, Maréchal Ferdinand Foch. A few days later on March 31, the cold proved fatal and Myron T. Herrick, "Friend of France," died at No. 2, avenue d'Iéna.

William Henry Hunt (1863–1951). *U.S. Consul at St. Étienne, 1906–1927.* William H. Hunt was born on June 29, 1863, in Hunt's Station, Tennessee. He was raised by his mother, an African American; his father remained unknown, but as Hunt had such a light complexion, it was assumed his father was Caucasian. Hunt attended Lawrence Academy on a scholarship, the only African American student enrolled at the prestigious preparatory school at that time (though not the first to attend). He then enrolled at Williams College, where he also received a scholarship. Hunt was introduced to Ida

Gibbs, daughter of Mifflin Wistar Gibbs, in 1889. When in 1897 Mifflin Gibbs was appointed by President William McKinley to serve as Consul at Madagascar, part of the French Empire, Hunt was selected to serve as the Consul's clerk. He worked his way up the consular hierarchy at Tamatave, assigned as Vice Consul in May 1899, and named Consul on August 23, 1901, after Gibbs returned to the United States for health reasons. In 1904, Hunt married Ida, who divided her time between Madagascar and the United States. Hunt learned as much as he could about the exotic locale. Between 1901 and 1904, he authored several articles about life in Madagascar for the American Geographical Society. Hunt also developed a close friendship with the island's governor, General Joseph Gallieni. In November 1906, Hunt was reassigned to St. Étienne, France, and arrived at the Consulate at 5, Place de l'Hotel de Ville in January 1907.

St. Étienne, located in the Loire valley, became a main hub of French industrial production after the northern part of the country—traditionally the heart of mining and manufacturing—was occupied by the German Army in Fall 1914. Hunt's duties quickly increased. He frequently traveled to Paris to consult with Ambassador Myron T. Herrick. Hunt visited and inspected internment camps and prisoner of war camps located within his consular region, represented the interests of Germans and Austro-Hungarians interned in his district, and protected and helped evacuate U.S. citizens. His wife, Ida, traveled between France and the United States throughout the war years, volunteering her time and services to the Croix Rouge.

Throughout the 1920s, Hunt was an active member of the St. Étienne community, and served as president of the local rugby club. In 1927 he was reassigned to Guadeloupe. He died in 1951.

DeWitt Clinton Poole Jr. (1885–1952). *Vice Consul at Paris, 1914–1915.* DeWitt Clinton Poole Jr. was born in Vancouver Barracks, Washington, in 1885, and grew up in what he later termed “genteel poverty.” His father was in the military, so the Pooles moved often during DeWitt's childhood. As a young child, he was sent to France for a year to attend school. In 1906 Poole received his bachelor's degree from the University of Wisconsin, and in 1910 his Master of Diplomacy degree from The George Washington University. Poole entered the Consular Service in 1910 and was sent to Berlin for his first posting from 1911 until 1914. There he met and developed a close friendship with the Consul General, Alexander Montgomery Thackara, and his family. Poole was transferred to Paris to serve as Vice Consul under Thackara and arrived in the French capital in mid-June 1914.

Poole was on home leave in the United States to visit his father when war broke out in early August. He rushed to Washington D.C., where he was instructed to sail for France by way of Boston aboard the USS North Carolina on August 5. Once in Paris, Poole jumped into the fray. He assisted stranded U.S. citizens, drew up new identity

documents, helped look after the German and Austro-Hungarian citizens under care of the U.S. Government, and distributed money to those in need.

Poole was transferred back to service at the Department of State in Washington, D.C., in 1915, and was later assigned to Russia in 1917 where he served as a first-hand witness to the Russian Revolution. Poole's career in the U.S. Government spanned the next several decades. Upon his retirement, he remained active in international affairs through writing. He died in 1952 just after recording his oral history with Columbia University's Oral History project.

George Sharp (1898?–1973). *Son, U.S. Ambassador to France William Graves Sharp.* George Clough Sharp was born around 1898, the second of William Graves and Hallie Clough Sharp's five children. Sharp sailed with his father for France on August 26, 1914, aboard the *La France* in the absence of his mother (who was too ill to travel). When he arrived several days later, the younger Sharp was just shy of his seventeenth birthday.

Sharp accompanied his father on visits to battlefields that fall, delivered his father's letters to ships departing for the United States, and learned more about France. While he reportedly admired Paris, neither George nor his father spoke much French upon their arrival. The younger Sharp immersed himself in the language, and quickly became fluent.

After his father assumed diplomatic responsibilities in December 1914, Sharp continued as the elder Sharp's companion on official duties. The pair visited prisoner of war camps and internment camps. In Spring 1915, Sharp began to serve as his father's personal secretary in the Embassy. He also realized that his tenure in France, originally intended to be a gap year prior to returning to the United States for college, would not be as short as originally intended. Sharp enrolled in classes at the Sorbonne and then the *École des Sciences Politiques*, from which he graduated with honors.

After the war, Sharp returned to the United States, where he attended and graduated from Columbia University Law School. In 1936 he married Ruth Baldwin in New York, and practiced law with the New York firm Sullivan & Cromwell. He died at age 75 in 1973.

William Graves Sharp (1859–1922). [*U.S. Ambassador to France, 1914–1919.*](#) William Graves Sharp and his twin brother George W. were born in Mt. Gilead, Ohio, on March 14, 1859. William was raised in Ohio and received his law degree from the University of Michigan in 1881. He then moved to Elyria, Ohio, where he practiced law. In 1895 he married Hallie Clough with whom he had five children. Sharp entered national politics, and served three terms in the U.S. House of Representatives as Congressman for Ohio's Fourteenth District from 1909 until 1915, although he resigned

in 1914. He was deeply interested in the sciences, was known as the “astronomer of Congress,” and loved aviation. In June 1914, Sharp was confirmed as U.S. Ambassador to France.

Hallie was too ill to travel the summer of 1914, so Sharp did not proceed directly to Paris. When war broke out in August, Sharp made plans to sail as soon as possible for France—without his wife. Instead he took his eldest son, George, and the two Sharp gentlemen boarded the *La France* on August 26. Halfway through the voyage, Sharp learned that former U.S. Ambassador to France Robert Bacon was on board, also headed for Paris. The Sharps arrived in the city on September 3 and checked into the Hôtel de Crillon on the Place de la Concorde. The famed hotel served as their residence for the next several months until the rest of the family joined them in the spring of 1915.

Sharp did not immediately assume his role as ambassador due to the crisis of war and the direct German threat to Paris. Instead, Ambassador Myron T. Herrick continued to serve in an official capacity, freeing Sharp to immerse himself in his new environment. He had the unique opportunity to learn first-hand as a private U.S. citizen about the people of Paris and the country, as well as their wartime hardships. Sharp visited the battlefields to better acquaint himself with the war’s realities. He also searched for a new ambassador’s residence, as the lease on the mansion occupied by Herrick was not to be renewed. Ellie Thackara, the wife of U.S. Consul in Paris Alexander Thackara, helped Sharp secure a house at 14, avenue d’Eylau, which became the Sharp family residence from Spring 1915 through April 1919.

On December 1, 1914, Sharp left Paris for Bordeaux where the Government of France was temporarily located. He presented his credentials as U.S. Ambassador to France on December 4, the only U.S. Representative to do so outside of Paris, and returned to the capital that evening. For the next several years, among his many duties, Sharp protected U.S. interests as a neutral power, represented German, Austro-Hungarian, and Ottoman affairs in France, and visited internment camps and prisoner of war camps. Sharp hosted the U.S. delegation to the Paris Peace Conference in 1919, but presented his letter of recall on April 4, 1919. A few years after his return to the United States, Sharp grew ill and died in Elyria, Ohio, on November 17, 1922, at age 63.

Ann Singleton (1877–1976). *Clerk, U.S. Embassy Paris.* Ann Singleton was born in Avoyelles Parish, Louisiana, in 1877, and attended H. Sophie Newcomb College in New Orleans for three years prior to attending Mary Baldwin Seminary in Staunton, Virginia, for a year. Singleton dreamed of seeing the world, and took up secretarial work as a means of doing so. From 1899 until 1901, Singleton worked as a stenographer and typewriter for the U.S. Census Office in Washington, D.C., before serving as a stenographer for the Spanish Treaty Claims Commission in Havana, Cuba, from 1902 until 1907 and the Department of State and Justice in Havana, Cuba, from 1908 until 1909. From 1909 until 1912, Singleton was engaged as a secretary in Paris and then

appointed as a clerk in the Diplomatic Service at U.S. Embassy Paris on September 1, 1912. In 1914, there were five female clerks appointed to serve the Diplomatic Service in overseas posts out of 55 clerks stationed abroad (9%).¹³⁵

Singleton saved up \$600 from her work at the Embassy, a sum she planned to use to tour the world. Singleton was on the verge of departing Paris for the United States to start her journey when war broke out in August 1914. She amended her travel arrangements and remained in France for several more months, providing crucial assistance as Embassy staff responsibilities quickly multiplied. In 1917, Singleton returned to France to serve as private secretary for General John J. Pershing, Chief of the American Expeditionary Forces (AEF). When Pershing arrived in Paris on June 13, 1917, “she was one of two women waiting at the Paris train station for Pershing to arrive. The other woman was a newspaper reporter.”¹³⁶ Singleton served as Pershing’s private secretary for the remainder of the war.

After the war ended in November 1918, she again departed France for the United States to work and save money. Singleton finally began her much-delayed trip around the world in September 1921, departing Seattle for Honolulu and then Japan. For the next decade, Singleton traveled (and worked) throughout the world, and gave lectures on “Circling the Globe on One’s Own.” In 1931, she returned to Washington, and took a job with the War Department, where she worked until her retirement many years later.

Louis Albert Sussdorff Jr. (1888–1940). *Third Secretary, U.S. Embassy Paris, 1914–1915.* Louis Albert Sussdorff Jr. was born in Elmhurst, Long Island, on January 7, 1888. He received his bachelor’s cum laude in political science (1910) and law degree (1914) from Harvard University, and from 1910 until 1913 served at the university as an assistant in History and Government. On November 17, 1913, he passed the Department of State qualifying exam and entered the Diplomatic Service. Sussdorff was appointed Third Secretary of U.S. Embassy Paris on May 22, 1914.

As France descended into a state of war in August 1914, Sussdorff helped maintain the Embassy’s beehive of activity. Ambassador Myron T. Herrick sent him with John Work Garrett, his Special Agent, to follow the Government of France to Bordeaux on September 2. Sussdorff helped Garrett manage U.S. diplomatic affairs and maintain communications and correspondence between the U.S. outpost in Bordeaux and the Embassy in Paris, sometimes serving as a courier. He also visited battlefields, prisoner of war camps, and internment camps where he observed and wrote reports on conditions and treatment of detained German and Austro-Hungarian soldiers and civilians. When the Government of France returned to Paris that December, Sussdorff followed.

In March 1915, he was assigned to Rio de Janeiro and continued his career in the Diplomatic Service serving mostly in Europe. Sussdorff was named Consul General at Antwerp on June 1, 1937, and survived the German aerial bombardment of the city in the spring of 1940. Unfortunately, his luck ran out a few months later when he was killed in August in a car crash outside Cologne, Germany. He was 52 years old.

Alexander Montgomery “Mont” Thackara (1848–1937). *U.S. Consul General at Paris, 1913–1924.* Alexander Montgomery Thackara was born in Philadelphia in 1848 to Benjamin and Mary Thackara, and often went by the nickname “Mont.” He graduated in 1869 from the U.S. Naval Academy and traveled the world with the U.S. Navy. Thackara met Eleanor “Ellie” Sherman in 1879, and the following year they wed at the Washington, D.C. home of her father, General William T. Sherman. Thackara retired from the Navy in 1882 and began work in his family’s business, Thackara, Sons & Co., which manufactured and sold gas fixtures. On April 1, 1897, Thackara was appointed by President William McKinley to the U.S. Consular Service. At the time, Thackara’s uncle-in-law, [John Sherman](#), served as Secretary of State. Thackara’s first consular posting was to Le Havre, France, that year. He remained there until his March 13, 1905, assignment to Berlin as Consul General. On September 18, 1913, Thackara was sent to Paris as Consul General.

When war descended on France in August 1914, the work of the U.S. Embassy and U.S. Consulate instantly multiplied as thousands of U.S. citizens fled the Continent. New regulations issued by the Government of France necessitated that all U.S. citizens obtain new identity cards or official documentation attesting to their citizenship. Thackara plunged into wartime work. He assisted fellow citizens as well as the interests of those that the United States agreed to represent (Germany, Austria-Hungary, etc.). As Consul General, Thackara also served as Consulting Director to the American Chamber of Commerce in Paris, an organization that raised funds for war relief efforts and consulted on wartime issues.

In 1920, Thackara was awarded the Croix de Guerre by the Government of France as a measure of appreciation for his wartime work. He was unable to accept the award, however, because he was still a U.S. Government employee. Thackara retired in 1924 and remained in Paris. In 1934 the U.S. House of Representatives passed a joint resolution that enabled Thackara to finally accept the Croix de Guerre. Thackara died on January 19, 1937, at the American Hospital in Neuilly from bronchial pneumonia.

Ellie Sherman Thackara (1859–1915). *Wife of Alexander Thackara, U.S. Consul General in Paris.* Eleanor “Ellie” Sherman Thackara was born in 1859, the daughter of General William T. Sherman. In 1879 she met Alexander Montgomery “Mont” Thackara, and they wed on May 5, 1880, at her father’s Washington D.C. home. The couple had four children over the next several years: Mary Elizabeth, Eleanor Sherman, William T. Sherman, and Alexander Montgomery Jr. The Thackaras moved to Le Havre, France, in

1897 after Mont was appointed there as Consul. Ellie moved twice more in the next twenty years, dictated by her husband's career in the Consular Service, to Berlin in 1905 and to Paris in 1913.

Once war broke out in August 1914, Thackara immersed herself in volunteer work, raising funds for war relief and medical aid efforts. That month she founded the Serbian (Serbian) Ambulance, run through her residence in the Hotel Belmont. For the next several months, the focus of Thackara's relief work was provision of medical aid to Serbia. In October 1914, Thackara founded the Urgent Fund for Serbian Wounded. She was also very active with the Red Cross.

In April 1915, Thackara fell ill. During her convalescence, the King of Serbia sent her a letter of gratitude for all of her efforts on behalf of his people. Unfortunately, Thackara did not fully recover from her illness, which many attributed to over-exertion from her war with war relief efforts. That July, Thackara died in Paris, with her husband and two daughters by her side.

Eleanor Sherman Thackara [Cauldwell] (c. 1880s–?). *Daughter, U.S. Consul Alexander Montgomery Thackara.* Eleanor Sherman Thackara was born between 1882 and 1886, likely in the Philadelphia area, to Alexander Montgomery Thackara and Eleanor "Ellie" Sherman Thackara. Little is known about Eleanor's childhood, or whether she moved to Le Havre, France, with her parents when her father was first posted there as Consul in 1897; she may have attended school in the United States during this period. Eleanor and her sister, Mary Elizabeth, lived with their parents during her father's tenure as Consul General in Berlin from 1905 until 1913. Eleanor specialized in languages, with a reported expertise in French and German. She helped her mother with social functions and worked at the American Women's Club of Berlin. In the German capital, Eleanor met her future husband, Frederick Cauldwell, who worked in the U.S. Consulate. Their engagement was announced in 1910, but proved to be a long-term one. Thackara moved with her parents to Paris in 1913 when her father was assigned there as Consul General.

Thackara was in the United States in August 1914, and by late November booked passage back to France to volunteer her services for war relief efforts. Upon her arrival in Paris in early December, Thackara took over some of her mother's work with the Serbian Ambulance. During the war, Thackara worked as so many other U.S. women in France did, to raise funds for widows, orphans, the injured, as well as hospitals and ambulance services.

Thackara finally married Cauldwell on January 31, 1917, in Rosemont, Pennsylvania and eventually settled in Paris in the 1920s, where they remained until the death of Thackara's father in 1937. While it is unclear when Eleanor passed away, newspaper

accounts report that she was alive in 1952 when her daughter, Eleanor Thackara Cauldwell, married.

Other U.S. Civilians

Richard Harding Davis (1864–1916). *Journalist.* Born in 1864 to Lemuel Clarke Davis, an editorial writer for *The Philadelphia Inquirer*, and Rebecca Harding, a writer who published her first piece, “Life in the Iron Mills,” in *Atlantic Monthly*, Richard Harding Davis was perhaps destined for the world of bon mots. At school, Davis’s strengths were writing and sports, passions he translated into a career as a war reporter. Davis covered several conflicts in the Belle Époque era, but was perhaps known best for his work during the Spanish-American War.

Following the Austro-Hungarian declaration of war on July 28, 1914, Davis booked passage aboard an emergency sailing of the *Lusitania*, which departed for Europe on August 4. His mission to obtain credentials to cover the British and French armies at the front was hindered by that fact that the U.S. Department of State only accredited one U.S. newsman to Field Marshal Horatio Herbert Kitchener’s army.¹³⁷ Instead, Davis journeyed to the Continent without credentials—as did many other U.S. reporters—and witnessed the war’s first wave of destruction in Belgium. In early September, Davis made his way to France, where his reports of the German bombardment of Reims gained wide acclaim. Davis’s accounts of U.S. Consul in Reims William Bardel were some of the only information the outside world had as to the Consul’s fate.

Davis returned to the United States, but continued to argue for U.S. preparedness, if not intervention, in the catastrophe. He died of a heart attack in his home in 1916.

H. Hermann Harjes (1875–1926). *Banker, Morgan & Harjes.* H. Hermann Harjes, son of a Swiss immigrant to the United States, was born in Paris in 1875. Educated in the United States and Great Britain, he worked for J.P. Morgan in New York for several years before returning to Paris. Over the years, Harjes rose to become senior partner at Morgan, Harjes & Co. In 1897, he married Marie Róvertine Graves, and was reportedly very much in love with her. Widowed by Marie’s death in 1905, Harjes remarried in 1911 to Fredericka Berwind Gilpin, daughter of a wealthy coal mining family from Pennsylvania.

Soon after war broke out in 1914, Ambassador Myron T. Herrick called upon Harjes to help solve the problem of how to enable U.S. citizens to draw funds from French banks. Harjes was a valuable member of the U.S. expatriate community in Paris, and donated much more than merely his time and expertise to war relief efforts. He purchased a fleet of ambulances in October, operated by the American Red Cross, and also established a field hospital in France. Harjes was a member of the American Relief Clearing House, established by Herrick to distribute funds and medical supplies in France. Upon Herrick’s departure in November 1914, Harjes took over as President of this

organization. He also served as High Commissioner of the American Red Cross Society for France and Belgium, a post he resigned in 1917 to join the U.S. armed forces. Harjes was awarded the Croix de Guerre and the Legion of Honor for his wartime relief work.

Harjes remained in Paris after the war and during the 1920s and was a well-known sportsman and polo player. During polo practice in August 1926, Harjes was thrown from his horse and kicked in the head. He was rushed to the hospital, but died.

Nicholas Roosevelt (1893–1982). *Private Secretary of John Work Garrett, Special Agent to the U.S. Ambassador to France*. Nicholas Roosevelt, cousin of U.S. President Theodore Roosevelt, was born in New York City on June 12, 1893. He graduated from Harvard University in 1914, where he served as an assistant to Edward Channing, a professor of U.S. history.

After war broke out, Roosevelt wished to be of assistance. That October, a fellow classmate asked Roosevelt if he wished to go to France and serve as the secretary for the U.S. representative to the Government of France at Bordeaux, John Work Garrett. Roosevelt seized the opportunity and sailed that month aboard the *Mauretania* for Liverpool and then Bordeaux. One of his fellow passengers for the first leg of that transatlantic journey was Katherine Page, daughter of [U.S. Ambassador to the United Kingdom Walter Hines Page](#).

In Bordeaux, Roosevelt helped Garrett manage the onslaught of work entailed in representing the United States Government as well as German and Austro-Hungarian interests to the Government of France. When the French government returned to Paris in December 1914, Roosevelt followed and served as an attaché at the U.S. Embassy for the next two years. Roosevelt left Paris in 1916 to serve as a secretary to the U.S. Mission to Spain.

After the war, Roosevelt continued his work in the diplomatic realm, and served as U.S. Minister to Hungary from 1930 until 1933. He wrote for newspapers and magazines, and authored several books. During the Second World War he served as Chief of the Office of War Information from 1942 until 1945. Roosevelt died in 1982.

Eric Fisher Wood (1889–1962). *Civilian Attaché, U.S. Embassy Paris, Fall 1914*. Eric Fisher Wood was born in New York City in 1889. Educated in private schools, he graduated from Yale University in 1910. He went to Paris in 1914 to pursue his post-graduate work at the École des Beaux Arts, and was a student there when war broke out that summer.

In early August, Wood went to the U.S. Embassy and volunteered his services to Ambassador Myron T. Herrick. Desperately short of hands to confront the crisis, Herrick immediately put Wood to work. For the next two months Wood assisted in the

Embassy's German and Austro-Hungarian Affairs Office, which oversaw the rights and conditions of German and Austro-Hungarian subjects interned in France as prisoners of war or civilian detainees. On several occasions, Wood also traveled to the battlefields to observe conditions with other U.S. officials. In October 1914, Wood ceased his volunteer work with the Embassy, and instead donated his services to the fledging Motor Ambulance Corps of the American Hospital in Neuilly. In February 1915, he returned to the United States and published his account of the war's first few months.

Over the next several years, Wood returned to Europe where he served in the British and French armies prior to enlisting as a private in the U.S. Army in 1917. After the war ended, Wood remained in Europe for a time. He was one of the founders of the American Legion in 1919. Wood returned to the United States and settled in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, where he became a well-known architect. He died in 1962.

Appendix II: Wartime Relief Work of Mildred Barnes Bliss¹³⁸

File

MILDRED BLISS
MRS. ROBERT WOODS BLISS

In August, 1914, Mrs. Bliss joined with a small group of friends (Countess de VielCastel; Mrs. William Hill; Frederick R. Coudert; August Jaccaci;) to form a committee "Enfants de la Frontière", of which Mrs. Bliss was made Vice-President, and which took under its care the many young children arriving in Paris from Belfort, Belgium and northern France as the German armies swept down towards the river Marne. This organization remained in active being until after the War was over and maintained a number of Sanitoria.

In 1915 Mrs. Bliss formed and maintained an organization which she called "The American Distributing Service". It was manned and administered by six American young men, living in Paris, all volunteers. The ADS performed an incalculable service in sending to French military hospitals throughout France supplies urgently needed when a surge of wounded arrived unexpectedly, and official headquarters were unable to respond to appeals for assistance. Mildred Bliss says her most grateful experience was of getting a French Brigade back into the line in time to turn the tide of a battle into their favour. The Service de Santé had been unable to send the surgical supplies needed and had made an emergency appeal to her American Distributing Service which supplied its warehouse reserves and rushed them to the Front. The engagement was won, and thanks received from the Major General. This Service had a fleet of

- 2 -

six automobiles and station wagons which were in constant demand to distribute supplies, and there were always one or two representatives on the road. In August, 1917, after the American Red Cross established its headquarters in Paris, the two Directors, James H. Perkins and Grayson Murphy called on Mrs. Bliss to ask if she would donate to the Red Cross her American Distributing Service with all its supplies and corps of automobiles in order to give the Red Cross something to start on until it could organize on a larger scale. To this Mrs. Bliss readily assented and the American Distributing Service as such came to an end. Also during World War I, Mrs. Bliss largely sustained the British-administered military hospital for French wounded of Nevers.

Mrs. Bliss was active in other American relief organizations in France during World War I and received the signal honour of being awarded in 1915 The Gold Medal of Honour with Rosette of the French Ministry for Foreign Affairs and in 1919 was made Chevalier of the Legion of Honour and was subsequently promoted to the rank of Officier. In 1918 Belgium conferred upon her The Medal of Queen Elizabeth, and in later years that government made her Commander of The Crown.

During World War II, Mrs. Bliss took an active part in a number of relief organizations active in the United States in aiding France and French refugees. At the end of the War she contributed to the reconstruction and rehabilitation of the inhabitants of the small French town of La Loupe, partly destroyed by tragic erroneous information sent the American forces by the enemy.

Annex III: Selected U.S. War Relief & Aid Projects in France, 1914-1915¹³⁹

- American Ambulance in Neuilly
- Juilly Hospital (founded by Mrs. Whitney)
- Tuck Hospital at Rueil (founded by Mr. Tuck)
- Stillman Hospital at Rue Rembrandt
- Malmaison Convalescent Home at the chateau of Mr. Tuck
- Wanamaker Hospital on Champs Elysées
- Cooper-Hewitt Hospital on Avenue du Bois
- Harjes Mobile Ambulance
- Hospital at the American Artist's Club (founded by Mrs. Whitlaw Reid on rue Chevreuse)
- Hospital organized by James H. Hyde in rue Adolphe Yvon
- American Church Relief run by Mr. Watson
- Camp for French Soldiers fitted up by [Ridgway Knight](#) at Poissy [he later served as US Ambassador to Syria, Belgium, and Portugal)
- Convalescent Home instituted by Mrs. Robert Woods Bliss at Mormant
- Hospital of American Red Cross at Pan
- Hospital of Mrs. Depew
- L'ouvrier of Mme. Thackara
- Herrick organized the American Relief Clearing House to serve as the central POC for U.S. aid to French civilians (was located on rue Francois Ier)

At the end is a full list of all U.S. aid and hospitals in France and fundraising aids in the United States.

Notes

1. Yves-Henri Nouaillhat, *La France et Les États-Unis Août 1914–Avril 1917*, (Paris : Publications de la Sorbonne, 1979), 43.
2. See Nancy Green, *The Other Americans in Paris: Businessmen, Countesses, Wayward Youth, 1880-1941* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 2014).
3. Ibid.
4. Roosevelt stocked up on reading material at Bretano's on Avenue de l'Opera, saw the "Mona Lisa" at the Louvre and other sites such as Malmaison, and lunched with French and U.S. citizens such as academic Gabriel Hanotaux, Herrick, Bliss, former French President Alexandre Felix Ribot, and Secretary of the French-Amérique Committee Louis Jaray, among others. "Roosevelt Busy in Seeing Paris," *Chicago Daily Tribune*, June 7, 1914, p. 2.
5. Office of the Historian, "Department Personnel, 1781–2010," Office of the Historian Website, <http://history.state.gov/about/faq/departement-personnel>
6. The Reminiscences of DeWitt Clinton Poole Jr., January–March 1952, 57, in the Columbia Center for Oral History Collection.
7. Ibid.
8. The crop of 1913 was about one-third the usual size due to poor weather and quality, but Bardel encouraged U.S. investors, noting, "it is nevertheless thought it will prove to be excellent because of the great care exercised in picking the grapes." "From Here and There," *The New York Times*, June 7, 1914, SM7.
9. The U.S. Consulate at Reims was selected as it was one of the ones most directly impacted—and later, closed—due to the German Army's advance into France, while the U.S. Consulate at St. Étienne was selected for research as its Consul, William H. Hunt, was the only African-American U.S. representative serving in Europe at the time.
10. Myron T. Herrick. Chapter One of Myron T. Herrick Remembrances, 1920s but undated, unpublished, 2. (Western Reserve Historical Society, Cleveland, Ohio, Myron T. Herrick Papers, MS 2925, Container 3, Folder 3)
11. Poole, 59.
12. Jusserand had served as the French envoy in Washington D.C. since 1902, and by 1914 was Dean of the Diplomatic Corps.
13. Eric Fisher Wood, *The Note-Book of an Attaché: Seven Months in the War Zone* (New York: The Century Co., 1915), 4.
14. Telegram from Herrick (Paris) to Secretary of State (Washington DC) Received July 31, 1914, 5:12pm. (National Archives, RG 59, 1910-29 Central Decimal File, File 123 H 43/36)
15. Telegram from Secretary of State (Washington DC) to Herrick (Paris) August 1, 1914, 9pm. (National Archives, RG 59 1910-29 Central Decimal File, File 123 H 43/37a)
16. Elizabeth Dryden, *Paris in Herrick Days* (Paris: Dorbon-Ainé, 1915), 11.
17. At the first orders of mobilization, Marie Curie canceled her vacation in Brittany in order to remain in Paris and offer assistance.
18. Raymond Poincaré, *The Memoirs of Raymond Poincaré (1913–1914)*, translated by Sir George Arthur (London: William Heinemann Ltd., 1938), 284.
19. Ibid, 8.
20. Jusserand was considered "dangerous cargo" at sea and thus had to travel on a false passport. Letter from Jusserand (Washington) to Delcassé (Paris), August 30, 1914. (Ministry of Foreign Affairs Archives. Guerre 1914–1918, États-Unis; Dossier General Vol. 489, Août–Octobre 1914)
21. Poole, 60.
22. Herrick (Paris) to Secretary of State (Washington), August 2, 1914. See *Foreign Relations of the United States, 1914, Supplement, The World War*, p. 33.
http://history.state.gov/historicaldocuments/frus1914Supp/pg_33.
23. William J. Guard, *Soul of Paris: Two Months in the French Capital During the War of 1914*, (The Sun Printing & Publishing Co., 1914), 7.
- 24 "Paris Under the German Menace," *The Times History of the War*, Volume II (London: 1915), 440.
25. Poole, 60–61.
26. For further information on this and the role of J.P. Morgan and Morgan, Harjes & Co. in the war, please see Martin Horn, "A Private Bank at War: J.P. Morgan & Co. and France, 1914–1918," *The Business History Review* 74.2 (Spring 2000): 85–112.
27. Wood, 25.

28. Craig Roberts Stapleton (with Louise French McCready), *Where Liberty Dwells, There Is My Country: The Story of Twentieth-Century American Ambassadors to France* (Lanham, MD: Hamilton Books, 2010), 10.
29. Bentley Mott, "Myron Herrick, Friend of France," *World's Work*, November 1929, p. 73.
30. Wood, 10.
31. *Ibid*, 19.
32. *Ibid*, 22.
33. *Ibid*.
34. The camps were located in Limoges, Gueret, Cahors, Libourne, Périgueux, Saintes, Le Blanc, La Roche-sur-Yon, Chateauroux, Saumur, Anger, and Flers. *Ibid*, 21.
35. Herbert Hazeltine was an American sculptor who volunteered at the U.S. Embassy in Paris for many months during World War I.
36. Wood, 22.
37. Letter from Carolyn Herrick to Agnes & Parmely Herrick, September 14, 1914. (Western Reserve Historical Society, Cleveland, Ohio, Myron T. Herrick Papers, MS 2925, Container 15, Folder 234).
38. *Ibid*, 13.
39. *Ibid*.
40. *Ibid*, 18.
41. *Ibid*, 31.
42. Guard, 17.
43. "Odd War Bits," *The Day Book* (Chicago, Ill.), August 12, 1914.
<http://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn83045487/1914-08-12/ed-1/seq-32>
44. Official Correspondence from the French Ministry of War to U.S. Embassy Paris, April 8, 1916. (Harvard University Archives, Cambridge, Massachusetts, Papers of Robert Woods Bliss and Mildred Barnes Bliss, HUGFP 76.14 Box 1 Diplomatic Correspondence Paris: 1912–1919).
45. Wood, 33.
46. Telegram from Bryan (Washington DC) to Herrick (Paris), August 25, 1914. (National Archives, RG 59, 1910-29 Central Decimal File, File 123 H 43/39a)
47. Telegram from Secretary of State (Washington DC) to Herrick (Paris), August 28, 1914. Copy from file 123 H 43, 1910–29 Central Decimal File, Record Group 59: General Records of the Department of State, National Archives.
48. Telegram from Jusserand to Delcassé, August 25, 1914. (Ministry of Foreign Affairs Archives, Guerre 1914–1918 États-Unis, Vol. 489 Dossier Generale: Août–Octobre 1914)
49. James Brown Scott, *Robert Bacon: Life and Letters* (New York:Arno Press, 1975), 203.
50. Wood, 37.
51. *Ibid*.
- 52 "Paris Under the German Menace," *The Times History of the War*, Volume II (London: 1915), 461.
53. Raymond Poincaré, preface. T. Betley Mott, *Souvenirs de Myron T. Herrick* (Paris: Plon, 1930), vii–viii.
54. *Ibid*.
55. Myron T. Herrick. Chapter Two of Myron T. Herrick Remembrances, 1920s but undated, unpublished, 21. (Western Reserve Historical Society, Cleveland, Ohio, Myron T. Herrick Papers, MS 2925, Container 3, Folder 3).
56. Letter from Herrick (Paris) to Parmely Herrick, September 4, 1914. (Western Reserve Historical Society, Cleveland, Ohio, Myron T. Herrick Papers, MS 2925).
57. Letter from Sir Francis Bertie (Bordeaux) to Herrick (Paris), September 4, 1914. (Western Reserve Historical Society, Cleveland, Ohio, Myron T. Herrick Papers, MS 2925).
- 58 "Paris Under the German Menace," *The Times History of the War*, Volume II (London: 1915), 469.
59. Wood, 47.
60. Telegram from Delcassé to Jusserand, September 2, 1914. (Ministry of Foreign Affairs Archives, Guerre 1914–1918 Etats-Unis, Vol. 489 Dossier Generale: Août–Octobre 1914).
61. "Prepare Paris to Oppose Siege," *Chicago Daily Tribune*, September 4, 1914, p. 1.
62. Scott, 205.
63. Warrington Dawson (ed.), *The War Memoirs of William Graves Sharp* (London: Constable & Co. Ltd., 1931), 7.
64. Dawson, 13.

65. Lilla Pennant, *Wartime Embassy: The Life of William Graves Sharp, U.S. Ambassador to France, and his Son George Clough Sharp During the First World War* (Somerville, Mass.: Firefly Press, 1989), 16.
66. Charles Inman Barnard, *Paris War Days*, Sept 4.
67. Telegram from Bryan to Herrick, September 5, 1914. (National Archives, RG 59, 1910-29 Central Decimal File, File 123 Sh21/10a)
68. Col. Bentley Mott, *Herrick Book*, 214.
69. Dawson, 57.
70. Sharp was interviewed about his arrival, his civilian status until the time arrived for him to take over the Embassy, praise for the French people and institutions (and Herrick), and how he hoped Wilson's plea for peace would be adopted and a lasting peace and disarmament ensue. A false report circulated within the French press that the resultant article was barred from transmission by the censor's office for fear it might betray French morale. Sharp wrote home of his suspicions that Herrick used his power and influence to block the article's publication—and also paid for the anonymous dispatch that claimed (falsely) that the French Government censored the piece. Pennant, 24.
71. Mott, 215.
72. Beckles Willson, *America's Ambassadors to France, 1777–1927* (London: John Murray, 1928), 401.
73. Letter from Herrick (Paris) to James Parmelee, September 15, 1914. Myron T. Herrick Scrapbook, Vol. I: 1902-1929. Manuscript Division. Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.
74. Letter from Carolyn Herrick to Agnes & Parmely Herrick, September 14, 1914. (Western Reserve Historical Society, Cleveland, Ohio, Myron T. Herrick Papers, MS 2925, Container 15, Folder 234).
75. Letter from Herrick (Paris) to Parmely Herrick, September 4, 1914. (Western Reserve Historical Society, Cleveland, Ohio, Myron T. Herrick Papers, MS 2925).
76. Scott, 206.
77. Henry Breckinridge, "Robert Bacon: Work in France in the Early Days of the War," *The New York Times*, June 5, 1919, p. 12.
78. Ibid.
79. Poole, 65.
80. Wood, 39.
81. Wood, 41.
82. Poole, 65.
83. Dawson, 19.
84. Wood, 75.
85. Herrick (Paris) to Secretary of State (Washington DC), September 14, 1914, rec'd 8:22pm. (National Archives, RG 59, 1910-29 Central Decimal File, File 763.72/859)
86. Garrett (Bordeaux) to Herrick (Paris), October 5, 1914. (National Archives, RG 59, 1910-29 Central Decimal File, File 763.72 115/172)
87. Ibid.
88. Ibid.
89. Ibid.
90. They reported only 8–10 men present. Garrett was struck by an odd fact of many of the Libourne internees: roughly half of them were French women, wives of Austrian and German subjects, who spoke little or no German. Ibid.
91. Ibid.
92. Herrick (Paris) to Secretary of State (Washington, DC), November 12, 1914. (National Archives, RG 59, 1910-29 Central Decimal File, File 763.72115/224)
93. Letter from Carolyn Herrick to Agnes & Parmely Herrick, September 14, 1914. (Western Reserve Historical Society, Cleveland, Ohio, Myron T. Herrick Papers, MS 2925, Container 15, Folder 234).
94. Wood, 110.
95. Letter from Bardel (Troyes) to Secretary of State (Washington DC), October 10, 1914. (National Archives, RG 59, 1910-29 Central Decimal File, File 123 B 23/54)
96. Ibid.
97. "William Bardel, 80, Dies." *The New York Times*, January 1, 1927, p. 13.
98. Letter from Bardel (Troyes) to Secretary of State (Washington DC), October 10, 1914. (National Archives, RG 59, 1910-29 Central Decimal File, File 123 B 23/54)
99. Ibid.
100. Ibid.
101. Ibid.

102. Nicholas Roosevelt, *A Front Row Seat*, (Norman, Okla.: University of Oklahoma Press, 1953), 70.
103. According to Roosevelt, Page was “a large, gangling man with a big nose, a pleasant voice, a simple and amiable manner, and an obviously first-rate intelligence.” Ibid, 68.
104. Ibid, 70.
105. Ibid, 72.
106. Letter from John Work Garrett to Robert Garrett, November 21, 1914. (The Sheridan Libraries, The Johns Hopkins University, John Work Garrett Papers GAR 19 Box 2.2, Folder 19 Robert Garrett).
107. Ibid.
108. Telegram from Sharp (Paris) to Bryan (Washington DC), November 17, 1914. (National Archives, RG 59, 1910-29 Central Decimal File, File 123 Sh21/15)
109. John Gardner Coolidge, *A War Diary in Paris: 1914-1917*, (Cambridge, Mass.: Riverside Press, 1931), 7.
110. Letter from Herrick to Poincaré, November 25, 1914. (Ministry of Foreign Affairs Archives, Guerre 1914-1918 Etats-Unis, Vol. 490 Dossier Generale: Novembre-Decembre 1914)
111. Telegram from John Work Garrett to Myron T. Herrick, via the *Rochambeau*, undated. (The Sheridan Libraries, The Johns Hopkins University, John Work Garrett Papers, GAR 19, Box 2.3, Folder Myron T. Herrick).
112. Letter from John Work Garrett to Myron T. Herrick, May 24, 1917. (The Sheridan Libraries, The Johns Hopkins University, John Work Garrett Papers, GAR 19 Box 2.3, Folder 34 Correspondence with Myron T. Herrick).
113. Letter from Myron T. Herrick to John Work Garrett, February 21, 1917. (The Sheridan Libraries, The Johns Hopkins University, John Work Garrett Papers, GAR 19, Box 2.3, Folder 34, Correspondence with Myron T. Herrick).
114. Letter from William Graves Sharp to J.J. Jusserand, December 12, 1914. (Ministry of Foreign Affairs Archives, Guerre 1914–1918 États-Unis, Novembre–Decembre, Vol. 490)
115. The cost for the U.S. Mission at Bordeaux from September 2 to December 9, 1914 was 9,554.61 francs, roughly \$1,844.04 (or \$43,951.04 in 2014 values). The largest expense was for rent (3,333.33 francs/\$643.33) followed by costs for local transportation (3,080.25 francs/\$594.49) and telegrams and cablegrams (994.75 francs/\$191.99). Contingent Expenses, Foreign Missions, Embassy Paris January 14, 1915. (The Sheridan Libraries, The Johns Hopkins University, John Work Garrett Papers, GAR 19 Box 3.5). Conversion rates obtained on August 13, 2014 via <http://www.usinflationcalculator.com>.
116. Bliss/Sharp (Paris) to Secretary of State (Washington DC), December 17, 1914. (National Archives, RG 59, 1910-29 Central Decimal File, File 763.72115/330)
117. Coolidge, 16.
118. The Bliss parents purchased four pounds of sugar, the maximum they were able to purchase (the limit was two pounds per person), and shipped the sweet treat to Robert and Mildred Bliss in Paris via diplomatic pouch. Letter from William Henry Bliss to Robert Woods Bliss, May 29, 1918. (Papers of Robert Woods Bliss and Mildred Barnes Bliss, Family Correspondence, MBB Correspondence with ABB and WHB, 1916–1919; 1927, HUGFP 76.8 Box 5, Harvard University Archives, Cambridge, Massachusetts).
119. Letter from William H. Hunt to Secretary of State William Jennings Bryan, December 27, 1915. (National Archives, RG 59, 1910-29 Central Decimal File, File 123 H 911/16)
120. Coolidge, 21.
121. Roosevelt, 73.
122. Pennant, 32.
123. Roosevelt, 76.
124. Letter from Robert Woods Bliss to John Work Garrett, August 11, 1916. (The Sheridan Libraries, The Johns Hopkins University, John Work Garrett Papers, GAR 19 Box 2.1 Folder Robert Woods Bliss).
125. Letter from Jusserand to Ministry of Foreign Affairs, November 19, 1916. (Ministry of Foreign Affairs Archives, Etats-Unis 1914–1918, Vol. 503 Octobre–Novembre 1916)
126. Adele Logan Alexander, *Parallel Worlds: The Remarkable Gibbs-Hunts and the Enduring (In)Significance of Melanin*, (Charlottesville: University of Virginia Press, 2010), 159.
127. Alexander, 166.
128. Roosevelt, 73.
129. Roosevelt, 79.
130. Telegram from Sharp (Paris) to Bryan (Washington DC), April 13, 1915. (National Archives, RG 59, 1910-29 Central Decimal File, File 123 Sh21/23)
131. Pennant, 33.

132. Pennant, 19, 34.

133. Letter from Robert Woods Bliss to William Henry Bliss, June 15, 1917. (Papers of Robert Woods Bliss and Mildred Barnes Bliss, Family Correspondence, WHB to MBB and RWB, 1913; 1917, HUGFP 76.8 Box 5, Harvard University Archives, Cambridge, Massachusetts).

134. Letter from Robert Woods Bliss to William Henry Bliss, June 15, 1917. (Papers of Robert Woods Bliss and Mildred Barnes Bliss, Family Correspondence, WHB to MBB and RWB, 1913; 1917, HUGFP 76.8 Box 5, Harvard University Archives, Cambridge, Massachusetts).

135. *Register of the Department of State*, November 13, 1913.

136. John Malloy, "Daytona Woman Was Pershing Aide," *Daytona Beach Morning Journal*, November 23, 1968, p. 47.

137. Fairfax Downey, *Richard Harding Davis: His Day*, (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1933), 248.

138. War Relief Efforts of Mildred Barnes Bliss. (Papers of Robert Woods Bliss and Mildred Barnes Bliss, War Relief, World War I, American Groups: American Distributing Service, HUGFP 76.12 Box 1, Harvard University Archives, Cambridge, Massachusetts).

139. William G. Sharp & Gabriel Hanotaux, *Le Secours américain en France* (Paris; Librairie Felix, 1915).

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Research Note: There are further post-related administrative documents available for consultation at the U.S. National Archives in Record Group (RG) 59, 1910-29 Central Decimal File, in files 124 (diplomatic posts) and 125 (consular posts). These files contain information pertaining to staffing, assignments, organization, and activities of U.S. overseas diplomatic and consular posts.

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