

Men-at-Arms

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The Spanish-American War and Philippine Insurrection

1898–1902



Alejandro de Quesada • Illustrated by Stephen Walsh

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1898–1902



Alejandro de Quesada • Illustrated by Stephen Walsh

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OPPOSITE **By 1898 Spain had been forced to confront Cuban insurgents in three separate campaigns. This Spanish Army *sargento primero* posing for his studio portrait at some time during the Ten Years' War (1868–78) illustrates the essential features of the uniform still worn in 1898. His good quality *jipijapa* straw hat here has insignia on the side of the crown (apparently the infantry buglehorn below a number, on a green patch); in 1898 only the Spanish cockade was generally worn. The lightweight tropical uniform, apparently in off-white linen, has removable collar and cuffs of green infantry facing-color, and removable rank insignia (here three gold stripes). Note the infantry emblem also displayed on the flap of his very old-fashioned belly pouch, which recalls the Napoleonic Wars; and the percussion rifle-musket, predating the acceptance of the first batch of US-made Remington rifles in 1869.**

THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR and THE PHILIPPINE INSURRECTION 1898-1902

THE "SPLENDID LITTLE WAR"

The road to war

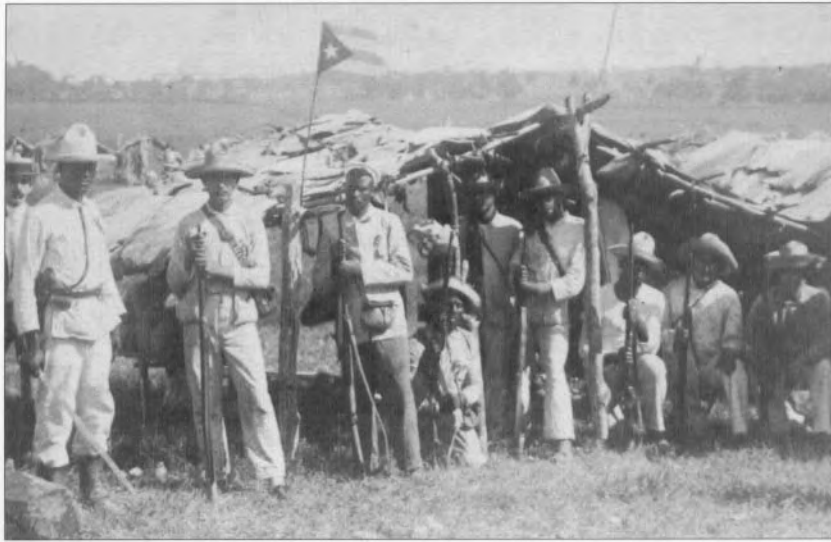
ON OCTOBER 10, 1868, a former slave-owner "raised the two-barred and single-starred flag of Cuba at Yara in the District of Bayamo and, with his associates, made public a declaration of independence" (Beck, 117). His name was Carlos Manuel de Céspedes y Castillo, and he was soon to be the first president of the Cuban Republic in Arms, and the commander-in-chief of the armed forces during the Ten Years' War (1868-78) against the Spanish colonial government. Plans for a revolutionary army were implemented, and Gen Manuel de Quesada y Loinaz was appointed General-in-Chief of the Cuban Army of Liberation by the provisional government.

General de Quesada and many other officers who joined the ranks of the newly formed Army of Liberation had gained most of their military experience in foreign armies. General de Quesada had served in the Mexican army of Benito Juárez during the Mexican patriots' bloody struggle against the Emperor Maximilian's French occupying army in 1861-67. Many other Cubans had gained valuable military experience while serving in the Confederate forces during the American Civil War (far fewer had served in the Union armies, due to the fact that larger concentrations of Hispanics were located in the Gulf regions of the Southern states). Foreigners with military education and/or practical experience also joined the new insurgent force, such as the Dominican Máximo Gómez and the American Thomas Jordan. Others, without useful experience, joined up simply out of a sense of adventure.

The original Spanish garrison units at the outbreak of the rebellion were the Antillas Infantry Regiment (No.44) and the Cuba and Havana Rifle Battalions (Nos.17 & 18), whose strength would be multiplied many times over by reinforcements recruited in Spain and in Cuba. "The size of the Cuban Revolutionary Army in the period from 1868 to 1878 never passed more than 15,000 regular well-armed troops, although many more fought in irregular units. Spanish troops reached 55,000 by 1871... with an additional 30,000 Spanish-born militia members, and another 30,000 Cuban-born militia forces called *guerrilleros*" (Fermoselle, 61-62).

Although their forces were generally outnumbered by the Spanish, the Cuban insurgents made up for this disparity by their choice of tactics. Apart from ambushing the Spanish on tracks through thick forest and cane fields, and creeping close to small, isolated outposts to take them in sudden rushes, they also favored mounting cavalry charges when possible. Their armament was patchy, but even those who lacked





A field headquarters of the Cuban Army of Liberation taken during their third war, that which began in 1895. The range of ethnicity is wide, from apparently Caucasian (far left background) to very dark African Cuban soldiers; the latter would make a contribution to the war out of all proportion with their numbers. (For the flag, see Plate A.)

of preying on the morale of Spanish troops both during and after the battle certainly worked; however, the principal advantage enjoyed by the insurgents was their knowledge of the terrain, which was used effectively by their military leaders. "They often forced the Spanish to fight at the site of their choosing, where Cuban troops had already taken the most advantageous field positions" (Fermoselle, 62).

Both sides won some significant victories during the decade of hostilities, but by the end of this period both sides had been drained of most of their men, materials and morale. The revolutionary army began to fight amongst themselves, splitting over regional, racial and political issues. The civilian sector of the Revolutionary Government had supervision over the military, and the right to secure funds and supplies for the war effort; the major cause of the internecine squabbling was disagreement between civilian and military leaders over the management of the war. The Spanish, too, had grown tired; back in Spain there was a public outcry for concessions to be made to the Cubans, and the ten-year conflict had greatly reduced the royal treasury of a nation already impoverished. The Treaty of Zanjón, in February 1878, called for total capitulation of the Cuban insurgent forces, but offered in return autonomous rule, and promised that there would be no retribution by the Spanish authorities against those who had taken up arms against the Crown.

The combat experience accumulated by the Cuban insurgents in 1868–78 was to be valuable in their future clashes with the Spanish authorities. In 1880 there was a small uprising by some of these veterans; however, it was put down within a few weeks, and was fondly known thereafter as the "Little War". In the same year slavery in Cuba was abolished, and in 1886 total freedom was granted to the former slaves. However, Spain's relative failure to follow through with the concessions won under the terms of the Treaty of Zanjón caused continuing discontent. This reached a climax when, on February 23, 1895, the authorities suspended constitutional guarantees, provoking the Cubans into reviving their Army of Liberation. Its re-born organization was along the same lines that had been followed during

modern firearms wielded a fearsome weapon – the machete, a common tool available to anyone, particularly the free blacks and the slaves who worked in the cane fields. Spanish infantrymen soon came to fear the shout of "*¡al machete!*" from an insurgent officer; the slung machete became a formal feature of the rebels' uniform, and officers and NCOs displayed their rank insignia on the slings (see below, "Cuban Army of Liberation"). The policy

the Ten Years' War, but there were two distinct changes. Firstly, "the Revolutionary Government was designed in such a way as to facilitate military operations and avoid previous conflicts between the military and civilian leadership. The military was given more authority to carry out the war without civilian interference and second guessing, particularly in disciplinary matters in the military." Secondly, the abolition of slavery now provided a greater number of able-bodied potential soldiers for the cause. "The backbone of the Cuban Army of Independence was the black soldier, who made up to seventy percent of the army, while only thirty-two percent of the entire population" (Fermoselle, 77-78).

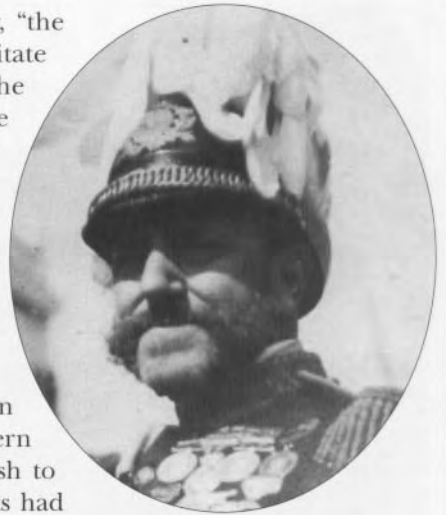
The insurgents' simple objective was to destroy Spain's grip on Cuba. To do this, their forces had to rise in both western and eastern ends of the elongated island simultaneously, obliging the Spanish to disperse their strength; during the Ten Years' War the insurgents had attempted this strategy, but had failed, the rest of the war being fought in the mountainous eastern region. For his part, the Spanish Captain-General Valeriano Weyler attempted to isolate the different groups of insurgents by constructing many defensive lines – *trochas*; the main line virtually cut the island in half from Morón in the north to Jucaro in the south, and a second system west of Havana isolated Pinar del Rio province at the western tip of Cuba.

The Spanish Crown forces now totaled something between 130,000 and 160,000 men, but of very variable quality and morale. Only a minority were mainland Spanish regular troops of "Peninsular" units; about half were locally recruited, into "Provincial" maneuver units, smaller "Volunteer" local garrison units, or even smaller auxiliary "Guerrilla" companies. Small garrisons – typically of one infantry and one cavalry company, with a couple of artillery pieces – were widely scattered in blockhouses protected by trenches, rifle pits and barbed wire. Larger forces would sally out in fast-moving columns to strike at reported insurgent concentrations, or to carry out regional sweeps among the rural population.

During 1895 and 1896 the insurgents' two-front operations had some success under the command of Gens Maximo Gómez, Antonio Maceo and Calixto Garcia. By 1897, however, the deaths of experienced insurgent commanders – especially the loss of Antonio Maceo and his brother José – forced a reorganization on the Army of Liberation due to the shortage of competent senior officers. The army corps were located in districts, within which the various corps commanders would report to the district commander. The army's general headquarters also had to be expanded to handle its growing responsibilities.

United States intervention in Cuba, 1898

By 1898 the Cuban insurgent army held most of the rural areas of the island, while Spain held most of the cities and strategic towns. The colonial authorities had attempted to separate the rebels from their base of support by forced evacuations of non-combatants to defensible concentration areas, where many died of starvation and disease. In the United States an anti-Spanish press had been feeding the pro-insurgent fervor of the American public since the Ten Years' War. Now horror



Valeriano Weyler y Nicolau, Captain-General of Cuba, in Spanish general officer's full dress uniform. Weyler was nicknamed "Butcher" by the Cubans, for his *reconcentrado* policy of forced removal of rural populations into the concentration areas where many died.



In response to possible threats to American interests in Havana after a riot by Spanish sympathizers, and to the growing concern about a German naval presence in the Caribbean, the United States sent the USS *Maine* into Havana harbor on January 25, 1898. This photo shows part of the wreck after she suspiciously blew up at anchor in Havana harbor at 2145 hours on February 15, 1898, killing 268 out of a ship's complement of 374 officers and men. The United States now had a motive to declare the war upon Spain for which large numbers of the American public (urged on by the Hearst press) had been calling.

stories about Spanish atrocities, and a sense of identification with an independence movement trying to throw off European shackles, led to increasing demands for America to commit herself to the cause of Cuban independence, if necessary by military means. President McKinley's government succeeded in securing the dismissal of CaptGen Weyler in 1897, but US opinion remained inflamed. When the visiting battleship USS *Maine* inexplicably blew up in Havana harbor on the evening of February 15, 1898, killing 268 of the ship's company, the disaster was universally blamed on the Spanish authorities.

On April 25, the United States Congress declared that a state of war with Spain existed, and what Senator John Hay would later describe as a "splendid little war" had begun. The US Army was mobilized, but with less than 28,000 men it was quite unprepared for overseas operations.

The order to expand the regular Federal army to 60,000 and to mobilize the National Guard units of the States brought a flood of volunteers eager to serve; by August there were 56,000 regulars and 272,000 Guardsmen and Volunteers on the rolls, overwhelming the Army's limited capacity to clothe, equip, arm and train them.

While the US Navy's Atlantic Fleet instituted a blockade of Havana, the Spanish Adm Pascual Cervera y Topete set sail from the Cape Verde islands with a squadron of Spain's most modern warships. US Admiral William T. Sampson failed to intercept them on the high seas, and it was impossible to contemplate embarking a landing force while Cervera's whereabouts were unknown. On May 19, Adm Cervera's ships anchored in the fortified harbor of Santiago de Cuba at the southeastern tip of the island, where they were immediately blockaded by Adm Sampson; however, the harbor defenses were too strong for him to enter and attack them.

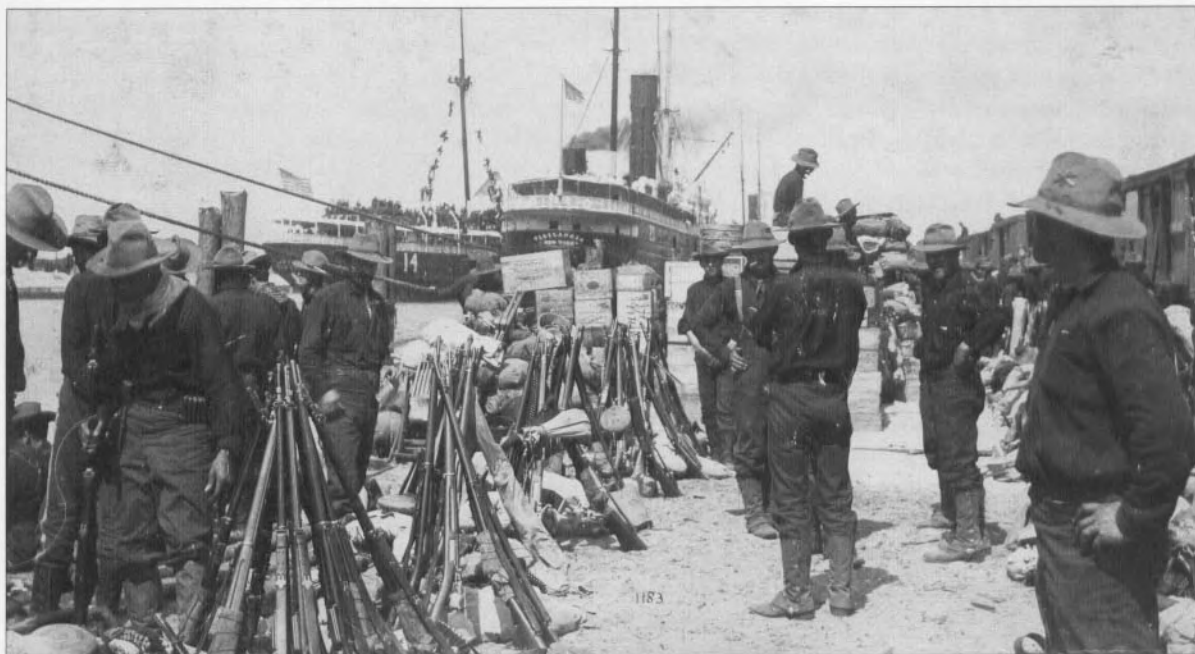
Meanwhile, negotiations over joint military action were taking place between American and Cuban leaders, and it was agreed that the insurgents would provide support for an American invasion force. The great majority of the Spanish troops were around Havana in the northwest, so the plan was to land at Daiquiri and Siboney on the south-east coast just east of Santiago, the island's second city; the bottled-up Spanish warships and the batteries protecting them would thus be threatened from the sea and by land simultaneously. Assembled around Tampa, FL, the US V Corps was just under 17,000 strong, in three hastily organized divisions, and was commanded by MajGen William R. Shafter. The corps, which sailed on June 14, included 15 regular regiments – the bulk of the US Army – and three regiments of Volunteers; it was short of many necessities, including mounts for the cavalry, and had had little training before embarkation. Using small craft, it was landed over open beaches on June 22–25, with some difficulty and confusion; luckily, it encountered no resistance. Some 5,000 Cuban insurgents under Gen Calixto Garcia would cooperate with the US force. Spain had only some 35,000 troops in Oriente (Santiago) province in the southeast, and less than a third of that number were around Santiago city itself.

The landing force pushed inland without delay, and its advance guard forced Spanish troops back in a bloody jungle skirmish at El Guásimas on June 24. On July 1, V Corps came up against the main Spanish positions along the San Juan Heights; these were protected by several substantial blockhouses, entrenchments and barbed wire over a front of about two miles, with a secondary position at El Caney a couple of miles to the north. The Spanish Army, while experienced in counter-insurgency, had not fought a modern army for half a century. General Arsenio Linares, the Santiago province commander, failed to reinforce the defenders of these strong positions adequately, keeping many of his troops in Santiago itself.

Famously, the San Juan Heights were captured on July 1 by US frontal assaults up the bare slopes, supported by artillery and Gatling guns. The dismounted Cavalry Div took the outlying Kettle Hill on the Spanish left, defended by part of the Talavera Peninsular Regt, and Gen Kent's 1st Div drove the Puerto Rico Provisional Bn off San Juan Hill on the Spanish right. Meanwhile, Gen Lawton's 2nd Div, supported by Capron's Bty, had finally overcome the courageous defense of the fortified hilltop village of El Caney by only some 500 Spanish troops under Gen Joaquin Vara del Rey. The Spanish failed to mount counter-attacks; and US control of these heights, upon which heavy artillery could be installed, spelled disaster for the Santiago garrison – and the warships in its harbor.

Admiral Cervera came out to fight on July 3, and his squadron was destroyed by US warships commanded by Rear Adm Winfield S. Schley. General Shafter besieged Santiago from the east and north, and Gen Garcia's insurgents from the west. Although a Spanish column managed to fight its way in from the west, this merely added to the number of mouths Gen José Toral had to feed; his water supply had been cut off and his ammunition was low. On July 17, after prolonged negotiations

Men, equipment, and supplies waiting to be loaded onto cargo ships heading for Cuba from Port Tampa, Florida. Note, far right, the branch emblem, regimental number and company letter pinned to the side of the campaign hat.



in an attempt to save face, the garrison marched out into captivity. (General Calixto Garcia and his insurgent army were denied the privilege of taking part in the surrender ceremony.)

The war in Cuba was over, and a treaty was formally signed on August 12, 1898. "On January 1, 1899, Captain-General Adolfo Jiménez Castellanos turned the administration of Cuba over to General John R. Brooke, and four hundred years of Spanish government in Cuba came to an end" (Fermoselle, 92). The campaign had cost the US Army just 385 soldiers killed in action, but more than 5,000 dead of wounds or – predominantly – of disease.

The Philippine Insurrection

The Philippine islands had been under a fairly relaxed Spanish rule since the 1570s; very few Spaniards were actually resident, and missionaries and merchants were the most visible representatives of the colonial power. The great expanse of the Philippine archipelago, its lack of infrastructure and the number of languages spoken by its diverse peoples all had the effect of limiting any coherent movement for reform or independence more or less to the vicinity of the capital, Manila on Luzon island. During the 1870s there was some agitation among the small Spanish-speaking educated class, both at home and in Spain itself; and in 1872 about 200 native soldiers mutinied at the Cavite arsenal, killing their officers. Spanish reprisals were severe; agitation continued to spread, and leaders emerged such as José Rizal y Mercado of the *Liga Filipina*, who worked from exile in Hong Kong and Barcelona until he was extradited, and executed after a travesty of a trial in December 1896. Parallel with this Spanish-speaking organization was another of Tagalog-speakers, usually known as the *Katipunan*. Its center was in Cavite province, where armed insurrection broke out on August 26, 1896. Emilio Aguinaldo was at that time the mayor of Cavite Viejo and the local leader of the *Katipunan*.

Spain responded by building up the garrison to some 28,000 troops, and put down the rising in a couple of months. However, the legalized murder of Rizal in December caused it to revive and spread to other provinces. Aguinaldo eventually signed the so-called Pact of Biacna-Bató with the Spanish governor-general in December 1897. Under its terms Aguinaldo was given a considerable sum of money to go into permanent exile, in return for Spanish promises of liberal reforms.

When the Spanish-American War broke out in April 1898, Aguinaldo, then in Hong Kong, made arrangements with representatives of the US consulates in Hong Kong and Singapore, and of Cdre George Dewey, commander of the US Navy's Asiatic squadron, to return to the Philippines to assist the United States. On May 1,



ABOVE African American soldiers of the 24th US (Colored) Infantry Regiment training with Springfield "trapdoor" rifles at Chickamauga Battlefield, GA, in the weeks prior to sailing for Cuba. They had received bolt-action Krag's by July 1, when men from this regiment captured a Spanish blockhouse on San Juan Hill by breaking through the roof and dropping down inside. That morning the 25th (Colored) Infantry had also distinguished themselves, in the assault on El Viso fort at El Caney.





ABOVE Filipino insurgents in the field; like the Cuban *Mambises*, most wore simple white peasant clothing and straw hats, with rope-soled *alpagatas* or bare feet, but many were armed with captured 11mm Spanish Remington rolling-block rifles. Between 1867 and 1934 literally millions of examples of this most successful military rifle of all time were produced in various countries, chambered and bored for a wide range of ammunition; in America alone the calibers supplied to different customers ranged from .236in to .50in (6mm to 12.7mm).

OPPOSITE The dense white smoke produced by the M1873 Springfield "trapdoor" rifle identifies these US troops in the Philippines as from a State Volunteer unit; during the Insurrection many State troops were still issued with this obsolescent weapon. Note, center foreground, the double row of cartridge loops on the Mills-pattern webbing belt, giving the soldier a basic load of 80 or 90 rounds.

Dewey destroyed Adm Patricio Montojo's Spanish squadron in Manila Bay, subsequently capturing Cavite harbor and blockading Manila (a victory that made him a national hero, and would bring him the rare distinction of the rank of Admiral of the Navy). Aguinaldo arrived home on May 19, and announced the renewal of the struggle with Spain. The Filipinos declared their independence on June 12 and proclaimed a provisional republic, with Aguinaldo as president. On June 30, about 10,000 US troops from VIII Corps, commanded by Gen Wesley Merritt, began

to disembark at Cavite. After investing Manila with the help of the insurgents, he attacked the city with naval gunfire support. On August 13, after the briefest defense, the Spanish capitulated.

In September a revolutionary assembly met and ratified Filipino independence. However, much to the shock of Aguinaldo and his supporters, the Treaty of Paris signed between Spain and the USA on December 10, 1898, ceded the Philippines, along with Puerto Rico and Guam, to the United States. American-Filipino relations had been strained from the outset, and now deteriorated rapidly. On January 23, 1899, the assembly and President Aguinaldo approved the Malolos Constitution, declaring the Philippines an independent republic. On the night of February 4, fighting broke out between the Americans and the Filipinos surrounding Manila. Aguinaldo issued a proclamation of war against the USA; his men fought with reckless courage, but were defeated within 24 hours. On February 6, the US senate ratified the Treaty of Paris, and America immediately sent reinforcements to the Philippines.

VIII Corps had been reduced to about 12,000 men, but by summer 1899 some 35,000 US troops were on the islands. They faced around 40,000 insurgents; the Filipinos were initially hampered by mutual distrust between Aguinaldo and their best military leader, Antonio Luna, who was soon murdered. The Revolutionary Government fled northwards; in April 1899 the US capture of their headquarters at Manolos separated the insurgents in the north and south of Luzon, and by November 1899 the Filipinos had resorted to guerrilla warfare. Nevertheless, some large-scale clashes continued; for instance, in January 1900 more than 1,000 Filipinos attacked a company of the US 25th (Colored) Infantry defending the village of Iba on the west coast. Between October 1900 and June 1901 more than 1,000



After his capture on March 23, 1901, Gen Emilio Aguinaldo comes aboard an American gunboat. Like José Rizal y Mercado of the Spanish-speaking *Liga Filipina*, Aguinaldo, leader of the Tagalog-speaking *Katipunan* movement, was of part-Chinese descent. After his capture Aguinaldo took an oath of allegiance to the United States, was granted a pension from the US government, and retired to private life; he lived to be 95, only dying in 1964.

separate engagements were recorded. The insurrection tailed off after March 23, 1901, when a daring operation led by Gen Frederick Funston captured Aguinaldo at his secret headquarters at Palanan in northern Luzon.

While the Roman Catholic, Tagalog-speaking Filipino insurgents had been virtually suppressed by April 1902, when Gen Miguel Malvar surrendered in Samar, a new enemy arose to fight the Americans: the Moros – fanatical Muslim Filipinos, who controlled the island of Mindanao and the Sulu Archipelago. The US Army now faced a long-drawn-out counter-guerrilla campaign, dispersed in small units across a vast area of tropical forest and swampland. Despite the official declaration of the ending of the Philippine Insurrection in 1902, it would be another 15 years before it could be truly said that fighting had ceased, and sporadic clashes between Moros and US troops would continue into World War I and after.

CHRONOLOGY

For clarity, events in Cuba are given in Roman type and events in the Philippines in *italics*.

1898

January 12 – Spanish loyalists riot in Havana over proposed Cuban autonomy.

January 25 – Battleship USS *Maine* arrives in Havana harbor to protect American interests.

February 15 – USS *Maine* blows up in harbor, killing 268 of its crew.

April 11 – President McKinley asks Congress for declaration of war against Spain.

April 25 – Congress declares that a state of war exists.

April 30/May 1 – US warships under command of Cdre George Dewey destroy the Spanish fleet and harbor fortifications at Manila, Luzon.

May – US warships blockade Spanish fleet under command of Rear Adm Pascual Cervera in harbor of Santiago de Cuba.

May 25 – US troops, under command of BrigGen Thomas M. Anderson, depart from San Francisco, CA, for the invasion of the Philippines. Further convoys would sail on June 15, 27 and 28.

May 31 – US Army V Corps receives orders to leave Tampa, FL, for Santiago de Cuba.

June 10 – US Marines land at Guantanamo Bay, Cuba, and establish beachhead.

June 22–23 – US V Corps troops land on the beaches of Daiquiri and Siboney, to link up eventually with some 5,000 Cuban insurgents.

June 24 – Battle of Las Guasimas, Cuba.

June 30/31 – US troops enter Manila Bay and land at Cavite.

July 1 – US victories at El Caney and San Juan Hill, Cuba.

Emilio Aguinaldo proclaims himself president of the Revolutionary Philippine Republic.

July 3 – Destruction of Adm Cervera's fleet by US warships under Rear Adm Winfield S. Schley off Santiago de Cuba.

July 17 – Spanish troops in Santiago (Oriente) province of Cuba capitulate.
July 25 – 3,000 US troops of I Corps, under command of Gen Nelson A.Miles, land at Guanica, Puerto Rico; the port of Ponce is soon taken with little opposition.

August 12 – Armistice signed in Cuba.

August 13 – Spanish troops in Puerto Rico capitulate, and US troops enter the capital, San Juan, after a virtually bloodless campaign.

Spanish troops in the Philippines surrender after a staged battle for Manila with US troops. Filipinos begin to take over Spanish arsenals and defenses outside the city for possible hostilities against American troops.

December 10 – Peace treaty signed between the USA and Spain in Paris. Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Philippines become American territories; Cuba to become independent upon establishment of civilian government, in the meantime to be occupied by US forces until 1902.

1899

January 1 – Spain formally cedes Cuba, Puerto Rico and the Philippines to the USA.

February 4 – Aguinaldo's insurgent forces attack US troops in Manila.

February 5 – Battle of Santa Ana.

1901

March 23 – Gen Emilio Aguinaldo captured by American troops.

September 28 – Some 48 soldiers of the US 9th Infantry are massacred by several hundred machete-wielding Filipinos in the town of Balangiga.

1902

July 4 – President Theodore Roosevelt declares the end of the Philippine Insurrection.

The Philippine Insurrection was the bloodiest of all the events relating to the Spanish-American War. By its official ending in 1902 it had cost 4,200 American dead – the great majority from disease – and 2,800 wounded. Some 20,000 insurgents had been killed, but about 200,000 Filipinos had also died from disease, famine and other effects of war. Sporadic fighting in fact continued until at least 1917.

UNITED STATES FORCES

UNIFORMS: ARMY & STATE TROOPS

The basic uniform of the US Army was the type worn during the late "Frontier" period, with some modifications.¹

Blue fatigue & undress uniforms

The M1883 fatigue blouse could trace its lineage to the M1858 "sack coat" via the M1872 fatigue blouse. The M1883 blouse was the standard issue coat throughout the Spanish-American War, and remained in service until 1902 (indeed, the Coast Artillery Corps were still being issued surplus M1883 blouses until 1914). The dark blue M1883 sack coat was of heavy wool, and most had a quilted lining. It had a "rolled" (i.e. falling) collar, five large brass buttons on the front and three small buttons on each sleeve. It was worn by both enlisted men and non-commissioned officers of all branches (for NCOs' distinctions, see below under "Insignia").



¹ For reasons of space only a shortened summary of US Army regulations is given here, and those for dress – as opposed to field – uniforms are generally omitted. For more comprehensive quotations from the regulations of 1895–1901 and 1902–1920, see MAA 230, *The US Army 1890–1920*.

Detail from a group photo of US Army NCOs posing in their M1884 dress uniforms. Note the epaulets on the sack coat, the battery quartermaster sergeant's Artillery-red trouser stripe, and the Artillery plates on the M1881 helmets at their feet. On dress coats the rank chevrons were gold edged with branch color, the diagonal service stripes plain gold on blue – unless they indicated war service, in which case they were edged with the color of the man's branch during that service. The battery quartermaster sergeant can just be seen to wear a Coast Artillery marksman badge pinned to the left breast of his coat.



By the early 1890s most State troops were being uniformed along similar lines to Federal troops, although small liberties were taken by some states in details of adornment. These might consist of State buttons, epaulets, colored piping along the collar and cuffs, or other minor departures from Federal regulations.

The blouse was termed an undress uniform, and was to be used for general wear and field service (i.e. on campaign). However, due to the tropical climate of Florida, Cuba, Puerto Rico and the Philippines, the heavy wool coats were normally laid aside by soldiers serving there. Instead, they (and their officers) normally wore the M1883 Army overshirt, usually referred to as the "campaign shirt"; of blue wool flannel, it had two large breast pockets. Widely used as an unofficial campaign uniform by most soldiers in the Spanish-American War, by 1901 this comfortable and practical alternative became the regulation drill and campaign dress for "extremely warm weather."

All branches except the Engineers wore M1884 sky-blue kersey trousers, those issued to mounted troops having reinforced seats and legs; officially the Engineers wore dark blue. A pair of M1890 brown cotton duck lace-up leggings was worn, over russet leather shoes.

Regulations prescribed that the **undress uniform for officers** was to be used for "marches, squad and company drills, other drills when authorized by the Commanding Officer, and for fatigue duty and ordinary wear" (Jacobsen, 6). The officers' dark blue M1895 undress coat had a concealed fastening, and was trimmed with 1½-in-wide black mohair braid around the stand collar, the front and bottom edges and the side vents. (For the rank and other devices worn on this coat, see below under "Insignia".) A white summer version of the coat was also permitted (but no rank or other devices were worn on this until 1901).

In 1899 officers were permitted another style of field blouse; this resembled the enlisted men's single-breasted, fall-collar, five-button sack coat (with which it may be confused in photographs), but had four flapped external pockets, and was worn with shoulder straps. The standard trousers for officers were the same as the enlisted men's, with appropriate outseam stripes.

Lightweight uniforms

The Army's first war fought outside the United States brought major changes in the field uniforms of its troops. The tropical climates of Cuba and the Philippines forced many US soldiers to get rid of their wool

blouses in favor of the lighter campaign shirts; but due to the numbers of men still falling prey to heat exhaustion and dehydration, the Army began experimenting with uniforms made out of lighter-colored and lighter-weight materials. The basis of their study was the uniform in "khaki cotton drill" worn by British troops in Africa and India. By the end of the Spanish-American War, some units had been issued new uniforms made from khaki cotton duck material, and by 1903 the Army had made these the official hot weather fatigue and field dress.

The M1888 summer coat had been the earliest attempt to create a lightweight uniform for hot weather. Essentially an unlined version of the M1883 sack coat, this piece was made out of unbleached cotton duck material, with buttons designed to be removable; NCOs and musicians wore the same but bleached white. In 1897 bleached cotton duck sack coats and trousers were introduced for all ranks during the summer in extreme southern latitudes, and by the Hospital Corps for ward duty.

An experimental batch of 10,000 cotton duck field uniforms in tan (khaki) was ordered by the Quartermaster General in April 1898; these proved so successful that mass production and general issue were ordered, but manufacturers were unable to supply khaki cotton in bulk. The New York QM Depot ordered 50,000 suits in June 1898, but only 5,000 were available for V Corps before they sailed for Cuba. On July 10, enough khaki uniforms for general issue to V Corps arrived off Siboney, but they were not unloaded for several weeks.

The jacket generally resembled the M1888 summer sack coat, but with four external pockets; and a General Order of May 23, 1898, prescribed a stand collar and detachable epaulets faced in branch-of-service ("corps") colors for all ranks. The pointed cuffs and occasionally the pocket flaps were also seen in branch colors. Many variations, in material and color, were used by various Federal and some State troops, alongside the old blue garments or even in mixed suits with them. The rushed early deliveries of the M1898 uniform were of inferior quality and fit; and some M1884 brown canvas fatigue/stable clothing was also worn. The subsequent M1899 variation of the field blouse had a plain khaki falling collar.

On December 31, 1902, the Army enshrined the new style of uniform in General Orders. All ranks were prescribed "olive drab" wool material for winter and khaki cotton for summer and tropical use. The four rounded patch pockets all had buttoned flaps; all ranks now had falling collars and epaulets, and the branch-colored facings were discontinued. Shirts were now of olive drab flannel, or white muslin in hot climates.



US troops in campaign dress preparing to board a troopship; all are armed with the old "trapdoor" Springfield. Note that several wear on the front of their campaign hats the branch insignia, with a company letter (apparently "A") above and a regimental number below it. Their cartridge belts, looped for the big .45-70 rounds, have the older "H"-shaped buckle plate.

The infantry regiments sent to Cuba each had ten companies, organized as a single battalion. In theory each should have been about 1,400 strong, but in fact they fought at about half strength, averaging 520 men per regiment.

Insignia: blue uniforms

Non-commissioned officers' ranks were displayed on both upper sleeves of fatigue coats (but officially not, before 1902, on shirts) by means of cloth M1872 chevrons worn points down, with additional arcs, ties and other symbols where appropriate. These were of branch-of-service colors: sky-blue or white for Infantry, yellow for Cavalry, red for Artillery, red piped with white for Engineers, emerald-green for the Hospital Corps, and so forth. The NCO ranks were also distinguished by stripes in branch colors (white for Infantry) down the outseams of their trousers: an inch-wide stripe for sergeants, a half-inch stripe for corporals and re-enlisted lance-corporals, and two such stripes for musicians.

(Upon the smarter blue dress coats, rank chevrons were in gold lace edged with branch-color piping. Enlisted men who had already completed one term of either three or five years also wore a diagonal half-chevron of gold lace on dark blue backing, extending from seam to seam, on both forearms. A similar diagonal, of gold lace backed with branch color, indicated service in war – the Civil War, the Indian campaigns, or other designated campaigns. The 1899 uniform regulations specified that all enlisted men who, between 21 April 1898 and 11 April 1899, were assembled in camps or units and formations for the war with Spain, and all who embarked on transports for operations in Cuba, Puerto Rico, “the islands of the Pacific or on the high seas, or elsewhere,” were entitled to this distinction. It was also subsequently awarded to those who served in the Philippine Insurrection and 1900 China Relief Expedition.)

In 1898, officers' rank insignia for undress and field uniforms were displayed, on the usual transverse shoulder straps in branch colors edged with gold lace, by means of the usual bars, leaves, eagles and stars. At the front of the standing collar the national cipher “U.S.” (or for Volunteers, “U.S.V.”) was worn in Gothic style, either embroidered in gold thread or in gilt metal (silver, for the Corps of Engineers). Just over half an inch behind these on each side, officers were to display the distinctive insignia of their branch of service, again either embroidered or in bright metal. For the main combat branches these were crossed rifles, sabers or cannon barrels for Infantry, Cavalry and Artillery respectively, with the number of the officer's regiment above the intersection; Engineers wore a silver three-turret castle.

On the sky-blue trousers of undress uniform most officers also wore 1½-in-wide trouser stripes in branch-colored cloth (white for Infantry); general officers, officers of the general staff and staff corps, and chaplains wore no stripes.



OPPOSITE **A sergeant of State Volunteers, wearing his M1883 sack coat and M1889 campaign hat; his canvas leggings seem to be dark brown, and he too wears a single-row "H"-buckle cartridge belt. His chevrons and trouser stripe are both white. During the years straddling the turn of the century there was considerable confusion about the Infantry branch-color to be displayed on the parts of the different orders of dress; contradictory regulations came at brief intervals, and in all cases existing stocks had to be used up first. Normally his coat would have buttons bearing the seal of his state, rather than the US Army general service buttons. Here the stacked Springfield "trapdoors", with fixed socket bayonets, are more clearly visible.**

Insignia: khaki uniforms

The NCOs' chevrons for the khaki field uniforms were initially unchanged in design, "but of such material as may be found most suitable for service"; and for the Infantry, the chevrons and the colored collars and epaulets were now to be sky-blue. After 1902 they were worn point upwards, and were also to be worn on the olive drab shirt when in shirtsleeve order. No insignia were worn on the colored epaulets, and no seam stripes were worn on the khaki trousers.

On their khaki cotton or olive drab wool coats officers displayed national and branch collar insignia as previously, in metal, since they had to be easily removable from a uniform that needed frequent cleaning. Rank insignia were worn at the outer end of the branch-colored epaulets specified from 1898 to 1902 (sky-blue for Infantry), and on the plain khaki epaulets worn after 1902. Between 1898 and the end of 1902 the US coat-of-arms was additionally to be displayed in the center of the branch-colored epaulet; from December 1902 this was moved to the front of the collar, briefly replacing the "U.S." cipher, but the latter was officially restored two years later. In some instances (e.g. photographs of LtCol Theodore Roosevelt of the 1st US Volunteer Cavalry) the old transverse shoulder straps were instead worn over the ends of the epaulets. On khaki uniforms no trouser stripes were worn, and from 1902 buttons and metal insignia were to be dull bronze. Officers were permitted to dispense with prominent distinctions that were likely to attract the attention of enemy sharpshooters, but had to display the basic marks of their rank.

Headgear

In 1898 the standard headgear for undress and everyday use by all ranks and branches of the Army was the dark blue M1895 forage cap with a rounded visor. Commonly called the "train conductor's cap", the almost cylindrical M1895 reversed the traditional shape, with an enlarged crown slightly wider than the band; it was highly unpopular, and was one of the first items to disappear in the uniform changes of 1902.

US V Corps order of battle, Santiago region, July 1, 1898

Corps troops

HQ Staff; 1st Sqn, 1st US Cav (mounted); C & E Cos, Eng Bn; Signal Detachment; Hospital Corps
Artillery Grimes' Bty, Best's Bty, Capron's Bty, Parkhurst's Bty (each 4x 3.2in guns), Parker's Bty (4x Gatling)
Siboney beachhead garrison (BrigGen Duffield)
 9th Massachusetts, 8th Ohio, 33rd & 34th Michigan Vol Inf Regts
 E Bty, 1st US Artillery

1st Division (BrigGen Kent)

1st Brigade (BrigGen Hawkins)
 6th & 16th US Inf Regts,
 71st New York Vol Inf Regt
2nd Bde (Col Pearson)
 2nd, 10th & 21st US Inf Regts
3rd Bde (Col Wikoff)
 9th, 13th & 24th US Inf Regts

2nd Div (MajGen Lawton)

1st Bde (BrigGen Ludlow)
 8th & 22nd US Inf Regts,
 2nd Massachusetts Vol Inf Regt
2nd Bde (Col Miles)
 1st, 4th & 25th US Inf Regts
3rd Bde (BrigGen Chaffee)
 7th, 12th & 17th US Inf Regts
Independent Bde (BrigGen Bates)
 3rd & 20th US Inf Regts

Cavalry Div (BrigGen Sumner, vice MajGen Wheeler)

1st Bde (Col Wood vice BrigGen Young)
 1st & 10th US Cav Regts, 1st US Vol Cav Regt
2nd Bde (Col Carroll vice BrigGen Sumner)
 3rd, 6th & 9th US Cav Regts

Members of Theodore Roosevelt's 1st US Volunteer Cavalry. They are wearing the US Cavalry brown stable fatigue uniform as field dress, and are armed with .30-40 Krag-Jørgensen carbines. Note the use of blanket rolls, reminding us that in Cuba the great majority of the cavalry fought dismounted.

The official establishment of a regular cavalry regiment was around 1,200 men in three squadrons each of four companies. However, only two squadrons per regiment were shipped to Cuba, where unit strength averaged about 400 men; with 600, the "Rough Riders" were unusual.



Officers' caps, which had a black ribbed silk band, bore a large frontal gold-embroidered US coat of arms, and $\frac{1}{8}$ in gold bullion chin cords. Enlisted ranks wore branch-of-service devices on the front, usually in brass; in the Infantry, Cavalry and Artillery a regimental number and a company letter were also worn.

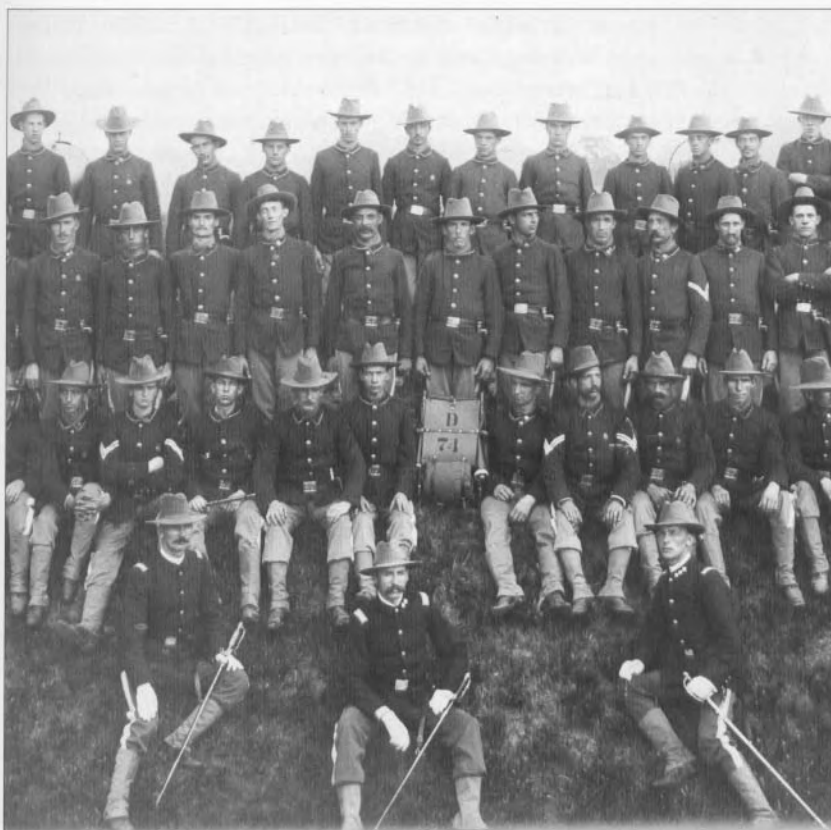
For field service the M1885 campaign hat in light brown drab felt became standard for all ranks. The crown (peak) could be formed in a variety of ways by the wearer, as his taste dictated and his superiors' patience allowed. At first it was usually creased "fore-and-aft" in stetson style, but the four-dimple "Montana peak" gradually became popular during the Spanish-American War and would become regulation from October 1905. Officers wore hat cords in mixed gold and black. Branch-of-service badges were authorized from July 25, 1898, and were sometimes attached to the front or the side; in the Philippines in 1899 some troops of VIII Corps displayed that formation's cloth device – a stylized figure 8 in solid red, outlined white, outlined dark blue. For enlisted men the regimental number and company letter became regulation from 1905, when they were also authorized hat cords in branch colors.

The M1889 cork summer helmet, modeled on the British and French sun helmets and covered in white (or khaki) cloth, was not extensively used in the front line, being mainly worn during the war by officers and rear echelon troops.

In some instances State troops wore surplus headgear that was no longer in use by the US Army, such as the M1872 "chasseur pattern" forage cap that was popular among Pennsylvania and Connecticut troops at the turn of the century.

Accouterments

The basic item of personal equipment for field service was the canvas cartridge belt, with one or two rows of loops for .45-70 Government caliber ammunition for the M1873 single-shot "trapdoor" Springfield rifle and carbine, or the smokeless .30-40cal rounds for the M1892 Krag-Jørgensen magazine rifle and carbine. This is always called the Mills belt, after the soldier/inventor Anson Mills, who invented the special loom to weave belt and loops integrally, giving much greater strength than the previous stitched-on loops. Belts produced over time by various manufacturers – e.g. Gilbert, Oberndorf, Mills and Spalding – showed many variations. Typical examples were tan belts with the old M1887 brass buckle of "H" shape with "US" in a centered oval, and dark blue or tan belts as introduced from c.1894, with a plain concealed "C"-clip. The M1874/85 McKeever cartridge pouch also saw use in the Spanish-American War and Philippine Insurrection amongst State troops who were still using the .45-70 Springfield; this rigid pouch, which opened upwards like a suitcase to give



Detail from a group photo of Co D, 74th NY Volunteer Infantry wearing sack coats with their distinctive white piping around the collar; the 71st NY, which fought at San Juan Hill, also used these white distinctions. Under magnification some of these men can be seen to wear "NYS" belt plates, and marksman pins on their left collars.

access to two rows of cartridge loops, was worn on a leather waist belt with the M1874 rectangular plate, bearing a central "US" or a State cipher – e.g. "NY", "NGP", "NJ", etc – within an oval. The bayonet scabbard of appropriate type was attached to the belt at the left hip.

In the field the rest of a soldier's equipment was usually limited to a haversack and a water canteen. The M1885 or M1898 drab canvas haversack was hooked to a leather sling to hang at the left hip; in the 1890s it was usually stenciled only with "US", but names and other identity details might be added. The M1874 or M1879 canteen, slung on a leather strap to hang on the right hip, was almost unchanged since the Civil War; it was round, of "clamshell" section, covered with pale drab canvas, and often stenciled with a company letter and regimental number as well as the national cipher.

Knapsack equipments, such as the Merriam system, had been acquired by some State units, but were not taken to Cuba. In the field the soldier of the 1890s carried his spare shirt, underwear, socks, washing kit, tent pegs and half-pole rolled in his blanket, which was rolled in turn in his tent-half, and tied into a horseshoe roll worn around the body over the left shoulder.

Weapons

By the outbreak of the Spanish-American War the majority of Federal troops had been issued with the bolt-action .30-40 Krag-Jørgensen rifle or carbine. This Norwegian design used smokeless powder rounds and had a box magazine mounted on the right side, but cartridges

had to be loaded into this one at a time. "All Krag's are .30-40 caliber centerfire; all were manufactured at the Springfield Armory. They are bolt action operated; magazines held five rounds of ammunition and are loaded from the right side through a large hinged loading gate. Blade type front sights set in a high stud near the muzzle are used on all models" (Flayderman, 470).

However, in 1898 some Federal and the bulk of State troops had not yet been issued with Krag's, and were still using the obsolete M1873 single-shot .45-70 "trapdoor" Springfield rifle and carbine. Apart from their slower rate of fire, these still used black powder cartridges, which produced a very visible smoke cloud when fired, thus revealing the American soldier's position to the enemy.

The M1872 Colt .45cal single action Army revolver of Frontier fame was refurbished by military armorers, having its 7½in barrel shortened by 2in in the 1890s; this shortened Colt was known as the "Artillery Model". Hundreds of surplus Colts were purchased by various State militias, and for the 1st US Volunteer Cavalry ("Rough Riders") at the start of the Spanish-American War. Regular troops and officers were issued the double-action Colt New Army and Navy revolvers M1892 and M1894, with a swing-out cylinder in .38 caliber. A few Remington M1890 .44-40 single-action Army revolvers, of which only 2,000 were produced in 1891-94, were noted in use during the Spanish-American War. The Colt single- and double-action Army revolvers were carried in the M1897 holster in russet leather.



Sailors resting aboard Adm Dewey's flagship, *USS Olympia*, after the battle of Manila Bay. Note the mixture of white and blue uniforms and headgear - see Plate F.

UNIFORMS: NAVY and MARINE CORPS

The basic uniform of the sailor had changed very little since the War Between the States. It consisted of a blue jumper and pants, a flat-top blue hat with a "tally" ribbon bearing the ship's name, and "pump" shoes. A white version of the blue uniform was issued for use in warm weather; the white overshirt was worn outside the trousers instead of being tucked in, and the white canvas hat was of what would later be called the "dixie cup" shape – the brim was not always turned upward at this date. This uniform was worn by all enlisted men except first-class petty officers, bandsmen and mess men. Only first-class petty officers were permitted to wear double-breasted sack coats and visored caps; however, a blue pea jacket was issued, from 1886, to all enlisted men for use in colder climates.

Rank was worn on the sleeves and cuffs of enlisted men's uniforms. Non-rated men wore a $\frac{3}{8}$ in stripe around the shoulder seam of the jumper (in contrasting color), which was called a watchmark. (These, worn from 1886 to 1912, should not be confused with the "watchmarks" introduced in the Navy uniform regulations of 1866, which consisted of one or two bars worn on either the right or left sleeve to designate the man's watch aboard.) Distinctions in the grade of non-rated men were indicated by cuff strips on the dress uniforms, similar to those introduced in the 1866 regulations. Three strips of braid on the cuffs indicated petty officers first, second and third class; ship's cooks, first and second class; seamen, hospital apprentices, and bakers first class. Two strips of braid identified seamen second class; ship's cooks, third and fourth class; hospital apprentices, and bakers second class. Seamen third class and mess attendants had a single strip.

An apprentice mark, consisting of an open figure-eight knot, was included in the uniform regulations of 1886 for wear by all enlisted men who had passed through the rating of apprentice in the Navy; the title was changed to "ex-apprentice mark" in General Order 178 dated August 29, 1904. It was to be worn below the neck opening at the center front of overshirts and jumpers, and on the coats (except overcoats) on the outside of the sleeve, midway between the wrist and elbow on the same arm as the rating badge.

In 1893, an order specified that chief petty officers would wear a rating badge of the same design as prescribed for the master-at-arms in the 1886 regulations, but with the star specialty mark replaced by the mark for which the CPO was qualified. Petty officers' rating badges, of the same general style as still worn today, were introduced in General Order 431 on September 24, 1894, and were illustrated in the *Naval Uniform Regulations* of 1897. The eagle, facing left, now had the wings pointing upward; minor differences from today's design were the horizontal angle of the head, the eagle's slight tilt to the right, and the smooth curve formed by the tail feathers. The flat, unpadded chevrons, always of scarlet felt, were sewn to the cloth backing as separate stripes; as today, they were $\frac{1}{4}$ in apart, $\frac{3}{8}$ in deep and $3\frac{1}{4}$ in wide. The illustration



Sailors of a gun crew ramming home a round. They are wearing white hot-weather uniforms and "dixie cup"-style caps with the brim folded either up or down. A black silk neckerchief completes the uniform; with summer dress a plain white bib collar was worn in place of the white-striped bright blue collar of temperate uniform. Note the black watchmarks of the 1886 regulations, applied to the left shoulder seam of several of these white overshirts.

from the 1897 regulations shows them stitched down with dark thread, but the text states that black thread need not be used. No change in the manner of wearing either rating badges or watchmarks was made in the 1897 regulations, and the cuff strips remained as the distinguishing difference between grades of non-rated men.

Naval officers

A variety of uniforms were specified for use by officers. In an order of January 16, 1877, the sack coat introduced in 1865 was replaced by a new service coat. This, like the later 1895 Army officers' undress coat, was trimmed with braid in lustrous black mohair, on the standing collar, the front edges, around the bottom and up the back seams. Rank was indicated by stripes of black braid instead of the gold lace worn on other blue coats, and the cuff star of the line officer was omitted. Rank was also indicated on the standing collar, by the same insignia as used on the epaulets and shoulder straps, embroidered in high relief; instead of the gold devices of the shoulder ornaments, however, lieutenants wore two silver bars, and masters a single silver bar – by 1897 silver would be used for all grade ornaments of both these two groups of officers. This was the coat, in its final form, that was copied in 1895 by the Army as the undress and fatigue jacket for officers.

The white Navy officers' service coat of 1886 was patterned on the blue service coat of 1877, and trimmed with white braid. Rank was indicated by means of white braid sleeve stripes; the embroidered devices displayed on the collar of the blue coat were omitted. Since cloth in the identifying colors of the staff corps was omitted from the sleeves and corps devices from the collar, there was no way to determine an officer's specialty when he was wearing this coat. Both the blue and white coats were still in use by naval officers well after World War I.

The frock coat of 1886 was similar to that of 1852, with minor changes in cut to follow contemporary tailoring styles. The frock coat was the multi-purpose coat of the naval officer, as it had been during the Civil War. It was worn with epaulets, a *chapeau bras* bicorn hat, and gold-laced trousers for full dress; with epaulets, plain blue or white trousers, and either a bicorn or a white helmet for dress; and with shoulder straps, blue or white trousers, and cap or white helmet for undress. The tailed-body special full dress coat of the 1886 uniform regulations bore rank distinctions similar to those of the full dress coat of 1852.

US Marines

On April 22, 1898, the day after war was declared with Spain, the 1st Battalion of Marines, commanded by LtCol Robert W. Huntington, embarked from Brooklyn, NY, on the USS *Panther* for a staging area at Key West, Florida. After additional training at Key West, the battalion again boarded the *Panther*, from which it made its famous landing at Guantanamo on June 10, thus securing the first beachhead on Cuba nearly two weeks before the arrival of the Army. During the operation, supporting shellfire from ships offshore began falling short. "Sergeant John Quick became the first hero of the war when he calmly picked up semaphore flags, walked to the top of a ridge and signaled a message redirecting the ships' gunfire as Spanish bullets buzzed about him. He was awarded the Congressional Medal of Honor for his action" (Campbell, 16).

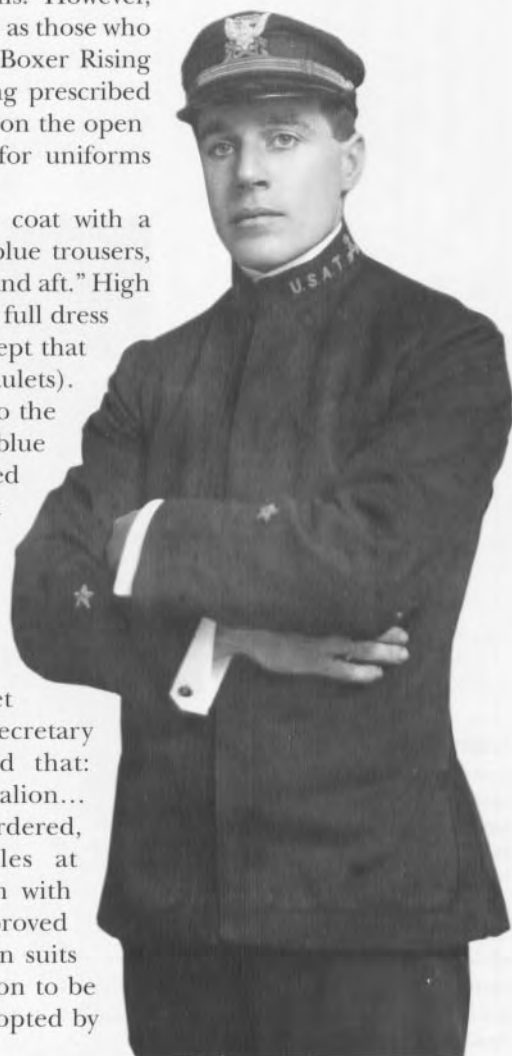
In the years between the end of the Civil War and the outbreak of the Spanish-American War a few uniform changes had gradually taken place; the most notable of these was the adoption in 1868 of a Corps emblem to replace the Infantry buglehorn as the headgear badge. "Borrowing from their British cousins, the Royal Marines, the United States Marine Corps' new badge featured a globe (with the Western not the Eastern Hemisphere, however) topped by an American eagle and with a diagonal fowl anchor behind the globe. This was worn at the front of the blue, Civil War-type kepis still in use" (Campbell, 15). Photographs of the Spanish-American War seem to indicate that there was no widespread wear of the Marine Corps' cap badge on the new campaign hats. In the Philippines, however, Marines are shown wearing the badge fixed at the center of the crown. Within two years Marines went to China as part of the international force to put down the Boxer Rising, and there they are shown wearing the badge high on the left side of the crown. Later the ornament was shifted back to the front center and worn there exclusively.

The 1892 uniform regulations were in effect throughout the Spanish-American War and until 1900, with some modifications. However, Marines who served ashore in Cuba during that war, as well as those who served later during the Philippine Insurrection and the Boxer Rising in 1900, wore a variety of apparel. Difficulties in securing prescribed uniform materials made it necessary to contract for them on the open market in order to satisfy the sudden heavy demands for uniforms imposed by the war emergency.

Enlisted men wore a single-breasted dark blue sack coat with a standing collar and decorated with scarlet piping, light blue trousers, and a broad-brimmed campaign hat usually creased "fore and aft." High canvas leggings were sometimes worn. The enlisted men's full dress coat was similar to the undress coat adopted in 1875, except that shoulder knots were worn instead of shoulder scales (epaulets). NCOs wore scarlet chevrons, points upward (in contrast to the Army at this date), and a scarlet stripe on the light blue trousers. Both officers and enlisted men at times dispensed with the coat in the field, and wore the blue flannel shirt open at the neck. A coat and trousers of a coarse gray material were also sometimes worn by enlisted men during the Spanish-American War.

As described above, khaki for tropical wear was just appearing in the United States armed forces when the war broke out, and was in very short supply at the outset of hostilities. In a report of September 24, 1898, to the Secretary of the Navy, Colonel Commandant Heywood stated that: "The greatest care was exercised in fitting out the battalion... Campaign suits of brown linen and campaign hats were ordered, but owing to the great demand for these articles at the time by the Army, it was impossible to send them with the battalion. They were shipped later, however, and proved a great comfort to the men." The brown linen campaign suits were the forerunner of the khaki campaign uniforms soon to be issued; the drab felt campaign hat was similar to that adopted by the US Army in 1885.

An officer with the US Army Transport Service wearing not the M1895 Army undress coat, but the similar M1877 Navy officer's service coat that inspired it, with appropriate insignia. Note the special cap badge for this branch of service, with the Army officers' US coat-of-arms above crossed anchors, and the star on the forearms.



In 1894 a fatigue uniform of white cotton duck was introduced for enlisted men. The single-breasted sack coat with a rolling collar had six brass buttons on the front bearing the Marines' seal, and a patch pocket on each breast. A white linen cap cover, fitting over the blue cap and covering the ornament, was prescribed for wear with the fatigue uniform only. However, the blue cap – now similar to the Army's M1895 forage cap – could be worn uncovered with the fatigue uniform under certain conditions. From 1896 the fatigue coat and trousers would be made of white linen duck instead of cotton, and the patch pockets on the breast were discontinued. Non-commissioned officers were authorized to wear white chevrons on the sleeves of this coat. Although prescribed for fatigue wear, this uniform was also authorized as a summer uniform; however, when worn as such ashore, the white helmet was also required.

By 1900 the Marines wore an all-khaki service dress. The coat had a standing collar, four pockets with pointed flaps (which became a standard USMC design) and bronze buttons. The Marine collar ornaments, worn only by officers at that time, were also bronze. When no coat was worn, a shirt in the same khaki color as the rest of the uniform was worn alone; this had a soft roll collar, on which officers wore rank badges. This was the uniform worn by members of the Marine Corps as they were called to intervene in the Philippines, Cuba, Nicaragua, Mexico, Haiti, and the Dominican Republic during the early years of the 20th century.



A US Marine detachment aboard a naval vessel, wearing the dark indigo blue flannel sack coat with scarlet piping, and the M1895 undress cap with the Corps badge; see Plate F4. Beyond the drummer in the front rank is a first sergeant, with three scarlet sleeve chevrons above a diamond. The enlisted men are armed with 6mm Lee Straight-Pull rifles.

Marine Corps **officers' field uniform** consisted of a dark blue coat, described in the 1875 regulations as the "fatigue jacket"; the rank insignia, backed with scarlet cloth, were worn on each side of the standing collar. The fatigue jacket bore a basic resemblance to the Army officers' M1895 undress coat, but it featured elaborate braided frogging across the front, and black crocheted buttons. The edges of the cuffs, the bottom of the coat, the side vents and the front and back seams were trimmed with one-inch black mohair braid. This coat was worn for line duty with troops wearing fatigue uniforms, and for all other fatigue duties. Officers wore the drab campaign hat, light blue trousers with a one-inch welt of scarlet cloth let into the outer seams, and – sometimes – the high canvas leggings.

When not on duty in the line, during the summer season officers had the option of wearing a similar jacket made of white linen duck with white braid trimmings, and white trousers.

The undress cap for all officers was dark blue, of the chasseur pattern first seen during the Civil War, officially adopted by the US Army in 1872 and by the Marine Corps in 1875. There was a black ribbed silk stripe 1 $\frac{1}{8}$ in wide down each quarter-seam from crown to band, and the characteristic black braid quatrefoil appeared on the top of the crown. The visor and chin strap were of black glazed leather; regulations required that the chin strap must be worn down when the wearer was on duty with troops. In 1897 the chasseur-pattern undress cap was discontinued and replaced by a cap of the same type as adopted two years previously by the US Army, but with the USMC device.

Weapons

The US Navy adopted a bolt-action rifle years before the Army accepted the Krag. As described by Flayderman (p.163), in 1880 the US Navy contracted with James Paris Lee of Bridgeport, CT, for 300 full-stock .45-70 caliber rifles of the type which he had patented in 1879. Lee gave a contract to the Sharps Rifle Company to actually manufacture them; but Sharps abandoned the job in 1881, and the Lee parts and tools were turned over to the Remington Arms Company, who completed the Navy contract. The .45-70 Remington-Lee Navy magazine rifle was manufactured by Remington from 1880 to 1907. The original US Navy model had a 28in barrel with a full stock and two bands; approximately 1,300 were made. The Navy later received another 1,500 of the newer M1885 (US Navy Contract); these had a 32in barrel. The M1899, manufactured between 1899 and 1907, was chambered for .30-40 and 6mm smokeless powder cartridges, and had a 29in barrel.

The Navy also contracted Winchester to manufacture about 20,000 of the Lee Straight Pull bolt-action rifle in 6mm caliber, designated the M1895; manufactured from 1895 to 1902, this had a clip-fed box magazine and a 28in barrel. Winchester also manufactured first and second model Winchester-Hotchkiss bolt action rifles (M1879) for the Navy, in about 2,473 examples; this was a .45-70 weapon with a barrel length of 28 inches. At the outbreak of the Spanish-American War the Navy ordered Krags, but these were not available in sufficient numbers until the time of the Philippine Insurrection. The Navy adopted the Colt .38cal revolver, distinguishable from the New Army only by the "USN" stamped on the butt.

SPANISH ARMED FORCES

UNIFORMS: ARMY and AUXILIARY FORCES

Peninsular uniforms

Despite the widespread use of tropical uniforms (see below), some examples of regulation mainland dress were seen, and a brief description is therefore given of the main items issued in Spain.

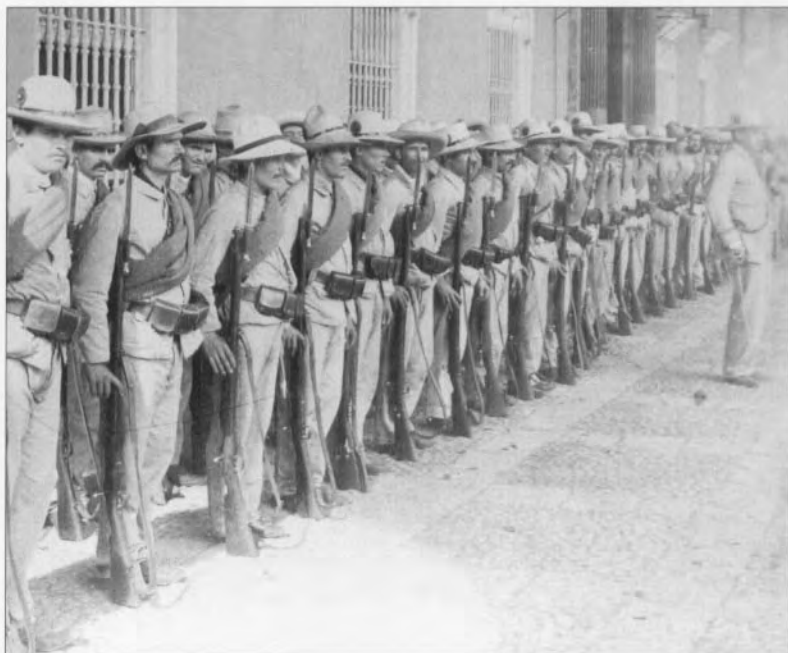
The **infantry** field uniform was based upon French models, consisting of red trousers with a double stripe of dark blue on the outseam, and a blue-gray double-breasted greatcoat with belt-support hooks each side, worn with the skirts turned back. Instead of epaulets the Spanish used padded red "wings", and the regimental number in metal was displayed on the collar. A fatigue jacket (*guerrera*) of dark blue cloth had a standing collar and single row of copper buttons. In summer the jacket and trousers were replaced by cotton garments. Buglers had the special distinction of an Austrian knot of red cord, repeated three times on the lower arms. The headdress was either a shako (*ros*) of gray cloth with an oilcloth cover and neck flap, or a round barracks cap of dark blue cloth (broadly resembling the contemporary German *Feldmütze*) adorned with two red bands.

In the late 1890s infantry officers adopted a dark blue dolman with black decorative loops; on service a single-breasted stand-collar tunic with branch-color distinctions was worn, and from about 1900 this replaced the dolman altogether. Officers' madder-red trousers bore two stripes of branch color. Their gray shako was popularly known as a "Leopoldina". The everyday service uniform of general officers was a long single-breasted dark blue coat, without embroidery or colored distinctions but worn with gold shoulder cords; red trousers were decorated with two medium-width dark blue stripes. Their headgear was a white shako with one to three broad gold lace bands around the base, depending upon rank. In all orders of dress a red silk sash with a gold knot and red tassels was worn as the distinction of general officers.

The **cavalry** was made up of lancers, cuirassiers, light cavalry (mounted rifles) and hussars. The lancers wore madder-red trousers and a light blue hussar-style dolman tunic with black braiding, with red facings at collar and pointed cuffs; white metal buttons bore crossed lances and swords, or just crossed lances. They wore a steel spiked helmet with brass fittings. The lance pennants were of the Spanish colors, red over yellow.

Spanish soldiers were better dressed for a tropical campaign than their US opponents, and better armed. These men wear the distinctive *rayadillo* uniform, here without the removable facings; note the Spanish cockade on the right side of the straw hat. The weapons are 7mm Mauser M1893 magazine rifles, here with fixed knife bayonets; note the colonial-style four-pocket cartridge pouches. The flatness of the gray blankets worn over the left shoulder suggests that they are not used for rolling up other items of kit.

The Spanish regiment was an administrative unit only, the six-company battalion being the basic tactical element. It had an official establishment of around 1,000 men, but in Cuba the battalions were greatly under strength, having an average of about 600 all ranks. The enlisted men were mostly young and uneducated; discipline was stern, and initiative was not encouraged, but in 1898 they displayed stubborn courage and good marksmanship.



(continued on page 33)

ENCAMPMENT, CUBAN ARMY OF LIBERATION, 1895-98

1: First Sergeant, Infantry

2: MajGen Calixto Garcia

3: Captain of cavalry





WAITING TO EMBARK; TAMPA, MAY-JUNE 1898

1: Corporal, 71st NY Volunteer Infantry

2: Sergeant, 1st US Artillery

3: Colonel, 1st US Cavalry

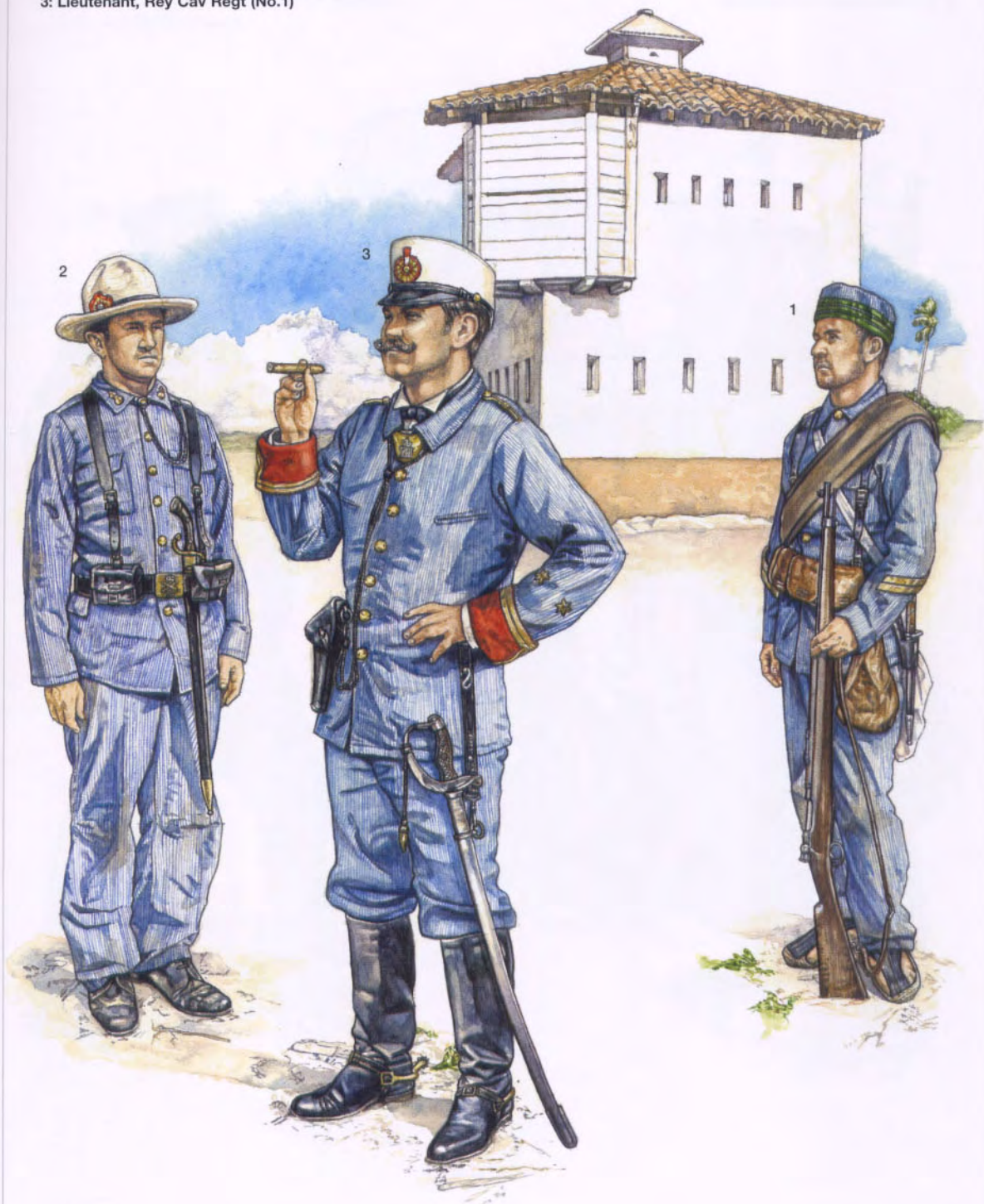
4: Captain, 24th US (Colored) Infantry

GARRISONING THE SPANISH BLOCKHOUSES; SANTIAGO, JUNE–JULY 1898

1: Sergeant, 1st Bn, Cuba Inf Regt (No.65)

2: Private, 6th Bty, 4th Mtd Arty Regt

3: Lieutenant, Rey Cav Regt (No.1)



SPANISH NAVY, JULY 1898

1: Seaman, cruiser *Vizcaya*

2: Lieutenant, cruiser *Vizcaya*

3: Seaman, Naval Infantry Corps



PUERTO RICO, JULY 1898

1: Captain, Alfonso XII Rifle Bn (No.24)

2: Private, Patria Rifle Bn (No.25)

3: Major, 6th Massachusetts Volunteer Infantry

4: Private, 19th US Infantry



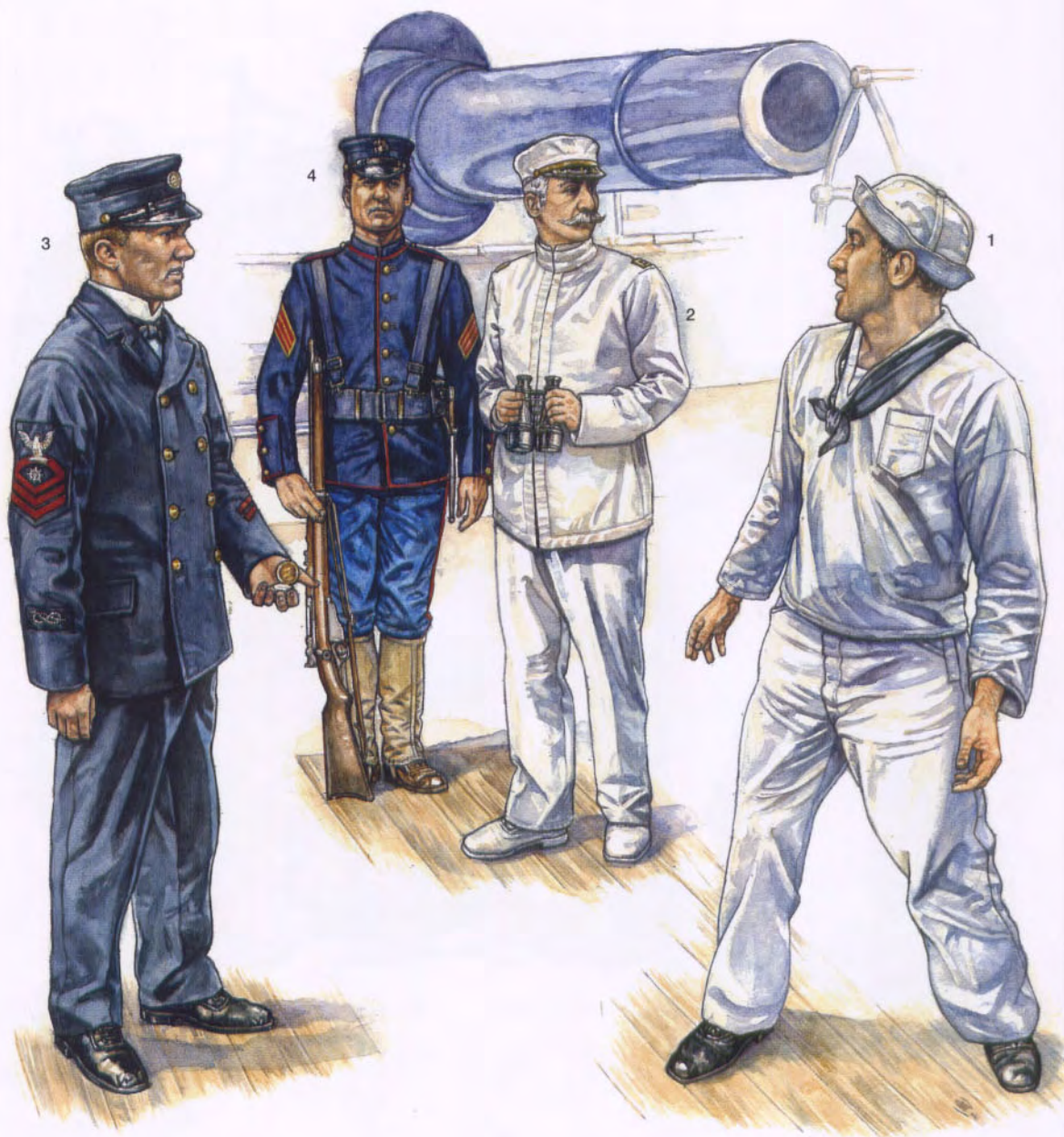
MANILA BAY, MAY–AUGUST 1898

1: Seaman, US Navy

2: Commodore George Dewey, US Navy

3: Chief petty officer, US Navy

4: Sergeant, US Marine Corps



AGUINALDO'S FORCES; LUZON, 1898-1902

1: Filipino insurgent, native dress, with *lantaka* cannon

2: Filipino insurgent with Spanish equipment

3: Filipino insurgent officer



JUNGLE FIGHTING; PHILIPPINES, 1899–1902

1: Corporal, 20th Kansas Volunteer Infantry, 1899

2: Private, Philippines Constabulary, 1901

3: Moro insurgent, Mindanao, 1902



The cuirassiers had a light blue dolman with black loops and white metal buttons; the collar and cuffs were red, and the red trousers had light blue stripes. The helmet and cuirass were steel, with brass mounts. From about 1900 they had light blue single-breasted tunics and light blue trousers with double white stripes. A yellow metal button showing a spiked helmet in front of crossed sabers was recovered from a battlefield in Cuba, and could have belonged to one of these units. For a time the light cavalry wore much the same uniform, but instead of a helmet they had a light blue kepi with a red lace top band; their buttons bore a crossed rifle and sword.

The Princesa and Pavia hussar regiments were in Cuba during the Ten Years' and Spanish-American wars. The Princesa wore light blue dolmans with yellow loops, a white pelisse and a white kepi; the Pavia had a red dolman, a light blue pelisse with large Austrian knots on the sleeves, and a darker blue kepi.

Technical branches

The **artillery** wore dark blue tunics with red distinctions and yellow metal buttons, and collar badges of a yellow flaming bomb; double red cords were worn on the shoulders, and the dark blue trousers had a single broad red stripe. In general the uniforms followed infantry styles. The *ros* was white with red lace and a red feather plume. The equipment was of white leather; a clipped rectangular brass belt plate bore a crown over crossed cannon barrels above a stack of cannonballs. The buttons bore the same motif, but another, noted as being used in the Spanish-American War, bore the word "*Bombero*" (cannonier) on a plain background. An officers' version of the button, with the artillery symbols in gilt finish on a dark blue enamel background, has been noted. The men's greatcoat was like the infantry's, but the collar badge was the flaming bomb.

The **engineers** wore the same uniform but with white metal buttons and insignia; the branch-of-service badge worn on the collar was a tower. Buttons bearing three different designs are known: a crown above a tower surrounded by a wreath; a crown above a spade between crossed pickaxes, surrounded by the chain of the Order of the Golden Fleece; and a crown above the Spanish arms on an oval shield, flanked by the letters "I" and "P" – for *Ingenieros y Pontoneros*. A brass clipped rectangular belt plate bore either a tower, or a spade between crossed pickaxes.

The gendarmerie

In Spain the *Guardia Civil* wore a sideways bicorn hat, and a blue coatee with red collar, lapels, cuffs and skirt turnbacks; white breeches were worn with long boots. White metal buttons bore the crowned Spanish coat-of-arms between the letters "G" and "C" (although one button recovered from the Philippines after the war simply bore "GC")



Spanish officers from the 1st Provisional Bn of Puerto Rico (Tiradores de San Juan), which served around Santiago de Cuba in summer 1898. The lightweight tropical uniforms, perhaps in pale gray, have the removable collar and cuffs in infantry green. The infantry buglehorn insignia is worn each side of the collar, and just beneath it the miniature gorget plate which was displayed by officers with all orders of dress. Rank is indicated in this case only by cuff stripes, without the more usual regulation stars. Note the holstered revolvers secured by neck lanyards; the holsters – like the sword scabbards – are attached through the tunic to an internal belt.

The Spanish Army was considerably over-officered, averaging one for every six enlisted men – four times the ratio in the US Army. The social gulf between officers and men was also enormous.



Spanish artillerymen wearing *rayadillo* uniforms and straw hats; note, center, the shortsword issued to the technical branches. The rank of the corporal seated at the right is identified by two long red diagonal sleeve stripes. There were 18 four-gun artillery batteries on Cuba at the outbreak of the war, many of them dispersed in two-gun sections.

in ornamental script). The clipped rectangular brass belt plate bore the same design as the buttons. Trumpeters wore red coatees with blue facings. In Cuba, the *Guardia Civil* also wore a simple single-breasted tunic with turned-down red collar, red cuffs and epaulets, and gray trousers with black riding boots. A blue felt hat was worn with a chinstrap, the brim bound with white tape; a rectangular cockade in the Spanish colors was worn on the left side. In bad weather the *Guardia Civil* wore a black greatcoat with red facings.

In Cuba the *Guardia Civil* served in rural areas and were responsible for the defense of small towns, assisting Army engineers, and garrisoning remote fortifications. They also controlled traffic on the roads, detained suspected rebel sympathizers, and conducted night security patrols. On occasions they were supported by auxiliaries known as *guardajurados*, who guarded properties whose owners provided them with weapons; some of these wore identifying badges on their civilian clothing.

In the cities and larger towns an auxiliary police force known as the *Orden Público* were responsible for the typical duties of ordinary policemen, as well as persecuting black-marketeers and rebel sympathizers. The *Orden Público* wore a blue double-breasted tunic with silver letters "O" and "P" on the collar, and either white or yellow metal buttons; headgear was the sideways bicorn of the *Guardia Civil*. Mounted police wore high black boots, and foot patrolmen the usual laced leather high shoes. Police inspectors wore civilian clothes while on duty. Equipment was the same as used by the Army and *Guardia Civil*, but usually of obsolescent patterns; the *Orden Público* carried Remington rolling-block rifles passed on by those military units that had received new bolt-action Mausers in the early 1890s.

Tropical uniforms, and insignia

The tropical field uniforms were the same for all branches and ranks of service in the colonies of Cuba, Guam, Puerto Rico and the Philippine Islands. Washable jackets and trousers were made of *rayadillo* – white cotton ticking with narrow blue vertical stripes; these lightweight garments were worn over white shirts and black cravat-type ties. A gray blanket roll and a raincoat in the wet season, a white haversack, and black or brown leather equipment with a variety of cartridge pouches comprised the scant general issue. Issued footwear consisted of high laced leather shoes (*zapatos*), but Spanish soldiers also made frequent use – especially in the tropics – of traditional canvas shoes with rope soles (*alpagatas*), which laced around the ankle. Mounted units wore black boots, or buffalo-hide leggings stitched to the trousers; foot units sometimes strapped short black leggings over the trouser bottoms. A straw hat, of fine *jipijapa* or coarse *yarey*, had a black patent-leather band; the circular red-yellow-red Spanish cockade was secured to it by a loop in gold or silver for officers, yellow for cavalry and green for infantry.

Generally, no distinctive devices were used on campaign, but facings were designed so that they could be temporarily attached to the *rayadillo* clothing when in garrison: for infantry, a green collar, cuffs and trouser

stripes, yellow piping, and sometimes three yellow *sardinetas* (cuff flashes) for infantry; red collar, cuffs and stripes for all other branches. Metal buttons, and unit numbers within the curl of a buglehorn badge on the collar, were yellow for infantry; cavalry wore silver buttons. Rank insignia were also detachable: first sergeants had three diagonal gold or silver stripes on the forearm, sergeants two stripes, corporals the same in red worsted; one narrow red worsted upward-pointing chevron from the left elbow to the shoulder signified a private first class/lance-corporal.

Officers on duty wore miniature gorgets of the appropriate metal with contrasting motifs with all orders of dress, and donned white gloves for full dress. Insignia of rank were worn on and above the colored cuffs, in button colors. For field officers these were three 1/2in stripes and three large eight-point stars for colonel, two for lieutenant-colonel, one gold and one silver for major (these officers also carried canes); three 1/2in stripes and three small six-point stars above the cuffs for captain, two for first lieutenant, one silver and one gold for second lieutenant, and a single stripe and one star for ensign.

Accouterments

The Spanish infantryman's basic equipment consisted of a knapsack (*mochila*), suspension straps and belt (*cinturon*), with either two rigid cartridge boxes (*bolsas de municiones*), an old-pattern single large pouch (*cartuchera*), or four smaller, flatter "colonial" pouches. He had a bayonet scabbard, a tin drinking cup, and a goatskin or a leather canteen for water. The knapsack was of grey canvas without a frame, the sides and flap covered with varnished leather; it was divided internally into two compartments, and the linen lining of the flap formed a pocket on the inside. On the exterior face the individual mess kit was held in place by a small strap; four other straps on the sides of the knapsack held the laced leather shoes when not being worn. On the top was a leather case (*maletin*) for carrying three packets of spare cartridges.

All equipment was in brown or black leather. The Y-shaped suspension straps were similar to the German M1887 and Austrian equipment. At the front they hooked directly to the cartridge pouches, passing up and back over the shoulders to be united behind by a button, from which a rear strap fell to hook below the bottom edge of the waist belt. Three loops on the rear permitted attaching the knapsack higher or lower according to the size of the individual. Counterstraps from the front also passed under the wearer's arms, with rings which attached to hooks mounted on the bottom of the knapsack.

Cuban volunteers

As mentioned above, many battalions of Cuban volunteers served alongside the Spanish regulars stationed on the island, being raised progressively following the outbreak of the Ten Years' War against the *Mambí* insurgents. Practically every able-bodied Spaniard residing in Cuba was eligible for service in this auxiliary force, and the term "volunteer" should not be taken literally.

Spanish troops, possibly from the Constitutional Inf Regt (No.29), supposedly shown defending their positions during the battle of El Caney on July 1. Note the shallow trenches protected by barbed wire "cattle fencing".



Units present in Santiago region, July 1, 1898

Staff, Medical Corps, Guardia Civil, Engineers (elements)	1st Bn, Constitutional Regt (No.29) – approx. 3 cos
6th Bty, 10th Fortress Arty Bn	1st Bn, Simancas Regt (No.64) – 1 co
6th Bty, 4th Horse Arty Regt – half (2x 75mm guns)	Cav Regt Rey (No.1) – approx. 2 sqns
1st Bty, 5th Foot Arty Regt (4x 90mm)	Guerrilla Cos, Tercios 1 & 2 – approx. 5 bns, of which half mtd
Naval Brigade – 1 bn	<i>At El Caney:</i>
1st Provisional Bn of Puerto Rico	1st Bn, Constitutional Regt (No.29) – 3 cos
4th Bn, Talavera Peninsular Regt	1st Bn, Simancas Regt (No.64) – part 1 co
1st Bn, San Fernando Regt (No.11)	Cavalry Regt Rey (No.1) – part 1 sqn
1st Bn, Asia Regt (No.55)	Cuban loyalist irregulars – 1 mtd co
1st & 2nd Bns, Cuba Regt (No.65)	6th Bty, 4th Horse Arty Regt – half (2x 75mm)

“Cuban Volunteer Battalions were a force of some 80,000 men and were organized, trained, and equipped like the regular infantry, artillery, cavalry, and engineers. Two battalions formed a regiment; standard peacetime strength of a battalion with four active and one depot company was 404 officers and men, increased to 1,000 during wartime. Spain furnished arms and ammunition, but the volunteers were paid by *abonaré* chits [IOUs], to be cashed after the war” (Elting & McAfee, 60).

Although the courage and tenacity in battle of some of the defenders of the San Juan positions drew admiring comment from Americans, such a system naturally did not encourage diehard loyalty. During the US campaign in Puerto Rico the defeatist attitude of the Spanish surprised many Americans, especially those who entered the port city of Ponce, when “the firemen and volunteers of the Puerto Rican Battalions paraded in uniform and petitioned General Miles to be permitted to enlist in the American army” (Freidel, 266) – these volunteers would form the basis for the Porto Rico Provisional Infantry Regiment in 1901.

Weapons

The uniforms of the Cuban volunteer battalions were identical to those worn by regular troops; however, they were set apart by their obsolete equipments and weapons. The standard rifle issued to these battalions was the single-shot Remington “rolling-block”, with a socket bayonet; mounted volunteers carried the carbine version of this model, while artillerymen and engineers were additionally issued with shortswords. The Remington rolling-block was a very popular action in many countries; it was extremely strong and simple, and could be chambered to take any ammunition then available. The rifle had been in use by Spain since its acceptance in 1869, and had been produced under license at the Oviedo arsenal since 1871; the 11mm round (“.43 Spanish”) had been updated in 1889 with a heavier, brass-jacketed *reformado* bullet. The Spanish M1871 bayonet had a heavily blued socket and a long triangular-section blade. The Remington was a hard-hitting and virtually “soldier-proof” weapon, but – like the M1873 Springfield – it took black powder cartridges, which made dense white smoke.

For the regulars in Cuba the Remingtons were replaced before the war with the bolt-action Spanish Mauser M1891 and M1893 rifles, which took five rounds of smokeless ammunition (7.65mm and 7mm

respectively) in a fixed magazine which could be reloaded from stripper clips. This changeover took some time: "in 1893 only one line regiment in Spain and one rifle battalion in Puerto Rico were experimentally issued the Mausers..." (Elting & McAfee, 60). Large numbers of M1891 carbines were produced – essentially the same as the Argentine M1891 – and during the Spanish-American War many were captured by US troops. The developed Spanish M1893 Mauser rifle was made regulation issue in December 1893 (the Spanish were so pleased with it that they awarded Paul Mauser the Grand Cross of the Order for Military Merit). By the outbreak of war with the United States most regular Spanish troops had received the new Mausers, although in the Philippines a large number were still using single-shot Remingtons. Spain contracted Mauser to manufacture 251,800 M1893 rifles and 27,500 carbines; in fact Ludwig Loewe & Co of Berlin handled all but 30,000 of this contract. Large numbers of license-manufactured carbines were also made at the Fabrica de Armas in Oviedo.

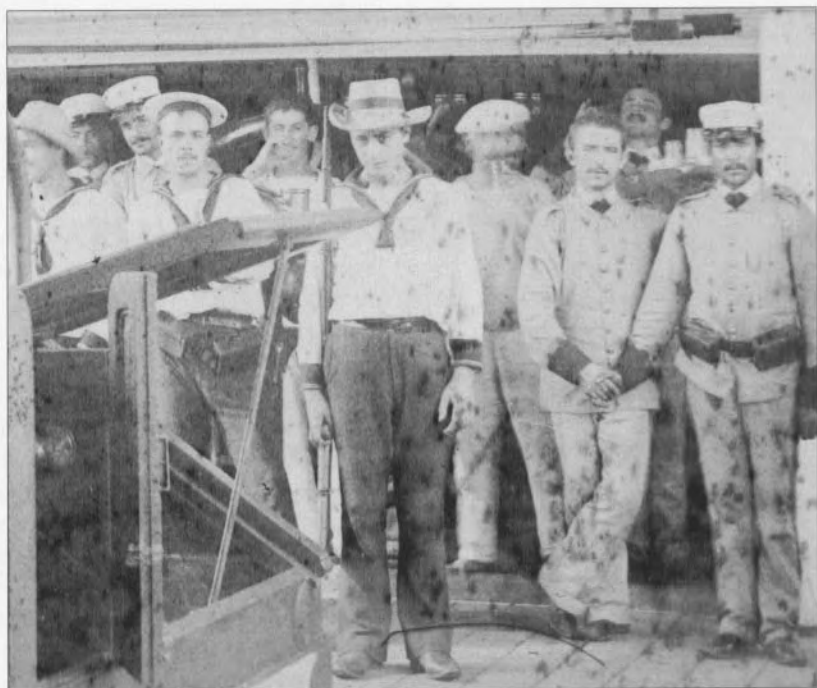
"Excellent results were achieved with the Model 93 during the Spanish-American War of 1898, and this was no small factor in making the Mauser rifle popular throughout the world. Although greatly outnumbered, Spaniards armed with the Model 93 gave US troops a very difficult time at the Battle of San Juan Hill in Cuba... [although] the fact that some of the American troops were armed with obsolete single-shot .45-70 Springfield rifles and that the Spaniards held the high ground accounted for a great deal of this difficulty. However, the superior velocity of the 7mm Model 93 as compared to the... .30-40 Krag, and the great rapidity with which the Mauser could be clip-loaded, were important enough to cause the American officers to take careful note" (Olson, 70).

A large number of captured Spanish Mausers were tested by the Springfield Armory, which eventually developed the M1903 Springfield based on the Mauser system.

Each Spanish soldier armed with the new Mauser carried 105 cartridges, of which 60 could be accommodated in the four-pocket cartridge pouches, 45 in each old-pattern cartridge box, and another 45 in the *maletin* case on top of the knapsack.

Officers were armed with sabers or long machete-like sidearms, and six-shot revolvers, with which all Spanish Army officers were expected to provide themselves. At the outbreak of the Ten Years' War the Lefauchaux pin-fire was the most often seen, but models made by Smith & Wesson and Merwin, Hulbert &

Spanish sailors and naval infantry aboard the warship *Reina Mercedes* – see Plate D. Of particular interest are the *rayadillo* uniforms and white-covered cap worn by the two naval infantrymen at front right; note the deep blue cuffs and trouser stripes. Normally a brass fouled anchor badge would have been worn on the collars. At left, note men wearing both white-topped sailor caps and straw hats, white seamen's jumpers with blue cuffs and sailor collars trimmed with white, black neckerchiefs, blue naval trousers, and infantry equipment with rigid cartridge boxes.



Company were recommended sidearms, and both companies sold revolvers to the Spanish government during the late 1870s and through the 1880s. By royal decree of October 1884, a double-action Smith & Wesson made under license by Orbea y Compañía of Eibar, Spain was approved for purchase by officers and designated the M1884. Many of these were brought back as war souvenirs by American soldiers returning from Cuba and the Philippines.

THE NAVY

At the gate of a Spanish fort built beside the railroad line between Gibara and Holquin in Cuba, a plaque was inscribed with the appeal "Christian Traveller, stop and remove your hat! The ground you tread on is sacred, in the name of the *Cuerpo de Infantería de Marina Royal*."

The fort was named after Seamen Rama and Cancela of the 2nd Bn, 2nd Regt of the Royal Naval Infantry Corps, who had died fighting alone on that spot in 1890, against a force of some 1,800 Cuban rebels. On shipboard, naval enlisted men wore a traditional blue or white jumper with a broad blue bib (or "Nelson") collar, a broad-topped flat cap and wide trousers – little different from those worn by navies around the world; the black hat ribbon bore the name of their ship in gold lettering (see Plate D1). Sailors on land duty and those serving as naval infantry wore in tropical climates the same blue-striped *rayadillo* uniforms as their Army counterparts, with deep blue facings, *sardinetas* on the cuffs and an anchor badge on the collar (see Plate D3). They were issued standard Army equipment and rifles.

One distinguishing feature of uniform in the Spanish Navy was the officers' full dress coatee. This had a red collar, broad buttoned-back lapels and round cuffs, which were edged with gold lace of varying width according to rank. Yellow metal buttons bore an upright fouled anchor surmounted by a crown; another type noted had the same motif on a lined background within an oval border and rope edging. Officers in the Navy and the Naval Infantry wore a visored cap bearing a crown and coronet over an anchor within an oval, centered within a wreath. The officers' insignia of the *Cuerpo de Infantería de Marina* was a crown over crossed anchors, and was usually pinned to the collar of the uniform.

CUBAN and FILIPINO INSURGENTS

CUBAN ARMY OF LIBERATION

Organization

The organization of the Cuban Army of Liberation was loosely based upon various European and American models, but it inevitably reflected the Revolutionary Government's relative shortage of men and equipment. There were only two organized branches – infantry and cavalry. (Due to the shortage of both cannons and ships, both of which had to be either captured or smuggled in, the few members of the Cuban artillery and "navy" were treated as auxiliary branches of the army.) The majority of weapons and supplies used by the Cuban insurgents were either smuggled in by sympathizers from Cuban communities in the United States, or captured on the battlefield or from Spanish supply trains.

The two branches of the army were divided between corps, and each corps was made up of two or more divisions. Each division was further divided into two or more brigades, and each brigade consisted of two or more cavalry and infantry regiments. These formal titles bore no relationship to actual strengths. "In the infantry, each regiment was composed of two battalions [each] of two companies. Each company had forty-eight men. In the cavalry, each regiment was composed of four cavalry squadrons [each] of seventy-two men. However, many units were often under their ideal strength, particularly outside of Oriente province" (Fermoselle, 62–63). The backbone of the insurrection was in fact provided by the many irregular units that fought the Spanish troops, including operations in territories that were ostensibly held by the colonial government.



Uniforms

The Cuban insurgents – the *Mambíses* – were literally rag-tag in appearance at the outbreak of the Ten Years' War; however, by 1895 the officers, at least, had begun to achieve a more uniform appearance. Dress consisted of a white or khaki drill tunic with folded collar, usually one or two pockets on the breast or skirts, and metal buttons; a few buttons made overseas, which managed to pass the Spanish naval blockade, bore the Cuban coat-of-arms with the legend "*Cuba Libre*". The rank and file wore what they brought from home or captured from the Spanish. The most common distinguishing insignia, worn by officers and men alike, were the colors of the Cuban *Partido Revolucionario*; these were displayed either as a miniature Cuban flag (see Plate A), a strip of its colors, or a white star within a red triangle. These insignia were made in a variety of sizes and were worn mostly on the headgear. Officers of the day wore a red sash from shoulder to hip. Such sashes could also be seen in blue and white; other variants included the words "*O del Día*" in white on red, and a white star between a red and a blue band. The ranks were indicated as follows:

General/commander-in-chief (*mayor general*), three gold five-pointed stars on the collar; divisional general (*general de división*), two such collar stars; brigadier (*general de brigada*), a single star.

Colonel (*coronel*), three gold five-pointed stars fixed to the machete scabbard sling on a patch of branch color; lieutenant-colonel (*teniente coronel*), two such stars; major (*commandante*), a single star.

Captain (*capitán*), three white five-pointed stars fixed to the machete scabbard sling; lieutenant (*teniente*), two such stars; second lieutenant (*alférez, subteniente*), a single star.

First sergeant (*sargento primero*), three white horizontal bars fixed to the machete scabbard sling on a patch of branch color; second sergeant (*sargento segundo*), two such bars; corporal (*cabo*), a single bar.

Officers and men of the *Ejército Libertador de Cuba*, three of them wearing white or off-white coats of cotton duck or drill material. Note (left) the miniature Cuban flags worn on the turned-up hat brims; and also (center left & right) the long, straight-bladed machete-type sidearms – these were much feared by Spanish soldiers. A motley range of firearms was used by the *Mambíses* throughout their wars for independence; the soldier at left has a percussion rifle-musket of American Civil War vintage.

The cloth backing on to which the rank insignia were fixed were in the colors of the branch of service, as follows:

Blue = general staff (*estado mayor*), green = infantry (*infantería*), red = cavalry (*caballería*), light brown = artillery (*artillería*), brown = engineers (*ingenieros*), yellow = medical corps (*sanidad*), black = judiciary corps (*cuerpo jurídico*), and white = civil government (*gobierno civil*).

Weapons

A variety of smuggled, captured and black-market firearms found their way to the insurgents, either by sea from the USA (such as the M1873 “trapdoor” Springfield), or from the Spanish Army (such as the Remington rolling-block). Apart from those taken from the battlefield, it was certainly not unknown for Spanish merchants and even corrupt soldiers to sell weapons to their opponents. Besides firearms the most characteristic weapons, however, were machetes. This term did not mean the short, broad tool seen in modern Europe, but a much longer, slimmer cane knife that resembled a shortsword.

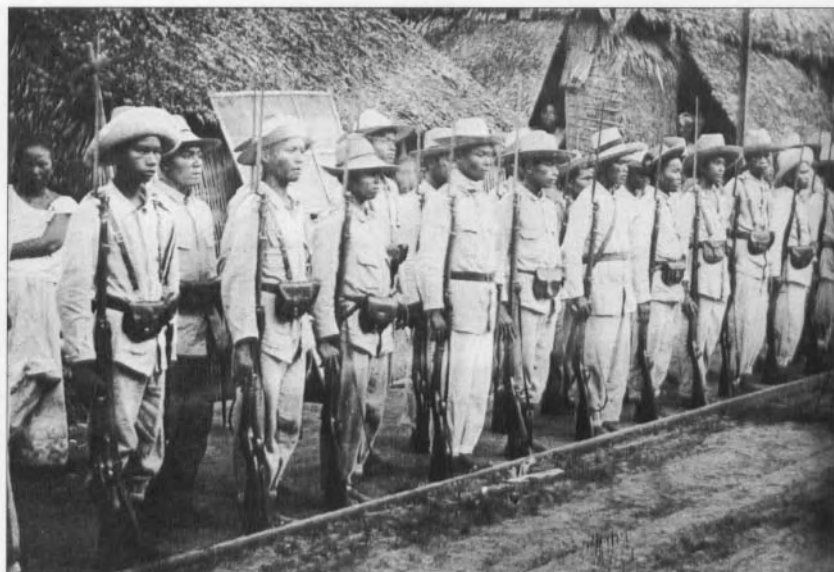
Although many styles were naturally used by the Cubans, the machetes made by Collins & Co of Harford, CT were quite numerous – in the ranks of both the Cuban insurgents and the Spanish Army. Particular models have even been identified as being used during the Cuban wars for independence: Nos.323, 22, 23, 86 and 87 (with scabbards Nos.13, 14 and 16). As early as 1865, Spanish colonial officials had passed laws forbidding the importation of weapons into Cuba. Collins had previously exported their No.23 model since its introduction in 1846–47; this had a pointed 24in blade with a horn handle. To circumvent the law, Collins introduced their No.323, which differed in having its point cut off at a 45-degree angle; “... removing the points from the No.23 machetes... would convert them into agricultural implements that could be imported, instead of ‘weapons,’ which could not... it was a simple task to grind and re-form the tip... that made it useful as a weapon” (Henry, 101).

The longer Collins No.22 machete was the answer for the mounted Cuban insurgents, who needed to find a counterpart to combat the Spaniards’ “*cutachas*” – which also resembled straight-bladed shortswords.



These Cuban rebels are fairly uniformly dressed, and armed with Springfield “trapdoor” rifles. Note the three-star rank tab worn by the captain at far right, and the variety of Cuban flag emblems worn on the hats.

The No.22 had a slender, slightly curved 26in blade with a horn handle. Eventually, "After receiving some feedback from Cuba, the decision was made to equip the Roughriders (and the First US Volunteer Engineers) with Collins No.22 machetes with No.14 scabbards, à la the Cubans, instead of sabers; 4,000 were purchased (some of which went to the Rebels), and these were used in training. In one document the Army referred to them as the Model 1898" (Henry, 105).



With the end of the Spanish-American War the US Army recruited former rebel veterans for the Rural Guard (*Guardia Rural*), which served as a paramilitary police force. "These Cuban troops were outfitted with captured Mauser rifles and Spanish regulation 'cutchas'... When supplies of the captured Spanish machetes were exhausted, some direct copies of them were ordered from Collins" (Henry, 105). The resultant Collins No.86, which was intended for officers, had a 28in blade and a nickel-plated bronze handle with integral plain swept guard, checkered black horn inserts, three rivets of possible nickel silver, and an eagle-head pommel that closely resembled that of Spanish-made machetes. For enlisted men Collins made a plain swept iron guard with horn handles, and a brass pommel plate with a ring for a wrist thong. The practically straight blade "was clipped off at about a 45 degree angle, leaving a point at the forward end of the top edge" (Henry, 107). Another officers' model, with a similar blade to the No.87 and a hilt that closely resembled the No.86 but with a stylized guard, was also given the model number 87 by Collins.

After the fall of Manila in August 1898, Aguinaldo's Filipino insurgents raided Spanish military stores and armories for clothing, equipment and weapons; from that point on they became more uniform in appearance. This unit are all dressed in Spanish *rayadillo* with straw hats, and outfitted with Remingtons and obsolescent Spanish leather rifle equipments.

Weapons of the Filipino insurgents

Conditions for the Filipino insurgents under the command of Emilio Aguinaldo were similar to those under which their Cuban counterparts operated, but the Filipinos were not as successful in organizing an army. Their forces were organized on a provincial basis; the commanding general of each province was required to maintain anything from one to six companies, based upon the region's population. Normally, four companies made up a battalion.

Possibly due to the remoteness of their region and the character of the original inhabitants, the Moros had very few modern firearms, and those that were captured or smuggled in were highly prized. Spanish arms captured or brought in by deserters from the local militia were the most common source. An improvised Moro firearms industry was developed, however, which manufactured not only muskets but even cannons; although primitive in their construction, these weapons could still be

Another view of Filipinos wearing "liberated" uniforms and equipment; note particularly the variety of Spanish headgear - straw hats, sun helmets, barracks caps and visored caps.



potent enough in an ambush upon a Spanish column. Of the multitude of styles and types of small arms made by the Moros, most were matchlocks, with brass or steel tube barrels and stocks of bamboo or some other inferior wood. A few cartridge weapons were noted as being manufactured; the cartridges, usually of thin brass sheeting and holding a large lead slug usually of between .65 and .75 caliber, were also individually hand-made. Artillery pieces were cast copies of Spanish muzzle-loading cannon of the 17th and 18th centuries. A few modern Spanish field pieces were captured, but these proved difficult for the insurgents to master, so Spanish prisoners were persuaded to operate them - a practice that carried on through the Filipino uprising of 1899-1902.

As the machete symbolized the courageous determination of the Cuban *Mambises*, the *kris* symbolized the ferocity of the Moros. This weapon is found throughout the Malay and Indonesian archipelagos in many variants and sizes, from perhaps 14in to 28in long. The name is popularly associated with a "wavy" blade shape, but in fact the majority have straight, double-edged blades. First found on sculptures dating from the 14th century, and perhaps originating in Java, the *kris* (and other types of edged weapon) was used by the Moros well into the 20th century. The essential features of a *kris* are the roughly triangular extension of the top of the blade below the tang on one side; and the small, short-tanged handgrip set at a slight angle to the blade, so that this forms a natural extension of the user's arm - the weapon was used primarily for thrusting rather than slashing. Blades are of folded and hammered construction, giving a patterned finish which is left gray and unpolished. Most have a hand-carved hardwood handle, sometimes artistically shaped, and sometimes with traditional native wrapping of hemp, animal- or fish-skin or other materials. The scabbard is of two distinct parts: a broad, roughly rectangular, asymmetrically swept upper section to accommodate the blade-top extension, and a narrow, parallel-sided lower part in smoothly finished hardwood in an oval section. Brass or other metal fittings are occasionally found.

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A collection of Spanish- and field-made Filipino insurgent artillery pieces captured by the Americans during the Philippine Insurrection. Many of the muzzle-loading light guns, known as *lantakas*, were copied from 16th-century Spanish swivel guns.



PLATE COMMENTARIES

A: ENCAMPMENT, CUBAN ARMY OF LIBERATION, 1895-98

A1: First Sergeant, Infantry

A2: MajGen Calixto Garcia

A3: Captain, Cavalry

The sergeant wears the typical white clothing associated with Cuban peasants and adopted by *El Ejercito Libertador de Cuba* as a uniform, here with a white/brown ticking shirt and a pair of rope-soled *alpagatas*. Non-commissioned officers, and officers of field and company grades, displayed their rank insignia sewn either to the front of their clothing, or to the sling of their machete scabbard – here, the three white stripes of *sargento primero* on infantry-green backing. He is armed with an M1873 Springfield “trapdoor” rifle, smuggled in by Cuban sympathizers in the United States; a multitude of equipment, including obsolescent military surplus, found its way to Cuba. The Cuban flag was first used during the Narciso Lopez expedition of 1848 and later adopted by the provisional government. A number of variations on the design were also seen adorning the headgear of the *Mambises*.

Major-General Garcia – the provisional president of the republic – displays the three gold stars of his rank upon his collar. His jacket has two patch breast pockets and flapped skirt pockets, and he wears high, spurred riding boots. The scar on his forehead was a memento of an incident when he tried to shoot himself to avoid imminent capture in an action during the 1860s.

The cavalry captain wears similar clothing to the general but in a light khaki, with a rank patch in the red of all branches other than infantry. His felt hat bears a triangular cockade in white and red. His special sash identifies him as the officer of the day. Note the decorated machete scabbard, and high leggings.

B: WAITING TO EMBARK; TAMPA, MAY-JUNE 1898

B1: Corporal, 71st New York Volunteer Infantry

B2: Sergeant, 1st United States Artillery

B3: Colonel, 1st United States Cavalry

B4: Captain, 24th United States (Colored) Infantry

The 71st New York wore a variation of the M1872 and M1883 sack coats, with white piping around the collar; his chevrons and ½in trouser stripe are also white. The M1874 water canteen, in its stitched-on pale drab canvas cover, had not changed in essential design since the Civil War; but the method of carrying the soldier's other kit for subsistence in the field had changed radically. Although this was one of the State regiments that experimented with the Merriam pack before embarkation, it was not taken on campaign.

Many Cuban women joined in the fight for independence, and in some cases fought alongside their male companions; however, most of these *Mambises* became nurses, water-carriers, cooks, seamstresses, or performed other essential rear echelon duties. This young woman has the Cuban flag on her broad-brimmed hat, what seems to be a slung canteen and ammunition bag, a long machete, and one of the hundreds of 1873 Winchester repeaters smuggled in from the United States.

Throughout the Army the various cumbersome and uncomfortable knapsack equipments had given place to a simple canvas haversack of generous proportions, basically for rations and eating gear; the necessary minimum of spare clothing, washing kit, and the pegs and break-down poles for the two-man shelter tent, were carried on the march in a horseshoe roll made up with the blanket and waterproofed shelter-half. His weapon is the M1873 Springfield rifle; the blue Mills-pattern cartridge belt has a brass New York buckle plate. His M1885 campaign hat displays the numerals of his regiment in white metal.

The artillery sergeant is wearing the standard Army M1883 sack coat, trousers with the inch-wide stripe of this rank in branch (“corps”) color, and the M1880 sun helmet. On his sleeve below the branch-color rank chevrons is the insignia of his specialty – first class gunner. His black belt has the M1874 plate, and supports the M1840 Light Artillery saber for garrison duty, and a Colt Artillery Model revolver.

The colonel wears the M1898 cotton duck uniform with yellow cavalry facings on the cuff, collars, epaulets and pocket flaps. The collar bears the cipher and crossed U.S. sabers, the epaulets the silver eagle of his rank. Officers wore mixed gold/black hat cords with acorn knots. This veteran of the Indian Wars is armed with the M1872 Colt Single Action Army revolver, and M1860 Light Cavalry saber. The infantry captain is dressed exactly as regulations, in the M1895 undress coat and cap, and carries the M1860 Staff and Field Officer's sword.



Gen Joseph Wheeler, commander of V Corps' Cavalry Division (left front, in dark blue coat), and Col Leonard Wood and LtCol Theodore Roosevelt of the 1st US Volunteer Cavalry (center & right, in khaki), photographed in Tampa, FL. The two officers at left background wear the officers' M1895 undress coat in dark blue trimmed with black mohair braid. At 61, the slightly-built Wheeler – a Civil War veteran, who had been a major-general of Confederate cavalry by the age of 27 – looks like a frail old gentleman. However, although he was incapacitated by illness the day before San Juan Hill, "Fighting Joe" had already made an energetic and intelligent contribution to the command of the Cuba expedition, drawing upon his unrivaled combat experience. Leonard Wood took over a brigade command at San Juan Hill, leaving "Teddy" Roosevelt to lead the Rough Riders' charge up Kettle Hill.



C: GARRISONING THE SPANISH BLOCKHOUSES; SANTIAGO, JUNE–JULY 1898

C1: Sergeant, 1st Battalion, Cuba Infantry Regiment (No.65)

C2: Private, 6th Battery, 4th Mounted Artillery Regiment

C3: Lieutenant, Cavalry Regiment Rey (No.1)

The infantry sergeant's *rayadillo* uniform of white and blue striped ticking has had the detachable collar and cuff facings in infantry green removed while in the field, but two loosely attached gold sleeve stripes identify his rank. The pillbox-style *gorro del cuartel* or "barracks cap" is also in ticking material, with three green stripes round the band. He is in full campaign dress, including a leather canteen hung from his belt, which has his regimental number on the plate. This is hidden by "colonial" four-pocket cartridge pouches for the Spanish Army's latest 7mm M1893 Mauser bolt-action rifle. The artilleryman is wearing a style of straw hat known as a *jipijapa*, decorated with the cockade in the national colors of Spain, and retained by a dark blue neck cord fixed to the back. The flaming bomb of the artillery appears on his collar. His belt equipment consists of a pair of rigid cartridge boxes for his carbine ammunition, and an artillery shortsword; the brass buckle plate bears the artillery's crowned crossed cannons over stacked cannonballs.

The cavalry lieutenant wears the same campaign uniform as the other ranks, but this was of finer quality and tailored to personal taste, usually with shoulder cords mounted on epaulets. A cockade is attached to the white cover of his "Leopoldina" cap. His status is indicated by the small

gorget, his rank by the two lace stripes on his detachable cuffs – which are in the red worn by all branches other than infantry – and the two stars above them. He is armed with the M1895 light cavalry saber with "orthopedic grip," and a Spanish M1884 revolver – a licence-built Smith & Wesson.

D: SPANISH NAVY, JULY 1898

D1: Seaman, cruiser *Vizcaya*

D2: Lieutenant, cruiser *Vizcaya*

D3: Seaman, Naval Infantry Corps

The seaman wears the type of uniform worn by most European navies of the day, the only notable point being the name of his vessel on his cap tally. The cap has the white summer top; the white jumper has blue cuffs and a large bib collar worn with a black kerchief; loose white trousers are worn over low black shoes.

The officer's double-breasted coat, with two rows of seven buttons, displays his rank by two gold lace stripes on the cuff, below two six-point stars; it also has brass "bridles" for securing full dress epaulets. His cap also bears rank bands. A white summer service uniform with dark blue shoulder straps was also worn by some officers during the battle of July 3. The cruiser *Vizcaya* took part in Adm Cervera's attempted break-out from Santiago de Cuba; she was seriously damaged by the fire of the USS *Brooklyn* at short range, and when her bow torpedoes were detonated in their tubes she turned for shore, blazing and torn by secondary explosions, and beached. It was on this occasion that the captain of the USS *Texas* shouted at his crew, "Don't cheer, boys – those poor devils are dying."

The soldier of the *Real Cuerpo de Infanteria de Marina* wears a *rayadillo* uniform similar to those worn by the Army, but with deep blue cuff facings and trouser stripes. Three *sardinetas* were sewn above each cuff, and an upright crowned anchor was displayed on the collar and the belt plate. The belt supports two rigid cartridge boxes and the knife bayonet for the 7mm Mauser rifle.

E: PUERTO RICO, JULY 1898

E1: Captain, Alfonso XII Rifle Battalion (No.24)

E2: Private, Patria Rifle Battalion (No.25)

E3: Major, 6th Massachusetts Volunteer Infantry Regiment

E4: Private, 19th US Infantry Regiment

This plate imagines a scene during the surrender of the port of Ponce to troops of Gen Nelson Miles' I Corps in late July 1898. The volunteer battalions in Puerto Rico wore the same uniforms as those in Cuba, as prescribed by regulations of 1880 and 1892. The captain surrendering his sword is seen wearing his gray "Leopoldina" cap with his dress uniform for this solemn occasion – his everyday uniform would have been of white linen, pale gray or *rayadillo*. The braided dark blue tunic has seven gold buttons and gold shoulder cords; the stand collar in infantry green has silver buglehorn branch badges, and the cuffs gold stripes below silver stars. Infantry green also appears as stripes on the madder-red trousers.



The private in *rayadillo* has a jacket with a pleated fly front and two patch pockets; it displays the detachable green facings of infantry and rifles units. His pith helmet bears Spain's wreathed royal coat-of-arms and a cockade, as well as a black leather band.

The American Volunteer infantry officer has a campaign hat shaped into the "Montana peak". During the war khaki uniforms were naturally particularly varied among Volunteer officers, who purchased their own uniforms according to recommended patterns which were not specified in exact details. In this case the facings are sky-blue; the epaulets display his oakleaf of rank and national coat-of-arms. He is armed with a Colt .38in revolver, holstered on a Mills-type belt looped for pistol cartridges. (This regiment included – uniquely – a black company, Co L, led by three African-American officers.)²

The regular US Army private wears typical campaign uniform: campaign hat, shirt in blue wool flannel, sky-blue wool trousers, light brown canvas leggings laced through an unnecessarily large number of eyelets, and russet leather boots. Colored bandanas were often worn on campaign as sweat scarves. Many soldiers took Spanish Army cockades as war souvenirs and wore them on their campaign hats, as here; note also the branch, regimental and company insignia pinned to the side. (In one documented case some US Army musicians even applied the Spanish infantry buglehorn insignia to their collars and hats.) The woven cotton webbing Mills-pattern cartridge belt of 1896, taking the .30-40 rounds for the Krag rifle, was made of superior materials and treated to make it resistant to damp and rotting; it was fastened with a simple C-shaped clip. Both 45-round and 90-round belts were used during the Spanish-American War and Philippine Insurrection, and soldiers issued the former sometimes carried extra ammunition in a pair of spare socks slung around their neck.

F: MANILA BAY, MAY-AUGUST 1898

F1: Seaman, US Navy

F2: Commodore George Dewey, US Navy

F3: Chief Petty Officer, US Navy

F4: Sergeant, US Marine Corps

The sailor is wearing the white summer/tropical overshirt, and a "dixie cup" cap with the brim rolled up.

Commodore (later Adm) Dewey wears the white undress uniform trimmed with white mohair braid, as introduced in 1886, and a cap with a white cover; his rank is indicated by his shoulder straps, and by the gold lace on the visor of his cap. The chief petty officer wears his double-breasted coat with two rows of four buttons and flapped skirt pockets. The rating badge, as introduced in 1894, shows three chevrons and an arc in scarlet, enclosing the white ship's wheel of his specialty. The "figure eight" knot indicating that he is an ex-apprentice is displayed on the lower right sleeve, and on the left the two red stripes signifying that he is on his third enlistment.

² See Elite 134, *Buffalo Soldiers 1892-1918*.

Gen Joachim Vara del Rey y Rubio, commander of the small Spanish garrison at El Caney, who was killed during the heroic defense of the position against far superior US forces on July 1, 1898. Note the fine corduroy-effect material of his pale gray uniform, and the three gold rank stripes and eight-point stars of a *mayor general* on the cuffs, which are of the same material.

The Marine sergeant is wearing the Corps' dark indigo flannel sack coat with red piping at the base of the collar, front, cuff flaps, belt loops and epaulets. His rank chevrons are in red edged with yellow, and his NCO status is also indicated by the red welts down the outseams of his trousers. His cap resembles the M1895 Army forage cap, but bears the eagle, globe and anchor emblem of the USMC. His blue M1895 Mills-pattern cartridge belt has additional suspenders and black leather pouch flaps for securing the ammunition for his 6mm M1895 Lee Straight-Pull rifle.

G: AGUINALDO'S FORCES; LUZON, 1898-1902

G1: Filipino insurgent with *lantaka* cannon

G2: Filipino insurgent with Spanish equipment

G3: Filipino insurgent officer

In the early days of the struggle for Philippine independence from Spain there was little uniformity in the dress of the insurgents. The majority wore combinations of European and native dress, in white, blue, *rayado* or even checkered material, and edged weapons such as the *bolo* and *kris* were commonly used. A range of more or less primitive firearms were manufactured by the Filipino insurgents and later by the Moro tribesmen, including matchlock muskets and crude cannons. In most cases, these were used only to inflict the initial casualties that allowed the insurgents to capture modern weapons like Spanish Remingtons or US Springfields and Krags.

After the fall of Manila in August 1898, Aguinaldo's soldiers ransacked the Spanish military storehouses and armories to obtain much-needed supplies, equipment, weapons and uniforms. Within days, the formerly rag-tag Filipino rebels were appearing much more smartly dressed in Spanish *rayadillo* campaign or white linen everyday uniforms – though still often barefoot – and carrying military firearms like the Remington rolling-block rifle illustrated. As supplies dwindled and guerrilla warfare took its toll in 1900-02, Aguinaldo's army began looking much as it had in the days before the fall of Manila.

A multitude of ex-Spanish headgear, minus the Spanish cockade and other insignia, ranged from the straw hat to the pith helmet; the officer wears a white-covered Spanish naval officer's cap. Filipino officers preferred to wear officer-style jackets with shoulder cords and broad trouser stripes, and some acquired Spanish officers' swords.

H: JUNGLE FIGHTING; PHILIPPINES, 1899-1902

H1: Corporal, 20th Kansas Volunteer Infantry, 1899

H2: Private, Philippines Constabulary, 1901

H3: Moro insurgent, Mindanao, 1902

The corporal has received khaki trousers but still wears the blue shirt, to which he has sewn his white chevrons – a practice that began only after the war with Spain. He has also pinned an VIII Corps badge to his hat. As a State volunteer he is still armed with the M1873 Springfield rifle, and carries .45-70 ammunition in a blue Mills-type belt.

Once the Americans were able to gain more control in the Philippines they began raising a local constabulary force. The early Philippine Constabulary was equipped with whatever was available; the provisional uniform consisted of a blue campaign shirt, gray cloth trousers, canvas leggings,



Filipino militiamen in Spanish service pose with a captured insurgent, possibly from the Aeta tribe. The guards are armed with M1871 Remington rolling-block rifles, and wear full dress embellishments on their uniforms. Note the shoulder cords, pointed bars of darker lace on the breast, trouser stripes, *sardinetas* on the cuffs, and the elbow-to-shoulder chevrons worn by the NCO on the left.

and a straw or wide-brimmed felt hat with an inch-wide red band. Shoes were either leather, or hemp-soled canvas. The use of the trousers of soft grey cotton – *camano* – was a conscious means to differentiate the constabulary from American Federal and State troops. By December 1901 a distinctive uniform would be adopted.

After the suppression of Aguinaldo's insurgents the Americans began dealing with a new enemy: the Moros of Mindanao and the Sulu Archipelago. The Moro tribesmen were Muslims, though of a distinctly local type; they took heads, and they believed that the more Christians they killed the longer their stay in paradise was assured. In preparation for battle the Moros took drugs and worked themselves into a fighting frenzy, and it was often reported that they would keep coming at US troops despite suffering several bullet wounds. (It has been said that it was this demonstration of the lack of stopping-power of the Army's .38cal revolvers, which still used black powder cartridges giving a muzzle velocity of only 750fps, that aroused calls for a return to .45cal, eventually leading to the birth of John Moses Browning's M1911 semi-automatic pistol.) The dead Moro illustrated here is wearing a local copy of 17th century Spanish armor, including a burgonet-style helmet, over a leather skirt of buffalo hide. Lying by his side are his wooden shield, and a long knife known as a *barong*.

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