

# MARINE CORPS IS UNCLE SAM'S NAVAL BIG STICK

### Skilled Seamen and Trained Infantry Are These Men.

"THE marines have landed and have the situation well in hand."

The word marines conjures up the mysteries of the plunging sea and of strange lands and stranger peoples far out of the scope of our individual sphere of observation and acquaintance. The average American citizen has but a vague idea of the marines are, where they go, what they do or what are their characteristics, duties and dress. Somewhere in his mind is stored away the impression that a marine is some sort of amphibious warrior of the sailor type, wearing sailor clothes, whose habitat is that part of the world where the most trouble is brewing.

As usual, the average American citizen is hep.

Also, he looks upon the marine as being a man who is thoroughly on his job.

Right again!

And the A. A. C. lets it go at that.

The marine corps has sometimes been called the President's Big Stick. It is a necessary branch of the naval service. Unlike the army, but like the navy, it is always kept on a war footing. It owes its extreme mobility and elasticity, says Captain H. C. Snyder, of the United States Marine Corps, to the fact that it has no permanent organization of battalions or companies. In this mobility and elasticity, together with its training received on cruising ships, lies its chief value to the navy and to the country.

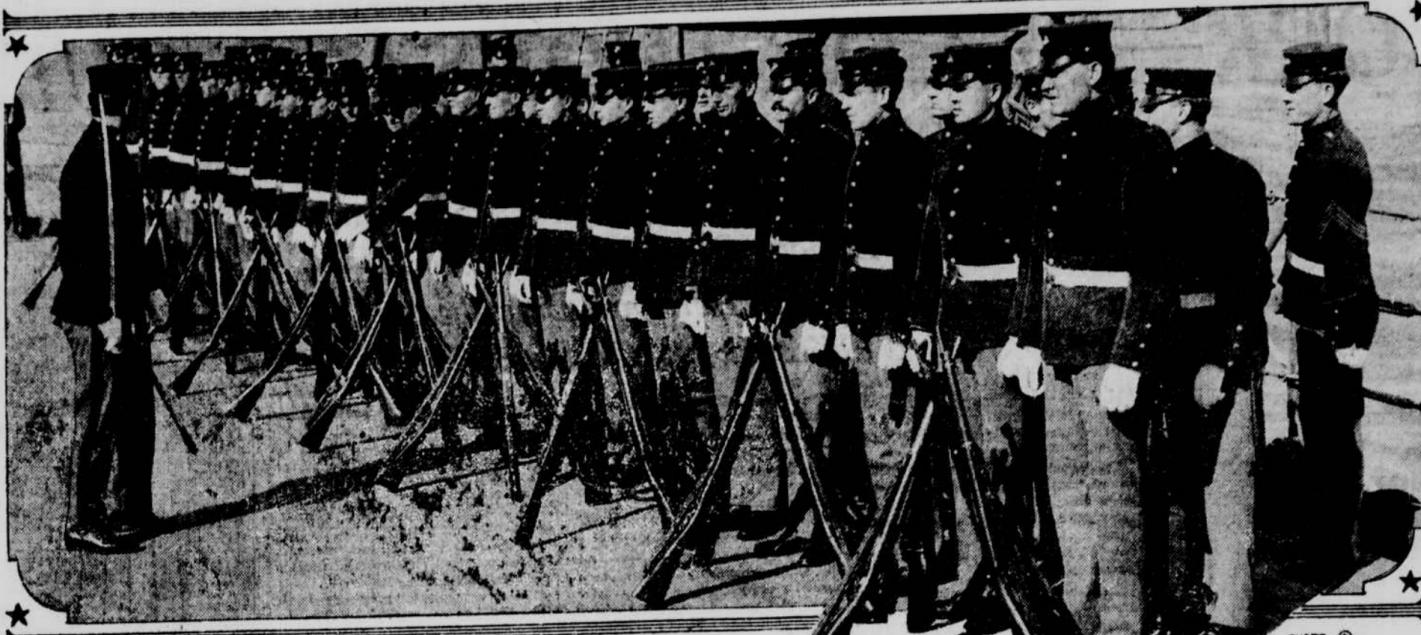
### EXPERIENCE FINISHES MARINE EDUCATION.

The marine on joining a ship has completed, or should have completed, his military education, and on board ship he gradually acquires the additional knowledge that makes him a real marine. It is this education acquired on cruising ships that makes him doubly valuable, for he can be used for military duties on shore, either alone or in conjunction with the navy or the army, or he can perform the work allotted to him aboard ship.

The duties of the marines on shipboard, except in special branches, are identical with those performed by the seaman's branch. They are stationed at the guns of the intermediate or second battery, in the discretion of the commanding officer. They are exercised in sailing and pulling boats. They have the same duties as the sailor in scrubbing decks and cleaning bright work, coaling ship, handling stores and provisions, hoisting boats when hoisted by hand, at fire quarters, collision drill, abandon ship, clear ship for action, cutting out and arm and away.

In addition to these duties the marine is the trained infantryman of the navy, fully armed and equipped as such, carrying a complete outfit of tentage, field ovens, trenching tools and other implements necessary for expeditionary duty, for landing to act alone or in conjunction with the army or navy or to suppress riots or to protect American interests.

As an advance force the marines of the United States navy are trained in the use of portable searchlights, the



U.S. Marines on the Louisiana

wireless telegraph, telegraphy, telephony, mines, torpedoes and range finders. They are trained to transport and mount in suitable shore positions guns of three, five and six inch calibre.

In other words, the navy has in a marine corps a little army of its own which, without causing international complications, without disturbing stock markets and without even attracting undue attention may pick up and move to some disturbed centre in a foreign land for the protection of American lives and property. Indeed, so speedily and unostentatiously do these soldiers of the sea move that the trouble is settled and sometimes a revolution nipped in the bud before the world at large knows that there has really been any cause for concern.

Marine detachments vary in size with the ship, from a dozen men under a sergeant to sixty or more men under one or more commissioned officers.

Admiral Farragut's opinion that "the maritime guard is one of the essentials of a man-of-war" is corroborated by that of Admiral Wilkes, who considered that "marines constituted the great difference between a man-of-war and a privateer."

### A FINE RECORD FOR NEARLY 200 YEARS.

As part of a ship's company in naval actions, as a force landed to assist in coast operations and as troops acting in concert with the army the marines have won distinction and the commendation of both naval and military authorities for nearly two hundred years. Though forming part of the ship's company and, therefore, at times suffering from the same grievances, they have always been faithful to their trust. On numerous occasions they have won the thanks of Congress.

The situation in Mexico has shown us once again that there must frequently be cases in which naval operations can be supplemented by the landing of a

force. Regular armies on shore call for disciplined forces afloat; that is to say, for marines, or sea soldiers, who should have the steadiness of troops of the line, be accustomed to the peculiar duties of ship life, and be subordinate to the naval authorities.

The marine corps was engaged in the war with Mexico from 1846 to 1848, when it figured in every quarter and made a most excellent record. Several detachments were on the Pacific side with Commodore Sloat, Shubrick and Stockton; others on the east coast with Commodore Conner and Perry, and, at times, with the army under Generals Scott, Taylor and Worth.

### PRESENT AT THE CAPTURE OF MONTEREY.

They were present at the capture of Monterey, San Francisco and Mazatlan. They fought at Los Angeles, San Diego, San José, San Gabriel and Guaymas with such credit that Commodore Shubrick recommended that the government double the number of marines on all vessels coming to the station, reducing, if necessary for the purpose, the complements of ordinary seamen and landsmen.

On the east coast they were engaged in the capture of Matamoros, Tampico, Frontera, Tabasco and Vera Cruz. They were assigned to General Quitman's division in the assault on Pueblo. This was the first division to enter the Grand Plaza, City of Mexico, which completes the explanation on the inscription since found on the banners of the corps. "From Tripoli to the halls of the Montezumas." The crowning honor, however, was at Chapultepec on September 13, 1847.

"The position of the American army, in the heart of the enemy's country, where it might be cut off from reinforcements and supplies, was full of danger, and the fortifications which barred the way to the capital, Molino del Rey, Casa Mata and Chapultepec,"

says Selye, "were exceedingly formidable."

"On September 7 the armistice came to an end. The negotiations had failed, and General Scott prepared to move on the remaining works. A reconnaissance was made on that day, and on the 8th Scott attacked the enemy. The army of Santa Anna was drawn up with its right resting on Casa Mata and its left on Molino del Rey. Both positions were carried by assault, and the Mexicans, after severe loss, were defeated and driven off the field."

### THE FINAL ASSAULT UPON CHAPULTEPEC.

"The next two days were occupied in preparing for the final assault upon Chapultepec. A careful disposition was made of the troops; batteries were planted within range, and on the 12th they opened a destructive fire."

"On the 13th a simultaneous assault was made from both sides, the troops storming the fortress with great bravery and dash, and the works were carried, the enemy flying in confusion. The army followed them along the two causeways of Belen and San Cosme, fighting its way to the gates of the city. Here a struggle continued till after nightfall, the enemy making a desperate defence. Early the next morning a deputation of the City Council waited upon General Scott, asking for terms of capitulation. These were refused, and the divisions of Worth and Quitman entered the capital."

The party assigned to the storming of the castle at Chapultepec—120 men "selected from all the corps"—was led by Major Levi Twigg and Major Reynolds, the latter at the head of the pioneers, equipped with ladders, etc. Both these men were of the marine corps.

"The storming parties," wrote General Quitman in his final report, "led by the gallant officers who had volun-

teered for this service, rushed forward like a restless tide. For a short time the contest was hand to hand; swords and bayonets were crossed and rifles clubbed. Resistance, however, was vain against the desperate valor of our brave troops."

### THE DEATH OF THE GALLANT MAJOR TWIGGS.

The gallant and lamented Major Twigg fell in the first advance at the head of his command.

On September 20 the triumphant little army, severely depleted, entered Mexico City, thereby ending the war. The 203 miles between Vera Cruz and the capital had been covered. General Scott did not start his march toward the capital till August.

Whether this feat could be repeated to-day in a short time no one can forecast. The railroad is there and could, doubtless be quickly repaired if torn up, barring some extremely important bridges.

Captain Robert Anderson, later to achieve fame as the defender of Fort Sumter, wrote to his wife of the first day's march from Vera Cruz:

"The country was a succession of cups of sand; the only redeeming thing about this part of the march was that we heard the sweet, sometimes plaintive, sometimes cheerful, notes of birds in the recesses of the glades. Here we halted sometimes, but the men had become so much exhausted that by the time we reached our camping ground nearly one-half of the men were absent. . . . To-day, in consequence of the disordered state of the command, we have marched only nine miles."

In 1859 one hundred marines were sent to Harper's Ferry for the capture of John Brown and suppressing the insurgents. This was carried out to the satisfaction of the Secretaries of War and the Navy. The marines displayed brilliant gallantry in all the coast ac-

tions of the Civil War. A proposal to incorporate them with the army after the struggle met with universal condemnation from the authorities best qualified to judge of their value.

### THE FIRST AUTHENTIC RECORD OF MARINES.

The first authentic record of marines in America bears the date of 1740. Early in that year three additional regiments were raised when the royal standard was displayed at New York as a port to which any volunteer marine was to repair. It is supposed that the native Americans were better fitted for service in this climate than Europeans, and they were clothed in a manner which was considered well adapted for their duties. The field officers were appointed by the crown, the country officers were nominated by the American provinces.

On the 8th of June, 1775, the Continental Congress resolved "that the compact between the crown and Massachusetts Bay is dissolved," and on the 10th of November, before a single vessel of the navy went to sea, the corps was organized by the following resolution:

"Resolved, That two battalions of marines be raised, consisting of one colonel, two lieutenant colonels, two majors and other officers, as usual in other regiments; that they consist of an equal number of privates with other battalions; that particular care be taken that no person be appointed to officers or enlisted in said battalions but such as are good seamen or so acquainted with maritime affairs that they be distinguished by the name of the first and second battalions of American marines."

Aldridge says "before a single vessel of the navy went to sea a corps was organized," and a detachment from

Force That Is Almost Always First at Seat of Trouble.

that corps won, on the island of New Providence—one of the Bahamas—early in 1777, the first fight in the history of the regular navy.

Conspicuous among their service in their part, under John Paul Jones, in the action between the Ranger and the Drake; again in the great battle between the Bon Homme Richard and the Serapis, in which the marines numbered 137, of whom they lost 43 killed or wounded.

The navy, and, consequently, the corps of marines, like the army, was disbanded at the termination of the Revolutionary struggle, leaving nothing behind but the recollection of its service and sufferings. A regular Navy Department was formally created on April 30, 1795, and on July 11 of that year an act was approved for establishing and organizing the Marine Corps.

On December 13, 1775, Congress directed 12 ships of war to be built. On the 22d of the same month Congress passed a resolution declaring Essex Hopkins commander in chief and appointed officers for all the vessels then in service. This was the first step taken toward the creation of the naval establishment which has won imperishable fame for the United States and upon which is based the claim of the Marine Corps to be the oldest in the service.

### DURING THE WAR WITH TRIPOLI.

During the war with Tripoli, in 1801, Lieutenant Trippe, engaged in a hand-to-hand fight with a Turk, was saved by a sergeant who passed a bayonet through the body of the Turk. The marine corps also figured in the remarkable march of General Eaton from Alexandria to Derne, nearly six hundred miles through Northern Africa, where a small detachment of marines under the command of Lieutenant O'Bannon, mounted on camels and donkeys in the caravan, leavened the jump of Arabs and Greeks in the service of the United States, and in the attack on Derne stormed the principal work, took possession of the battery, planted the American flag for the first time on a fortress of the Old World and turned its guns upon the enemy. Thereafter Tripoli was inscribed on the banners of the marine corps.

The War of 1812 found them exceedingly active at sea and on shore. In the glorious victory of the Constitution over the Guerriere the first officer killed was Lieutenant Bush, who commanded the marine guard, and with a junior lieutenant, Contee, was assisting in repelling boarders at a critical moment. The marines also took part in the battles of Lake Erie and Lake Champlain.

In the old navy there were practically only two classes on board ship, but with the introduction of steam came the engineers' branch, and to-day on the modern battleship we find separate branches, exclusive of the marine. These are the artificer branch, the engineer force, the commissary branch, the messman branch, the special branch and the seaman branch.

"Ever faithful" is the appropriate way to end a story about our marines.

# SOME OF OUR MANY DISPUTES WITH LATIN AMERICA

WHEN the steamer Illinois reached her wharf at Aspinwall, now Colon, on the morning of April 15, 1856, there was among her passengers one who imagined that the dark brown taste which lingered upon his palate would be assuaged with a slice of watermelon. He therefore bargained and contracted with a man and brother of sable hue upon the wharf for the immediate sale and delivery of the aforesaid slice of melon, at the current market price of 10 cents, spickety money. The slice was delivered, received and consumed, with gratifying effects upon the dark brown taste. The 10 cents were not, however, forthcoming, and the son of Ham lifted up his voice in clamorous demands for justice.

Another benevolent passenger from the Illinois indeed paid the debt, for the sake of justice and of international comity. But the mischief had been done. The dogs of war were loosed. By nightfall a number of persons had been killed, ships had been seized, buildings had been looted and destroyed, and deeds done for which indemnities to the amount of more than \$500,000 were demanded.

Ten years later the matter was settled, along with other claims, some of them half a century old, by means of international arbitration between the United States and Colombia; and, much as this country generally deprecated the intrusion of European influences or authority into purely American affairs, there was no objection in this case to European arbitration. There was, indeed, an arbitration, with an American as umpire, in 1861, but the result was disputed, and the final settlement was not effected until 1896. Commander Joseph Bertinetti, the Italian Minister at Washington, was first asked to serve as arbitrator, but he declined, whereupon Sir Frederick W. A. Bruce, the British Minister, was asked. He assented, made a particularly painstaking examination into all the matters laid before him, and finally awarded to the United States an indemnity of nearly \$80,000, with interest.

There was another controversy with Colombia over the seizure, on April 7, 1871, by revolutionists, of the schooner Montijo, in Colombian waters between David and Panama. This government denounced the act as piracy and demanded redress from Colombia. That

government denied responsibility for losses sustained by foreigners from what it described as "common crime." It had done all that it could to punish the criminals, and nothing more could be required.

The United States replied that piracy could not be considered a common crime. It had been committed by persons who were in revolt against the legitimate government of the Colombian province of Panama, and with whom the Colombian government of that province had subsequently made a treaty granting amnesty to the criminals and assuming responsibility for all their deeds. To this the Colombians made the same reply that the United States has made on several occasions, namely, that the matter must be dealt with by the municipal or provincial authorities, at least before the federal courts could take cognizance of it. Then the Panama courts rendered a verdict of not guilty, and this was sustained by the national tribunal at Bogota. At last, however, the American Minister at Bogota, William M. Scruggs, got Colombia to agree to arbitration, and Robert Bunch, the British Minister at Bogota, was chosen as arbitrator. He made an award in our favor, of \$32,401, without interest.

We have had several disputes with Chile. One had its origin away back in 1819, when Chilean troops under the command of the illustrious Admiral Cochrane seized the cash proceeds of the sale of a cargo which had been landed from an American vessel, and did so on Peruvian soil. There were years of ineffective correspondence over the matter, but at last, in 1863, it was submitted to the arbitration of the King of the Belgians. He gave to it much more personal attention than royal arbitrators are commonly supposed to give, and awarded us an indemnity of \$42,400, with interest.

### ACTION AGAINST CHILI FOR SEIZING SHIPS.

In 1832 the Chileans seized a couple of American vessels on a charge of having violated the customs laws. One case was settled by direct negotiation, Chile paying an indemnity. The other was finally submitted to arbitration, after the United States had once declined it. The German Minister at Santiago de Chile was chosen as umpire, but had to go home before he could act. The Italian Minister, was

thereupon chosen in his place, but before he could act the Chilean government settled the claim by direct negotiation, paying us a satisfactory indemnity.

Numerous claims of Americans against Chile and some of Chileans against America arose out of the war between Chile and Peru and the Chilean civil war, and in 1892 it was agreed that they should be referred to arbitration. There was to be a commission composed of one American, one Chilean and a third member chosen by them, or, in default of their agreement, by the President of the Swiss Confederation. That umpire, chosen by the Swiss President, was Alfred de Claparede, the Swiss Minister at Washington. Unfortunately, the treaty did not grant sufficient time for the preparation and presentation of claims, and the result was that many claims could not be acted upon. The commission disposed of as many as possible under the limitations and referred the rest back to the governments for subsequent settlement, without prejudice.

The deity of Walker, the filibuster, in Nicaragua and the consequent conflict between that country and Costa Rica led to a number of disputes and claims between the United States and Costa Rica. For the settlement of these a convention was made at San José in 1856, providing for the appointment of an arbitrator from each of the two countries, with the Italian Minister at Washington as umpire in case of need. The two considered thirty-four cases, of which they rejected thirteen. The remaining twenty-one they accepted as worthy of adjudication, but they could not agree on one of them, and so submitted them all to the umpire, Joseph Bertinetti. He rejected nine of them as not proved and awarded in the others indemnities amounting to only \$25,704.14. The total amount originally claimed was more than \$1,700,000.

Claims between this country and Ecuador were arbitrated in 1862 by an arbitrator for each country, and the Colombian Consul General at Guayaquil was umpire. Fourteen claims against Ecuador were considered. Of these four were dismissed, one of only \$79 Ecuador paid without trial, and in the rest indemnities aggregating nearly \$95,000 were awarded to the United States.

We have had arbitration, also, with

Mexico; more than once. For years before the French invasion of that country American claims against it accumulated, as did also Mexican claims against this country on account of Indian depredations on the frontier. In consequence, Seward and Romero, in 1858, agreed to submit them all to arbitration by a commission consisting of one American, one Mexican and an umpire. The umpire first chosen was the distinguished international jurist, Dr. Francis Lieber. He died during the process of arbitration, and Sir Edward Thornton, the British Minister at Washington, was selected to take his place. The work of this tribunal lasted for nearly seven years. There were decided by the two commissioners 580 American and 908 Mexican claims; by Dr. Lieber as umpire 20 American and 15 Mexican claims, and by Sir Edward Thornton as umpire 398 American and 62 Mexican claims. The total awards in favor of the United States were \$4,125,622.20, and in favor of Mexico \$150,498.41, leaving a balance due from Mexico to the United States of \$3,975,123.79. It is interesting to observe that the original American claims against Mexico had amounted to more than \$479,990,000, and those of Mexico against the United States to nearly \$87,000,000.

### TWO CLAIMS MADE UP BULK OF BIG SUM.

More than one-fourth of the whole sum thus awarded against Mexico, moreover, was for two claims, namely, those of one Benjamin Weil for cotton alleged to have been seized, and of the La Abra Silver Mining Company for dispossession and seizure of ore. After the awards had been made the Mexican government protested against these two on the ground of fraud and of gross deceit practised upon the commissioners. Congress, after much correspondence, in 1878 ordered an investigation, which was conducted by the Secretary of State, William M. Everts. The result was an indecisive report, upon which Congress took no action. Meantime, Mexico was paying the claims by instalments, under protest, and the instalments were being paid to the claimants by our government. When Chester Arthur became President, however, he suspended payments to the claimants and made a convention for a rehearing before an international commission. The Senate unfortunately re-

fused to ratify this action, and the case dragged along until 1892, when Congress gave the Court of Claims jurisdiction over it. As a result, in 1897, that court sustained the original Mexican contention of many years before. It found that fraud had been employed in the La Abra case and forbade the payment of any more money to that claimant. Three years later the United States returned to Mexico the undistributed balance of the awards which that country had paid on that claim, and in 1902 the sum of \$412,572.70 was appropriated by Congress, with which to repay Mexico those instalments which she had paid and which had been distributed to the fraudulent claimant.

Another interesting claim against Mexico was that on account of the so-called "Pious Fund." In early years certain devout persons gave large sums of money for the propagation of the Gospel among the heathen in Mexico and California. In 1836 the Mexican government confided the administration of this fund to the Roman Catholic Bishop of the two Californias, but in 1842 it withdrew it from him and put it into the national treasury, paying, however, 6 per cent interest on it to the Church. In 1845 it restored a part of it to the Bishop, but kept most of it. After the cession of California to the United States a claim was made against the Mexican government by the Bishop of Monterey and the Archbishop of San Francisco for \$1,700,000 on account of that fund. This claim was among those laid before the commission, and was passed upon by Sir Edward Thornton as umpire, who awarded to the claimants \$904,979.79 for accrued interest for twenty-one years, leaving the question of the principal to be settled later. The Mexican government was willing to pay this, but insisted that it must be regarded as a full, final and complete settlement of the whole claim, both principal and interest. To this the United States would not assent, and the case was finally reopened and submitted to the international tribunal at The Hague, being the first ever laid before it.

The case was heard at The Hague by Sir Edward Fry, of England, and M. De Martens, of Russia, named by the President of the United States; T. M. C. Asser, of Holland, and A. F. de Savornin Lohman, of Holland, named by the President of Mexico, and Henning Matzen, the president of the Tribunal

ex officio, as umpire. The verdict was that Mexico should pay the United States for the claimants the sum of \$1,420,082.67, Mexican money, which sum should totally extinguish the annuities accrued and not paid by Mexico; and that, beginning on February 2, 1903, Mexico should similarly pay perpetually an annuity for the claimants of \$43,050.90, Mexican money. This award was concurred in and signed by all five arbitrators.

### TROUBLE WITH BRAZIL BACK IN 1856.

A controversy arose with the then Empire of Brazil in 1856 over the American whaler Canada, which went ashore on the Brazilian coast and was seized by the authorities. The captain under duress formally abandoned the ship to them and gave notice that he would seek redress through the government. The vessel became a complete wreck, but the valuable cargo was saved and sold, and the proceeds were covered into the Brazilian treasury. The United States government demanded indemnity, but the case was delayed and postponed until after the Civil War. At last, in 1870, it was submitted to the arbitration of Sir Edward Thornton, the British Minister at Washington, who decided on all points in our favor and awarded an indemnity of \$100,740.04.

Our first settlement of claims with Venezuela afforded another example of alien arbitration. This was in 1866, when the choice of an umpire between the American and Venezuelan commissioners was intrusted to the Russian Minister at Washington, who designated a Venezuelan, Juan N. Machado. Twenty-five claims against Venezuela were rejected, but on the other twenty-four awards aggregating \$1,253,310.30 were made in our favor. The Venezuelan government protested against this, despite the fact that the umpire was a Venezuelan, on the ground of irregularity and fraud. Our Congress at first directed the President to insist upon immediate payment of the award, but later thought better of it, ordered an investigation, and found that the Venezuelan charges were sustained by the facts. Thereupon the findings were set aside and new arbitration was arranged. This time an American umpire was selected, with the result that a settlement was reached which commanded the confidence of both parties.

Awards of \$912,036.88 were made in favor of the United States.

Another controversy arose with Venezuela in 1871-72 over the affairs of the Venezuelan Transportation Company, an American corporation, three of whose vessels had been seized for use during a revolution. It was twenty years before arbitration was finally agreed upon. Then a commissioner from each country was appointed, viz. J. A. W. Grip, the Swedish-Norwegian Minister at Washington, as umpire. The resulting award was in favor of the United States.

In a number of important cases the United States has served as an arbitrator between disputing Latin-American powers, generally to the satisfaction of both parties. But that is not all other story.

### THE PEOPLE'S UNIVERSITY

The "University for the People," as Dr. Henry M. Leipziger, the supervisor, styled the great system of free public lectures conducted throughout the city by its Board of Education, completed its twenty-fifth year last week. It was organized in Manhattan under authority of legislative enactment in 1889. The first lectures were given in January of that year. There were six centres, and before the year was closed in April of that year 22,216 lectures had been delivered to 22,216 persons, the average attendance being 115. The idea grew slowly until Dr. Leipziger was appointed supervisor, in 1892. The growth of the lecture system, the pioneer of its kind, immediately became rapid. It was adopted by Brooklyn, and the Brooklyn system was copied, dated with that of Manhattan and The Bronx, and centres were opened in all the boroughs. The attendance for 1913-14 was more than 1,150,000, the average at a lecture being about 213. More than 5,000 lectures were given by 700 lecturers in 100 centres. Every part of the city was covered, from Tottonville and Lincolnton on Staten Island, to Wakened, and the marches of Mount Vernon, and the Rockaway, Barren Island, Springfield and City Island, on the eastern borders. The lectures covered almost every topic that could be treated before a popular audience. There were courses similar to those given in universities and examinations were held.

Since the idea was developed in this city it has spread to other places, and many cities in the vicinity of New York have courses every winter, which are supported by the public treasury. Philadelphia, Baltimore and St. Louis, for example, have been put into effect through university extension courses.