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AMERICAN HISTORY

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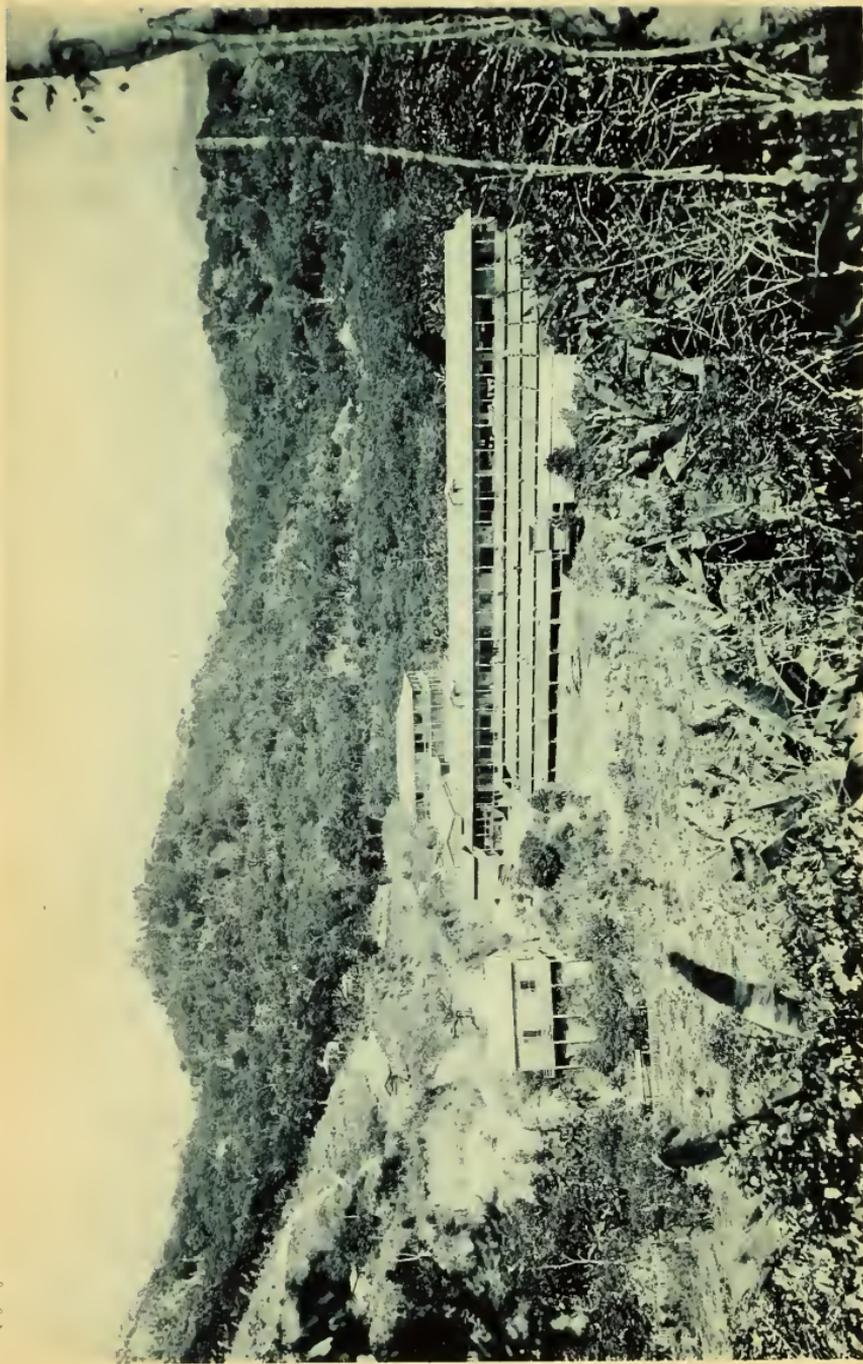
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A COFFEE PLANTATION IN CENTRAL PORTO RICO.

An exquisite picture from a photograph is here reproduced, that shows the drying house attached to a large coffee plantation near the village of Adjuntas, Porto Rico. Coffee is the largest natural production of the island, exceeding even that of sugar, and the grain is as highly esteemed, especially in England, as the famed product of Mocha. The coffee plant, when first set, requires careful attention, and for the first three years it must be protected from the sun's fierce rays, which is accomplished by shading the young growth with banana trees. The plant reaches maturity in six years and attains a height of about eight feet, at which time it throws out new shoots from the ground that thrive in the shade of the parent tree. The stems of the full-grown coffee tree are numerous and of the size of a lead pencil, bearing berries that are dark green until toward ripening time, in September, when they turn a rich red. When the coffee is gathered it is first washed and then spread out on racks to dry in the open air. These racks are movable so that in case of rain they may quickly be drawn back under shelter, for the coffee would be damaged by getting wet after once it has been exposed to the sun until partially dried.

THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

The history of the United States is a story of growth and change. It begins with the first settlers who came to the continent in search of a better life. They found a land of opportunity, but also a land of challenge. The early years were marked by conflict and struggle, as the colonies fought for their rights and independence. The American Revolution was a turning point in the nation's history, leading to the birth of a new country. The years following the Revolution were a time of rapid growth and expansion. The United States became a major power in the world, and its influence spread across the globe. The Civil War was a defining moment in the nation's history, as it fought to preserve the Union and abolish slavery. The Reconstruction era followed, a time of rebuilding and reform. The United States emerged from the war as a more unified and powerful nation. The years following the Civil War were a time of rapid growth and expansion. The United States became a major power in the world, and its influence spread across the globe. The American West was a land of opportunity and challenge, and it played a major role in the nation's history. The years following the Civil War were a time of rapid growth and expansion. The United States became a major power in the world, and its influence spread across the globe. The American West was a land of opportunity and challenge, and it played a major role in the nation's history.

LIBRARY OF AMERICAN HISTORY

OUR LATE WARS

Spain and Our New Possessions

BY

J. W. BUEL, Ph. D., and MARCUS J. WRIGHT

Bureau of Government Statistics

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THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR.

A PRELIMINARY CHAPTER.

HE would have been endowed with more than human foresight—a general consensus would have doubtless pronounced him a visionary—who, in the early spring of 1898, should have foretold not only that in the course of a few weeks the Union would be in the throes of a war to the bitter end with Spain, but that within one hundred days the whilom mistress of the Western World would have lost her sway over every portion of it forever.

Not, indeed, that the primary causes for such a conflict were lacking, or that no cloud overhead bespoke the gathering storm; on the contrary, the long series of Spain's misdeeds in the West Indies for centuries past had left behind it a blood-stained trail along which retribution could not fail to reach her, when the time came, with swifter, surer strides, as her punishment had been withheld the longer.

It has been tersely said that, up to the present, the history of Cuba has been a tragedy. The term is appropriate, and would apply as well to the other Spanish possessions in the West Indies and to the Philippines; yet it needs qualification. We have here a tale of woe that none of the softer influences of the tragic drama ever came to alleviate; a plot of well-nigh incredible infamy, the perpetrat-

ors of which had no other incentive than their rapacity, and' not a thrill of virtuous impulse to mitigate their crime; a picture of darkness unrelieved to the eye save by the purple gleam of the murderer's blade or the pallor of starving specters, with no other silver lining than the treacherous glamour of pledges unfulfilled, unless it be the fitful flash of a heroic deed at the hands of a forlorn hope.

It were needless, at this juncture, to retrace the drainings of Cuba's resources, which was started by her discoverer, Columbus himself, 400 years ago. She was spoken of by her lusty conquerors under a variety of names, "Juana," in honor of Prince John, the son of Ferdinand and Isabella; "Ferdinandina," in remembrance of Ferdinand after his death; "Cuba," her original Indian name; "Santiago" and "Ave Maria," after St. James, the patron of Spain, and the Virgin Mary, respectively; but whether under these, or any of those endearing epithets, "the Garden of the West," "the Summer Isle of Eden," etc., which the irony of fate placed upon their lips, Cuba lay helpless in the grasp of her oppressors until 1762, when the British occupation of Havana bade her hope for a new era of unknown welfare and prosperity.

The vista soon faded away, however; the Treaty of Paris, the outcome of a coalition of Spain, France, Austria and Russia against Great Britain, restored Havana to Spain; the beneficial reforms initiated by the British were kept up only so far as they ministered to the insatiable greed of those in power; and the dawn of the nineteenth century brought no brighter prospect to the unfortunate island.

It may seem remarkable to the superficial observer that our first intervention in Cuba's affairs was directed towards the maintenance of Spanish rule there; in 1825 France was emphatically told that we could not consent

to the occupation of Cuba or Porto Rico by any other European power than Spain under any contingency whatever; in 1840, and again in 1843, our intentions in this respect were conveyed to Great Britain in scarcely less unequivocal terms; but it is superfluous to emphasize the fact that we were then merely asserting the tenets of our new Monroe Doctrine (first enunciated in the Presidential message of 1823), and not in any way upholding a régime which had proved so blighting a curse on every colony to which it had been applied.

Years rolled by; our own civil war engrossed for a time our entire attention; and when, on its termination, we felt stronger than ever to urge the necessity of reform on the government of Queen Isabella, the dethronement of the latter in 1868 opened a new chapter in the annals of Cuba.

For the first time the legion of office-hunting Spaniards, whose occupation in Peru and other enfranchised South American colonies was gone, and whose traffic in blood-stained gold was now confined to Cuba and Porto Rico—the “Peninsulars,” as they are called—found themselves face to face with a regularly organized insurrection on the part of the natives or “Insulars,” as they were designated.

The revolution of 1868 in Spain had no sooner been announced than Carlos Manuel de Cespedes, a well-known Cuban lawyer and wealthy planter, raised the standard of revolt and quickly found himself at the head of an army of 15,000 strong. A declaration of independence, setting forth the too glaring causes that justified it, was published at Manzanillo, on October 10; in the following month of April, at a congress summoned at Quaymaro, a Republican constitution was framed and Cespedes elected president. Mexico and other South American States recognized the Cubans as belligerents; it was not long ere Peru

went one step farther and acknowledged their independence; what was to be known as Cuba's ten years' war was in full sway, and under promising auspices.

Of the methods adopted by the military authorities to face this new condition of affairs, one instance will suffice; it is contained in a proclamation issued by General de Valmaseda in April, 1869, which reads as follows:

"1. Every man, from the age of fifteen years, upwards, who is found away from his habitation (*finca*) and does not prove a justified motive therefor, will be shot.

"2. Every habitation unoccupied will be burned by the troops.

"3. Every habitation from which does not float a white flag, as a signal that its occupants desire peace, will be reduced to ashes.

"Women that are not living at their own homes, or at the houses of their relatives, will collect in the town of Jiguani, or Bayamo, where maintenance will be provided. Those who do not present themselves will be conducted forcibly."

Not more than one example seems needed, either, to illustrate the cowardly hypocrisy with which politicians played their part in this war. A loudly-heralded bill, the Moret bill, which was to emancipate certain classes of slaves, was elaborately passed and became a law amid the plaudits of Europe, in June, 1870. On examination it was found that this would-be emancipatory measure simply relieved the slave-owner from supporting the very young and the very old, while it strengthened and prolonged his hold of the able-bodied; but even such as it was, the outside world thought it had been in operation for almost two years before the Peninsulars even permitted it to be publicly announced in Cuba.

In November, 1875, President Grant determined, if pos-

sible, to bring matters to an issue, and a note was sent to the Spanish government, of which this was the concluding paragraph :

“ In the absence of any prospect of a termination of the war, or of any change in the manner in which it has been conducted on either side, the President feels that the time is at hand when it may be the duty of other governments to intervene, solely with a view of bringing to an end a disastrous and destructive conflict and of restoring peace in the Island of Cuba. No government is more deeply interested in the order and peaceful administration of this island than is that of the United States, and none has suffered as the United States from the condition which has obtained there during the past six or seven years. He will, therefore, feel it his duty at an early day to submit the subject in this light, and accompanied by an expression of the views above presented, for the consideration of Congress.”

Spain's answer came in a two-fold manner during the following spring.

In a note addressed to her representatives in foreign countries, including the United States, Minister Calderon stated that the insurrection was supported and carried on largely by negroes, mulattoes, Chinese, deserters and adventurers ; that Spain had amply sufficient forces to put an end to the kind of guerrilla warfare in which they were engaged, and that her triumph would speedily be followed by the total abolition of slavery and the introduction of administrative reforms. And furthermore, in conversations with our representative, Caleb Cushing, Calderon reiterated the assurance that Spain was in full accord with the United States in regard to the abolition of slavery, the extension of liberal political and administrative reforms to Cuba and the promotion of unrestricted commerce, and that she was

only waiting for the establishment of peace to put these various measures into operation.

Such protestations naturally put all attempts at intervention out of question for the time being. Two years passed by, and the ten years' fight was abandoned in February, 1878.

It was not, however, Spain's "all-sufficient power" that had brought the struggle to a halt; it was the contentions that had arisen between the civil and military departments of the newly-formed and ill-matured republican government, and, above all, the lavishness of the promises which Spain once more held out to the insurgents—promises the nullity of which, when realized, could not but reopen hostilities at the first opportunity.

And yet, declining to learn a lesson from her past experience, Spain kept on the tenor of her Punic faith, and her heartless exactions continued to make Cuba a fattening field for her penniless nobles and fortune-hunting minions, until the inevitable result came, in 1895, and a fresh insurrection broke out, more determined in its efforts and better prepared than ever for a conflict which was destined to be the last.

The ten years' war had cost Spain the loss of over 80,000 out of 150,000 soldiers; that the present was to drain her resources to a greater extent still seemed foredoomed from its inception, while her powerlessness to subdue the revolt of her victimized subjects became more and more apparent.

In the two years ending March 1, 1897, two Spanish generals, 13 field and 108 subaltern officers, 2,018 men were killed in battle or subsequently died of their wounds, while the number of those who had been reported as wounded amounted to 8,627. This was little, however, when compared to the losses caused by disease. Yellow fever alone had, in that lapse of time, carried away 318 officers

and 13,000 men, while no less than 40,000 men and 127 officers had been the victims of other maladies.

In other words, according to the computation of a writer in the *Révue Scientifique* for October 16, 1897, those two years had caused the death or disablement of 521 per 1,000 of the Spanish forces in Cuba, as follows: Killed or dead from wounds, 10.7 per 1,000; dead of yellow fever, 66 per 1,000; dead of other diseases, 201.3 per 1,000; sent home (sick or wounded), 143 per 1,000; left in Cuba (sick or wounded), 100 per 1,000.

The unprecedented successes of the natives in this second war only angered the Peninsulars the more, and the progress of Cuba's enfranchisement was met by a refinement of cruelty worthy of savage life. To Captain-General Weyler history will give due credit for the originating of the so-called "concentration" system. This dastardly measure shocked the human race at large; and the nauseated world stood aghast at its callous execution. Weyler was succeeded by Blanco, and the latter, while hardly loosening his murderous grasp of the non-combatants, was so impressed with the progress of the fighting insurgents that he used every effort to substitute the power of bribery for the impotency of his sword.

To Gomez, the veteran, who for thirteen years had lived but for the liberating of his country, he offered the use of a Spanish vessel to escape from the island, and a fortune in gold if he accepted the proposal; such was the blind infatuation of Spain that she expected Gomez to clutch at her magnanimous offer!

But patriotism that could not be purchased, and loyalty that was as incorruptible as the heart of righteousness, was now soon to have its aid from the good angel of mercy and justice. The destruction of the *Maine* awakened our long patient nation from passivity and led to

loosing the bloody-mouthed dogs of avenging wrong. The episodes of the war that began in April and ended by a peace treaty signed at Paris on December 10, 1898, constitute an epoch of American history which true Americans will call to mind with exultant spirits, for aside from the results which may follow—the liberation of long oppressed peoples and the acquisition by the United States of valuable island territory which remains to be governed—the greater benefits are found in that the war served to cement anew, with indissoluble fraternal bonds, the North and South.

No treaty negotiated in the present century is more pregnant of change in the general international situation than this second Treaty of Paris, as it will probably be called. It is not only that it marks the end of the colonial career of Spain—the final destruction of Spanish-American imperial dominion which was one of the wonders of the world's history, and which has its counterparts only in the expansion of Rome and the growth of Greater Britain—but it brings into the field of international politics a seventh great Power which, with resources of wealth, power and culture in no way inferior to those of the great States of Europe, enters into the competition for dominion over the waste and savage regions of the earth. The stored-up vitality of the American nation has broken its bounds, and after a century of restraint the heirs of the Pilgrim Fathers have cast to the winds the pious renunciations of their ancestors and have given rein to that "old Adam" of world-dominion which is an instinct of the masterful race to which we belong.

CHAPTER I.

FOR more than thirty years the United States had remained at peace with the world, her people busy building up their wasted fortunes and effacing the effects of the era of national tragedy. Prosperity had returned to bless the hand of husbandry, and to reward all the sons of toil; but the sorrows that followed the long and awful civil war had chastened the national spirit and made us not only more charitable but more sympathetic. We had hoped and prayed that our country might never again be involved in war, nor could it ever have been so of our own choosing, but our heart sympathies were touched by the appeals of a neighboring people, and the courage that aids the weak against the strong, that rescues the dove from the rapacious eagle, that interposes to save from a murderous clutch, prompted the great heart of America to rise in its indignation against Spanish oppression in Cuba, and the causes, not less than the results, you shall know.

No country of the world possesses a fairer face, a richer soil, and more valuable productions than does Cuba. She has been called "Queen of the Antilles," but the title is by courtesy, seemingly to taunt her as did the enemies of our Saviour who set upon His cross the ironical legend, "Hail, King of the Jews!" God bestowed His best gifts upon beautiful Cuba, filled the land with flowers, and made its earth bring forth in such abundance that there was perpetual harvest. But the devil stole into this charming Eden, not in the shape of a serpent, but in the guise of a

Spaniard, and sowed the island with tares, and made of it a land of oppression, starvation, and murder. When Columbus landed in Cuba he found a people whose hospitality was unbounded; who gave him of the best of their fruits, were untiring in their kindnesses, and brought their gold to lay as an offering at his feet. Gold! Gold! Gold! At sight of the precious metal Columbus and his companions became the quick émissaries of Satan, to cruelly maltreat and subject to slavery these innocent, hospitable, generous and happy people. They were forced to reveal the sources of their wealth, and were then driven to mining regardless of age, sex, or physical condition, and every one was compelled to produce and deliver to their iron-gloved taskmasters a certain quantity of gold every week. Failure to fulfill all these hard conditions was punished by every conceivable kind of torture, and through these almost unexampled hardships, and other brutalities inflicted upon them, nearly one-half the whole population of the island was destroyed, and the survivors became slaves. The Mohammedan slave-drivers and kidnapers of Africa were never more cruel, more avaricious, more damnable, than have been the Spaniards in Cuba. They have laid burdens upon the people beyond their physical abilities to bear; they have harrowed them with steel, and threshed them with horribly oppressive and confiscatory laws; denied them every form of redress, and wrung from them with sweat and blood the wealth that enabled Spanish grandees, and aristocrats, and an innumerable horde of official drones to live in luxury. And this unexampled cruelty, this shame of the century, this infamy of all time, had for two centuries been permitted to continue without a single demonstration of interference upon the part of any American Republic. The oppressor had been driven from every other

country of the Western hemisphere ; Mexico was saved from the Maximilian yoke, that had been prepared for her, through the intervention of the United States ; Hayti did not appeal in vain ; Venezuela had received our needed help ; Hawaii secured free government through a show of force, made by our guns of war ; Nicaragua was saved from anarchy and humiliation by our mediation, but poor, suffering Cuba, wrecked and desolated, her fields winnowed, her children massacred for generations, stretched her bleeding hands toward us and implored our aid in vain to save her from starvation, death, annihilation. Vainly did she remind us of the days when out of the depths of our despair we cried for help and were answered by the humanity of France coming to our assistance ; hoping ever, though almost discouraged, she pleaded for a fulfillment of our boast of sympathy for all peoples struggling for liberty ; but the crying, the pleading, and the hoping long failed to awaken our government to its duty, and so the shooting down of innocence, the devastation of fields, the slaughter of the helpless, the brutal abuses of women, the imprisonment of children, the riot of savagery went on, and Christianity was disgraced by our supineness.

President McKinley, in his message to Congress of December 6, 1897, reviewed the Cuban situation in the following language :

“ The most intricate problem with which this government is now called upon to deal, pertaining to its foreign relations, concerns its duty towards Spain and the Cuban insurrection. Problems and conditions more or less in common with those now existing have confronted this government at various times in the past.

“ The story of Cuba for many years has been one of unrest, growing discontent, an effort toward a larger enjoyment of liberty and self-control, of organized resistance to

the Mother Country, of depression after distress and warfare, and of ineffectual settlement, to be followed by renewed revolt. The prospect from time to time that the weakness of Spain's hold upon the island and the present vicissitudes and embarrassments of the home government might lead to the transfer of Cuba to a Continental power, called forth between 1823 and 1860 various emphatic declarations of the policy of the United States to permit no disturbance of Cuba's connection with Spain unless in the direction of independence or acquisition by us through purchase ; nor has there been any change of this declared policy since upon the part of the government.

“The revolution which began in 1868 lasted ten years, despite the strenuous efforts of the successive Peninsular governments to suppress it. Then, as now, the government of the United States testified its grave concern and offered its aid to put an end to bloodshed in Cuba.

“The present insurrection broke out in February, 1895. It is not my purpose at this time to recall its remarkable increase, or to characterize its tenacious resistance against the enormous forces massed against it by Spain. The revolt and the efforts to subdue it carried destruction to every quarter of the island, developing wide proportions and defying the efforts of Spain for its suppression. The civilized code of war has been disregarded, no less so by the Spaniards than by the Cubans. The existing conditions cannot but fill this government and the American people with the gravest apprehension. There is no desire on the part of our people to profit by the misfortunes of Spain. We have only the desire to see the Cubans prosperous and contented, enjoying that measure of self-control which is the inalienable right of man, protected in their right to reap the benefit of the exhaustless treasures of their country. The offer made by my predecessor in April, 1896,

tendering the friendly offices of this government, failed. Any mediation on our part was not accepted. In brief, the answer read: 'There is no effectual way to pacify Cuba unless it begins with the actual submission of the rebels to the Mother Country.' Then only could Spain act in the promised direction, of her own motion and after her own plans.

"The cruel policy of concentration was initiated February 16, 1896. This policy the late Cabinet of Spain justified as a necessary measure of war and as a means of cutting off supplies from the insurgents. It has utterly failed as a war measure. It was not civilized warfare. It was extermination. Against this abuse of the rights of war I have felt constrained on repeated occasions to enter the firm and earnest protest of this government. There was much of public condemnation of the treatment of American citizens by alleged illegal arrests and long imprisonment awaiting trial or pending protracted judicial proceedings. I felt it my first duty to make instant demand for the release or speedy trial of all American citizens under arrest. Before the change of the Spanish Cabinet in October last, twenty-two prisoners, citizens of the United States, had been given their freedom.

"The instructions given to our new Minister to Spain before his departure for his post directed him to impress upon that government the sincere wish of the United States to lend its aid toward the ending of the war in Cuba by reaching a peaceful and lasting result, just and honorable alike to Spain and to the Cuban people. These instructions recited the character and duration of the contest, the widespread losses it entails, the burdens and restraints it imposes upon us, with constant disturbances of national interests and the injury resulting from an indefinite continuance of this state of things.

“It was stated that at this juncture our government was constrained to seriously inquire if the time was not ripe when Spain, of her own volition, moved by her own interests and every sentiment of humanity, should put a stop to this destructive war and make proposals of settlement honorable to herself and just to her Cuban colony. It was urged that as a neighboring nation, with large interests in Cuba, we could be required to wait only a reasonable time for the Mother Country to establish its authority and restore peace and order within the borders of the island; that we could not contemplate an indefinite period for the accomplishment of this result.

“No solution was proposed to which the slightest idea of humiliation to Spain could attach, and indeed the precise proposals were withheld to avoid embarrassment to that government. All that was asked or expected was that some safe way might be speedily provided and permanent peace restored.

“Between the departure of General Woodford, the new Envoy, and his arrival in Spain, the statesman who had shaped the policy of his country fell by the hand of an assassin, and although the Cabinet of the late Premier still held office and received from our Envoy the proposals he bore, that Cabinet gave place within a few days thereafter to a new administration under the leadership of Sagasta. The reply to our note was received on October 23. It is in the direction of a better understanding. It appreciates the friendly purposes of this government. It admits that our country is deeply affected by the war in Cuba and that its desires for peace are just. It declares that the present Spanish government is bound by every consideration to a change of policy that should satisfy the United States and pacify Cuba within a reasonable time. To this end Spain has decided to put into effect the political reforms heretofore ad-

vocated by the present Premier, without halting for any consideration in the path which in its judgment leads to peace. The military operations, it is said, will continue, but will be humane and conducted with all regard for private rights, being accompanied by political action leading to the autonomy of Cuba while guarding Spanish sovereignty. This, it is claimed, will result in investing Cuba with a distinct personality, the island to be governed by an executive and a local council or chamber, reserving to Spain the control of the foreign relations, the army and navy and the judicial administration. To accomplish this the present government proposes to modify existing legislation by decree, leaving the Spanish Cortes, with the aid of Cuban senators and deputies, to solve the economic problem and properly distribute the existing debt.

“In the absence of a declaration of the measures that this government proposes to take in carrying out its proffer of good offices, it suggests that Spain be left free to conduct military operations and grant political reforms, while the United States for its part shall enforce the neutral obligations and cut off the assistance which it is asserted the insurgents receive from this country. The supposition of an indefinite prolongation of the war is denied. The immediate amelioration of existing conditions under the new administration of Cuban affairs is predicted, and therewithal the disturbance and all occasion for any change of attitude on the part of the United States.

“Discussion of the question of the international duties and responsibilities of the United States, as Spain understands them, is presented with an apparent disposition to charge us with failure in this regard. This charge is without any basis in fact. It could not have been made if Spain had been cognizant of the constant efforts this government has made at the cost of millions and by the

employment of the administrative ministry of the nation at command to perform its full duty according to the law of nations. That it has successfully prevented the departure of a single military expedition or armed vessel from our shores in violation of our laws would seem to be a sufficient answer.

“Of the untried measures there remain only recognition of the insurgents as belligerents, recognition of the independence of Cuba, neutral intervention to end the war by imposing a rational compromise between the contestants, and intervention in favor of one or the other party. I speak not of forcible annexation, for that cannot be thought of. That, by our code of morality, would be criminal aggression. Recognition of the belligerency of the Cuban insurgents has often been canvassed as a possible if not inevitable step, both in regard to the previous ten years' struggle and during the present war. I am not unmindful that the two houses of Congress in the spring of 1896 expressed the opinion, by concurrent resolution, that a condition of public war existed, requiring or justifying the recognition of a state of belligerency in Cuba, and during the extra session the Senate voted a joint resolution of like import, which, however, was not brought to a vote in the House of Representatives.”

President McKinley admirably and ably pictured the situation, and his sympathy for the Cuban patriots was apparent in every line of this part of his message. If there had been no others to consult, no conflicting interests to restrain, beyond doubt the President would promptly have recommended drastic measures to end the carnage and the shocking shame, but it was Congress alone that could enact measures providing for national interference, or to coerce Spain into granting the liberties that the patriotic Cubans demanded and deserved.

To give a complete history of Cuba, and the rebellions that have taken place in vain efforts to throw off the galling yoke of Spanish oppressors, would require more than a single volume, hence in the small space at my command I can present only the most pronounced incidents and influences that have affected the people of that island. The first great rebellion in Cuba had its beginning in 1868, and continued, though in a desultory way, until 1878, when the Spaniards, being unable to rout the rebels and restore peace by forcible means, conciliated them by unctuous promises of reform and autonomy, almost identical with the humane and just promises of the Sagasta ministry. These assurances were given as pledges of the nation, and trusting to the honor of their oppressors, the rebels laid down their arms and peacefully waited the putting into effect the reforms by which Spain stood so firmly bound. But, like other promises made to be broken by that treacherous nation, this one proved to have been no more than an expedient to deceive, to induce a disbandment of the rebel army, thus permitting a reorganization of the government of Cuba in the Spanish interest and a reinstatement of the old oppressive laws that had caused the ten-year war. The only condition in the compact that Spain even recognized was the one that provided for an abolition of slavery on the island. This clause, however, was not fully observed, but was modified so that its effect was to give freedom to all slaves over sixty years of age, who were really charges upon their masters, and to declare that all children born after 1870 should be free, thus leaving all the able-bodied slaves still in bondage, working for their cruel and extravagant masters. This shameful condition, however, was corrected in 1886, when slavery was abolished by statute, but the exasperating restrictions and burdensome debts that so grievously oppress the people of Cuba were

allowed to remain, and it was in an effort to throw off these that the rebellion beginning February 20, 1895, was begun.

The abuses and oppressions of which the Cubans justly complain are described in a general way by Ramon O. Williams, our Consul-General to the island in 1885, in an official report to the Department of State :

* * * * * *

“ There is a system of oppression and torture which enters every phase of life, eats into the soul of every Cuban, mortifies, injures, and insults him every hour, impoverishes him and his family from day to day, threatens the rich man with bankruptcy and the poor man with beggary. The exactions of the Spanish government and the illegal outrages of its officers are, in fact, intolerable. They have reduced the island to despondency and ruin. The government at Madrid is directly answerable for the misery of Cuba and for the rapacity and venality of its subordinates. No well-informed Spaniard imagines that Cuba will long continue to submit to this tyranny, or, at least, that she will long be able to yield this harvest to her oppressors. Spain cares nothing whatever for the interests, the prosperity, or the suffering of her colony. The government does almost nothing to ameliorate any of the evils of the country. The roads are no roads at all. Every interest which might enrich and improve the island is looked upon by officials as one more mine to exploit. *Cuba is held solely for the benefit of Spain and Spanish interests, for the sake of Spanish adventurers.* Against this all rebel in thought and feeling, if not yet in fact and deed. They wish protection from the grasping rapacity of Spain, and see no way to attain it except by our aid.”

The peace of 1878, obtained by false pretenses and promises, to be soon broken, was so brief that the air of freedom

had scarcely stirred upon the island before the Cubans were made to realize the emptiness of Spanish pledges. The first election thereafter was rendered farcical by the imposition of a poll tax of twenty-five dollars, the payment of which was a qualification precedent to the voting franchise. By this expedient the ballot was given exclusively to the rich, for all Cubans had been impoverished by war and tax impositions. But the application of the poll tax was made to apply almost entirely to Cubans, for Spaniards were able to avoid it by the head of a rich house paying the tax for himself and obtaining the privilege to vote all his employes upon this single payment. In other words, the law was outrageously framed so as to give the rich exclusive rights to the ballot, for their employes were required to vote as the master dictated, which the Spanish employes, however poor, were glad to do. The Cuban members of the Spanish Congress were by this expedient all Spaniards.

All officers of any consequence on the island were and had always been Spaniards. The estimates of the annual expenditures prior to the present rebellion were approximately \$25,000,000, divided as follows: The Spanish civil officials drew \$4,000,000, the list being headed by the Governor-General, whose salary is \$50,000. The army, nearly all Spanish, absorb \$7,000,000; interest on the Spanish debt, \$10,000,000; pensions, all to Spaniards, \$2,000,000; treasury administration, \$1,000,000; judiciary, \$1,000,000. This consumed the total appropriations, but the enumerations here did not complete the expenses. There was usually an appropriation of about \$1,000,000 for internal improvements, bills innumerable in the shape of private claims, but not one penny for education. The deficit, which was unfailling every year, amounted to an average of \$7,000,000 for ten years, which was met by an issue of

Cuban bonds, so that the burden of debt has never ceased to increase, while the ability to meet it has been curtailed by innumerable restrictions laid upon the native Cubans for the benefit of Spanish traders.

It is asserted that for a series of several years not more than five per cent. of the taxes extorted from the island were spent for the benefit of its people, and that only four per cent. of the productions of the island were used by those to whom they rightfully belonged, the ninety-six per cent. being consumed in taxes and other forms of Spanish impositions.

Goaded by their cruel taskmasters to a desperation beyond restraint, the Cubans rose in insurrection in 1879, but their lack of means and organization made the struggle futile, for they were speedily crushed by the strong military hand that was held above them to punish the patriots at the first signs of rebellion. Nor did the effort that was made in 1880 prove any more successful.

Sympathy for the Cubans had for a long while been both strong and active in the United States, but it had generally been confined to peace offerings. In 1848 President Polk authorized the American Minister at Madrid to offer the sum of one hundred millions of dollars for Cuba, but the proposition met with no consideration. Mr. Slidell, of Louisiana, introduced a bill in the Senate in 1858, looking to an acquisition of the island by purchase, but subsequently withdrew it, and in 1889 Mr. Blaine, who was then Secretary of State, and an active Cuban sympathizer, attempted to secure the independence of the island through a purchase, by the natives, under a guarantee of payment by the United States; but, like other proposals, this one failed to receive consideration at the hands of Spain. In the meantime insurrection after insurrection followed, in some of which citizens of the United States were deeply

involved, the most serious of which was the so-called "Virginus massacre" in November, 1873. The *Virginus* was a vessel engaged in trade in the Caribbean Sea, and, flying the American flag, had started upon a voyage to New York. She was in command of Joseph Fry, of Louisiana, and had on board 130 passengers and a crew of thirty men. When steaming out of Kingston, Jamaica, where she had put in to make some repairs, she was pursued by the Spanish man-of-war *Tornado*, and after a long chase was captured.

All the passengers and crew were taken to Santiago de Cuba, where two days later they were convicted, before a court-martial, of piracy and sentenced to be shot. The execution began on November 7 by the shooting of Captain Fry and all the crew of his vessel, whose bodies were afterwards horribly mutilated by a company of artillery driving the wheels of heavy gun carriages over them. A second detail, sixteen passengers, was executed in a similar manner on the following day, but further massacre was prevented by the commander of the British warship *Niobe*, who peremptorily demanded that the survivors be spared until the matter could be referred to the home authorities. When the slaughter was reported, and all its horribly brutal particulars were known in the United States, the country became almost immediately frenzied with excitement and more than one hundred thousand volunteers offered their services to punish Spain for the cruelty. The result was that Spain not only surrendered the surviving prisoners to the United States, but in addition made an apology and gave an indemnity of \$80,000, whereupon the affair was considered terminated.

The unrest in Cuba had continued with small interruption since the year 1849, but there had been times during this interval when the people seemed to have accepted

their hard fate because they were unable to amend it ; but all the while there were bitter hatreds and anxious anticipation of coming opportunity to try the issue again with their inhuman tormentors. Spain was not insensible of this patriotic spirit that pervaded the whole island, and to keep it in subjection she garrisoned all the Cuban posts and crowded the prisons with suspects by way of intimidation. In the meantime Spain was ever conceiving and proposing new *reforms*, which in reality were but cunning legal devices designed with the view of extorting more blood money from the poor islanders. The last so-called *reform*, adopted in 1894, was to form a *Council* with power to administer the affairs of the island, this Council to be composed of thirty members, fifteen of whom were to be appointed by Spain, and the other fifteen to be elected by the Cubans. This might be considered as a concession, but mark the limitations ! It was a condition of this reform measure that the Governor-General should be *ex-officio* president of the Council, with the right of veto as well as having the casting vote. This gave the Spaniards all the power that they really required, for the poll-tax qualification, as before explained, enabled the Spaniards to elect not less than twelve members of the fifteen, who should be Cubans, besides which the Governor-General was given the right to suspend indefinitely, if he chose, any number of members of the Council not to exceed ten.

The Cubans saw in this arbitrary action not only the cloven foot, but the full figure of the devil, and an explanation soon followed. At this time there were held in Europe no less than \$200,000,000 of Cuban bonds, all of which represented debts contracted by Spanish officials and the Spanish government in the military operations against Mexico, Peru, and San Domingo, in which the island itself had neither benefit nor interest, notwithstanding the whole

amount was secured by pledging the revenues of Cuba. But as more money was required the Council of Administration was formed to increase the Cuban burdens by an additional issue of bonds, amounting to \$100,000,000, thus making the total bonded debt \$300,000,000, which 1,500,000 already impoverished people were to bear like a cross to the Golgotha of their crucifixion.

At these fresh iniquities liberty's torch was lighted to spread the flames of revolution through the distracted island. Jose Marti, who had been twice banished by the Spanish government, became the head of a Cuban Junta in New York City, and by pen and speech fired the popular heart, by reciting the wrongs of his loved but suffering island country. Neither leaders nor volunteers were lacking in the hour of need. Cisneros Betancourt, and the two Maceo brothers, Antonio and Jose, took up the cry of *Cuba libre* and soon organized the patriots into a fighting force. The first rebellious demonstrations took place in Eastern Cuba, in February, 1895, which Governor-General Calleja tried to suppress by suspending personal guaranties and banishing suspects to the prisons of Cueta, North Africa. In April following Calleja was recalled and General Martinez Campos was placed in command, but notwithstanding his activity, and the numerous and constantly swelling forces sent to his assistance, he was unable to check the movements of the patriotic insurgents. Gomez and Antonio Maceo, the latter a half-breed, were by universal consent given command of the insurrectionary army, with Jose Maceo and Marti taking charge of the provisional government which it was necessary to immediately establish.

CHAPTER II.

It was the policy of the insurgents to worry rather than to fight their adversaries, until they could sufficiently increase and arm their forces for field operations, as their numbers were comparatively small and their equipment woefully insufficient to cope with so large a disciplined army as had been sent against them. In May the first engagement was fought at Dos Rios, in which the brave and energetic Marti was killed, which aside from the great loss to the patriots caused a serious delay in the organization of the civil government. It was therefore not until September following that the constituent assembly met in Camaguey, which after adopting a constitution elected officers of the declared Republic and divided the island into states and districts and provided for all the functions of government.

Being seldom able to engage the insurgents in pitched battles, General Campos sought to confine them to the province of Santiago, to which end he built two trochas, of barbed wire and earth walls, across the island, and protected it with a line of soldiers and with forts at short intervals. These means proved of no avail, for Gomez charged through the lines and easily formed a junction with Betancourt in the province of Puerto Principe. Desultory warfare now succeeded, which continued for three years, relieved by occasional dashes, but nearly always the collisions resulted to the advantage of the insurgents, as is proved by an official Spanish report made to Madrid under date of

February, 1896, summarizing the results of the first year of the rebellion: Spanish loss, 3,877, of which number 286 were killed in battle, 119 died of wounds, 3,190 died of yellow fever, and 282 of other diseases. Within this time 120,000 regular soldiers had been sent to Cuba, in addition to the Spanish volunteers on the island, estimated at 35,000, and the military operations had cost the sum of \$75,000,000. Statistics are not procurable showing the loss to the insurgents, nor their expenditures, but officials maintain that they suffered the loss of not more than 700 men all told during the first year, while the expenditures have been confined almost entirely to contributions made by sympathizers in other countries.

General Campos conducted the war generally on humane principles, and he was vigilant, daring, and capable; yet he had to contend with so many disadvantages that no amount of military skill or strategy could be made effective against the equally skillful tactics of Gomez and Maceo, who not only fought the good fight under patriotic inspiration, but who also had for their aids the helpful sympathies of all Cubans. Besides these advantages, the insurgents possessed the greater one of fighting for their homes, and of knowing the country so thoroughly that they were able to scatter and to unite at designated points in the forests and swamps, where an army could not follow. They were also inured to the climate, and could endure the exposures incident to guerrilla warfare without injury to health or at the expense of vigor.

In the spring of 1896 Spain lost confidence in the military abilities of Campos to cope with the insurgents, and recalling him, appointed Valeriano Weyler Governor-General in his stead. Weyler had made a reputation as an effective and iron-handed commander in the ten years' war in Cuba and in establishing Spanish rule in the Philippine

Islands; so that expectation was great at Madrid that he would make short work of the patriots. And Weyler himself was boastful of his power and determination to speedily crush the rebels by inaugurating a ruthless warfare of extermination.

In pursuance of his threats he built trochas, guarded the highways, and destroyed plantations; butchered every suspect taken, whether man, woman, or child; filled prisons with the helpless; pillaged, plundered, outraged, and devastated without ceasing. These infamous methods of the savage failing him, he adopted another, no less cruel, of depopulating all the country districts, firing the villages, and concentrating all the miserable, homeless people in strongly garrisoned cities, where they were left to starve, for, in their extreme poverty, provisions were not obtainable. Gaunt famine now stalked through this once beautiful land, thousands died of starvation in a country so rich that every seed put into the ground may bring forth a thousand-fold. Little children died upon mothers' breasts because starving had dried up all nourishment; corpses lay everywhere, and only vultures grew fat, finding food plentiful; women were violated, and men were chopped to pieces in the field, on the highway, in their homes, and wherever found. Gun, saber, and machete were the only implements now in use, and the fury of hell, the horror of massacre, the stench of death covered poor Cuba. Weyler seldom ventured forth from his palace to personally conduct campaigns, and when he did enter the enemy's territory he kept well out of danger and was always surrounded by a heavy bodyguard, while the most he accomplished was the raiding of some plantation, or a descent upon a hospital and the murdering of the helpless inmates. Thus, a year of his inhuman rule closed with no more effective results to the Spanish cause than the decoying of General Maceo into an ambush by

professed friends, who assassinated him. When the heroic general fell there was great rejoicing throughout Spain, where the opinion prevailed that the strongest arm of the insurgents' cause had been paralyzed, and that the end of the rebellion would quickly follow as a consequence. The Spaniards, however, very soon modified their expectations, for though the loss of Maceo was indeed a severe blow to the patriots, it in no wise embarrassed their movements or served to lessen their resolution, for Maceo's place was promptly taken by Manuel Garcia, whose military skill and adroitness was of the highest order, as was proved during previous revolutions on the island, in which he was a leader.

Weyler's disappointment at the results which he confidently predicted would ensue from Maceo's assassination threw him into the wildest rage, which was further intensified by reports of the landing of American vessels, with arms and supplies for the insurgents, at unprotected and unguarded points on the Cuban coast. These reports had small foundation of fact, but they were eagerly seized upon to form excuses he made to the home authorities for the continuance of the rebellion, without which aid he declared the insurgents could not maintain themselves or continue the struggle.

Weyler's prejudices against Americans became so great that he refused to respect their rights upon the island and ordered their indiscriminate arrest, persecution, and execution. Scores were thrown into filthy prisons and subjected to such abuses and deprivations that many died from the effects. Our Consul-General, Lee, made frequent protests to Weyler of this illegal treatment of American citizens, and reported the outrages to the authorities at Washington, but without obtaining reparation, in consequence of which indifference General Lee was several times upon the point

of sending in his resignation, which he only refrained from doing by promises made by the State Department to give his charges proper attention.

One of the particular outrages perpetrated by Weyler's orders was the unjust imprisonment of Dr. Ruiz, an American citizen, who was seized upon a suspicion that he had been giving aid to insurgents. Not content with the punishment that incarceration inflicted, Weyler would glut his savagery by subjecting the doctor to the acutest torture. His brutal guards accordingly beat him with clubs, denied him food and water, and otherwise so maltreated the poor man that he died from the effects. When report of this barbarous outrage was made in the American press, and through General Lee's communications, indignation became unbounded, and the whole country was ready to take up arms to avenge the crime. The widow of Dr. Ruiz escaped with her two children to the United States and made a personal appeal to the State Department, reciting at length the particulars of her husband's murder. Promises were made that led her to believe the Spanish government would be held to accountability and that indemnity would be promptly demanded. The poor woman had been left penniless, and would have suffered the pangs of severest poverty but for the charity extended to her by the *New York Journal*, which provided for her wants. Six months after the murder of Dr. Ruiz demand was made upon the government at Madrid, through Minister Woodford, for immediate indemnity and reparation, which demand, however, was treated with the same indifference that characterized the Spanish authorities upon the submission of previous requests by our government, and no pressure was afterwards brought to bear to enforce it.

Abuses however flagrant, crimes however monstrous, and indignities however humiliating, are soon forgotten by the

peace-loving people of our country, and so the Ruiz outrage presently passed out of mind. The next popular agitation in America over Cuban affairs was created by a much simpler incident than many others that never came to public notice, but the manner of its exploiting was such as caused immense excitement. The report was made through the metropolitan press that a young girl named Cisneros, seventeen years of age, had been ravaged from her home, which a short time before had been devastated by the cruel Spaniards, and her father sent into exile. In reality the girl voluntarily accompanied her father into exile, but it was declared that she had been taken without warrant or right, deported to the Isle of Pines, and there kept as a convict and made to perform menial labor for a brutal and lustful commandant named Berriez. The report also recited that the instigation of this outrage was not political or military, but entirely sensual, having been made by order of a monster whose libidinous advances to the girl had been resented, and who took this means to get her within his power. It was proved she was subjected to the most infamous persecutions to compel compliance with the lecherous demands; but neither threats nor promises availed this devil-faced officer, who, finding it impossible to overcome the impregnable virtue of the girl, sent her to the Recojidas prison, in Havana, where she was for several weeks confined in a noisome cell with about twenty other female prisoners, a majority of whom were depraved negresses. The condition of this unfortunate girl, and the declared purpose of Weyler to send her to the hell of Cueta, created the most profound excitement among sympathetic Americans, which took the form of a memorial to the Queen Regent of Spain giving a history of the girl and petitioning for her pardon. This memorial was signed by thousands of women in America, and afterwards success-

fully circulated for signatures in England and France, but when finally presented it served no other purpose than to obtain the Queen's promise to have the case inquired into, which was equivalent to destroying the huge petition.

Finding at length how vain was the hope of depending upon Spanish authorities to punish abuses or to right wrongs, a plan was formed to accomplish Miss Cisneros' rescue. A correspondent, named Karl Decker, was accordingly sent to Havana by the *New York Journal*, amply provided with money to bribe, and with courage to execute, the most desperate undertaking. This correspondent, at imminent risk to his life, succeeded in his heroic and chivalrous purpose, by forcing the bars of the fair prisoner's cell at midnight, and brought his beautiful charge to America, where she was received with great demonstrations, and was soon afterward adopted by Mrs. John A. Logan, of Washington City.

An incident followed a few weeks later, which brought as vividly to mind Spanish abuses, while at the same time it served to emphasize the supineness of our government. Very early in the year 1897 a small vessel, called *The Competitor*, was seized off the coast of Cuba, and being towed to Matanzas as a prize, the crew were sent as prisoners to Havana, where, for no less than nine months, they were confined in El Moro Castle. All of these men were American citizens, and though they were charged with piracy, in smuggling arms and provisions to the insurgents, the proofs were never established, while the burden of evidence seemed to support the declarations of the crew, that they were engaged in legitimate commerce. General Lee promptly reported the case to our authorities, and representations were made to the Madrid government by the Department of State, but no action was taken until Weyler had the men court-martialed, and, despite the

utter absence of proof of guilt, they were sentenced to death. Execution, however, was delayed, because of the fear that such barbarity and murder might lead to a declaration of war by the United States. In the meantime, the prisoners were denied the necessaries of life, and were kept so closely confined in damp and fetid cells that disease seized upon the suffering crew, from which ten of them died, and the remainder were reduced to skeletons. At last, after many months of inhuman inactivity upon the part of our authorities, after the recall of Weyler and the succession of the Sagasta Ministry, the five survivors received a pardon and returned to America, but as shadows of their former selves, and with constitutions broken beyond repair. Nor was demand afterwards made for reparation for this infamous outrage, and the sufferers were compelled to endure their wrongs without hope of redress. In an appeal addressed to the American people by Salvador Cisneros Betancourt, president of the proclaimed republic, February 1, 1897, occurs the following language :

“ . . . The world knows the noble yet fearful history. Spain knows it, and when her representative in the capital of the United States says the Cuban rebellion is a negro movement entirely, he not only falsifies, but he insults, the memory of the grand army of the dead. We are proud to have our colored brothers with us in this glorious struggle for freedom ; for Cuba, when free, will be like the land of Washington, where every man worthy of citizenship will be accorded the full rights of civil and religious liberty.

“ We ask the American people to grant us, through their President and Congress, those rights of belligerency to which according to the laws of all nations and of war we are entitled. Our armies have marched whither they might throughout the entire island, and have for weeks threatened the stronghold of Spain's power in Cuba. Must we capture

Havana and drive Spain's hirelings across the sea before we are given the right as men to fight for that priceless gift which God destined should be universally divided among His children? Must we gain our independence before we are accorded the sanction of the world to labor for it?

* * * * *

“On all grounds of diplomatic and international usage the Cuban Republic is entitled not alone to recognition of belligerent rights for its armies now in the field, but to actual independence. Still, we do not ask that the latter be accorded us at present. All we wish now is to be looked upon by the government of the United States as men and soldiers, battling for their birthright. We do not wish to appear in the eyes of the world like bandits and a rabble.

* * * * *

“People of the free and glorious United States, Cuba appeals to you! She asks that you raise your voice in her behalf. She asks that you announce to the world that at least as against the tyrant she be given an equal chance. Cuba, the bleeding, appeals to her American sisters. She does it in the name of God, of justice, of civilization and of America.”

In the Senate of the United States, during the session of 1896-97, a resolution was introduced by Senator Morgan, of Alabama, according belligerent rights to Cuban insurgents; Senator Sherman, who a few months later became Secretary of State, led the discussion in favor of its adoption. The speech which he delivered (in February) upon that occasion, following the appeal by President Betancourt, was not only a lengthy one but was marked by force and eloquent descriptions of the condition of the suffering

people and the world-shocking barbarities of Weyler. Some extracts from this speech deserve to be reproduced in this work, not alone for the information which is thus conveyed, but as showing the feelings of Senator Sherman, and enabling us to compare his declarations as senator with his astounding lukewarmness as Secretary of State :

“ The whole movement of the military force in Cuba is Spanish in its character. They have more troops now in Cuba than England ever had in the American Colonies during our American Revolution. The force that has been brought to bear has been unable to check the movement of these wandering brigands, as they are called, in their triumphal march from one end of the island to another. Sometimes it is said that the local government has no habitation ; that it has no place which it can hold to pass laws. In this respect they are like our Revolutionary Fathers, who assembled at Philadelphia, adjourned to Baltimore, fled to Lancaster, and convened at Yorktown.”

Senator Sherman referred to an identical resolution introduced by himself in 1870, recognizing the Cubans as belligerents in the ten years' war, and explained the cause of the defeat of the resolution as follows : “ The conditions under which it was introduced were rather peculiar. At that time General Grant was understood to be strongly in favor of taking determined measures to put an end to Spanish rule in Cuba. . . . But Mr. Hamilton Fish, his Secretary of State, was no doubt largely controlled by the commercial interests of the city of New York. He was very much opposed to Grant's policy, and resisted it to the utmost. Finally General Grant yielded. . . . The strongest possible statement of the objections to our interfering in the issue and to our recognition of Cuban belligerency is stated in the message of President Grant in 1875, and I think every one who is familiar with the writings

of Mr. Fish will see that it was practically his work. Therefore it was that we did then as we are doing now—we let the thing run along.”

In the course of his speech, after presenting statistics to prove the immense commercial interests that the United States has in Cuba, Senator Sherman read from a book written by a Spaniard named Donderio, descriptions of some of the astounding barbarities inflicted by Weyler during the war of 1868-78, as follows :

“It was not alone that he carried out the brutal orders of Valmesada (captain-general at the time). Had he done only that the Cubans of to-day would fix the blame upon Valmesada instead of upon him (Weyler). But he went much further ; he took it upon himself to cause the outrage and murder of scores of women in the small towns and villages. His favorite amusement was entering a village with a regiment of soldiers and collecting all the women to be found in the dwellings. If there happened to be any men left in the village at the time they would be shot down. The women huddled together in a frightened group, while Weyler would form his troops in a hollow square facing inward, and then having three or four of the women, and even little girls of the age of ten and twelve years, stripped absolutely naked, he would drive them into the square at the point of the bayonet, and make them dance until exhausted, the double file of sensual Spaniards gazing on with delight. When one set had fallen panting to the ground, he would deliver them over to the soldiers for their gratification and bring out others, until every woman in the village, stripped, had been forced to submit to these terrible indignities. Finally, the tortured creatures would be put out of their misery by being hacked literally to pieces with swift strokes of Cuban machetes.”

Many other equally horrible incidents Senator Sherman

read from Donderio's book, and then quoted facts reported by eye-witnesses of Weyler's infernality as follows :

“Weyler came to a country place called Levado, which belonged to Maguilara, then vice-president of the republic of Cuba. Here he found in bed and almost dying Eugenio Tomagno and his brother. They were almost dead of consumption and in a state of ulceration, but Weyler had them dragged through the hallway and out of doors to a wood, where they were cut to pieces. The wife of the manager of the estate, who was there with her little daughter, eight or nine years old, was taken out of the house, deprived of her clothing, and made to dance, with her little daughter. Both were afterwards outraged and cut to pieces.”

At this point in his speech of denunciation Senator Sherman said : “In Donderio's book, mentioned above, the writer (who it must be remembered was a Spaniard and not a Cuban, and who would certainly not have told falsehoods against his countrymen) gives these thrilling little dramas of horror, taken from the reign of Weyler at this period : ‘As we approached the village of Boire, we saw coming toward us the guerrillas of a Spanish column, who, in a reconnoitering expedition in the woods thereabouts, had found a small colony of Cuban families whose male individuals they had all assassinated and whose ears they were bringing, strung on their bayonets, so as to show the number they had killed and claim the reward.

“ ‘ In one of the camps one could contemplate the troops looking with almost the satisfaction of tigers upon four women whom they had captured. Three of them were from sixteen to twenty years of age, and the other more advanced in years, and was accompanied by two small girls from seven to nine years old, whose mother she was. The lady thus referred to belonged to the wealthy family of

Los Penos. She thought to soften the hearts of the soldiers by presenting to them her two little daughters, who were besides rather sickly, and praying that they might not be condemned to an act which would, without doubt, cause their immediate death. But all her supplications were in vain. The soldiers were finally given authority to do with the women as they pleased, and next morning they were all dead.

“ ‘ I once witnessed the arrival of a column at a small Cuban settlement with thirteen families. The women were separated from the men, and were then compelled to gather the wood with which their relatives were to be reduced to ashes, after being butchered. The women were of course, according to the usual custom, ravished a little later. We have witnessed with our own eyes what we have described.’

“ ‘ These,” declared Senator Sherman, “ are excerpts picked out at random from Donderio’s book, and the stories are unconnected. They are translated literally from the original Spanish, and the peculiar idioms are kept.” After so stating, the Senator proceeded to quote several other atrocities perpetrated by Weyler. The fact of the Senator so using Donderio’s statements was equivalent to his indorsement of them, and he thus made himself to an extent responsible. Continuing the quotation :

“ ‘ With fiendish delight Weyler took captive a middle-aged father, mother, and their two daughters and two sons, whom he had overlooked upon a previous visit. He marched them along until coming to a chosen spot he bound the father and mother firmly to trees near each other. Then having the daughters held tightly by the guards, he proceeded to order several of his soldiers to hack the young boys to pieces with machetes. The boys now lying dead, the butcher signaled to his soldiers to bring forward the

two girls. They were pretty, dainty señoritas, in the first flush of womanhood, and Weyler's smile grew more sardonic as they were brought before him. Then and there, in full sight of the father and mother, he had his soldiers strip the young girls of every article of clothing and for half an hour compelled them to dance with all the soldiers looking on. But Weyler was not through yet. It sounds absolutely impossible to say that any man could be possessed of such cruelty, but facts are facts, and it is the sober truth, vouched for by several Cubans in this city, that immediately following the dancing, with the father and mother still looking on, the butcher gave instructions to have the girls violated before their eyes. It proved the death of both of them, and left the father and mother—whose lives Weyler spared—hopelessly insane.' ”

These are only a few of the atrocious, hellish acts committed by Weyler which Senator Sherman used to illustrate the inhumanities of the Spanish in their damnable efforts to suppress the cry of liberty in Cuba, and he closed his speech with the following words: “ We will not shield ourselves behind the position taken by the British government in the case of Armenia, that Armenia was so far away and beyond her power that Great Britain could not help those people when they were being murdered. That was no doubt a true position, and it was difficult under the circumstances for Great Britain to interfere. I do not say this as a criticism. But Cuba lies right at our shore. A few hours suffice to carry us across to Havana, the capital of that beautiful island, which is rich in production, which contains the best sugar lands in the world, a country capable of holding 5,000,000 people and giving them active and prosperous employment—people of a gentle and kindly race, not disposed to warfare, unless it be to resent intrusion and tyranny.

“Whatever may be the result of the adoption of this measure, I desire to take my share of the responsibility in connection with it, and with a confidence in the judgment of the Almighty Ruler of the universe, I believe it will be wise if we can assist, and all the other nations of America concur, in securing to the people of Cuba the same liberties that we now enjoy.”

This really powerful speech, one of the best, it was said at the time, that Senator Sherman ever delivered, had great influence, and the belligerency resolution was adopted in the Senate by a large majority, but went to the House so late in the session that insufficient time was given for full discussion and was never brought to a vote. Thus the question of recognition stood when President McKinley was inaugurated and Senator Sherman accepted the portfolio of Secretary of State. But the friends of Cuba were most hopeful, as they had reason to be, for not only had their champion in the Senate succeeded to the highest Cabinet position, where his ability to aid them was now the greatest, but the platform of the Republican party, upon which President McKinley was elected and to which he had pledged himself, contained an emphatic pronouncement committing the party to a recognition of the Cuban insurgents.

CHAPTER III.

NOTWITHSTANDING the well-based expectations of the patriots their hopes were destined to be long deferred. The hard struggle for liberty went on in Cuba, and Weyler's crimes continued in all their former horrific phases. Americans were placed under his especial ban of hate; the consulate was stoned by mobs, and it was almost certain death for a citizen of the United States to venture himself upon the streets of Havana. So desperate became the condition of Americans on the island that, to prevent their actual starving, upon the representations of Consul-General Lee the sum of \$50,000 was subscribed by Congress for their relief, distribution of which was made through the Consul, by which assistance several hundred were enabled to leave the island and to return to the United States.

Finally, in October, 1897, the charges against Weyler's inhumanities, and his peculations as well, became so numerous and loud, preferred not only by Americans but by the press of London and Paris also, and the proofs were so conclusive, that a change became imperative. The Canovas Ministry had failed miserably in its attempt to suppress the rebellion; more than \$100,000,000 had been squandered, and of the 200,000 soldiers sent to Cuba from Spain, more than half had died or were become unfit for service, because of sickness or wounds. The Spanish treasury was empty, the soldiers were unpaid, and the Carlists were growing so bold as to seriously threaten an uprising at home.

Under circumstances so desperate, which the assassination of Canovas in September intensified, the Ministry was dissolved and Sagasta was called to form a new one. The task was a critical one, but he obeyed the summons, and to placate, or, rather, to deceive, both Americans and Cubans, his first act was to recall Weyler and appoint in his place General Blanco, who was advertised as a humane and influential commander. Captain-General Blanco arrived in Cuba the last day of October and brought with him a scheme of autonomy as a conciliatory measure, which the Cubans were expected to receive with thankfulness.

If either Spain or the United States sincerely believed that promises of autonomy would satisfy the patriotic Cubans, the disappointment must have been as great as the expectation was puerile. It is possible to deceive once, or even twice, by the same means, but it is impossible to continue such delusions except by the use of new expedients, and this autonomy gold brick had been sold to the Cubans twice before. They knew the cunning, the cruelty, the insincerity of Spanish statecraft, and by bitter experience had been taught that whatever the promises made, the purpose was to persuade them to lie down and have the manacles, which were now half broken, repaired and riveted more firmly. The Cubans therefore not only rejected the coated pill of autonomy, but repeated in louder voice their determination to win independence or to die in the struggle. To emphasize their decision they threatened to execute any emissary of the Spanish government who should come to them with the promise of autonomy, and in fact Gomez did order the summary shooting of two government agents who had the temerity to pass the insurgent lines to urge acceptance of Sagasta's proposals. And here the matter stood, without change of condition or resolution, the Cubans battling for their homes and independence, and their op-

pressors striving to devastate the island and to annihilate the suffering patriots. Wall Street and the so-called commercial interests of New York were paramount, and exerted the same influence they used so effectively in 1870, when Hamilton Fish, as their representative, persuaded President Grant to withhold his predetermined intention to lend the Cubans aid to drive the Spanish wolf out of the island.

In closing this necessarily brief historical résumé of events in Cuba during the last rebellion, and of the policy of our government under both a Democratic and Republican administration, I ask no excuse for appending an extraordinary statement made by the *New York Journal* in its issue of December 9, 1897, as follows:

“At a date subsequent to the time when President McKinley began penning his annual message to Congress, an important document arrived at the State Department. It was no less than the secret report which President McKinley had requested as to the actual situation in the Island of Cuba since the advent of Blanco.

“This paper states in absolute terms that the statistics of mortality in the *Cinco Villas*, that is, the towns of Cienfuegos, Sagua La Grande, Santa Clara, Sancti Spiritu and Trinidad, amounted to 100,000 poor, unarmed wretches, who were starved to death.

“The administration has been assured upon the faith of its consular agents that the number of those who have died in the island since January 1, 1897, until October 1, last, has reached the appalling total of 600,000.

“When the rebellion began the population of the island was 1,631,687. It will be seen, therefore, that more than one-third of the original population have been ruthlessly and cruelly swept from the face of the earth.

“The Spanish officers have freely given the information, for a price, that, although Blanco has ordered the distribu-

tion of rations to the starving wretches, there is no food to give them; that the Spanish soldiers themselves are starving. As late as the last week of November the administration was notified that the Spanish commissary at one of the interior towns was ordered to distribute 500 rations to the dying people. He showed the order to the American Consul and said: 'How am I to give out this food? I have not got it. The Spanish soldiers are starving. When I get food it will have to be distributed to them first.'

"Startling as these facts may seem, it is absolutely certain that the State Department had this report in its possession before the message was completed. Add to this that this same report goes on to say that the Island of Cuba is absolutely lost to Spain. Information also comes that the effective Cuban forces now operating in the field are as follows: In Pinar del Rio, 4,000; Havana, 2,500; Matanzas, 1,500; Santa Clara, 4,000; Santiago de Cuba and Puerto Principe, 10,000; a total of 22,000. The Cubans admit a loss of ten thousand men by wounds and disease since the beginning of the rebellion; and since for each Cuban lost at least ten Spaniards have bitten the dust the mortality among the royalist troops and volunteers may be estimated. The effective Spanish force now in the field, exclusive of guerrillas, does not exceed 60,000."

According to the report submitted by General Blanco to the Madrid government January 1, 1898, the losses to the Spanish army in Cuba to that date amounted to 103,000 men from the beginning of the war, 40,000 of them being then sick in Spanish hospitals. Of the 192,000 regular troops received by General Weyler only 89,000 men fit for duty remained.

This is the humane side of the account. The commercial side is equally deplorable. The first year of the Cuban

war cost our American commerce upward of \$60,000,000. During the past year, 1897, our trade with Cuba went down to less than \$20,000,000, as compared with \$102,864,204 in 1893, the year preceding the breaking out of the war.

To say that this country had no business to meddle with such a situation is absurd. But still this evil and barbarous condition was permitted to continue, under the shallow excuse that time should be given in which to ascertain the results of Sagasta's scheme, of offering autonomy to the insurgents. The people could not themselves declare war, however great their sympathies, but the universal feeling outside of Wall Street, was manifested by the generous response made to President McKinley's appeal to the country for contributions to save the Cubans from starvation. This appeal, made early in January, 1898, brought forth in less than one month the sum of \$100,000, in addition to an enormous quantity of food supplies. But the Spanish octopus still had its coils about poor starving Cuba, which nothing but a cutting of her horrid tentacles would unloose.

DESTRUCTION OF THE BATTLESHIP "MAINE."

The last rebellion which continued to distract and destroy the Island of Cuba had its beginning on the twentieth of February, 1895, during all of which time it was unaccompanied by sensational episodes beyond ordinary events incident to a desultory war. Spain had sustained a loss of nearly three hundred million dollars and one hundred thousand men in a vain effort to capture or destroy forty thousand insurgents; by an inhuman system, as futile as it was Satanic, she had desolated every plantation and butchered and starved more than half a million non-combatants, filling the land with death and wailing, but to no other

purpose than to excite the world's horror at such unspeakable savagery, and to make the patriots more determined to die on the field, grasping a bloody machete, or drive the Spanish devils from the shores they had polluted for four centuries.

Three years of dearth, famine, murder, and agony in Cuba; with a treasury exhausted, a prime minister assassinated, and rebellious factions at home threatening the throne, Spain was finally prompted to the adoption of desperate expedients, and to bring to her assistance the employment of a treachery for which, as a nation, she is distinguished above all others. To increase existing complications, or precipitate a crisis that might open the way to an escape from her dreadful besetments, her Minister to the United States, Dupuy De Lome, had the audacity to severely criticize President McKinley, and when brought to answer, attempted to excuse his conduct by claiming that his accusations were not properly subjects for official inquiry, because they were made in a private correspondence. The particular letter which contained De Lome's offensive animadversions upon the President was written in January (1898), to Senor Canalejas, a personal friend, and editor of the Madrid *Heraldo*, who had recently been on a visit to America and to Cuba, investigating the outlook of the rebellion. While not serving in a strictly official capacity, his position as a member of the Spanish Congress, as well also his public prominence and the purpose of his visit to Cuba, combined to give Canalejas recognition as a confidant if not a member of the Spanish court. Disregarding the delicacy of his position and the significance that must attach to his declaration upon such a subject, De Lome sent a letter of a quasi-official character to Canalejas in which the following language was used:

“ Besides the natural and inevitable coarseness with which he (McKinley) repeats all that the press and public opinion of Spain has said of Weyler, it shows once more what McKinley is: weak, and catering to the rabble, and, besides, a low politician, who desires to leave a door open to me and to stand well with the Jingoës of his party.”

This brutal aspersion of the President's sincerity was followed by the most impolitic of ministerial acts, viz., a suggestion that agitation of a commercial treaty between Spain and the United States, which has been pending for some time, should be begun for political effect, his language, which formed a part of the same letter, being as follows:

“ It would be most important that you should agitate the question of commercial relations, even though it would be only for effect, and that you should send here a man of importance, in order that I might use him to make a propaganda among the senators and others in opposition to the Junta, and to win over exiles.”

This paragraph exposes the insincerity of the Spanish government in all its overtures to the United States, and incidentally strips the disguise from her tenders of autonomy, which were manifestly with no beneficent intent, but to gain time, and avert the immediate danger of the United States recognizing the independence of Cuba. This letter, by some happy accident, fell into the hands of the Cuban Junta, by whom it was given to the public February 9. When De Lome was charged with the authorship he dissembled, until being confronted by the letter itself he acknowledged his indiscretion and immediately cabled to the Spanish Premier his resignation as minister. Without loss of time it was laid before the Cabinet and accepted with precipitate haste so as to forestall an act of expulsion,

which the President had justification to enforce. But while thus protecting De Lome from the merited disgrace of being recalled, the Spanish Ministry sought to placate American indignation by disclaiming responsibility for the opinions and declarations privately expressed by the government's representatives. This, however, had small effect in repairing the mischief that had been done, for besides the insult of maligning the President's character, was the even greater cause for anger contained in De Lome's intimation that the overtures made by Spain were intended solely as an expedient, to delude the American people.

The De Lome incident produced great excitement throughout the United States and served to intensify the flames of public passion against the treacherous Spanish nation, which outbursts were met by counter demonstrations in Havana, where the American consulate was stoned and the lives of our citizens temporarily living in the city were put in extreme jeopardy. To give protection to the Americans who had been threatened and their condition made almost unendurable by constant insult, the Secretary of our Navy dispatched one of our finest ships, the second-class battle-ship *Maine*, to the harbor of Havana, her captain (Sigsbee) being given secret instructions which no doubt contained specific directions as to what his action should be in case hostilities upon the part of the Spaniards, or jeopardy of the lives of American citizens in Havana, rendered his assistance and protection necessary.

The *Maine* reached Havana harbor on the afternoon of January 25, 1898, where she was taken in charge by a Spanish pilot and under direction of the harbor-master was anchored to buoy No. 4, at the spot where she met her destruction. It was subsequently shown that no vessel had been previously anchored at this buoy for several years, and that the position was an especially unusual one

for a visiting war vessel, which it had been the custom on all former occasions to assign to that part of the bay where it spreads toward the west. The position of the *Maine* was midway between the city and a point of land upon which the village of Regla is situated, most convenient for the locating of a submarine mine with least suspicion of its presence.

The terrible results are described by Julian Hawthorne, an American correspondent, who was in the harbor of Havana at the time of the explosion and had visited the *Maine* on the afternoon of its occurrence, thus being almost an eye-witness of the fearful disaster. His story is as follows :

“ The night of Tuesday (fifteenth of February) came on as calm and peaceful as the rising moon. I do not know whether any premonitions of their fate visited the minds of the 266 men who were to die before daylight ; all we know or ever can know now is that most of them were asleep in their bunks by 9.30. At that hour a blow struck on the deck by a sentry’s weapon could have been distinctly heard 200 yards away, such was the stillness.

“ The officers of the ship were still awake. The captain was in his handsomely appointed cabin writing a letter to his wife. The other officers were lounging or undressing in their quarters. The sentries and watchers were at their posts. At eight bells the usual rounds of the ship had been made, and all reported right. At twenty minutes before ten one of the larboard watch, looking down at the dark, gleaming surface below the side of the ship, fancied he saw a black object approaching silently toward her. It seemed to him that smoke issued from one end of this object, and that there was a glow as of flame. It was already so near that there was no opportunity to examine it closely, but the man’s mind had probably been set on edge by the

gossip of his mates and he was quick to scent danger. He immediately turned to give warning to his officer, but the time for warnings had gone by. Before he could voice his apprehension the calamity had taken place.

“The heaven of peace and repose was suddenly transformed into a hell of destruction and human agony. There was a dull, resonant roar, partly muffled, as though coming through a heavy veil of intervening substance. Simultaneously the whole forward part of the ponderous ship was partly lifted from the water. Then followed a sharper explosion, with outflamings of fire.

“The crash was so portentous as to deprive some who heard it of their reason, to stun others, to astound many, but for 266 gallant seamen it was, if they heard it at all, the last sound that was to ring in their ears in this world. The portholes of near-by ships were smashed in, as were the windows of houses facing the harbor; the lights on the water front were extinguished; the water of the harbor itself was rent as by the upheaval of a volcano. With a majestic movement the doomed ship reared herself aloft and then sank back into a wild boiling of maddened waves. Great masses of her iron deckings were torn from her and sent hurtling aloft and afar; fresh explosions of titanic energy, though slight in comparison with that first stupendous cataclysm, rived her shattered hulk asunder and twisted the plates of steel into tortuous fragments; the awful voices of her dying agony appalled and beat down the power of human senses to apprehend them. Down she came, mountain-like, sending huge waves across the bay, and as she settled to her place other voices, feeble, yet more harrowing, became audible; the groans and outcries of dying men, murdered in their sleep, smothering between the iron decks, drowning in the foul water, crushed and pierced and torn to pieces. These cries soon ceased

for the most part, and many and many a victim never spoke at all, for death came to them before they were fairly conscious of the catastrophe.

“It was the forward part of the ship, containing the sleeping quarters of the crew, that had felt the direct force of the explosion. The stern portion, where the officers had their abode, was left comparatively uninjured, though structurally involved in the general ruin. Captain Sigsbee, struck on the head by some flying missile, and plunged in sudden darkness by the extinction of the electric lights, groped his way to the poop deck, where he was met by William Anthony, officer of the watch, who saluted as if on parade, and reported that the vessel had been blown up and was sinking. The captain, whatever may have been his inward feelings, observed from the first the composed and stoic demeanor which brave men always wear in the presence of what should most quell human courage. He gave the necessary orders with no appearance of agitation, and his subordinates obeyed them with a spirit caught from him. Mortal experience can show no sublimer spectacle.

“Ten minutes had hardly elapsed before it had become plain that the great ship was a total wreck. Directions to abandon her were issued, and the few boats left available were employed. But by this time assistance was on its way from the Ward liner *City of Washington*, moored near the *Maine*, and from the Spanish cruiser *Alfonso XII.* on the other side, whose efforts were directed to rescuing the victims who had been hurled into the water. Numbers were picked up by the various boats and conveyed, some to the Ward liner, some to the Spanish ship, some to the wharves, toward which an excited crowd from the city was beginning to pour. Grievously wounded most of this human flotsam and jetsam was. They were rescued only

to die, or to live lifelong cripples. But they, too, were upborne by the strange force of manly courage, and complained little, or not at all. They knew that an enemy had done this, and were grimly resolved to show no signs of weakness which might gratify his hatred. They believed that their country would avenge them, and had faith that they would not die wholly in vain. Meanwhile flocks of boats from the shore were crowding toward the scene of disaster, and the distant wharves were now so thronged that they seemed crowned with a solid mass of men, uttering a confused uproar, and beside themselves with excitement. Nothing could be conceived in greater contrast with the silence and quiet which had reigned everywhere so short a while before. Then nature was lushing herself to slumber, now man was frantically active in a pandemonium of tragic confusion. And in the midst of it all one more episode stands out in relief—that of the officer of the *Maine*, who, after rowing round and round the remains of his ship in search of victims, at last uplifted his voice, and called aloud in tones that all might hear: ‘Are there any left alive? If so, for God’s sake speak!’ But no answer came from the wreck and the boat was reluctantly turned away from that ghastly silence. At this juncture the wreck caught fire, and, half submerged as it was, began to send a roar of flames toward the blackness of the sky, lighting up all the harbor and replacing the extinguished lights on shore. By this illumination such further operations of relief as could be effected were conducted, and the crowd on shore were enabled to watch the drama. They gazed and made their comments, and it is firmly maintained that not a few of those comments betrayed pleasure at the catastrophe and hatred of its victims.

“The fire soon reached the ammunition stores, and there ensued a dropping fire of missiles, some of which com-

mitted havoc among the neighboring boats and shipping. Mixed with the fragments of iron and steel torn from the ship and hurled far and wide, were also masses of cement, one of which, at least, knocked over a man on board the *Maine*, and the origin of which is not explained by anything known to be on that vessel.

“ The next scene of the drama is the solemn one of the funeral, which took place on the afternoon of the seventeenth. So far as official manifestations and expressions of regret and sympathy are concerned, little has been lacking on the part of the Spanish authorities, and the funeral services and procession were as superb as Spanish taste could make them. The scene in the great city hall, with its portraits of generals looking down from the lofty walls, and on the floor its crowd of brilliant uniforms and priestly vestments, and the somber black of civilian garb, was impressive enough, and there in the midst of them were set forth the plain coffins, with their silver crosses, each covering all that was mortal of a Yankee seaman. Without, in the great plaza, was an enormous crowd of all sorts and conditions, with regiments in uniform, and banners, and all the splendor of naval and military display. The cortège was over a mile in length, and moved to the sound of martial music, and the bodies of the dead were duly and reverently buried in the ground of Christopher Colon Cemetery, set apart for them by the city. But the crime which slew these victims could not be buried there, or forgotten in the chorus of courteous protestations; for an accounting was soon to be made, by which the stern hand of war was to administer a just punishment to perfidious Spain, and a long harrowed people were to be delivered from the most cruel of oppressors.”

The *Maine's* full complement of seamen was 370 and 34 officers, but at the time of the disaster only 378 souls were

on board. The force of the explosion was exerted on the port side of the forward quarters in which the seamen were sleeping, and as the officers were in the ward-room, in the afterpart of the ship, only two of these were lost, viz.: Lieutenant F. W. Jenkins and Engineer D. R. Merritt, both of whom were on duty at the time and chanced to be in the fore cabin.

The *Maine* was a sister ship to the *Texas*, both being second-class battle-ships, the construction of which was authorized by Congress in 1886. The *Maine* was built at the Brooklyn Navy Yards, after designs by Chief Constructor T. D. Wilson. Her keel was laid November 11, 1888, and she was launched on November 18, 1890, but not completed until five years later, at a total cost of \$2,500,000, while her equipment involved an expense of \$2,000,000 more. Her displacement was 6,648 tons, and her armament was as follows: One main battery of four ten-inch guns mounted in pairs in twin turrets, and six six-inch guns, two being placed on the bow, two on the stern, and two amidship on the main deck; in addition to these she carried eight seven-pounders, four machine guns, seven torpedo tubes, and two torpedo boats. Her protection consisted of twelve-inch armor plates on the waterline belt and on the barbettes of the turrets, and ten-inch plates on the turrets proper. Her machinery was all below the water line, protected by a steel deck two inches thick, and four inches thick on the slope. Her dimensions were: Length at loadwater line, 318 feet; beam, 57 feet; draught, 21½ feet, and her coaling capacity was sufficient to enable her to steam 7,000 miles at a ten-knot speed. Though she was driven by twin screws, and was supplied with triple-expansion engines of 9,000 horse-power, she had a speed under forced draught of less than eighteen knots.

The horror of the catastrophe and the suspicion that it

was caused by Spanish perfidy prompted the government to order an immediate investigation with a view to determining the responsibility, and a Board of Inquiry was accordingly appointed by Rear-Admiral Sicard for the purpose, composed of the following naval officers: Captain William T. Sampson, of the *Iowa*, president of the Board; Lieutenant-Commander William R. Potter, executive officer of the *New York*; Captain F. E. Chadwick, of the cruiser *New York*, and Lieutenant-Commander Adolph Marix, executive officer of the training ship *Vermont*, the latter acting as judge advocate. These appointees proceeded directly to Havana, where they at once began hearing evidence of all the survivors of the *Maine*, and of others whose testimony had any bearing upon the case. Divers were also engaged to make a thorough examination of the wreck and these added their evidence, as did experts who were called to examine the ship's position and to render opinions upon the effects of magazine explosions within and of torpedo and mine explosions without. The Board continued its sessions of inquiry for three weeks, returning to Key West on the seventeenth of March, where they completed the report of their findings and forwarded it to the President at Washington, by whom it was received on the twenty-fourth inst.

Though the verdict of the investigating court had been anticipated, and opinion was universal that the explosion had been caused by diabolical design, the country was on a terrible strain while waiting for its actual submission, and Congress manifested such an inflammatory disposition as to give serious apprehension that it could not be restrained by the President's appeal for patience.

The long and feverishly expected report was finally transmitted to Congress on March 28, accompanied by a brief message from the President, the reading of which was

attended by extraordinary interest. The crowd in both houses of Congress was unprecedentedly large and there was an unmistakable though quiet undertone of intense feeling pervading Congressmen, Senators, and spectators alike. The message was a dignified recapitulation of the findings of the court rather than a declaration of policy, and though pronouncing the destruction of the *Maine* as being due to the explosion of a submarine mine, the President closed his communication in the following language :

“ I have directed that the finding of the Court of Inquiry and the views of this government thereon be communicated to the government of Her Majesty the Queen Regent, and I do not permit myself to doubt that the sense of justice of the Spanish nation will dictate a course of action suggested by honor and the friendly relations of the two governments. It will be the duty of the Executive to advise the Congress of the result, and in the meantime deliberate consideration is invoked.”

The public was prepared for the submission of a very lengthy report from the Board of Inquiry, but there was an agreeable disappointment, for the findings, presented separately from the evidence, was quite brief and presented the following conclusions :

That the loss of the *Maine* was not in any respect due to fault or negligence on the part of any officers or members of her crew. That the ship was destroyed by the explosion of a submarine mine, which caused the partial explosion of two or more of her forward magazines. That no evidence had been obtained fixing the responsibility for the destruction of the *Maine* upon any person or persons.

On the same day of the presentation of the report of the Inquiry Board, there was telegraphed to this country a synopsis of the findings of the Spanish Naval Commission,

wherein was set forth with some amplitude the opinion that from the evidence presented to its members there was an utter absence of all those attendant circumstances which are invariably present on the occasion of the firing of a mine or torpedo; that only one detonation was heard, which threw no water into the air nor were any fish destroyed, as would have been the case had there been an external explosion of mine or torpedo, and presented other more immaterial evidence to fortify the judgment of the commission that the vessel's destruction was caused by an accidental explosion of the boilers or magazines.

The anger and excitement manifested by the general public throughout the United States was transferred directly to members of the House and Senate upon the reading before those bodies of the President's message and Inquiry Board report. All restraint was thrown off and the most violent measures were proposed by Republicans and Democrats alike. Senator Rawlins, of Utah, offered a resolution declaring war against Spain, and Congressman Marsh, of Illinois, submitted a like resolution in the House, while several resolutions were proposed recognizing the independence of Cuba, all of which, of course, were referred. A revolt against the President's policy was so imminent that to avert such action he found it necessary to take into his confidence not only the leaders, but a majority of the members of both branches of the Congress, and to personally explain to them his plans for securing the independence of Cuba and reparation from Spain for the destruction of the *Maine*. The President, while apparently pursuing a conciliatory, if not a dilatory, course, was in fact moved by a resolute purpose, though disguised by diplomatic courtesy, to exact a just retribution from Spain, in pursuance of which stern intent his demands were conveyed to Sagasta through Minister Woodford at Madrid,

and the delay which so angered Congress was caused by waiting the Spanish Premier's reply. When the President's action was explained the threatened revolt subsided, and Congress took on its former attitude of dispassionate consideration.

While seeking to avoid war by a delicate application of diplomacy, and bearing with almost unexampled fortitude the dilatoriness and evasiveness of Spain to the courteously worded requests of the President, Congress lost no time in placing the country in a state of preparedness for eventualities. Fifty million dollars was unanimously voted for war supplies, to be expended in the discretion of the President; cruisers and auxiliary vessels were purchased abroad, and our navy yards were crowded with workmen getting vessels ready for active service.

This was the condition that prevailed April 1, but the patience thus renewed was of short duration, for while there was a disposition to believe in the patriotic spirit of the President, restlessness was betrayed, not only by the people at large, but even by the Committee on Foreign Relations, who, on April 4, agreed to favorably report the resolution declaring the independence of Cuba and for armed intervention if necessary. The President appealed for time in which to submit an ultimatum to Spain and to prepare a message to Congress fully setting forth his views and recommendations, which communication he intimated would be ready not later than the sixth. In the meantime Spain had dispatched a powerful flotilla of cruisers and torpedo-boats to Porto Rico, which fortunately were compelled by bad weather to seek harborage at the Cape de Verde Islands, by which accident additional time was allowed for negotiations, as the appearance of the fleet near Cuban waters would have precipitated a crisis that would have quickly ultimated in hostilities. A part of the

North Atlantic squadron of the American navy was ordered to assemble in Hampton Roads under Commodore Schley, while the powerful fleet at Key West was placed in charge of Captain Sampson, whose instructions were to clear the decks for action and hold his fleet ready to move upon Havana at an hour's notice.

CHAPTER IV.

OUR WAR WITH SPAIN.

IT is well to know our enemies, being next in importance to appreciating our friends. The present was the first time in our national history that we became involved in a quarrel with a woman. Americans are a chivalrous people, whose respect for the gentler sex is deferential to the point almost of reverence; yet circumstances compelled us to make war upon the titled head of a fair-faced representative, who by sad lot is mother of an infantile king, for whom she is the queenly vicar. It is interesting to review briefly the life of this woman, as we shall thereby gain a better comprehension of the events that are described in subsequent pages, and learn some important facts of Spain's modern history.

Dona Maria Christina, queen regent of Spain, was born in Vienna in the year 1858, so that at the beginning of the war she was in the flush of womanhood, though cares of state had given her an aged and melancholy appearance. She was married in Madrid in November, 1879, and was then, as she is now, one of the quietest royal personages in Europe.

To understand the life and character of Maria Christina it is necessary to go back to her courtship, which was far from being a happy one. Alphonso XII., invited to the throne in 1874, was a monarch idolized by one-half of the subjects and detested by the other half. Señor Sagasta, then the leading statesman of Spain, loved him and was influential in having him put upon the throne to replace

the liberal constitutional government. Accordingly Alphonso XII. was proclaimed king in 1874, and almost immediately it became of the utmost consequence that he should marry. Sagasta and the people surrounding him wished him to take for a bride a woman from Germany or Austria, but Alphonso had conceived a great attachment for Maria de las Mercedes, who was the daughter of the Duke of Montpensier. The duke was unpopular in Spain and it was undesirable that they should wed, but Alphonso's deep love for Mercedes triumphed and he led her to the altar in January, 1878. Their life together was far more than ideal for five months, but at the close of that period Mercedes fell ill of gastric fever and died, leaving her husband inconsolable.

The Spanish people mourned deeply with their beloved sovereign and allowed him to devote himself to the memory of his wife for a year, but at the end of that time they demanded that he should marry again, and impressed by the importance of choosing another wife, he sent an envoy to Austria-Hungary with that object. This envoy selected the Archduchess Maria Christina, who was a niece of Emperor Francis Joseph, of Austria-Hungary, to be the Spanish king's next bride. In pursuance of marriage contracts and agreements they were betrothed in the summer of 1879 and on November twenty-ninth the wedding was celebrated in Madrid with great pomp.

The bride, Dona Maria Christina, was described as a very slight blonde with an impassive countenance. Her features were thin and cold, with the exception of her mouth, which pouted out in unattractive fashion. Her eyes were pale, sparsely veiled by thin lashes, and her hair was of the ashen blonde type, without a suspicion of gold. The King Alphonso did not pretend to love his wife for her beauty, but was attracted to her by her many virtues, and

her life was happy from a royal standpoint, which does not mean a great deal to an American. Two daughters were born to them. The first was named Mercedes by the king, with a touching reference to his first wife; the second was named Maria Christina, after her mother. The king did not long survive this marriage and died in Madrid in 1885, six years after espousing the Austrian princess.

When Alphonso died Maria mourned sincerely for him. He had not been a wholly faithful husband—that she knew—but he was kind, and never flagrantly violated his marriage vows. He had made frequent visits to Paris and the gay centers of Spain unaccompanied by herself, and news of his conduct there reached her ears, but these were received by Maria Christina with cold silence, and it was a question among her ladies if she as much as ever mentioned them to the king. She was wrapped up in her children, and though she did not love Alphonso well enough to be jealous of him, she loved him well enough to devote herself entirely to the little girls he left.

Immediately upon the death of the king, the Liberal government wished to elect a president, and the conservatives of the Liberal Constitutional party all agreed that it was the only hope of tranquillity for poor Spain. But Sagasta thought differently. Through his influence the queen was chosen regent and the little girl, Mercedes, was proclaimed queen. The Salic law, which does not permit of female succession, was in force in Spain, but this was set aside and the little girl Mercedes was made queen, while her mother acted as regent. But the queen was not liked and she felt her position keenly. She was in a strange land, speaking a foreign tongue, trusting to counselors almost unknown to her and defied by the people; but one day six months after the death of Alphonso, Señor Sagasta issued a report of the approaching accouche-

ment of the queen regent. Its effect was such upon the Spanish people that they quieted down and watched events. When the poor little posthumous child was born, three months later, Señor Sagasta stood upon the royal steps and cried, "*Viva el Rey!*" and the watching populace knew that a little king was born in the palace.

The queen regent began to train her boy before he had passed his third year, notwithstanding the unnatural rules which prohibit even a mother from being the familiar of a king child. Well versed in the rigidity of the laws of the Spanish court, she studied them all and followed them out with an exactness never before equaled. According to the strict Spanish discipline she was not allowed to sit at the table with the king; and the boy, as soon as the little fellow could be supported upon his pillows, dined by himself with his suite. The queen mother and his aunts sit at another table, and at the third sit his sisters and their governesses. This is the custom day in and day out, year in and year out, in the grand palace at Madrid.

For her son's sake the queen forgot her native tongue and learned Spanish. She speaks it perfectly, with the best of accent, although Spaniards say "with a difference." She has as nearly renounced her own country as any person can, and has given up herself and her work entirely to the little Alphonso and to Spain.

The queen has never been a happy woman. She has had so many things with which to contend. Not the least of her troubles has been that of being a foreigner, and it was not until the present crisis that she overcame the last of the objections that were held out against her in respect to her nationality.

DECLARATION OF WAR!

Diplomacy is the slow process, not of unravelment, but

of entanglement, a tedious profusion of courteous recrimination, a rhetorical disingenuousness, a golden mask of platitude behind which is the hideous face of banter and anger. All nations employ it because conciliatory language, when used by negotiators, really means nothing, while it tends to hide true intentions and is a cloak to cover real designs. The purpose of Congress was plainly understood, the spirit and determination of our people to save Cuba from her murderous persecutors, the resolution to destroy Spanish power in the western hemisphere, was declared in the hearts of our people, but there was a hesitancy to use plain speech, or to present an ultimatum distinctly presenting to Spain the alternative of a withdrawal from Cuba or answering for her crimes to the outraged sentiment of American sympathy and sense of justice. The masses petitioned for action, Congress was insistent, but the President, with rare optimism, remained so hopeful that Spain would recede from her expressed determination to retain Cuba, and to continue her inhuman and futile policy of pacification by starvation and execution, that he resisted the pressure of the whole nation, even to the extent of incurring the severest censure from his own party and dissensions in his Cabinet, until circumstances finally compelled a relinquishment of his hopes of a peaceful settlement. For more than a week Congress was restrained by promises made by the President to submit a message, and, though announcement of the date of its submission was made four several times they were followed by as many disappointments, yet the patience of the people was sustained by their confidence in the patriotism of McKinley the man, as well as of McKinley the President. Perhaps never before in American history has the forbearance of our people and their loyal reliance upon the executive been so strikingly and patriotically manifested as was the

resignation they showed to the President's wishes that additional time should be given him to test the determination of the Spanish government. Every peaceful overture, every approach to settlement made by the Department of State, was treated with disdain by the Sagasta Ministry, who regarded our interference with Cuban affairs as unpardonable insolence, that had so wounded national pride nothing but war could heal it. Notwithstanding Spain's arrogance and her feeling of affront at our proposals, she secretly hoped that Cuba might become detached from her colonial possessions, for the island had been so long a battle-ground of revolution, that the Mother Country realized she was wasting her revenues in an effort to subdue her incorrigible child with no hope of suppressing the discontent or of restoring the island to a prosperous condition. Spain's resistance to our requests was therefore based entirely upon the assumption that to withdraw her army from Cuba in obedience to what she considered a threat would be an act of cowardice, leaving an ineradicable stain upon her honor. Precedent was disregarded; other countries had surrendered parts of their possessions under identical circumstances, but Spain chose to set her pride upon a loftier pinnacle, notwithstanding her escutcheon is defaced with the blood of innocence. Hers have ever been the punctiliousness of the inquisitor, the imbecility of the fanatic, and the mercilessness of the prosecutor. From these ideals of the bigoted savage she was resolved never to depart. It was this insane conception of what Spain calls *pride*, arrayed as it was against her material interests and a sagacious policy, that led her into opposing the humane demands of our government, though the justice of our position was recognized by every nation of Europe.

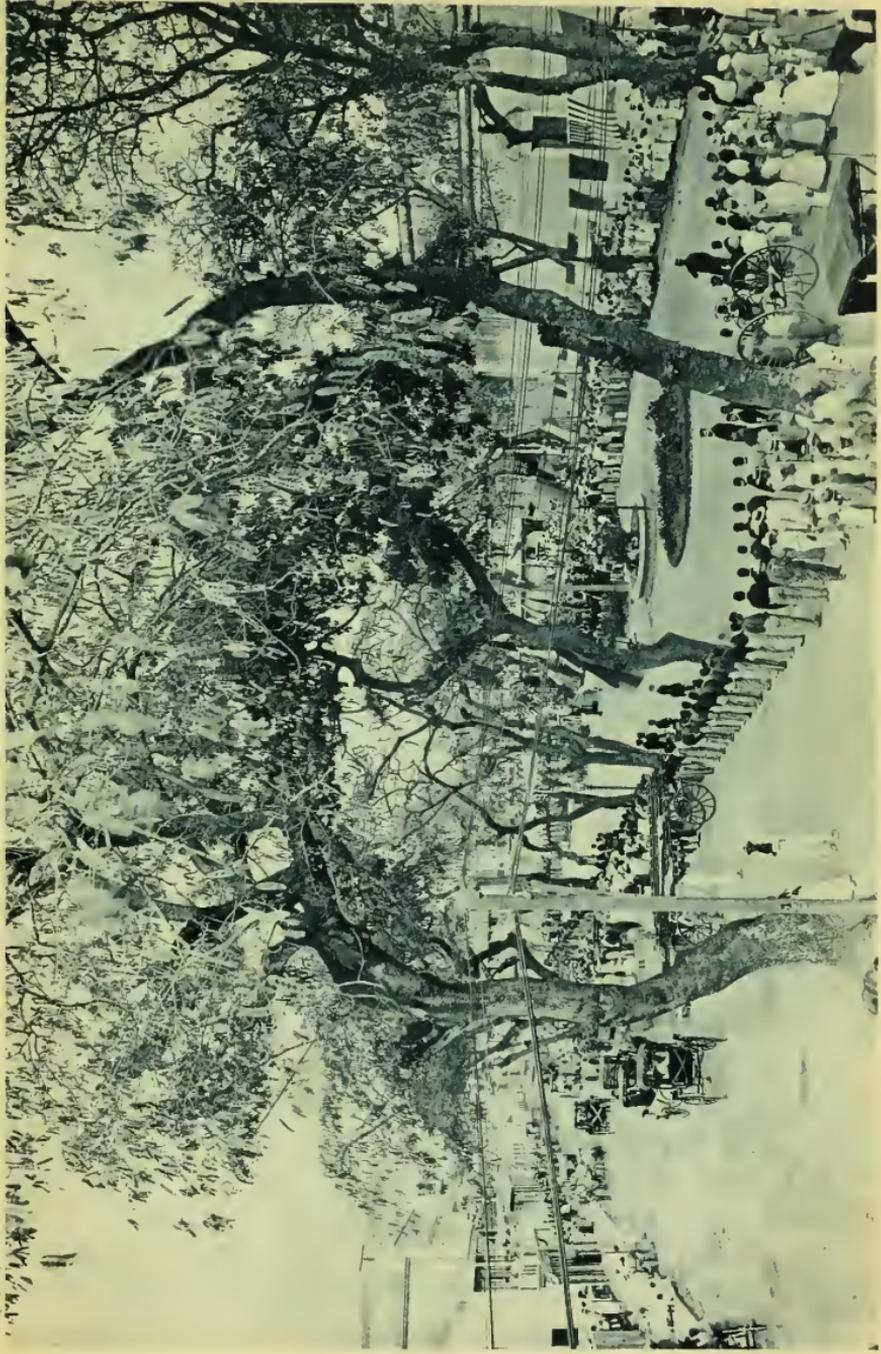
Realizing at length, with much loss of advantage which

prompt action would have insured, that Spain would not recede from her expressed determination to relinquish none of her claims upon Cuba, nor abate the policy of desolating that unhappy land with torch and sword, under which half a million of her subjects had been murdered or starved to death, President McKinley on April 8 selected Major-General John M. Schofield, retired, to act as his military adviser, and on the 11th he sent a message to Congress in which he fully set forth the situation in Cuba. The paper was not so vigorous in its recommendations as the more belligerently inclined members desired, and division of party followed over resolutions introduced recognizing the independence of Cuba and recommending armed intervention to accomplish that purpose. The President, while declaring that the war in Cuba must cease, asked Congress to place in his hands the power to act, and combated the cry for independence with the argument that such recognition would be inadvisable before the insurgents had established a stable government which could command international respect. A long and exciting debate followed over the President's recommendations. On the 13th of April the House passed by an almost unanimous vote a resolution authorizing and directing the President to immediately intervene to stop the war in Cuba, and empowering him to use the land and naval forces of the United States to execute the purpose of the resolution. On the same day the Senate Foreign Relations Committee submitted a preamble and resolution declaring that the people of Cuba *are and of right ought to be free and independent*, which, carrying with it a declaration of independence, was strongly opposed in a bitter debate that kept the Senate in continuous session for two days, and was not finally concluded until the 18th, when upon a vote the recognition section was rejected, the dead-

PEACE DAY CELEBRATION IN PORTO RICO.

A historic and ever memorable day to the people of Porto Rico will be October 18, 1898, the date upon which the American army formally took possession of Morro Castle, San Juan, and by raising the Stars and Stripes over that fortress signified that the island had passed from Spain and become an integral part of the United States. The occasion, so auspicious for the Porto Ricans, was followed by a great peace celebration, in which the civic blended with the military to make a fitting and spectacular demonstration of general rejoicing. The illustration pictures the ceremonies of the peace commemoration that took place in the beautiful public plaza of Poncé, where an immense concourse gathered to sing patriotic airs, and to express their sentiments in speeches and congratulations

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lock having been all this time over the two words, "*are and.*" The lower house of Congress had forced the Senate to yield, and the concurrent resolution which finally passed was substantially the one that had been adopted by the House.

Acting upon authority that had been conferred upon him by the joint resolutions of Congress, the President directed his Secretary of State to draft an ultimatum to Spain and to order the same presented to Premier Sagasta through our Minister at Madrid, General Stewart L. Woodford.

The language of this communication was as follows :

" April 20, 1898.

" WOODFORD, MINISTER, Madrid :

" You have been furnished with the text of a joint resolution voted by the Congress of the United States on the 19th inst., approved to-day, in relation to the pacification of the Island of Cuba. In obedience to that act, the President directs you to immediately communicate to the government of Spain said resolution, with the formal demand of the government of the United States that the government of Spain at once relinquish its authority and government in the Island of Cuba and withdraw its land and naval forces from Cuba and Cuban waters. In taking this step, the United States hereby disclaims any disposition or intention to exercise sovereignty, jurisdiction or control over said island except for the pacification thereof, and asserts its determination when that is accomplished to leave the government and control of the island to its people under such free and independent government as they may establish.

" If by the hour of noon on Saturday next, the 23d day of April, instant, there be not communicated to this gov-

ernment by that of Spain a full and satisfactory response to this demand and reason whereby the ends of peace in Cuba shall be assured, the President will proceed without further notice to use the power and authority enjoined and conferred upon him by the said joint resolution to such an extent as may be necessary to carry the same into effect.

(Signed) "SHERMAN."

To this dispatch the American Minister at Madrid cabled the following reply:

(Received 9.02 A. M.)

"MADRID, April 21, 1898.

"SHERMAN, Washington:—Early this (Thursday) morning, immediately after the receipt of your open telegram, and before I had communicated same to Spanish government, Spanish Minister for Foreign Affairs notified me that diplomatic relations are broken between the two countries, and that all official communication between their respective representatives has ceased. I accordingly asked for safe passports. Turn legation over to British Embassy and leave for Paris this afternoon. Have notified consuls.

"WOODFORD."

A communication of similar purport was handed to the Spanish Minister at Washington, to which was attached a copy of the instructions sent to Woodford. Minister Polo promptly cabled his government, and therefore before Woodford had an opportunity to present the ultimatum, he received the following note from Spanish Minister of Foreign Affairs:

"DEAR SIR:—In compliance with a painful duty, I have thus to inform you that there has been sanctioned by

the President of the Republic a resolution of both chambers of the United States which denies the legitimate sovereignty of Spain and threatens armed intervention in Cuba, which is equivalent to a declaration of war.

“The government of her Majesty have ordered her Minister to return without loss of time from North American territory, together with all the personnel of the legation.

“By this act the diplomatic relations hitherto existing between the two countries and all official communications between their respective representatives cease.

“I am obliged thus to inform you, so that you may make such arrangements as you think fit. I beg your Excellency to acknowledge receipt of this note at which time you think proper. Taking this opportunity to reiterate to you the assurance of my distinguished consideration.

(Signed) “P. GULLON.”

On the same day Minister Polo asked for, and received his passport, and all diplomatic relations between the two governments were thus suspended. No actual declaration of war was required, as Spain had anticipated this act by her defiant dismissal of our Minister and the withdrawal of her own, so that both America and Spain at once began hurried preparations for the conflict that was now inevitable.

It was long before regarded, by those who had studied the effects of the revolution in Cuba, that a war between Spain and America was an unavoidable conclusion, the result of an intolerable condition, the natural culmination of a relationship which for thirty years had been strained to the point of threatened rupture. The wonder is that it was not sooner precipitated by the infamous outrages perpetrated by Spain upon our citizens, and her obstinate refusal to make reparation for any of her flagrant violations

of comity, and for the confiscation of property and imprisonment and execution of Americans which she so frequently committed.

Conditions became so acute between the two governments that, as has already been described, the *Maine* was sent to Havana as a measure of precaution against the threats of Spaniards. The destruction—assassination, we may pronounce it—of this splendid vessel accentuated the hatred of Spaniards for all Americans, and served to emphasize the necessity of hostile proceedings to enforce our rights and protect American property in Cuban waters. As a precaution against the early need of action, foreshadowing the clash of arms, a squadron of warships was assembled off Key West on February 23, and on March 9 President McKinley addressed a request to Congress for an emergency appropriation of \$50,000,000, which it was understood was to be used at the President's discretion for the purchase of vessels and of munitions of war as occasion might require. The unanimity of public sentiment, the universal justification of a war declaration, was proved by the eagerness with which the President's request was granted. Political differences were immediately healed, and for the first time since the Civil War a common danger had brought all sections of our country into a perfect fraternity, moving with a single purpose and actuated with but one aim, viz.: to sustain the government, to defend the flag that happily, under God's providence, now represents a reunited nation.

When the Court of Inquiry made its report, asserting the official opinion that the *Maine* had been destroyed by the force of an explosion from without—thus indirectly charging the disaster to the result of a perfidious act—it was remarkable how the American people were able to restrain the impulse to immediately avenge the monstrous

crime. But in the supreme moment, when anger might be expected to stifle discretion, the people were so trustful of the President that they stood like veterans before a hail of death, waiting the command to charge or retreat, muttering, but no less resolute to follow where the Executive should lead them. While exercising extraordinary patience in the face of unspeakable outrages, a forbearance that excited the amazement of the world, preparations for war were stimulated, the masses being sustained by their resolution to avenge Spanish crimes as quickly as the country could be made ready for hostilities.

General Lee, who bravely refused to leave Havana before all Americans in Cuba had received notice and had time to quit the island, turned over the affairs of his office to England's consul-general, and took passage for home April 9, two days before the President delivered his message to Congress on the Cuban situation. On April 22, or the day following the rupture of diplomatic relations between the two governments, the President directed Acting Rear-Admiral Sampson, commanding the squadron before Key West, to blockade the port of Havana, with the view to starving the city into a surrender. On the same day the first prize of the war was made by the gunboat Nashville which captured the Spanish merchantman *Buena Ventura* (a name which signifies *good luck*), loaded with lumber.

The policy of sending the North Atlantic squadron to blockade the ports of Cuba, and of assembling the South Atlantic fleet at Hampton Roads, thus assigning it to a station of inactivity, was adversely criticized by army and navy officers as affording the enemy time in which to strengthen their defenses and concert their measures looking to European intervention. It became manifest that the President was still hopeful of Spain receding from her defiant attitude and accepting the conditions which we

were able to enforce, and it was evidently his opinion that a naval display before the ports of Cuba would cause Spain to yield. Thus for some time the war was conducted on a peace footing, a fleet of fourteen powerful ships being held in Cuban waters, with no diversion except an occasional capture of small merchantmen, when, had the order been given, Havana, Matanzas, Cienfuegos and Santiago de Cuba, the principal Cuban ports, might have been easily taken one after another, and San Juan, Porto Rico, would likewise have capitulated with small show of resistance. With these posts in our possession, or turned over to the insurgents to be garrisoned, Spanish power in the West Indies would have been effectually destroyed and our squadrons released to meet her fleets in other countries, if Spain still persisted in continuing a hopeless war. There were strictures very generally made upon the President's initial policy of conducting the war, and that they were not merely captious, but based upon more or less good reasons, was shown by the fact that the President himself, being finally convinced that Spain meant to bitterly contest, with blood and might, the demands we had preferred, came presently to adopt a vigorous policy, the application of which was soon seen in the important events that succeeded.

On April 23, the President called for 125,000 volunteers to be apportioned between the several States, which was immediately followed by Spain issuing a royal decree declaring that a state of war existed with America. On the twenty-third, also, the Spanish freighter *Pedro* was taken by Sampson's flagship, the *New York*, and two other small vessels belonging to the enemy capitulated to the *Helena* and the torpedo-boat *Dupont*. The *New York* ventured within four miles of the Havana harbor entrance and drew the fire of Morro's heavy guns,

but without damage. On the 24th, four more Spanish vessels were taken, and some of the venturesome American warships were again fired on by heavy guns of the Cojimar batteries. Further events of the war preceding the date of May 1 were unimportant, and may be thus briefly described: April 25, Secretary Sherman, broken in health and infirm from old age, surrendered the portfolio of Secretary of State and was succeeded by Judge William R. Day, who had held the post of Assistant Secretary. On the same day, Congress, by resolution, declared that a state of war existed, and the Spanish steamer *Panama* was made captive by the armed lighthouse tender *Man-grove*.

April 26, Commodore Dewey, pursuant to orders given him to seek and destroy the Spanish fleet in Manila harbor, left Hong Kong, China. Another incident of this date was the capture of a Spanish sloop and schooner very near Havana.

On April 27 a more exciting event took place which gave some of our sailors an opportunity to put into effect the science of gunnery which they had mastered so well by years of target practice. Having learned that the Spanish were strengthening the fortifications that commanded the harbor of Matanzas, Sampson detached three of his vessels, the *New York*, *Puritan*, and *Cincinnati*, from the Havana blockading fleet and steamed away to Matanzas, a city on the north shore of Cuba, sixty-five miles east of Havana, and second in point of population on the island. Advancing to a point in front of the harbor entrance, the three warships took positions in triangular formation, with the view to reconnoitering and ascertaining the strength of the batteries on the two points of land, known as Forts Maya and Rubal Cava. From the latter a big twelve-inch gun boomed a challenge to combat, which was promptly an-

swered by an eight-inch shot from the *New York*, and a few minutes later the action became spirited on both sides and continued for the space of twenty minutes, at the end of which time the earthworks had been struck in several places without casualty to the Americans. The Spaniards fired so wildly that only two of their shots fell near our ships, one of which burst fifty feet above the *New York's* spar deck, doing no damage, and the other plunged into the water a hundred feet to the right of that vessel. The last shell thrown at the Matanzas batteries was fired from one of the monitor *Puritan's* thirteen-inch guns, which was sent with deadly accuracy into the very center of Rubal Cava, and exploding, destroyed a portion of the fortifications, but the Spaniards sustained no losses of life, except, as was stated at the time, one of their mules was killed.

Notwithstanding the war which Spain had been waging for three years against her rebellious colonies in Cuba and the Philippine Islands, she was poorly prepared to oppose, with hostile acts, the movements of the American fleet. At no previous time in her history were her financial resources at so low an ebb; corruption existed to an amazing extent in every part of her military as well as in her civil service. Her national indebtedness had grown to extraordinary proportions, aggregating nearly two billion dollars; her foreign commerce had declined to the lowest ebb; dissension was rife, the confidence of her people was destroyed, and there remained for constant contemplation and dread a threatened invasion of Don Carlos, pretender and contestant of the throne. Her credit was exhausted by borrowing beyond ability to repay, and the revenues upon which she had to depend were hypothecated without prospects of redemption. Yet, desperate as was their situation, so blindly fatuous were the Spanish people,—a fatuity born of ignorance and religious bigotry,—that with one voice they

challenged the United States to a combat which could have no other result than to complete their misery. Whatever may have been the wishes and anticipations of the queen regent and her ministers, who must have realized the futility of resistance, they were coerced into waging an unjust war by the fear that revolution would follow refusal to obey the insane will of the populace.

The Spanish sense of honor remained the same that it was when Don Quixote charged up and down the land on Rosinante seeking whom he might engage, eager to fight windmills in the absence of a more worthy enemy. Less than a third of the population are able to read or write, and ignorance of geography, strengthened by legendary history recited in tale and song, leads the masses to believe the nation to be invincible in war and mighty as the romances of the Cid Campeador has described them. The people of Spain, more than any other country, exist in the past. They have not yet outlived the days of chivalry; the Moorish expulsion, which in reality destroyed the best blood, the virility and the civilization of the nation, is still to their infantile comprehension the apotheosis of glorious achievement, which remains an inspiration to further conquest. The bull-fight, with its attendant horrors of unspeakable suffering, has taken the place of torturing heretics; not because it is a perfect substitute, but for the single reason that other nations refuse to allow the Spanish to indulge their tastes for more cruel amusement. The people are bloodthirsty, instinctively inhuman, besotted of desire to witness the torment of man and beast, and being possessed of such ignoble impulses, it is little surprising that they should regard American interference to abolish the reign of terror in Cuba as an act of impertinence, as an assault upon their *honor*, conspicuous because of its gory suggestiveness.

As a counter-movement opposing the blockade of Cuban ports, the Spanish Cortes was hastily convened to receive the queen regent's message, which exhorted to the most vigorous measures of resistance, following which action a Spanish fleet was ordered to the Cape Verde Islands, there to re-coal and outfit for an expedition to Cuban waters. The greatest enthusiasm was provoked by the stand so boldly taken by the tottering government. A wave of patriotic sentiment swept over the whole land, which in some places took the form of violence, and destruction of the property of Americans, and in others zeal and loyalty were manifested by large contributions of money to the famished treasury.

CHAPTER V.

FOR three days nothing occurred to intensify popular excitement, a lull following the events just described as if to prepare both nations for the thrilling stroke that was about to be given. Cable advices from Hong Kong had reported the departure of Commodore George Dewey's squadron for Manila on April 26, and as the distance is only 628 miles, news was expected by May 1, that he had met the enemy. Although he had been ordered to seek and destroy the Spanish fleet, and if possible to capture the Philippine port of Manila, there was much solicitude felt as to the hazards of such an undertaking, and not a few doubted the expediency of making the attempt. The harbor of Manila is one of the finest in the world, similar in many respects to that of Havana, and it was known to be protected by heavy batteries, one of which was on Corregidor Island, at the mouth. No exact knowledge of the strength of the defenses, or of the Spanish fleet there assembled, was possessed by our authorities, nor to what extent the harbor had been mined, but the opinion was expressed by those best informed that a successful attack might be made upon the place if the stroke were promptly given by a capable commandant like Dewey was known to be. This confidence was not misplaced, as subsequent events showed.

Commodore Dewey's fleet consisted of the protected cruisers *Olympia* (his flagship), *Baltimore*, *Boston*, *Raleigh*, and the gunboats *Concord* and *Petrel*; the dispatch-boat *McCulloch* also accompanied the squadron.

This formidable fleet arrived at the entrance to Manila Bay Saturday night, April 30, and without pausing moved past the Corregidor Island batteries to a position well within the bay. When daylight revealed to him his surroundings, Commodore Dewey saw the strong fortifications of Cavité looming up before him in frowning prominence, before which lay the enemy's fleet of thirteen vessels, commanded by Admiral Montojo, ready to give him battle. At five o'clock the first gun boomed out its sullen, deep-mouthed challenge, and a terrific conflict was immediately begun. The enemy's fleet comprised the following: Flagship *Reina Maria Cristina*, *Don Antonio de Ulloa*, *Don Juan de Austria*, *Castillo*, *Velasco*, *Isla de Luzon*, *Isla de Cuba*, *Isla de Mindanao*, *Marquis del Duero*, *General Leco*, *El Cano*, and three torpedo-boats. The number of men and officers on the American vessels was 1756, and the Spanish seamen numbered 1,872. Though the guns and ships of our fleet were heavier than were those of the enemy, Dewey was opposed by strong fortifications, mounting many high-power Krupp and Armstrong rifles, besides having to fight in the Spanish waters, which were known to be planted with mines and torpedoes. The attempt to reduce the enemy's stronghold under such circumstances was perilous in the extreme, but disregarding the dangers that seemed to threaten him, Commodore Dewey heroically faced the odds, and to the amazement of the whole world, in an engagement that lasted less than two hours of actual fighting, destroyed every vessel of the enemy's fleet, silenced all of their nine batteries, killed or wounded 400 Spaniards and held Manila at his mercy. More remarkable still is the astounding fact that Dewey accomplished this result with no other casualties than the wounding of seven men, none fatally, and a damage to his vessels that an expenditure of less than \$5,000 repaired, while the loss in

money value to the Spaniards exceeded \$5,000,000. Admiral Montijo made his escape in an open boat from the burning *Reina Maria Cristina*, taking refuge on the *Don Antonio de Ulloa* which a few moments later was struck and exploded by a shell fired from the *Boston*. The Admiral seemed to possess a charmed life, for though his men were falling like leaves in autumn, and his vessels were on fire or sinking, he managed to escape in small open boats, from one to another and finally reached the shore without having received any injury to his person. His daring was certainly equal to that of Commodore Perry, on Lake Erie, whose remarkable feat of being transferred during the heat of action he imitated. The full particulars of this very remarkable sea-fight have fortunately been preserved, and the story is one that possesses a truly thrilling interest.

At five o'clock P. M. on Saturday, April 23, the acting Governor of the British colony at Hong Kong, Wilsone Block, notified Commodore Dewey that as "a state of war existed between the United States and the Kingdom of Spain" he had been "instructed by Her Majesty's Government to order the United States squadron, to leave the harbor of Hong Kong and the waters of the colony by four o'clock P. M. Monday, April 25." Commodore Dewey, whose preparations had been completed, sailed on Sunday afternoon without waiting for the expiration of the time fixed by the British Government.

During the six-hundred-mile voyage to Manila the squadron changed its formation several times to prove the ability of the ships to maneuver to the satisfaction of Commodore Dewey. On Saturday afternoon, April 30, the headland of Cape Bolinao, in the Philippine Islands, was sighted.

Only half the boilers of the squadron had been in use since the squadron sailed from Hong Kong. Fires were now kindled under every boiler. Black smoke poured from

every funnel. Splinter nettings were spread, fire hose was run between decks ready instantly to drown any fire caused by bursting shells, ammunition hoists were tried, magazines opened and every strip of bunting, except the signal flags used in navy codes, was taken in. Stanchions, rails, davits and other movable stuff were unshipped and stowed below, where no shot could reach them to create dangerous splinters. The few lifeboats left on board were gotten into shape for lowering, to be towed behind a steam launch away from the ships in action. All spars and ladders which could not be stowed below decks were swung over the sides of the ships. Rigging that could be dispensed with was taken down, and the wire stays which stiffen the masts were so lashed with ropes that if shot away they could not fall on deck to interfere with the working of the guns.

Commodore Dewey's officers made no efforts to create a belief among the men that the battle would be easily won. On the contrary, they were told that the Spanish fleet was twice as numerous as the American, carried twice as many men, almost as many guns, and, with the forts, the mines and the torpedoes, which were of inestimable advantage in defensive operations, the Spaniards were known to have some advantage over us.

It was now seven P. M., Saturday, April 30. As darkness fell and the crews went to their battle-eve supper, the spirit of excitement rose to exultation. Electric lights still flamed in every porthole and cabin and at every masthead, and with the red and white answering signal lights our fleet looked like a squadron of excursion boats returning to New York from a day's pleasure trip down the bay. By nine o'clock, however, the battle ports were closed, and while lights were burning brightly in the cabins, not a ray showed from the outside. The side lights required by law on all vessels at sea were not displayed. The mast lights were

put out. When the entrance to Manila Bay was twenty miles away the only ray of light that gleamed from any ship was the stern signal inclosed in a box so that it could be seen only by ships directly in the wake of the vessels.

The flagship led the way. The *Baltimore*, about four hundred yards astern, followed the sternlight of the flagship; the *Boston*, third in line, followed the sternlight of the *Baltimore*, and so on down to the supply ships, more than a mile astern. Every man in the fleet then knew that Commodore Dewey was going to run the gauntlet of the forts at Corregidor, and, if possible, do it without being discovered. The speed was six knots an hour. The sky was overcast, but the moon showed behind fleecy clouds. The sea was just heavy enough to give the ships a gentle undulation. Commodore Dewey timed his arrival with such wonderful precision that it was within a few minutes of midnight when the Corregidor Island light flashed ahead. The entire fleet, with neither increased nor diminished speed, steamed tranquilly on into the darkness of Manila Bay.

The entrance is through either one of two passes lying on either side of Corregidor Island. The north pass is called Boca Chico and it is one mile wide. Both on the island and the mainland there are heavy forts with Krupp guns of high power. Commodore Dewey had received information at Hong Kong, which afterward proved to be correct, that there were mines guarding this approach. The south pass is called Boca Grande and is five miles wide. But the water is not so deep as in the narrow passage, and there are many rocks. Commodore Dewey chose Boca Grande, however.

When Dewey entered Manila harbor he cut the cable, probably to prevent receipt of orders from the home govern-

ment which might circumvent his plans, and it was not therefore until May 8 that official news of the battle was received in Washington, report having been carried by the *McCulloch* to Hong Kong, and thence cabled to the President.

The flagship steamed steadily on, and at midnight was directly in the line of fire between the two forts. Not a sound was heard. While the flagship was close to the narrows the smokestack of the *McCulloch* suddenly belched tongues of flame. The soot of the soft coal had taken fire under the intense heat of the furnaces, which were storing up energy for the coming battle.

Suddenly there was a bright flash of light from the mainland. A shot sped across the water just forward of the *Olympia*. Then the *Raleigh*, the next ship in line, instantly answered the challenge with a shot from one of her heavy guns. The *McCulloch* followed with three six-pounders whizzing toward the flash of light ashore. Concealment we now thought useless. The forts answered twice, and the *Boston*, closed the short, sharp duel with a long shot from her heavy eight-inch after-gun, which it was afterwards ascertained actually hit the fort.

The ships were soon out of range. There was no telegraphic communication between the entrance to the bay and the fort at Cavité and the City of Manila. It seems incredible, but it is proof of the utter inefficiency of the Spanish preparations for defense, that no provision was made to notify the sleeping city and the Spanish fleet of the arrival of the American squadron. From Corregidor to Manila is nearly seventeen miles, and as Commodore Dewey did not want to begin battle until it was light enough for his gunners to see the enemy, he signaled with the red and white lights to proceed in double column formation at a speed of four knots an hour.

The commodore next signaled orders for the men to rest. The gunners lay down on the decks—anywhere they could find room. As there was a possibility of the battle opening at any moment everything was in readiness, every gun loaded, every furnace blazing at full power, every water-tight compartment closed below deck, magazines opened, ammunition hoists filled, gun crews stripped naked to the waist—and then the men were told to lie down at their posts and get some sleep so that their nerves might be steady for the great battle in the morning.

Officers moved about inspecting every point on the ships, over and over again and conversing in low tones, so as not to disturb the sleepers over whose legs they climbed.

A few moments before 5 A. M., as the sky was lighting with the dawn, the spires of Manila appeared dimly outlined on the horizon and below them the round domes of the public buildings.

The commodore's orders were so well understood that there was no interchange of signals. Dewey himself stood on the forward bridge of the *Olympia* at the most exposed place, toward the forts and the Spanish fleet.

When the flagship was within 4,500 yards of Cavité, the fort opened fire. Dewey paid no attention, but waited to see how quickly the Spanish gunners would get his range. His intention was to destroy the Spanish fleet first, then the forts at and near Cavité, and finally the forts at Manila, further up the bay.

The Spanish flagship *Reina Cristina* lying nearly a mile up the bay, beyond Cavité, opened fire on the *Olympia* at 4,000 yards range. Still Commodore Dewey did not reply. The fleet moved steadily on, the *Olympia* far in the lead, the sole target for both the Spanish ships and the forts. The flagship had proceeded unscathed more than half a mile further and shots were falling all

about her, when Commodore Dewey turned to Captain Gridley and said :

“ Now, Gridley, you can begin firing.”

The *Olympia* slowly swung round, presenting her port side to the enemy's guns. As she did so, her two 8-inch guns were fired almost simultaneously. Before the echoes of the *Olympia's* guns ceased to reverberate the *Baltimore* following in her wake, joined the attack with her 8-and 6-inch guns. Each ship maneuvered like the *Olympia* with slow deliberation, absolute precision, and in perfect order.

The *McCulloch* stood in behind the line of battle-ships, but close at hand with heavy hawsers stretched across her quarter-deck, ready to dart in and tow out of range any of our vessels that became disabled. Four Spanish land forts and six warships lying in the harbor of Cavité were belching incessant torrents of flame.

After the squadron had passed in line before the enemy, using all the port guns, it turned slowly and repassed the forts and the fleet, this time using the starboard guns. And so while there was no diminution of the broadsides, the gunners who worked the starboard batteries had ten minutes of rest while the port batteries were in action, and then when the ships turned again the starboard batteries were again brought into action and the port batteries were at rest. Five times our squadron paraded thus before the enemy's fleet and forts, within a range of 2,000 yards.

During the third passage the Spanish Admiral, Patricio Montojo y Pasaron, on his flagship, *Reina Cristina*, a modern steel cruiser of high power, quick-firing guns, steamed slowly out to meet the *Olympia*. Commodore Dewey leaned over the bridge to tell one of his aides who was on the deck below to go through the ship

and tell personally the captain of each gun crew to concentrate his fire upon the *Reina Cristina*.

Admiral Montojo, like Commodore Dewey, stood on the bridge of his flagship unprotected, with his two sons as aides. The next time our fleet passed the line the Spanish admiral again steamed out toward the *Olympia*. Again all the guns of our flagship were concentrated on her. It was a duel between two flagships. A shot from one of the *Olympia's* 5-inch guns tore away one end of the bridge on which Admiral Montojo stood. He stepped to the other end and continued to direct the fire of his gun crews.

This time the two flagships approached to within less than 2,000 yards of each other before the *Reina Cristina* tried to turn back. As she swung round to get back under the protection of the guns of Cavité an 8-inch shell from one of the *Olympia's* forward guns struck the *Reina Cristina* squarely on the stern, under the protective deck, and plowed through until it almost reached the ship's bow, blowing up the main forward magazine in its course. The flagship was wrecked by this one shot. Her sides were riddled and her crew practically annihilated by the flying missiles from the exploded shell. Admiral Dewey learned from the British Consul the next day that 130 people were killed in the *Reina Cristina*, including the captain commanding, and ninety were wounded. This represented 75 per cent. of the ship's complement.

Admiral Dewey then, at 7.50, after three hours of incessant battle, signaled the fleet to withdraw and report casualties.

Again the flagship halyards blossomed with fluttering signals. Small boats were lowered from every ship and the commanding officer of each was rowed toward the *Olympia*. Captain Hodgdon brought the report: "Not a single man killed in our entire fleet, nor one seriously

wounded. Our ships have suffered no damage worth reporting. The battle will go on as soon as the men have had breakfast."

At 10.30 o'clock, after two hours and forty minutes' rest, the fleet again formed in line of battle, this time the *Baltimore* leading toward Cavité. The dispatch boat *McCulloch*, was lying about three miles from the town of Manila, which presented a scene of perfect quiet and almost matchless beauty. Before the *Baltimore* re-opened the cannonading the sound of church bells in Manila could be heard softly floating across the water. The peaceful quiet of the scene seemed real and the battle a dream.

The *Baltimore* is not a beautiful ship. She is not even armored, but she has the lines of a battle-ship and she looked magnificent as she went straight at the enemy, with every gun trained forward. She had been ordered to silence the most active of the forts on the mainland—that at Canacao Point.

The second engagement continued two hours and ten minutes, the Spaniards fighting with unabated courage, but only one of their shells penetrated an American ship, the *Baltimore* slightly wounding seven men. The last Spanish fort at Canacao Point signaled at 12.30 by international code flags, "We surrender."

The havoc done by the guns of the American fleet had been even more terrible than was first reported. Spanish officials were reticent as to the total number of killed and wounded, but there was evidence that the number of killed was at least 321, and that more than 700 were wounded. This is the most accurate estimate of casualties which could be obtained by Admiral Dewey, two weeks after the battle, nor have the losses been accurately ascertained since the conclusion of the war.

The engagement so gloriously fought by Dewey was not a victory achieved over a superior force, or even a strong enemy, for Montojo's ships, like Augustin's forts, were poorly prepared to cope with the formidable high power, and latest improved superior range cannons with which our fleet was armed, but this fact in no wise detracted from the glory of the victory, for it is results, rather than conditions, that count. Not only did Dewey destroy eleven Spanish men-of-war, and reduce the Cavite land fortifications, which was a mighty loss to the enemy, but still more valuable to us was the fact that his victory established American prestige on the high seas, gave the great powers an illustration of the audacity, the skill, and the terrible fighting qualities of our men and the ships of our new navy. Greater battles at sea have been fought than at Manila, but hardly since Octavius destroyed the fleets of Anthony and Cleopatra in the Ambracian Gulf has there been a naval engagement that brought with it so many benefits to the victor and so much damage to the vanquished.

European nations had viewed with much concern and jealousy our interference in the war in Cuba, and were several times upon the point of concerting means for intervening in the struggle. Austria was particularly interested in the Spanish throne by reason of the queen regent being a niece of Emperor Francis Joseph, and France was concerned because her people hold the principal part of the Spanish bonds, or certainly half of the total issue. Germany has been in a bad spirit since the adoption of our new tariff that virtualy excluded several of her products, notably sugar, from our markets. Russia had become suspicious of our relations to Great Britain, which she construed as designs against her selfish policy in the East, and Italy, being a member of the dreibund, was influenced by the sentiments of Austria and Germany.

Under such conditions it was not unreasonable to suppose that European sympathies were with Spain, nor was there lacking evidence in abundance of a disposition to peacefully intervene in the interest of Spain. Indeed, an effort was made by the European ministerial agents at Washington to perfect a concert of the powers, and to present a *representation* to President McKinley, the spirit of which it is easy to judge. This combination failed of its purpose, but for no other reason than that England positively refused to join such a movement, foreseeing the probability of grave results following such an effort. More than this refusal, was England's cordial approval of America's humane interference, which she took no pains to conceal. After the battle of Manila there was a decided change of opinion favorable to this country, and neutrality was declared by all countries except Germany, which made plausible excuses for not adopting such a measure. Had Dewey sustained a defeat, it may well be believed that the sentiment of Europe would have been more pronounced against us, if, indeed, it had not assumed an attitude of armed intervention.

Spain's navy showed upon paper as being considerably stronger than that of the United States, and this superiority was relied upon to compensate for the differences of population and financial strength. The most serious fears were entertained in the beginning that Spain would send some of her swift cruisers to attack our seaboard cities, and calculations were really made of the destruction the enemies' vessels might easily inflict upon New York and Boston. Our navy, while having a few large battleships and cruisers, was known to be untried, and confidence in their ability to protect so extensive a coast line, and at the same time patrol Cuban waters and successfully engage Spain's powerful warships, was extremely small. After

the battle in Manila Bay these dread misgivings gave place to popular satisfaction; the national heart was encouraged, all doubt as to the outcome of the war was immediately dispelled, patriotism was mightily stimulated, sectional spirit was destroyed and the nation became in a day a giant conscious of his superior strength. And the effects so manifest in the United States were equally pronounced in European countries; the American navy, so small as to have invited supercilious criticism, came suddenly to be appreciated not for its size but for its fighting abilities, and the proof was accepted that we had the ships and the men to fight them.

Under such circumstances it is not surprising that there should have been shown a prompt and genuine outpouring of national applause and gratitude. In grateful recognition of the heroism of Commodore Dewey and his valiant officers and men, and to voice the nation's appreciation of their wonderful achievement, President McKinley sent a message to Congress, on May 9, recommending that a vote of thanks be given them. In addition to these honors, a bill passed Congress on the same date increasing the number of rear-admirals from six to seven, and providing for Dewey's promotion to this high position; the sum of \$10,000 was also appropriated with which to purchase a sword for the great commander, and for medals to be bestowed upon the officers and men who so gallantly distinguished themselves. The news of Dewey's victory was received throughout America with demonstrations of unrestrainable joy; his name was pronounced with universal acclaim; the whole nation went into celebration, and no one was able to propose an honor great enough to fit such a great naval fighter. Experienced naval officers compared his achievement with that of Perry on Lake Erie, Nelson at Trafalgar, Decatur at Tripoli, Farragut at Mobile, Paul

Jones in many daring and desperate encounters, but no one was able to recall a circumstance that fully rivaled Dewey's victory at Manila.

Singular to relate, the official report of the fight made by Minister of Marine Bermego to the Spanish people represented that a crushing defeat had been administered to our fleet, whereupon Spain went into a passion of exultation quite as great as our own, and Blanco, to inspire his dispirited troops, designated a day of thanksgiving for the divine favor shown in giving victory to Montojo's broken ships. Nor was this false report corrected for a considerable time, the ignorance of the Spanish people rendering it an easy matter for ministerial officers to keep them long deceived. The fact is worthy to be noted in this connection, that Spain has few newspapers, and the largest circulation of any journal in the kingdom does not exceed 5,000 copies per day. It must be understood also that newspapers in Spain are not free to print all news, but are censored and thus they confine their reports largely to matters ecclesiastical and provincial. It was policy also to turn defeat into a victory on paper, as the temper of the people was ripe for revolution, and needed only the excitement of disaster to precipitate a civil conflict, an approach to which has long been noted.

After destroying the Spanish fleet and silencing the battery defenses of Manila, Dewey was compelled to suspend further action on account of lack of men to garrison the captured posts. He accordingly made his position as strong as possible with the forces at his command, and awaited reinforcements from America before attempting to take the city. The Philippine insurgents were known to be of such savage nature, and withal so insubordinate, that had Dewey reduced the city by a bombardment, these cruel hordes would have massacred the inhabitants; therefore,

humane considerations prompted Dewey to wait such time as troops were at hand to enable him to occupy the city without precipitating any act of cruelty.

The news of disaster to their fleet at length reached Spanish ears and the result was what had been anticipated, and which the government had wisely prepared for. Riots took place in Madrid, Barcelona, Cadiz and other large cities of Spain, which would have developed into revolution had not the authorities in their respective cities been prompt to use the military in suppressing demonstrations. Martial law had been declared throughout Spain, May 4, three days in advance of the news of Dewey's victory, which fact alone prevented the country from being swept by an irresistible uprising, and even with this powerful arm of suppression, great damage was done by rioters on the 5th in Carthagena, Uviedo and Leon, in which several persons were killed and scores were wounded.

CHAPTER VI.

ON May 3 a skirmish took place between a force of eight hundred Spanish cavalry, near the Cojimar batteries, on the Cuban coast, and the torpedo boat *Ericsson*, which had ventured dangerously near the shore. The *Ericsson* escaped unhurt, and the *Wilmington* ran near enough the coast to shell the enemy, but there were no casualties. On the 5th instant the French line steamship *Lafayette* was captured while making her way into Havana, which promised to lead to complications with the French government, but the act of arrest was soon proved to be the result of a misunderstanding, which was cleared by a release of the vessel on the following day.

The incidents following the triumph of Admiral Dewey in Manila Bay were unimportant until May 11, on which day the first tragedy on the American side occurred in Cardenas Bay. The torpedo boat *Winslow* accompanied by the gunboats *Wilmington* and *Hudson* approached Cardenas to explore the bay and to test the batteries at that point. The *Winslow* being of light draught, was lured into the harbor by three light boats which she attempted to destroy, and was fired upon by the shore batteries. So accurate was the shooting that she was hit no less than eighteen times, and so disabled as to be at the mercy of the enemy. The *Hudson* went to her relief, and while adjusting a tow-line to the wounded craft a shell burst into the face of the *Winslow's* crew that were on the deck of their vessel, killing five members, one

of whom was Ensign Worth Bagley, who thus became the first sacrifice of the war on the American side. Notwithstanding the rain of shells that tore through the vessels, the *Hudson* towed the *Winslow* out of further danger, and with her dead was taken to Key West.

On the same date (11th) an expedition was sent to Cienfuegos, on the south coast of Cuba, to cut the cable extending from that point to Santiago de Cuba. The vessels dispatched on this dangerous mission were the *Nashville*, *Marblehead*, and *Windom*. While men in small boats were grappling the cable they were fired on by large force of Spanish troops, one of our men being killed and three wounded. The gunboats shelled the heavy woods on shore, and are supposed to have killed several of the enemy, but the results were not ascertained. On the following day the Spanish fleet, consisting of the fast cruisers *Viscaya*, *Almirante Oquendo*, *Infanta Maria Teresa*, and *Christobal Colon*, and three torpedo boat destroyers, the *Terror*, *Furor*, and *Pluton*, that had been laying off Mindello, Cape Verde Islands, for three weeks, appeared at Fort de France, Martinique, where, after coaling, they departed for Curaçao, Dutch Guinea.

On the morning of the 12th Admiral Sampson, who had left Key West, May 4, with his squadron of eight vessels, appeared off San Juan, Porto Rico, and began a vigorous bombardment of the place, and was replied to by the heavy batteries of Morro Castle. The action continued for three hours, at the end of which time the fortifications were much battered, while the loss on our side was two killed and seven wounded. The vessels engaged were the *New York*, Sampson's flagship, the *Iowa*, *Indiana*, *Montgomery*, *Detroit* and the monitors *Terror* and *Amphitrite*. On the same date Major-General Wesley Merritt was appointed military governor of the Philippines, and on the follow-

ing day the Flying Squadron, commanded by Commodore Schley, left Hampton Roads for Key West, to act in conjunction with Sampson.

Subsequent events, of little consequence, was the resignation of the Spanish cabinet on the 15th and the formation of a new one, of Sagasta's selecting, which was pledged to a continuance of the war. On the same day the cable was cut near Cienfuegos, but one wire was left so that communication was not wholly destroyed. On the 16th the Spanish gunboat *Callao* was captured in Manila Bay, her captain having been long at sea, not being advised of the beginning of hostilities. On the 18th the battleship *Alabama* was launched from Cramp's ship-yard, and Morro Castle, at Santiago de Cuba, was bombarded by three vessels, to cover an effort to cut the cable, but little damage was done. On the following day Admiral Cervera's fleet was reported arrived at Santiago, having come up from Curaçao, presumably to land supplies for the Spanish, but he skillfully evaded Sampson's squadron, which he had been apprised was seeking him. Indeed, for a long while the game was one of hide and seek, the Spaniards, having the fleetier vessels, being easily able to keep out of reach of both Sampson and Schley. On the 22d the monitor *Monterey* was ordered to get ready to join Admiral Dewey's fleet in Manila Bay, and on the same day the protected cruiser *Charleston* sailed from San Francisco for that far-away port, followed on the 25th by three transport vessels that carried 2,500 men to aid in the capture and garrisoning of Manila.

The first prizes of the war, of four merchant vessels, were legally condemned and sold at Key West on the 27th. Three days later a detachment of 5,000 troops embarked from Tampa on a fleet of transports, by which they were landed at points in Cuba previously designated by the insurgents with whom a junction was formed. On the 30th

Commodore Schley notified the navy department that he had succeeded in chasing Cervera's fleet into the harbor of Santiago de Cuba, where he would hold them against every chance of escape. On the following day Schley opened fire upon Morro Castle, of Santiago, but with no object except to unmask the enemy's batteries, and thereby be able to judge of the strength and location of their guns, which purpose he accomplished without sustaining any loss.

War is the most terrible of alternatives, but a sense of compensation, if not satisfaction, is derivable from the heroism which it calls forth. Our conflict with Spain had been distinguished by several daring exploits, but history fails to record a more remarkable act of bravery than that displayed by Assistant Naval Constructor Richmond P. Hobson, of the flagship *New York* and seven equally courageous companions.

CHAPTER VII.

WHEN Admiral Sampson arrived off Santiago and assumed command of the combined fleets, one of the first to claim an audience with him was Assistant Naval Constructor Richmond Pearson Hobson. His rank in the Navy was that of lieutenant.

Young Hobson laid before the Admiral a plan to effectually bottle the Spanish fleet in Santiago harbor, so that one or two vessels could be left to guard this place, and the rest of the fleet might be at liberty to go in safety to the north coast and cover the landing of troops.

With true courage Lieutenant Hobson offered to lead the expedition which he suggested. His plan was to select a volunteer crew of just sufficient number to navigate the collier *Merrimac*, to strip the old ship of everything of any value, and then, under cover of darkness, to run her straight toward the narrowest part of the channel and sink her by explosions deep in the hold. The crew were to jump overboard as she sank, and, if possible, be picked up by the torpedo boat *Porter*, and the steam launch from the *New York*, which were to lie close in shore for that purpose. The fleet lying outside was to cover the work of the *Porter* and the little launch.

Lieutenant Hobson presented his plan in eloquent and persuasive language, and Admiral Sampson thought so well of it that he determined to put it into execution.

Wednesday night, June 3, 1898, was first selected. That afternoon this signal was made to the ships of the squadron by the *New York* :

“ An attempt will be made to-night to sink the collier *Merrimac* at the entrance to the harbor. One volunteer, an enlisted man, is requested from each ship.”

Immediately the men were mustered on the quarter-decks, and the captains laid the plan before them, carefully explaining the unusual risks that the volunteers would incur. Practically, the entire companies of the ships volunteered for the dangerous work. It was a desperate undertaking, as every man in the fleet knew, for the chances were very great that if the *Merrimac* passed the batteries unscathed, she would be blown up by a mine. This, however, did not deter either officers or men from volunteering.

In fact, they jumped at the chance, and many signified their willingness to carry out Admiral Sampson's plan. The latter found considerable difficulty in picking out the eight men that were required for the work, owing to the great number that had volunteered. Some of the men were much disgruntled to find that they had been passed over in the selection. Finally, however, Naval Constructor Hobson and seven other men were chosen, the former commanding the gallant crew. They at once went on board the collier, where preparations were made for the work ahead of them. After everything had been arranged, the officers and crew of the *Merrimac* left her going aboard the *Texas*. On the cruiser *Brooklyn* alone, 150 men of her crew volunteered, and on the *Texas* 140 signified their desire to go. The list was at first made up as follows :

Lieutenant Hobson, Gunner's Mate Philip O'Boyle, of the *Texas*, and Gun Captain Mill of the *New Orleans*,

Seaman Anderson of the *Massachusetts*, and Seaman Wade of the *Vixen*.

Hobson selected to aid him in his desperate undertaking the following: George Charette, gunner's mate; Daniel Montague, master-at-arms, and Randolph Clausen, coxswain, all of the *New York*; Osborn Deignan, coxswain, John Phillips, machinist, and John Kelley, water-tender, all of the *Merrimac*; J. C. Murphy, coxswain, of the *Iowa*.

After the *Massachusetts* and the smaller craft had coaled from the *Merrimac*, until only 2,000 tons were left in her hold for ballast, the old craft was taken twenty miles to the east of Santiago. There a force of men were put to work stripping her of everything of value, and fitting powder charges for sinking her.

At five o'clock the *Vixen* came to each ship which had the honor of furnishing one of the volunteers and called out, for example: "*New Orleans*, there! We have called for your volunteer."

Forty men were detailed to guide the ship to within three miles of the harbor, and the *New York's* launch was selected to run in shore and pick up survivors. There was intense rivalry for places in the launch. Cadets Palmer and Powell disputed for the command. They settled the contest by drawing cigarettes from a box. Powell drew the odd one and won. The men worked merrily, singing as they prepared the ship for her mission. At sunset a thunder-storm blew up, covering the mountain-surrounded plateau of Santiago with dense clouds, rifted and torn by vivid flashes of brilliant, rose-hued lightning. The thunder came to the fleet in dull rumblings, like distant cannonading, and in the intervals between the peals, the voices of the men were audible. They were singing "*The Star Spangled Banner*" and "*Home, Sweet Home*."

The four transverse bulkheads of the ship were located

approximately, and their positions marked on the port side of ship at the rail. A line was run along the port side of the ship parallel to the water line. This line was supported by "hogging lines," that were run over the rail outside. Along this line were suspended, in 8-inch copper cases, ten charges of ordinary brown prismatic powder, each charge weighing about eighty pounds. Over this an ordinary igniting charge of brown powder was placed, and the whole was covered with pitch for protection against the water, with a primer and wire for exploding the charge. The ship contained about two thousand tons of coal. As far as possible all stores were removed.

At about dark the powder charges were brought on board and lowered into position over the port side. The wire for exploding the charge was run and connected and the dry battery made ready. The first plan contemplated, the simultaneous discharge of all ten charges. It was found that the battery on hand was sufficient to explode with certainty only six charges, so only this number were connected. The preparations were not completed until nearly daylight. Deignan was stationed at the wheel; Boatswain Mullen stood by with an ax to cut the lashings of the bower anchor; Montague stood by similarly to cut the lashings of the starboard quarter anchor; Charette was to explode the charges on signal. Two signals only were to be sent to the engineer. At the first signal Phillips was to knock out the props from over the bonnets of the sea valves, and Kelley was to cut the small sea pipes before mentioned. Then Kelley was to run on deck to haul in the life-boat. At the second signal Phillips was to stop the engines, then run on deck and jump over the starboard side.

Mr. Hobson wished to creep in and approach the entrance from the westward, until he could shape his course

as nearly as possible directly for Estrella Point. He wished to put the bow of the ship near this point and then swing her across the channel abreast this point. When the ship was near enough, in his judgment, the bonnets were to be knocked off the sea valves and the engines stopped.

The helm was to be put hard to port and the starboard bower anchor let go. This would swing the ship across the channel and check her headway. When she had swung far enough, the quarter anchor was to check her, and the mines exploded. The strong flood tide was relied on to heel the ship to port and assist in sinking her. The powder charges were about thirty-five feet apart, and ten feet below the water line. The signals to the men at the anchor were to be given by means of a rope attached to their wrists and leading to the bridge. It was the intention of Hobson to remain on the bridge until he felt the ship settle. The other men, as soon as each had done the duty assigned to him, were to jump over the side and make for the boat. Life-preservers were served out as well as revolvers and ammunition, to all men. Each man was carefully instructed in the duty that he was expected to perform, and the necessity for his remaining at his post until the completion of his duty was impressed upon each man. The men seemed to appreciate perfectly the desperate nature of the expedition. If not actually cheerful, they were at least cool and determined, and that his own safety was a secondary consideration in the mind of each man, as compared with the necessity of doing his part well, and sticking to his post at all odds. Lieutenant Hobson expected that a mine would be exploded under the ship by the enemy, thus materially aiding his plans for sinking the ship.

By midnight the work had got so far that Admiral

Sampson went aboard the *Merrimac* and inspected the arrangements, which he said were excellent in every way. By daybreak the ship was prepared. It was intended to sink her that morning (Thursday), but Admiral Sampson decided it was inadvisable. He sent word to Hobson not to go ahead. Hobson felt sure that he could make the effort successfully; and therefore, in answer to the Admiral's order, he sent this word:

“Lieutenant Hobson's compliments to the Admiral, and he requests that he be allowed to make the attempt now, feeling sure that he can succeed.” A positive order to wait until morning was sent to Hobson, and the project rested over the day. Accordingly, June 4, 1898, was fixed for the enterprise, and a change of plans was announced. It being believed that the volunteers who had been chosen had undergone too long a strain to render the best service, a new list was therefore made out. The original volunteers were sent back to their ships, broken-hearted because they had lost a chance to die for their country.

The men lay around the ship most of the day, attempting to get a little rest. Some slight changes in the original plans were made. Additional batteries were obtained and an additional charge was made ready on the port side. As the lifeboat had gotten adrift on the first attempt, the large catamaran of the ship was slung over the starboard side by a single line, with towing and steadying lines. The lifeboat was slung in a similar manner just abaft the catamaran. The boats on the port side were cast loose, so that they would float when the ship sank. Lieutenant Hobson decided also that it would be safer to explode each powder charge separately. And the men in the engine-room were directed to come on deck as soon as they had completed their duties below, and lend a hand in exploding the four after charges.

Lieutenant Hobson spent most of the afternoon on the flagship. The stop-cock of the gauge glass of the starboard boiler had leaked so badly on the previous day as to make a great deal of noise. This boiler was blown down about 2 o'clock, the cock repaired and fires lighted. This was done by a machinist and fireman from the *Marblehead*. Lieutenant Hobson came aboard about 7 P. M. He went below to try to get a little rest, of which he stood sadly in need. A pilot came aboard and got a bearing of the entrance of the harbor before dark came on. The ship stood off and on until Cadet Powell came over from the flagship with a steam launch. It had been decided to follow the ship in with a steam launch. The launch was to be in charge of Cadet Powell, and was manned by the regular crew. As soon as the good bearing of the entrance had been obtained, the ship was hove to and waited until 1.30 A. M., at which time Lieutenant Hobson was to be called. A relief crew had come over on the launch from the flagship to relieve the man at the wheel and in the fireroom.

At about 1.30, Lieutenant Hobson came on the bridge. All the men who were to go in with the ship were called up and given final instructions as to their duties. Everything was made ready below.

The ship was steaming in toward the entrance at "dead slow," closely followed by the launch of the *New York*, in command of Naval Cadet Joseph Wright Powell, of Oswego, N. Y., with four men in the launch with him, Coxswain Peterson, Fireman Horsman, Engineer Nelson and Seaman Peterson, all of the *New York*. This was about 2.30 A. M. The big black hull of the *Merrimac* could be easily followed from the other ships. Needless to say, her progress toward the mouth of the harbor was watched with breathless interest. The moon became partly obscured by clouds, and the *Merrimac* could no longer be clearly dis-

tinguished. The lower shore line was indistinguishable. A light haze hid the entrance of the harbor from view, except through glasses.

At 3.15 the first shot was fired, coming from one of the guns on the hill to the west of the entrance. The shot was seen to splash seaward from the *Merrimac*, having passed over her. The firing became general very soon afterward, being especially fierce and rapid from the batteries inside of the left of the harbor, probably from batteries on Smith Cay. The flashes and reports were apparently those of rapid-fire guns, ranging from small automatic guns to 4-inch or larger. For fifteen minutes a perfect fusillade was kept. Then the fire slackened and by 3.30 had almost ceased. A close watch was kept on the mouth of the harbor in order to pick up the steam launch. There was a little desultory firing until 3.45, when all became quiet. Daylight came at about 5 o'clock.

At about 5.15 A. M., the launch was seen steaming from west to east, near or across the mouth of the harbor. She steamed back from east to west and began skirting the coast to the west of the entrance. The battery on the hill to the left opened fire on her, but did not make good practice. The launch continued her course as far westward as a small cove and then headed for the *Texas*, steaming at full speed. Several shots were fired at her from the battery on the left as she streamed out. It was broad daylight by this time. Cadet Powell came alongside the *Texas* and reported that "No one had come out of the entrance of the harbor." His words sounded like the death knell of all who had gone in on the *Merrimac*. It seemed incredible, almost impossible, any of them could have lived through the awful fire that was directed at the ship. Cadet Powell said that he had followed behind the ship at a distance of 400 or 500 yards. Hobson missed the entrance of the har-

bor at first, having gone too far to the westward ; he almost ran aground, but the launch directed him to the channel and the *Merrimac* went on. From the launch the collier was seen until she rounded the bend of the channel, and until the helm had been put to port to swing her into position across the channel.

Apparently, the inner batteries opened fire just as the collier rounded the bend and was swinging into place, probably when she was first seen by the men at the battery at Smith Cay. It was from this side that the heaviest fire came. A large number of projectiles whistled over the launch. The batteries on Estrella Point kept up a very hot fire. Powell heard or saw and counted seven explosions, which were undoubtedly those of the powder charges under the collier. Powell remained in the entrance as long as he deemed it safe to do so. No wreckage or bodies floated out, everything being swept inside by the strong flood tide. The enemy evidently had a large number of automatic and rapid-fire guns, from the number and rapidity of the shots.

There was probably no one in the fleet who did not think that all seven of the men had perished. In the afternoon, much to the surprise of every one, a tug flying a flag of truce was seen coming out of the entrance. The *Vixen*, flying a tablecloth at the fore, went to meet the tug. A Spanish officer, Captain Oviedo, went aboard the *Vixen* from the tug, and was taken aboard the flagship. Not long afterward a signal was made that Murphy, of the *Iowa*, was saved and was a prisoner of war. About 4 o'clock another signal was made from the flagship: "Collier's crew prisoners of war ; two slightly wounded. All well." It can be easily imagined what relief this signal brought to all hands, who had been mourning the death of all these men. The Spanish officer said also that the prisoners were confined in Morro Castle. He said further that Admiral Cervera con-

sidered the attempt to run in and sink the *Merrimac* across the channel an act of such great bravery and desperate daring, that he (the admiral) thought it very proper that our naval officers should be notified of the safety of these men. Whatever the motive for sending out the tug with the flag of truce, the act was a most graceful one and one of most chivalrous courtesy. The Spanish officer is reported to have said: "You made it more difficult, but we can still get out."

From the bearings of the *Merrimac* (whose masts and smokepipes could be plainly seen) taken in the afternoon, it appeared that she was lying with her bow to seaward, just above Estrella Point, with her stern swung around until she lay almost parallel to the direction of the channel. From the fact that she was completely submerged, except her masts and smokepipes, it would seem that she was sunk some little distance from the right bank. However, she was not lying across the channel. So far as blocking the channel the attempt was a failure. The anchor on the starboard quarter carried away the stoppers on the chain and also the bits, which were not very securely fastened in the deck. And the chain cut through the rail as far as the midship section of the ship. This permitted the stern to swing entirely round until the ship lay lengthwise in the channel, so that the wreck offered no real obstruction to navigation.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE heroic act of Hobson, of which there are few parallels in history, had a tremendous moral effect, mightily stimulating to the American arms, and correspondingly depressing to the Spanish people. The result was even more far-reaching, for, as the world loves a hero, this intrepid feat of Hobson's following so soon after the astounding victory achieved by Dewey, brought all Europe to at sudden recognition of the bravery, as well as of the naval power of the United States, and this realization caused a quick change of sympathy that took from Spain her last hope of receiving either moral or substantial assistance from any of the European powers.

On the same day (June 3) that Hobson and his valorous band drove their old ship upon the mines of Santiago harbor, the Senate voted for an issuance of \$300,000,000 war bonds with which to push the conflict to a decisive end. On the sixth Sampson bombarded Morro Castle, at the entrance of Santiago harbor, though because of the elevation of the fortifications he inflicted small injury. Indeed, it was afterwards shown by the military experts that the bombardments of San Juan and Santiago, in which \$2,000,000 worth of projectiles were thrown, had caused so little damage to the enemy's works or guns that their efficiency was scarcely lessened, notwithstanding boastful claims made at the time that the fortifications had been practically destroyed.

The first actual invasion of Cuba by American troops

took place June 11, when, after a spirited attack from the sea upon the fort defending Guantanamo, on the south shore of the island, the town and defenses surrendered to the Americans, and a body of 800 marines were sent on shore to take possession. Three days later 16,000 men under the command of General Shafter left Tampa on a flotilla of thirty transports, convoyed by a dozen war vessels, for Santiago de Cuba, a landing being made at the town of Daiquiri, twenty miles from Santiago, on the twenty-second instant, where in two days our troops and munitions were debarked with expedition and without casualty.

The war, which had engaged Congress and occupied the almost undivided interest of the people from the moment of its declaration, or, rather from the time of the destruction of the *Maine*, was, on July 6, for the moment dismissed from public consideration by the action of the Senate, which, after an exhaustive debate, often tinged with acrimony, voted to annex Hawaii, which act was promptly confirmed (July 7) by the President's official sanction and the islands, so long in contention and so long an applicant for admission to the Union, became a part of the republic. The act of annexation seemed to reverse the policy of the government, which had in theory, if not in fact, opposed territorial expansion. But while generally endorsing the policy of home development, and condemning the idea of acquisition, the majority of Americans heartily approved the act that added Hawaii to our possessions; for aside from the fertility and wealth of the Sandwich group of islands, they were regarded as being especially valuable for their commanding position in the Pacific in case we should become engaged in war with any great power. As a matter of public exigency, rather than of government policy, the acquisition was unquestionably justified, but the act carried with it the danger of creating a

sentiment favorable to further expansion, leading to many difficulties, not the least of which threatened a breaking of the solidarity of our people, the abandonment of the Monroe Doctrine, and the maintenance of a large army and navy. These considerations caused a temporary abatement of interest in the war, notwithstanding fierce fighting had been begun July 1 on the defenses of Santiago de Cuba, which for some time remained in a state of siege.

Soon after effecting a landing at Daiquiri the American troops were pushed forward to complete the investment of Santiago, meeting with little resistance until they reached El Caney, where, on July 1, Generals Lawton and Wheeler, commanding the advance, assisted by General Garcia, with 3,000 Cuban soldiers, making a combined force of 12,000 men, engaged the enemy of equal strength and fought what must be regarded as the fiercest battle of the war. The eagerness of the Americans was so great that it was impossible to restrain them, nor did barbed wire lines check their advance. This impetuosity caused the death of hundreds who might have escaped, but it covered American arms with the glory of a great victory, notwithstanding it was dearly purchased. The Spanish were driven into their intrenchments, where, well protected and armed with Mauser rifles firing smokeless powder, they slaughtered our advancing and unprotected troops. Any soldiers less brave than wounded tigers at bay would have broken in panic under such withering fire, but the desperation of their situation lent fresh courage to the Americans, who, after eight hours spent in a very hell of battle, drove the Spaniards from their intrenchments and sent them flying in rout into the city behind their strongest fortifications. The loss in this fiery engagement upon the American side was 500 killed and 1,300 wounded, which was probably exceeded

on the Spanish side, though no reports were given by the Spaniards.

The capture of El Caney, Siboney and other strong outposts, left the Spaniards in a hopeless condition, for this permitted of such a complete investment that supplies were shut off entirely from Santiago, and also afforded the Americans opportunity to mount heavy siege guns, throw up breastworks, and otherwise to prepare a siege that is certain to compel a surrender of the city, through starvation if not by assault. The only hope now left the defenders of Santiago was in Cervera's fleet, and Linares, the commander, who was wounded in the arm at El Caney, was vain enough to believe it possible to break the cordon of warships outside and bring succor to the besieged. The disability of Linares had caused the command of the Spanish forces to devolve upon General Toral, a brave man, but a wise one as well, who, realizing the hopelessness of his position, favored a conditional surrender of Santiago as the means of averting a greater calamity to the Spanish arms. To this proposal Linares vigorously objected, and his conclusion to continue the defense, which was also in pursuance of advices from Blanco, and from Madrid, caused the death of hundreds and property loss of millions.

Report which was first made that Cervera's fleet had taken refuge in Santiago harbor, was received with openly expressed doubts, nor did subsequent confirmation suffice to wholly allay public suspicions. Discovery of his position within the harbor was made May 19, by Commodore Schley, who had been ordered to proceed to Santiago with his flying squadron either to hold the enemy's fleet or find and destroy it. Sampson was off the coast of Cuba with a powerful fleet of warships also watching for Cervera, but it was Schley's fortune to first confirm the report that the

enemy's fleet was anchored in Santiago harbor. This information brought the combined squadrons of Schley and Sampson before Santiago June 11, where the waiting and watching was begun, upon the results of which the duration of the war was believed to rest. Cervera's fleet consisted of the fast and heavily armored cruisers *Infanta Maria Teresa* (flagship), *Viscaya*, *Almirante Oquendo*, *Cristobal Colon*, *Reina Mercedes* and the torpedo-boat destroyers *Furor* and *Pluton*. Opposed to this fleet, stretched in a line twenty miles long in front of Santiago and the coast adjacent, but afraid to enter the harbor because of the narrow channel planted thickly with mines and protected by heavy shore batteries, was the flower of the American navy, comprising the *New York* (Sampson's flagship), *Brooklyn* (Schley's flagship), the *Indiana*, *Iowa*, *Oregon*, *Texas*, *Massachusetts* and a dozen smaller vessels, among which was the torpedo-boat destroyer *Gloucester* which before the war was J. Pierpont Morgan's yacht *Corsair*. This small vessel was commanded by Richard Wainwright, who held the position of executive officer of the *Maine* at the time of her destruction, whose bravery and skill were so well proven on the ever memorable July 3, that his name has been enrolled in the list of heroes of the American Navy.

The events which occurred during the interval of waiting before the mouth of Santiago harbor may be briefly stated as follows: Directly after the landing of Shafter at Daiquiri, June 22, a junction was formed with the Cuban General Garcia who, with 5,000 men, had been hovering on the north and west sides of Santiago, harassing the enemy and seriously interrupting the sources of supplies. On June 23 the double-turreted monitor *Monadock* sailed for Manila, accompanied by the collier *Nero* and on the same day report was received that Camara, with what was

known as the Cadiz fleet, had started for the Philippines with the boastful intent of destroying Dewey's squadron and recapturing Manila. On June 23 also the battleship *Texas* attacked Socapa battery, at the mouth of Santiago harbor, and did some damage to the fortifications, but not without sustaining considerable injury herself, for she was struck near her stern by an eight-inch Hontoria shell that pierced her armor and burst in the center of the berth-deck killing one man and badly wounding six others. The Rough Riders were a unique organization in military history, but one that served the best of uses. Theodore Roosevelt, who at the time was assistant secretary of the navy conceived the idea of enlisting a regiment of hardy plainsmen, with whom he had been much associated while ranching and hunting in the far west. He knew these men as superb horsemen, dare-devils in courage, splendid rifle shots, and always ready for a desperate enterprise. A regiment of such men he believed would prove more effective than an equal number of regular soldiers. Receiving permission to recruit a thousand men Roosevelt went about the task at once, but soon found himself overwhelmed with applications, which were not all from cowboys, as he had originally intended, for a number of the most prominent club men and sons of the richest men in New York City eagerly sought the privilege to enlist. A number of these were received and to their credit it must be said they accepted cheerfully all the hardships of actual service, and acquitted themselves with gallantry.

When the requirement was filled the colonelcy was offered to Roosevelt, but he refused the honor in order that the place might be given to Leonard Wood, and accepted the office of lieutenant-colonel himself, but afterwards, upon the promotion of Wood, he was advanced to Colonel. On June 24 the Rough Riders, under Colonels Wood and

Roosevelt, were ambushed at Las Guasimas about eight miles from Santiago and the most heroic struggle of the war resulted. Though largely outnumbered by the enemy, which had the further advantage of making the attack without warning and from ambush, the Rough Riders charged the Spaniards and by unexampled courage drove them back upon the city, leaving forty of their dead upon the field, and abandoning a well fortified block-house, which the Rough Riders promptly occupied. The American loss was ten killed and fifty wounded. On June 26 the American troops engaged the Spaniards at Sevilla, which, after a hot engagement lasting two hours, resulted in driving the enemy six miles back upon Santiago, and the advancement of our position to within four miles of the city, where the Americans intrenched themselves and waited the coming of siege guns that were being brought from Daiquiri.

It was on Sunday, May 1, that Dewey fought and destroyed the Spanish fleet in Manila Bay. The whole world was still sounding his praise and declaring his was a feat so remarkable that in no probability would the like occur again. Some there were who regarded his accomplishment, so complete and without the loss of a single man, as being little short of a miracle. Yet astounding as was the results of that great sea-fight, fate decreed that it should be practically repeated before Santiago, and the god of battles decreed, too, that Sunday should be the day of performance.

There had been heavy fighting before Santiago at El Caney and San Juan, on July 1 and 2, in which the Spanish had been driven from their intrenchments and compelled to take refuge within the town. Provisions were becoming so scarce that starvation was threatened; the water supply of the city had been shut off; General Linares was on a bed of suffering with a shattered arm, and the Spaniards were almost exhausted. Prando was hastening to the relief of

the beleaguered city, but his advance was so harassed by Garcia's Cubans that the 8,000 men with which he started were reduced to less than 6,000, and when these at length broke through the Cuban lines and gained Santiago, they were without supplies and rather increased than relieved the gravity of the Spanish situation. The order had twice been given to Cervera to make an attempt to escape from the harbor, and on Sunday morning, July 3, he prepared to execute the desperate undertaking, his only hope of success being in the fortunes of war, and in surprising the blockading squadron which might not be in readiness to engage him.

CHAPTER IX.

THE battle of Santiago, which was fought between the American troops and the Spaniards on Friday, July 1, reflected credit upon both armies—upon the Americans because they stormed trenches that should have been impregnable, and upon the Spaniards because, with inferior number, they made a stubborn and desperate resistance, proving their boast that when engaged with an army fighting after the European fashion they would render a good account of themselves. That they showed themselves to be a match for American soldiers is not to be admitted for a moment, however. A generous foe can say no more of them than that they knew how to die. General Hawkins, being asked after the battle whether American troops could be driven from such intrenchments as those in which the Spaniards fought, answered with an emphatic “No!”

Between Siboney on the coast, the base of operations, and Santiago, lay, a little to the north of a line drawn between the two, the fortified village of Caney. It was judged necessary to reduce this place lest the enemy should threaten our rear. The nominal garrison of Caney was 800. General Shafter sent Lawton's division, the Second, of 6,000 men, against Caney, while Kent's, the First, and Wheeler's cavalry division were to proceed up the valley road and attack San Juan Hill, on which were the main land defenses of Santiago. Lawton's division, having reduced Caney, was to co-operate with Kent and Wheeler at San Juan. It was believed that Caney would soon fall before a brisk assault, but it stood off Lawton's division, assisted by Capron's

battery of four guns, all day. Caney may be dismissed for the present while a description of the movement on San Juan is attempted.

The battle in this part of the field was opened by Captain Grimes' battery, which was posted on a hill above El Pozo ranch house, a dismantled building with a tiled roof and a rusted bell. General Joseph Wheeler's cavalry division, consisting of the Third, Sixth and Ninth, under General Samuel S. Sumner, and the First, Tenth and First Volunteers (Rough Riders), under Colonel Leonard Wood, General Young being disabled by illness, was distributed through the woods on the hill and outside the range of the enemy's expected fire, as well as could be judged. The morning was hot with a tropical intensity, the cocoanut palms of the valley being wreathed in vapors, while the sky was copper blue. At twenty minutes to seven, "Aim! Fire!" said Captain Grimes, in tones clear and firm. Grimes has the air and spectacles of a college professor, and his face is severe but kindly. "Bang!" went the black tube, and everybody on the hill strained his eyesight at the house on San Juan, which was really a farmhouse and not a blockhouse, to see what damage would be done. Everybody was disappointed, including Captain Grimes, who tried again, with the same result. Several shots were fired before some one looking through a field glass announced that a hole had been knocked through the roof of the house. As a matter of fact, our battery was throwing solid shot and shrapnel on the crest of the hill to find the enemy, and not to demolish the innocent-looking farm building on top of it.

In the bright sunshine the exercises of our guns were spectacular and exhilarating. War might be hell to the other fellows, but it was pleasant enough to our men and worth a good price for a front seat. Occasionally the boom of Capron's guns came to the ear from the right, and smoke

rose to mark his position. In the middle valley was the spacious Ducrot house, looking cool and stately with its guardian palms. Bounding the valley paradise on the north, abruptly rose to a great height a verdant range of peaks. Scanning the floor of the valley sailed the buzzard waiting for the carnage. Grimes' guns had boomed ten times, and there was a pleased and interested look in every eye and a smile on many lips, when there came a muffled report from San Juan, and soon a peculiar singing, long-drawn-out hiss cut the air and the spectators forgot the marksmanship of Grimes' guns in a hasty hunt for cover. The Spaniards were replying with shrapnel from a 5-inch gun. Their shell came over the brow of the hill and burst into a hundred fragments like a rocket. It was a good line shot, but high. Officers hurried their men to right and left and made them lie down in the bushes. Nobody ever learns to listen to the music of shrapnel with longing, for the thought of being torn to pieces is abiding. But Grimes' voice was as clarion-like as ever, and it was comforting to hear the little man say "Aim! Fire!" as steady as a clock.

Meanwhile, amid the din of guns and the cruel hiss of Spanish shells, the dog mascots of the regiments ran about in the tall grass and pushed aside the bushes with wagging tail and sparkling eye, while the birds in their leafy bowers sang on. Prostrate men in the brush, to whom the passing of the hissing shell was a procession of warnings of sudden death, tried to get interested in the slipping of lizards up and down decayed stumps, but afterward they could not remember the color of the lizards. Suddenly the Spanish fire ceased, but Grimes continued to say "Aim! Fire!" and it was remarkable how indifferent everybody was to the effect of American shells on Spanish nerves.

Our guns fired ten rounds after the Spaniards stopped, and it was said that we had knocked one of their pieces off

its carriage. Two of our artillerymen had been killed and three sergeants and a corporal of the battery wounded. Several troopers of the Rough Riders had been hit, and a corporal of the Third Cavalry had a bad leg wound. In a dip under the hill twelve Cubans had been torn by the shrapnel.

Strung out on the valley road to the right and east of El Pozo, Kent's division was lying and awaiting the signal to advance. Two reasons have been suggested for the cessation of firing by our battery. One is that we could not afford to draw the Spanish fire in the direction of advancing infantry, and the other that the Spaniards, having our range perfectly, were knocking over too many of our gunners. The first reason is sufficient. Smokeless powder was used by the Spaniards, and we had no means of knowing whether they had sustained any damage. Wheeler's dismounted cavalrymen were ordered off the hill and to the front, and Kent's infantry to support them. His division was brigaded as follows: Sixth, Sixteenth and Seventy-first (New York Volunteers), General Hawkins; Second, Tenth, and Twenty-first, Colonel Pearson; Ninth, Thirteenth and Twenty-fourth, Colonel Wikoff.

As our men advanced they were met by cross-fires poured from wooden eminences on both flanks, which could not be seen from the road or even by the skirmish lines. Every little mound, every inch of country was known to the enemy. They knew where our troops must be deploying and where a volley fired by them would strike with effect. When the Americans had to cross a clearing it seemed as if the Spanish rear was concentrating all its fire upon our marching and dodging men. Credit must therefore be given the Spaniards for knowing and availing themselves of what may be termed the casualty value of the country through which their foe was advancing.

The Americans, on the other hand, were in a continuous ambush while pushing on toward San Juan. Where the volleys came from and why the bullets reached them in such showers they could not realize, and do not know to this day. It was like being shot at in the dark and yet seeing men falling like tenpins. Is it remarkable that in such a deadly labyrinth commands got mixed up, orders went astray, and one regiment found itself ahead of another; that at El Pozo had been in the van?

The division had been feeling its way along for two hours when the word was passed along to halt, and there seems to be an impression that it was the intention to go into camp on the plain below San Juan and within range of the Spanish batteries and even of the trenches. There were really only two things to do, to retire or to storm the trenches. A retreat would have demoralized the army and postponed the taking of Santiago indefinitely. An advance was ordered again in a short time and the troops went doggedly on, driving the Spaniards back and into their trenches. At last the foot of San Juan was reached and the emergency developed the indispensable hero. He was Brigadier-General Hawkins, a tall, well-knit old man, with white mustache and pointed, short beard. With him were the Sixth and Sixteenth Infantry. The other regiment of his brigade, the Seventy-first New York Volunteers, was not yet up. This fine old soldier rode out in front of his regulars and, drawing his sword, pointed to the hill and called upon them in ringing tones to follow him.

Then he turned and set his face to the enemy, who had marked him for slaughter and were volleying viciously. The Sixth and Sixteenth dashed forward with a cheer in which the old rebel yell could be distinguished. Withering was the fire on them, and men reeled and dropped down in their tracks. There was straggling, as there always is in

a charge up a slope, but the body of men moved on and up and would not be denied. Volley after volley was blazed at them until the trenches yawned and the Spaniards in them could be individually seen. Our men fired as they ran forward—fired at Spanish faces, peering and strained. In another moment it was all over, for the enemy scrambled out of the trenches and ran without a look behind. Gallant old General Hawkins did not get a scratch, but his losses were heavy. Lieutenant Garry Ord, son of the distinguished general of that name, and a lieutenant of the Sixth, had been killed by a wounded Spaniard after he had bidden his men to spare the fellow, and Lieutenant Michie of the same regiment had fallen too. Before the end of the day the Sixth lost one hundred in killed and wounded and the casualties of the Sixteenth were also serious. To General Hawkins belongs the honor of taking the key of the position and the heart out of the Spaniards.

The fortunes of the Signal Corps' war balloon must here be touched on. Early in the day it was sent up with Colonel George M. Derby and Major J. H. Maxfield in the car, and it kept pace with the advance of the division, to the embarrassment and indignation of the men, who say that it indicated their line of march and drew the Spanish fire. The balloon, at any rate, soon became a target for the enemy's gunners, riflemen and sharpshooters, and bullets and shrapnel flew thick around it. Twenty times it was pierced, and the occupants gave themselves up for lost. The great bag was brought down, however, to the bed of the creek, and there abandoned for the time. Later a detail of twenty men was sent to drag it from the water, but they had to retire under heavy fire. In the end the remains of it were saved.

At 3.50 occurred the second thrilling episode of the day. Under the brow of the main hill a council of war had been

held, a further advance being the subject of it. The majority opinion seemed to be that it would cause too great a loss of life, and was not to be thought of. Colonel Theodore Roosevelt, of the First Volunteer Cavalry (Rough Riders), argued that the only way to take the top of the hill, which was marked by the two houses previously mentioned, was to rush it. "I will lead the way if you will let me," he said. There was no answer, and, judging that silence gave consent, Roosevelt sprang to the front and shouted to those immediately near to follow him. There is some conflict of opinion as to who fell in behind in that reckless charge up the hill. Colonel Roosevelt believes that his command alone answered his call, but others say that two companies of the Seventy-first and a company of the Twenty-fourth (colored) also ran for the summit. On the way Colonel Roosevelt shot down a Spaniard in his path. There is no disposition to detract from the achievement of the Rough Riders, but the evidence is that others joined them in the charge. Captain Paget, of the British Navy, who saw it through his glasses from El Pozo hill, was amazed and delighted, and his tribute to the intrepidity of the American soldier could not have been warmer than it was. He voiced the opinion of every English correspondent on the field. Phil Robinson vied with Paget in his admiration. Before the mad rush of Roosevelt and his men the Spaniards fell back to the next hill. There they hung. Roosevelt, delirious with the excitement of battle, called for another charge. Five men responded and three of them were at once shot down. He ran back and said in his nervous way: "I didn't think you would refuse to follow where I led." "We'll follow you," was the shout, they swarmed along after him and the hill was taken.

Soon after four o'clock Best's battery was withdrawn,

and it rumbled into a place of safety. The Spanish fire had been too hot for it. All the afternoon the opposing lines had been volleying at each other without a moment's cessation. Such unintermittent firing had seldom, if ever, been heard. It was terrific, and the memory of it will always remain with those whose ears ached with it. Imagine an exploding string of giant fire crackers miles and miles long, and you get some idea of it. At 4.45 the banging, crackling and sputtering ceased, and a stillness fell on the valley which was like the end of all things.

Before reverting to the work laid out for Lawton's division on the right it should be mentioned that Grimes' battery on El Pozo hill and the Spanish guns back of San Juan had a second duel, but a briefer one than the first. Neither battery did much damage.

Lawton's orders were to take Caney, a small town defended by a stone fort and a blockhouse on a hill above it. After reducing the place he was to march on Santiago. It is no secret that General Lawton expected to dispose of Caney at one blow. General Chaffee, an officer who had been in a way a rival of Lawton, was to have the honor of capturing Caney, and Lawton was to get his share of the laurels in an attack on Santiago. He may have indulged the hope of reaching the Spanish defenses ahead of Kent and driving the enemy back on the city. However that may be, both Lawton and Chaffee thought Caney would be a rotten nut to crack. The start was made at dawn, and report says the march was made as rapidly and quickly as possible to prevent a hasty exit of the Spaniards from Caney, for there would have been no glory in capturing an evacuated town. The Spaniards, as it turned out, had no notion of running away. Estimates differ as to how many Spaniards there were in the place. The enemy says 600, the Cubans 1,000, and American army officers

put the garrison at 1,500 to 2,000. Whatever the number, it fought to the death for nine hours and held Lawton at a time when he might have been useful before Santiago. The Spaniards did not come out to give us battle; they fought mainly in trenches surrounding the fort and blockhouse and in those buildings. From a hill 2,375 yards from the stone fort Captain Capron, father of the young officer of the Rough Riders who was killed at Guasimas, opened the attack with a shell fired at 6.35 A.M. at a body of Spaniards who were falling back to the trenches. One of his early shots went through the roof of the stone fort. The infantry was thus distributed: Chaffee's brigade of the Seventh, Twelfth and Seventeenth Regiments advanced on Caney from the east. Colonel Miles' brigade of the First, Fourth and Twenty-fifth was to attack from the south, and Ludlow's, consisting of the Second Massachusetts' Volunteers and the Eighth, and Twenty-second Regulars, was sent round to make an approach from the southwest. General Chaffee rode up and down behind his firing line encouraging his men. "Now, boys, do something for your country to-day," he frequently said. Chaffee did not think the Spaniards would hold out very long. Ludlow's men made slow but steady progress through a tract of woods, running from bush to bush and shooting at a Spaniard wherever they could see one.

The Second Massachusetts Volunteers of this command behaved splendidly, exposing themselves freely and displaying fine marksmanship. Miles' brigade had to make up a good deal of ground to get well into the fight, but it came up in time to take its share of the assault, when the Second Massachusetts and the Twenty-second Regulars were lying in the road for a breathing spell. The Fourth and Twenty-fifth of Miles' brigade were fairly fresh, and they moved up on the blockhouse northwest of the town.

Meanwhile the Spaniards, shooting from their trenches and from loop-holes, kept up a galling fire upon our men wherever they showed. They fired a tremendous amount of ammunition, but without taking very good aim. They seemed to think that the Americans could be driven back by a continuous fusillade, whether they suffered much damage or not. Company G and half of Company C of the Twenty-fifth Infantry (colored), led by Lieutenant Moss of bicycle fame, had the honor of storming and taking, in two rushes, the blockhouse. Many Spaniards in it were killed, and the survivors made a rush for the stone fort in Caney under a hot fire. A company of the Twelfth Infantry, was in the advance and ran up and took possession of the stone fort after Capron's shells had made a wreck of it and all but three of its defenders had been killed. These, bespattered with blood and exhausted from the tremendous strain of their defense, were glad to surrender. The Spanish flag was hauled down, and the American colors went up and floated out bravely.

During July 1, Brigadier-General Duffield, in command of the Thirty-third Michigan Volunteers, a battalion of the Thirty-fourth Michigan, and about 2,000 Cubans, had not been idle. His orders were to move along the little railroad on the coast and make a feint on Aguadores, a fortified town at the mouth of the San Juan River, two miles and a half from Morro Castle. At Aguadores was a garrison of 4,000 Spanish troops, and Duffield, with the aid of the *New York* and the little *Suwanee* was to engage them and prevent the dispatch of any reinforcements to the Spanish Army before Santiago. Our war vessels bombarded the Aguadores fort during the morning, but did little damage to it beyond knocking down the flagpole. The Spaniards selected Duffield's advancing force as their target. The first shell fired by them killed seventeen

Cubans on the hill above the railroad. Another shot mowed down two files of fours in the Thirty-third Michigan, killing two men and wounding the others. A third shell burst in the Cuban contingent and killed six more. Duffield fired several volleys into the fort and the engagement ended there, the Spaniards making no effort to cooperate with the intrenched army on San Juan.

The Cubans with Kent did no fighting, or perhaps it would be correct to say they had no fighting to do. Lawton was to have had the assistance of several thousand Cubans, but the solemn truth is they kept well out of danger and fired all their ammunition harmlessly into the air, afterward sending for more.

On the night after the fierce fighting on San Juan our soldiers dug trenches on the ridges they had captured, working without food or rest until dawn, when the Spaniards were observed to be in an inner line of intrenchments about 600 yards nearer Santiago, which was a mile and a quarter distant from the indomitable fringe of Americans. Generals Wheeler and Kent had pitched their headquarters tents in a hollow under the ridge, where they could give orders and transact business without being interrupted by flying bullets. But even in that apparently secure place a shot from a sharpshooter in the woods on the plain was sometimes heard some time after the battle had ceased.

CHAPTER X.

THE story of the desperate flight of the Spanish squadron from the harbor of Santiago is unique in the history of naval warfare. Never before did such a powerful aggregation of ships seek safety by flight alone. Never was such a fleet wholly annihilated in a single battle. Never was so great a victory won in so short a time. Never did a triumphant force conquer such an enemy with losses so small. Never was there such a dramatic scene at sea as that mighty race for life for fifty miles down the Cuban coast.

On Sunday morning, July 3, the battleships *Texas*, *Iowa* and *Oregon* and the big armored cruiser *Brooklyn* were drifting with the tide off the mouth of the harbor of Santiago de Cuba. Near by were the converted yachts *Gloucester* and *Hist*, while off to the east lay the battleship *Indiana*, and away on the coast, but still just visible, was the flagship *New York*, where she had gone to give Admiral Sampson a chance for a conference with General Shafter.

An armistice had been declared between the fighting forces on shore pending the removal of non-combatants from the beleaguered city. The white-starred nicked-out blue flag of Commodore Schley floating from the masthead of the *Brooklyn* proclaimed him senior officer for the time.

So far as any one afloat could see, there was no life about the oft-battered Morro, the Socapa or the other fortifications save as the blood and gold ensign of Spain waved in the gentle breeze. It was to be a day of ease for the

sailors and soldiers so far as any one could foresee. On the ships, at any rate, after Jack had his breakfast and had dressed for and endured the regular Sunday morning inspection, very little was to be done, and a majority of each crew was free to stretch out for a snooze or rig a mess table and get out paper and ink for a letter home.

As a matter of fact, not a few were doing just those things on all the ships after the bo's'ns' mates had piped down from inspection, when, at 9.30 o'clock precisely, Lieutenant Mark L. Bristol, watch officer of the *Texas*, and the lookout on the *Iowa* saw a black curl of coal smoke rising from behind the cape on the westerly side of the harbor entrance, Socapa. There was no mistaking the meaning of that smoke, and while the lookout on the *Iowa* bawled to Lieutenant Louis S. Van Duser announcing the smoke, Lieutenant Bristol, of the *Texas*, sprang to the signal board on the bridge of his ship and set the clattering electric gongs calling all hands to clear ship for action. With equal promptness the crew of the *Iowa* heard the same call, while her signal officers hurriedly sent a fluttering string of colored flags to the yard-arm, announcing to all the squadron that a Spanish ship was coming out of the harbor.

But while the gongs were yet ringing the Spanish ship herself came plowing around Socapa Point, turning the sluggish water into a splashing roll on either bow, and then headed along shore toward the west, so that every officer on the decks of the Yankee ships recognized her as the powerful *Almirante Oquendo*, while those with good glasses saw the tiny signal at the masthead which told that Admiral Cervera was on board. Another big cruiser was following her close, the *Cristobal Colon*, while no more than a cable's length apart astern appeared in swift succession the *Vizcaya* and the *Infanta Maria Teresa*.

The signal flags had by this time reached the yard-arm of the *Iowa's* mast, but they were no longer needed, for the decks of the whole Yankee squadron were vibrating to the tread of men running to quarters, man shouting to man that "the Spaniards are coming at last." The click of opening breech-locks, and the whirl of electric elevators hoisting armor-piercing projectiles to the big guns, followed hard on the shouts of the hurrying crews.

Never in their lives had these sailors known such a moment as that, for though they had been under fire, though some had shelled the enemy in the Morro there, and some had seen another squadron drift under the Morro of San Juan, to wake the sleepers there with the tornado roar of mighty shells, here, for the first time, they were to face an armed and armored enemy afloat, and the hope that for weeks had nerved them was to be gratified at last.

The enemy was first seen at 9.30 A.M., and at 9.32 the men at the American batteries were standing erect and silent beside their loaded guns, waiting for the order to commence firing, and watching out of the corners of their eyes the boys who were still sprinkling the decks with sand that no one's foot might slip when blood began to flow across the planks.

But though silence prevailed among the guns, down in the sealed stoke-hole the click and ring of the shovels that sprayed the coal over the glowing grate-bars, the song of the fans that raised the air pressure, and the throb of pump and engine made music for the whole crew, for the steam gauges were climbing, and the engineers were standing by wide-open throttles as the ships were driven straight at the enemy.

For, as it happened, the *Texas* had been lying directly off the harbor, and a little more than two miles away, the *Iowa* was but a few lengths further out, and to the west-

ward, while Captain Jack Philip, of the one, and "Fighting Bob" Evans, of the other, were both on deck when the cry was raised announcing the enemy. Hastening to their bridges, they headed away at once for the Spaniards, while the *Oregon* and the *Brooklyn* went flying to westward to intercept the leader. The mightiest race known to the history of the world, and the most thrilling, was now begun.

They were all away in less time than it has taken the reader to get thus far in the story, and in much less time still—indeed, before the gongs in the engine-rooms of the Yankee ships had ceased to vibrate—under the imperative order of "Ahead—full speed!" the *Almirante Oquendo*, fugitive as she was, had opened the battle. With impetuous haste, and while yet more than two miles away, the Spaniard pointed one of his 11-inch Hontoria rifles in the direction of the *Texas* and pulled the lanyard. The shell came shrieking out to sea, but to sea only. Instantly the great guns of the Morro, 180 feet above the water, and those of the Socapa battery, lying higher still, with all the batteries beneath those two, began to belch and roar as their crews strove with frantic energy to aid the flying squadron. It was a fearsome task to take ships of any kind under a fire like that, for one plunging shot might sink the best, but the Yankee seamen did not know what fear was and held their course with growing speed. Still it was not in human nature to go on in silence, and within two minutes after the Spaniards began firing, the guns in the forward turret of the *Texas*, and in the *Iowa* as well, opened in reply.

Just how far apart the opposing ships were at the first fire of the Americans has not been told as yet, but one may easily calculate it. For as the *Almirante Oquendo* rounded Socapa Point, bound out, the *Texas* was but

two and a quarter miles away. The *Oquendo* as she appeared, was heading for the southeast because of shoal water off the point, and when she had rounded it and turned westward, she was still heading, because of the trend of the land, more to the south than to the west—she was probably steering southwest by south. And all this is to say that she was heading, for the time being, directly toward the coming Yankee squadron, with the three behind her following at full speed, while the Yankees were bending every energy to meet them.

Now, it was about three minutes from the appearance of the first Spaniard to the firing of the first American gun, and during that time the Spaniards were traveling at a rate not less than sixteen knots per hour, for they came with boilers at the highest pressure, while the Americans were surely covering twelve knots, if not fifteen, after allowing for the low pressure at the start. In these three minutes the distance between the squadrons was lessened by at least a mile—the range was not more than 2,000 yards, if it was so much. But while 2,000 yards is the range (about one and one-sixth miles) selected for great-gun target practice, it will never do for an eager fight, and as the trend of the land still headed the Spaniards off to southward the battleships were able to reduce the range to 1,500 yards before they were obliged to head a course parallel with the Spaniards.

Meantime the *Oregon* and the *Brooklyn* as they were stretching away toward the coast, had opened fire also, and then the last of the big Spaniards, the *Infanta Maria Teresa* having rounded the point, the magnificent spectacle of a squadron battle on the open sea—of a battle between four of the best of modern armed cruisers on the Spanish side against three battleships and an armed cruiser on our side—was spread out to view.

On our side the *Brooklyn* led, with the *Oregon*, the *Iowa* and the *Texas* following in the order named, while the *Indiana* came towering along away to the east, though too far for an immediate part in the fight. But as the Spaniards got headed fairly down the coast the *Cristobal Colon* shot ahead, leaving the *Almirante Oquendo*, the *Vizcaya* and *Infanta Maria Theresa* to struggle after as best they might. And their best was the worst struggle the world ever saw, for it was a struggle to get out of range while firing with hysterical vehemence their unaimed guns.

The first shot from the American ships was fired at 9.33 o'clock. Because the range-finder was wrong or because the gentle swing of the sea lowered the ship's bow at the moment of firing, the shot fell short, and a second in like fashion dropped into the sea. At that the gunner said things to himself under his breath (it was in the forward turret of the *Iowa*) and tried once more. For a moment after it the cloud of gun-smoke shrouded the turret, but as that thinned away the eager crew saw the 12-inch shell strike into the hull of the *Infanta Maria Teresa*. Instantly it exploded with tremendous effect. Flame and smoke belched from the hole the shell had made, and puffed from port and hatch. And then in the wake of the driven blast rolled up a volume of flame-streaked smoke that showed the woodwork had taken fire and was burning fiercely all over the afterpart of the stricken ship. The yell that rose from the Yankee throats at that sight swelled to a roar of triumph a moment later, for as he saw that smoke the captain of the *Tercsa* threw her helm over to port and headed her for the rocky beach. The one shell had given a mortal wound.

And then came Wainwright, of the *Maine*—Lieutenant-Commander Richard Wainwright, who for weeks conducted the weary search for the dead bodies of ship-

mates on the wreck in the harbor of Havana. He was captain of the *Gloucester*, that was once known as the yacht *Corsair*. A swift and beautiful craft she, but only armed with lean six-pounders.

As a shoal-draught lookout she had drifted to and fro off the harbor watching for gunboats. But what does the reader suppose she was to do when the huge armored cruisers appeared ?

“Get out of range,” says prudence, but—“Ahead, full speed !” said Wainwright.

And fortune once more favored the brave, for in the wake of the mighty *Maria Teresa* came Spain's two big torpedo-boats, called destroyers, because of their size—the *Pluton* and the *Furor*. Either was more than a match for the *Gloucester* for one carried two 12-pounders and the other two 14-pounders, besides the 6-pounders that both carried. Moreover, both overmatched the speed of the *Gloucester* by at least ten knots per hour. But both had thin plated sides. The shells of the *Gloucester* could pierce them, and at them went Wainwright, with the memory of that night in Havana uppermost in his mind.

The two boats—even the whole Spanish fleet—was still within easy range of the Spanish forts, and to reach his choice of enemies the *Gloucester* was obliged to risk, not only the land fire, but that of the *Vizcaya* and the *Teresa*. Nevertheless, as the torpedo-boats steered toward the *Brooklyn*, evidently bound to torpedo her, Wainwright headed them off, and they never got beyond the range of the forts. The shots they threw at him outweighed his three to one, but theirs flew wild and his struck-home.

The *Texas* and the *Iowa* both turned their smaller guns on the little Spaniards. It is asserted, but has not been verified, that a 12-inch shot from the *Iowa* knocked the bow from one of the boats. Then, too, came the *Hist* to

join in, while seven miles away to the east the *New York* could be seen whooping on, and the *Indiana* was already within range. The destroyers were fairly mobbed, and yet, because all these attacking ships were shrouded in smoke, torpedo-throwers never had, and never can have, a better chance for aggression in open day.

As it was, the chance, however small or large, was thrown away by these two captains. As they approached the fleet they spurted flames from exactly half a dozen guns each, but one by one these were silenced, while the holes in their sides increased more rapidly, and with more deadly significance, than the pits on the faces of small-pox patients. Spanish flesh and blood could not stand that. The day of the destroyers was done. As the big *Maria Teresa* turned toward the shore, these two destroyers, like stricken wild fowl, fled fluttering and splashing in the same direction. The race for freedom which all had made became a terror-stricken race for life. It was a race which the big ships so far won, but death shrouded in the two destroyers, and they foundered as they fled.

The dread that for six weeks had nightly haunted the American seamen—the dread of a stealthy enemy that might sneak unaware within torpedo range, and with one shot sink the most powerful of battleships—was gone.

But while the *Infanta Maria Teresa* was on fire and running for the beach her crew were still working their guns, and the big *Viscaya* was handy by, to double the storm of projectiles she was hurling at the *Iowa* and the *Texas*.

It was not that the *Viscaya's* crew were manfully striving to protect the *Teresa*; they were making the snarling, clawing fight of a lifetime to escape the relentless Yankees that were closing upon them. For both the *Texas* and the *Iowa* had the range, and it was only when the smoke of their own guns blinded them that their fire was withheld or

a shot went astray. Each ship, in spite of speed, was as a towering cloud of white smoke—a cloud from which a gray bow constantly protruded, and through which the outline of superstructures appeared dimly at times, only to be instantly obscured again by the booming of the guns from greater and lesser turrets. It was when this cloud thinned away that the shot struck home. There was a blast that no ship and no Spaniard could face and live.

The *Iowa* and the *Texas* had headed off both the *Viscaya* and *Infanta Maria Teresa*, while the *Indiana* was coming with tremendous speed to join. And then came the finishing stroke. A 12-inch shell from the *Texas* went crashing into the stoke-hole, and the *Viscaya*—the ship whose beauty and power once thrilled the hearts of New Yorkers with mingled pleasure and fear, was mortally wounded. Hope was gone, and with helm apart she headed away for the beach as her consort had done.

For a brief interval—an interval that is almost incredibly brief—there had been a show of fighting, but now it was a stern chase that could last for little more than seconds. With a tremendous shock each flying ship struck on the rocks. For a moment the *Texas* tarried there to let the smoke clear and so see accurately the condition of the enemy, but while her gunners were taking aim for a final broadside a half-naked quartermaster on the *Viscaya*, with clawing hands on the halyards, hauled down the fever-hued ensign from her peak and hoisted the white flag instead.

“Cease firing!” commanded Captain Jack Philip, of the *Texas*, and then rang to go ahead full speed again.

So far as the *Viscaya* and the *Infanta Maria Teresa* were concerned, the battle—for that matter the war—was ended. Huge columns of black smoke, edged with red flame, rolled from every port and shot hole on the *Viscaya* as from the *Teresa*. They were both furnaces of glowing

fire. Though they had come from the harbor for certain battle, not a wooden bulkhead nor a partition in the quarters either of officers or men had been taken out, nor had trunks and chests been sent ashore. Neither had the wooden decks nor any other wooden fixtures been prepared to resist fire. Apparently the crew had not even wet down the decks. So the bursting shells from the Yankee ships not only swept the Spanish crews from their guns, but the flames licked over the splintered bulkheads and added the torture of fire to the bleeding wounds of the stricken men. In a minute the survivors of both Spanish crews were taking to such boats as remained, or were leaping wildly into the water in the hope (that was often vain) of swimming ashore. The sharks of the Cuban coast were sated for once with human flesh.

But the *Texas* tarried at this gruesome scene only for a moment. They wished only to make sure the two Spaniards were really out of the fight, and when they saw the *Iowa* was going to stand by both, away they went to join the race between the *Brooklyn* and the *Oregon* on our side and the *Cristobal Colon* and the *Almirante Oquendo* on the other. In spite of the original superior speed on the part of the Spaniards, and in spite of the delay on the part of the *Texas*, the Spaniards were not yet wholly out of range, though the *Cristobal Colon* was reaching away at a speed that gave the Spanish shore forces hope.

Under battened hatches the Yankee firemen, stripped to their trousers, plied their shovels and raised the steam gauges higher. The Yankee ships were grass-grown and barnacled, but now they were driven as never before since their trial trips. The Spaniards had called us pigs, but Nemesis had turned us into spear-armed hunters in chase of game that neither tusks nor legs could save. For while the *Colon* was showing a speed that was the equal at

least of our own *Brooklyn*, long-headed Commodore Schley saw that she was hugging the coast, although a point of land loomed in the distance to cut her off or drive her out to sea.

Instead of striving to close in on the Spaniards, Schley headed straight for that point—took the shortest cut for it, so to speak, and in that way drew steadily ahead of the *Colon*, leaving to the *Oregon* and the *Texas* the task of holding the Spaniards from turning out across the *Brooklyn's* stern. It was a splendid piece of strategy, well worthy of the gallant officer, and it won.

The task of the battleships was well within their powers. It is not without reason that both the *Oregon* and the *Texas* are the pride of the nation as well as of their crews. The *Oregon* and the *Brooklyn* had hurled a relentless fire at the flying Spaniards, and it had told on the *Almirante Oquendo* with increasing effect. For the *Oregon* was fair on the *Oquendo's* beam, and there was not enough armor on any Spanish ship to stop the massive 13-inch projectiles the ship from the Pacific was driving into her with unerring aim.

At ten o'clock sharp the *Oquendo* was apparently still fore, and fit, but within five minutes she wavered and lagged, and a little later, flagship though she was, she put her helm to port, as her consorts had done, and fled for life to the beach.

The *Texas* was coming with unflagging speed astern, and off to the east could be seen the flagship of Admiral Sampson racing as never before to get a shot in at the finish. An auxiliary had been sent by Commodore Schley to call her, and it had met her coming at the call of the guns of the Spanish fleet. She had overhauled and passed the *Indiana* long since and was well nigh abreast of the *Texas*. So the *Oregon*, in order to vie with the *New*

York in the last of the mighty race, abandoned the *Oquendo* to her fate and stretched away after the *Cristobal Colon*.

Some of her crew who looked back saw the *Texas* bring to near the *Oquendo*, and then the sea trembled under the impulse of a tremendous explosion on board the doomed Spaniard, while a vast volume of smoke filled with splintered wreck rose in the air. Had they been near enough they would have heard the crew of the *Texas* start in to cheer, and have heard as well the voice of Captain Philip say, as he raised his hand to check them in it:

“Don't cheer. The poor devils are dying.”

Only a man fit to command could have had that thought.

The battle was well-nigh over. But one ship of the Spanish squadron remained, and she was now in the last desperate struggle—the flurry of a monster of the deep. Her officers peered with frowning brows through gilded glasses at the *Brooklyn* forging ahead far off their port bow; at the *Oregon* within range off the port quarter; at the *New York* just getting the range with her beautiful 8-inch rifle astern. They shivered in unison with the quivering hulk as shot after shot struck home. They screamed at their crews and stamped and fumed. At the guns their crews worked with drunken desperation, but down in the stoke-hole the firemen plied their shovels with a will and a skill that formed the most surprising feature of the Spanish side of the battle. Because of them this was a race worthy of the American mettle, for it put to the full test the powers of the men of the three ships in chase.

In the open sea they might have led the Yankees for an hour or more beyond, but the strategy of Schley had cut them off, and yet it was not until 1.15 o'clock—three hours and three-quarters after the first gun of the *Oquendo*—that the *Colon's* gallant captain lost all hope, and from a race

to save the ship turned to the work of destroying her, so that we should not be able to float the Stars and Stripes above her.

The *Oregon* had drawn up abeam of her and was about a mile away, the shots from the *New York* astern were beginning to tell, and those from the *Brooklyn* had all along been smiting her in the face.

Baffled and beaten, she turned to the shore, ran hard aground near Tarquinto Point, fifty miles from Santiago, and then hauled down her flag.

The most powerful sea force that ever fought under the American flag had triumphed; the most remarkable race in the history of the world was ended.

Because the *Brooklyn* had forged so far ahead in the race to cut off the escape of the *Colon* the *Oregon* was the first to arrive within hailing distance, and Captain Clark lowered a boat hastily and sent Lieutenant-Commander James K. Cogswell in it to take charge of the stranded ship with a prize crew.

As these climbed to the deck of the *Colon* a most shocking sight met their eyes. It was not that the slaughter had been so great, nor was the destruction of material by the shells even what had been expected. But here was a magnificent ship, most beautifully fitted and appointed, and fully manned by the flower of the Spanish Navy, and yet nine-tenths of her crew were in a state of beastly intoxication and still drinking. They had won the admiration of the chase by their bravery, but now every one of the prize crew turned sick with disgust at the sight of their lack of manhood. As the work of this crew had been the most striking feature of the Spanish flight, so now their weakness served as the lower side of one of the most memorable contests known to naval annals. For when the battle was over and the exultant American crews

were cheering themselves hoarse for joy, Captain John W. Philip, of the *Texas*, called his men together on deck and with bared head said to them :

“ I want to make public acknowledgment here that I believe in God the Father Almighty. I want all you officers and men to lift your hats, and from your hearts offer silent thanks to the Almighty.”

Look on the picture of the drunken Spaniards of the *Cristobal Colon* and then on that of the typical American naval seaman and his crew. His crew to a man removed their hats, for a moment turned grateful thoughts to the mystery of the God of battles, and then impulsively broke into the heartiest cheers for the one who, like another typical American seaman, “ feared his foes not at all, but his God a great deal.”

During the time, however, that the *Brooklyn*, the *Oregon* and the *New York* had been in chase of the last of the Spaniards the crews of the *Gloucester*, and *Iowa* and the *Texas* had turned from destroying life to saving it, and in this they were followed by the leaders when the *Cristobal Colon* had been brought to beach.

The *Iowa* had tarried by the *Viscaya* when the others continued in the chase. Her officers now make boast that “ in fifty-six minutes from the time the first dashing Spaniard was sighted all hands were piped down, the guns were secured and our boats were in the water to save what was left of the *Viscaya's* crew.” On entering upon this work the crews of the Yankee ships found the task little if any less dangerous than that of fighting the Spaniards, for every beached ship except the *Colon* was on fire when she struck. Huge clouds of black smoke were rising a thousand feet in the air and drifting in a long curve toward the lofty hills along shore, while at frequent intervals explosions, some of which were small as if of a cartridge or

two, and some were tremendous as if of a magazine, made the air and sea tremble and vibrate as if with earthquake shocks. With each large explosion the débris of broken deck and gear—doubtless also of broken human bodies—was thrown into the air.

To go alongside of a blazing warship is no small task, but the Spanish crews were crowding to the bows and climbing the military masts and leaping into the water to escape the creeping flames, and the American boats hastened to the rescue. There was need of haste in the name of humanity, too, for many that leaped overboard were drowning, and what was worse, those who reached shore were meeting here and there bands of pitiless Cuban guerrillas who liked nothing better than shooting down the helpless sailors who were clinging to the drifting wreckage or struggling toward the rocks of the beach.

When the Cubans appeared and opened fire there was a mad rush of Spaniards back to sea, but Captain Evans, of the *Iowa*, sent a file of marines on shore to protect the helpless Spanish sailors, and told the cowardly Cubans that unless they ceased their infamous work he would fire on them from the ship.

Then the rescuing of the Spaniards went on in peace. Among the first to reach the *Iowa* was the bland Eulate, who commanded the *Viscaya*. He was wounded and had to be lifted to the low-lying quarter-deck of the *Iowa* after he was brought alongside, but once there he stood up sailor fashion and offered his sword to Captain Evans. Captain Bob had said in other days that if he were turned loose with the *Massachusetts* in Havana harbor, "they won't speak anything in hell but Spanish for the next five years." That's the kind of a man Fighting Bob is in battle. But now that the enemy had been beaten he was as gentle as only a warrior can be. He refused the proffered

sword and gave the beaten Eulate the heartiest welcome known to the sea.

In like manner Wainwright of the *Gloucester* had gone to the rescue of the *Oquendo's* crew. There, too, the Cubans had begun the work of slaughtering the helpless seamen—they were even devilish enough to fire shot after shot into the body of a dead Spanish officer that was lashed to a spar and adrift beyond the surf. Indignant beyond description, Wainwright ordered them away, declaring that he would fire on them with 6-pounders if they did not immediately leave the beach, and, greatly amazed to learn that the Spanish lives were to be spared, the Cubans fled to the brush.

It is a pitiful fact that the Spanish survivors on the *Oquendo*, too, as they saw the American boats approaching, thought that death instead of rescue awaited them, and to soften the American hearts began crying with trembling lips:

“Viva los Americanos!” and begging the while in plaintive voices for mercy.

The captain of the *Oquendo* was the only officer who proved unable to face defeat, for after his ship grounded he fired a pistol ball into his brain and died instantly.

The fire on the *Viscaya* seems to have wrought quicker havoc with ship and crew than on any other ship. Perhaps she had a greater amount of woodwork between decks. Anyway, when the Americans came along to save her crew, they found her plates red hot in places, and some of the Spanish, in trying to escape to the boats by climbing down ropes, were painfully burned by contact with these plates. A view through the wide rents in her stern, where the projectiles had passed, showed the naked bodies of many men, bloody and torn, roasting as if in a furnace. Nearly half the crew of the *Viscaya* were killed in battle

or lost their lives through fire and water and at the hands of Cuban dastards at the beach.

Among the men of the *Oquendo* rescued from the beach by the *Gloucester* was the Spanish Admiral Cervera. He was found to be painfully wounded in the arm. As he was helped on board the *Gloucester*, Captain Wainwright met him at the gangway and congratulated him on the fight he had made—a little ceremony that is dear to the heart of every sailor, but in a case like this means no more than a Spanish compliment. It was a day of marvelous revenges. It was Wainwright, of the lost *Maine*, who captured the Spanish admiral, as well as sank at least one torpedo-boat destroyer; and it was the *Texas*, almost a sister ship of the *Maine*, and the only one of the *Maine's* class, that drove the Spanish flagship to destruction.

Later when the *Iowa* and the *Gloucester* had both returned to posts off Santiago, Captain Robley Evans sent an invitation to the captured admiral to come on board the *Iowa* and occupy the admiral's quarters with which the *Iowa* is provided. Of course Cervera accepted. As he approached the *Iowa* the marine corps was drawn up in proper line on the quarter deck, with buglers handy by; the captain with his officers alongside stood at the gangway; Captain Eulate, with his sword on, was beside Evans, and then as the handsome old gentleman was helped up the side, the buglers sounded the old familiar blare, the marines as one man presented arms with the old familiar crash, and the officers, with hats off, bowed low to the distinguished prisoner. Sir Walter Raleigh could not have ordered it better or more to the Spanish taste.

And then there was the burial of the dead. Several wounded men were taken on the *Iowa* and some died. These were sewn in canvas hammocks, the crew and prisoners were mustered on deck, a Spanish chaplain read the service

of the dead, and a guard of marines fired volleys when the bodies were sliding from the tilting board.

Nor was this all, for many of the prisoners were brought on board half naked, and the Americans were quick to supply their needs. Admiral Cervera had good reason to speak kindly of the treatment he and his men had received after their extraordinary defeat.

We come now to the comparison of ships and damages and losses of men. In numbers the Spanish brought four ships and two torpedo-boat destroyers out of the harbor.

It is said by the officers of an Austrian cruiser that arrived during the battle that a Spanish gunboat came out also, but none of the reporters mentioned her, and if she came out she had no part in the fight.

To meet these six vessels Commodore Schley had four ships and two converted yachts on hand. The *Indiana* was near by, and the *New York*, by her superior speed, showed herself to be actually within reach, though hull down to eastward when the fight began. The actual fighting was done, however, by the *Brooklyn*, the *Iowa*, the *Oregon*, and the *Texas*. The near presence of the other two, like that of the torpedo-boat *Ericsson*, Captain Usher, was certain to have a moral effect on the enemy, although their guns had very little physical effect indeed. It is entirely fair to say, however, that had the Americans manned the Spanish squadron, and Spaniards ours, the *New York* and her consorts would have had ample time to reach the scene before the end of the battle, unless, indeed, the dash for liberty had opened a way through the line at once.

In numbers, that is to say, the two squadrons were equal. In fighting power the preponderance was, of course, on our side. The torpedo-boat destroyers out-classed our two converted yachts at least three to one, but on the Spanish cruisers there were of guns of the first class two 10-inch

rifles and six 11-inch, while on our ships there were six 12-inch and eight 3-inch rifles.

Of the second class (not the so-called secondary battery) they had forty guns of from $5\frac{1}{2}$ to 6-inch caliber and six of about 5-inch, while we had twenty-four 8-inch, ten 6-inch, twelve 5-inch and six 4-inch guns. We had fourteen big guns to their eight, and the least of ours was an inch heavier than the best of theirs, while of medium guns we had fifty-two to their forty-six, and of these twenty-four of ours were 8-inch, or almost large enough to be counted among the huge guns. And this comparison is to be especially considered, for it portrays the difference between American and Continental ideas in arming ships just as the results of the battle show the difference between American and Spanish crews.

Of the secondary batteries a word must be said. The American ships may be called for one reason the porcupines of the sea. It is guessed that no one will say they fight like porcupines, but it is plainly true that they bristle like the thorny beasts—bristle with tiny 6-pounders and smaller guns. It has long been the fashion to speak of these slender weapons as murdering guns. They were expected to hurl such storms of small projectiles upon the exposed portions of an enemy's ships that no man could remain there and live. But the ships of Spain had a plenty of these guns—they carried sixty-six in all, and yet the American commanders, from Commodore Schley on the *Brooklyn* to Captain Wainwright on the *Gloucester*, fought their ships from bridge and open deck. As between the big ships these secondary batteries counted not at all. Nevertheless we could not do without them, for when it came to beating off the thin-sided torpedo-boat destroyers, these were the weapons to do it; for in Yankee hands they were like a twelve-gauge shotgun to a quail shooter. They

were trained for snap shops and worked like a lead pump—like the stream from the nozzle of a fireman's hose. The crews of the torpedo-boat destroyers were all swept dead from the decks, it is true, but the boats themselves were literally shot full of holes and down they went. The holes were large enough.

As to the damages to the ships, the difference is well-nigh but not quite infinite. The Spanish squadron was almost annihilated, while the American escaped with but trifling injuries.

Three of the Spaniards were driven ashore within less than twelve miles of their exit, all in a sinking condition, all with their superstructures (that is, the light upper portions) wholly wrecked and all on fire beyond the control of their crews. The havoc wrought, if told in detail, would seem incredible, and all this was due to the able marksmen who stood behind the American guns.

The *Maria Teresa* was injured less than the others—and was afterwards raised but foundered (Nov. 1, 1898) in a storm while she was being towed to New York, and went to pieces on Cat Island, where she was a total loss.

Ten days after the destruction of Cervera's squadron by our great battleships, the Board of Survey made a careful examination of the wrecks in order to definitely ascertain the specific damage, and effects of the shots fired by our guns of different caliber. The result of this investigation is extremely interesting :

Of four ships examined three had been blown up by their magazines, and of these one had every magazine exploded, and torpedoes in addition, yet on none of them was there the same effect as that produced by the explosion on the *Maine*. There was no upheaval of the keel and little bulging of the plates except in the immediate vicinity of the explosion. The effect was nearly altogether up-

ward, in some cases the protective deck being lifted; but outside of the springing of a few plates the hulls were intact.

The examination of the wrecks of the Spanish ships, three of which were burned and all their magazines exploded, was made, first, for the purpose of ascertaining the effect of American gunnery, and, second, to find out the effect of internal explosion. The awful effect of well aimed shots was demonstrated in the rapid sinking of the fleet. When it is remembered that the *Oquendo* and the *Infanta Maria Teresa* were both sunk within forty minutes of the time they left the entrance, the work of American gunners may well be considered remarkable, especially when it is known that the *Oquendo* was struck more than fifty-five times and the *Infanta Maria Teresa* thirty-seven times by large projectiles.

The record of the damages to these ships is a world record and is fraught with great interest. The fight started at a range of 6,000 yards, or about three miles, while at 2,000 or 2,500 yards two torpedo boats and two cruisers were smashed. The closest fighting was done at 1,100 and 1,000 yards, by the *Brooklyn* and *Viscaya*, with annihilating effect on the Spanish ship. But two projectiles larger than 8-inch struck a vessel, both of these either 12- or 13-inch, being put through the *Infanta Maria Teresa*. The 8-inch, 6-inch, 5-inch and 6-pounders did the bulk of the work and were frightfully destructive.

Some idea of the effect can be obtained from a brief summary of the injuries to each ship as found by the Examining Board. The Board had upon it such capable men as Executive Officer Rogers, of the *Iowa*; Executive Officer Mason, of the *Brooklyn*, an expert on the effect of shells on armor; Lieutenant Huessler, of the *Texas*, who has made some splendid improvements in gun firing on

that ship, and Assistant Naval Constructor Hobson, of *Merrimac* fame, who has a reputation for knowledge of ship construction. Briefly, these officers found :

Cristobal Colon, battleship, first-class, with six inches of steel for protection not only on the water line, but around the 6-inch guns. This ship was hit with large projectiles but six times, as it kept out of range nearly the whole time, passing behind the other ships for protection, and finally making a run for it. The hits were made by the *Brooklyn* and *Oregon*. One 8-inch shell went into the port side of the ward room, and left on the stardard side without exploding, but cleaned out everything in the room. A 5-inch shell hit just above the armor belt, and a 6-inch shell struck her on the bow. None of the injuries was sufficient to put her out of action, and they were not as serious as those received by the *Brooklyn*, at one time her sole antagonist. The statement that the *Brooklyn* was overhauling her, and that the *Oregon*'s terrific 13-inch guns were shooting nearer and nearer, and that escape was impossible, seems to explain her surrender.

The *Viscaya*, armored cruiser, of same class as battleships *Texas* and *Maine*, two 11.5-inch guns and ten 5.5-inch guns, with protections ten and twelve inches thick, double and treble that of the *Brooklyn*. This ship was the special prey of the *Brooklyn* and the *Oregon*, although the *Texas*, after her destructive work on the *Oquendo* and *Teresa*, aided a little at long range. The *Viscaya* exclusive of 1-pounders and rapid-fire hits, which swept her deck, was hit with large projectiles fourteen times, and 6-pounders eleven times. The 8-inch guns of the *Brooklyn* and *Oregon*, and the 6-inch guns on the *Oregon* and 5-inch on the *Brooklyn*, tore her structure above the armor belt almost into shreds, while the 6-pounders and 1-pounders made it too warm for men to stand at the guns. The *Texas* got in

the first of August, 1565, the Spaniards, by the aid of their allies, the natives, the knowledge of the country, and the help of their artillery, defeated the natives and their allies.

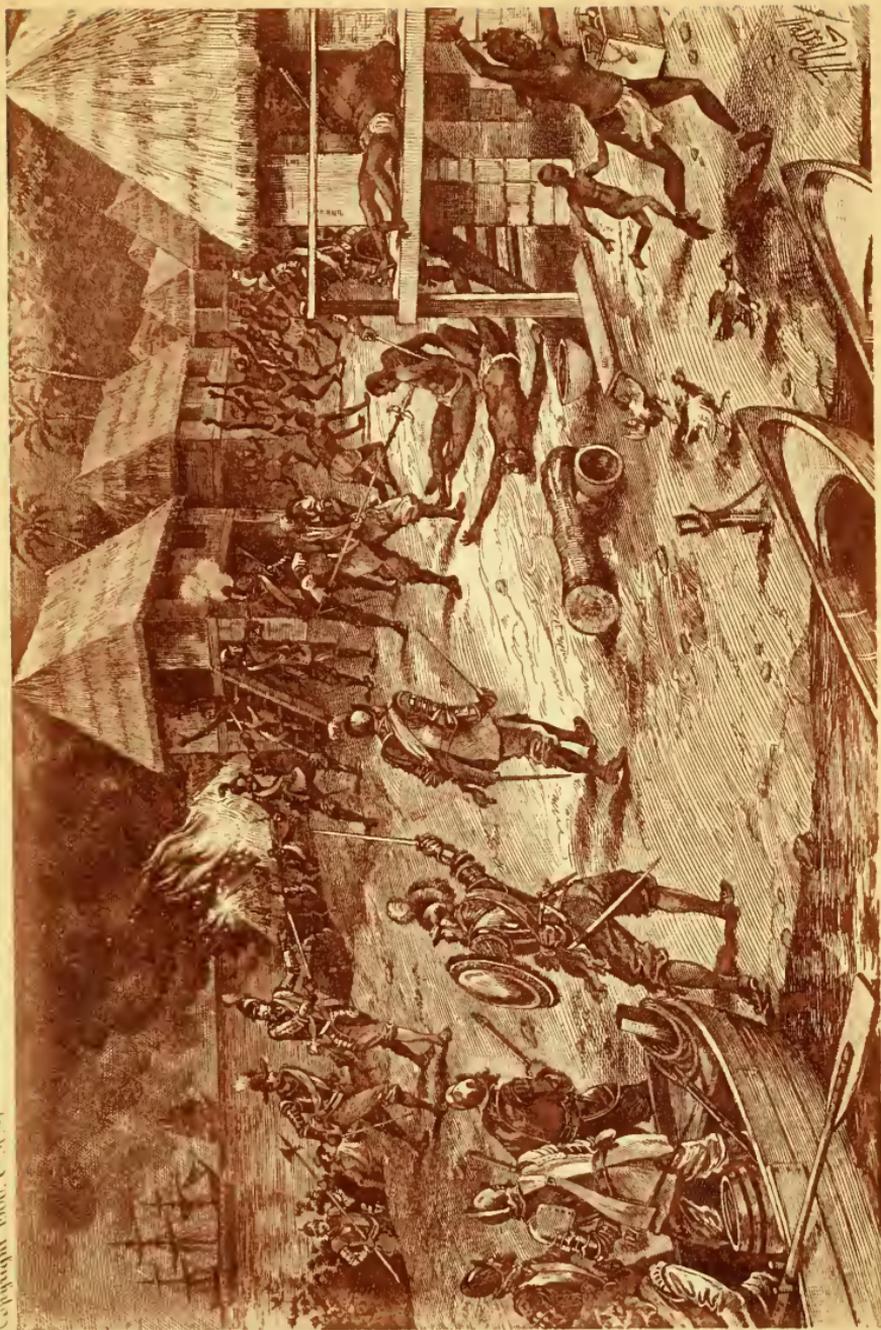
The Spaniards then built a fort, and the natives fled to the mountains. The Spaniards then followed them to the mountains, and the natives were defeated. The Spaniards then built a city, and the natives fled to the mountains. The Spaniards then followed them to the mountains, and the natives were defeated. The Spaniards then built a city, and the natives fled to the mountains. The Spaniards then followed them to the mountains, and the natives were defeated.

Etching by Russell.

THE DESTRUCTION OF CEBU, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

In 1565 Legaspi, a Spanish adventurer, with a commission from Philip II., attempted to make a settlement in the Philippine Islands and selected Cebu as the site for a Spanish capital. The natives, however, resisted this aggression with such feeble power as they were able to command, for which the Spaniards made them pay dearly. The town of Cebu was attacked by Legaspi's armored followers, and nearly every man, woman and child in the place was put to the sword, and the native huts set in flames. Upon the ruins the present city of Cebu was built.

The Spaniards then built a fort, and the natives fled to the mountains. The Spaniards then followed them to the mountains, and the natives were defeated. The Spaniards then built a city, and the natives fled to the mountains. The Spaniards then followed them to the mountains, and the natives were defeated. The Spaniards then built a city, and the natives fled to the mountains. The Spaniards then followed them to the mountains, and the natives were defeated.



a few 6-inch shots, and the *Iowa* landed a couple of 4-inch shells. No 13- or 12-inch shells struck her.

The *Infanta Maria Teresa*, the flagship, of the same build as the *Vizcaya* was badly punished, and was the only one of the four ships hit by 12- or 13-inch projectiles. Two of that size went into her, and the position of one would tend to demonstrate that it was fired by the *Texas*, the other being from the *Indiana*, *Oregon*, or *Iowa*. An 8-inch shell, undoubtedly from the *Brooklyn*, because she was the only ship in line with the *Maria Teresa's* head as she turned west, entered just forward of the beam on her port side, and exploding inside cleaned out the deck with four gun crews. This is the shot that Cervera said came from the *Brooklyn* and set fire to the ship. The *Teresa's* great difficulty and one that compelled her hurried surrender was that all her fire mains were cut and she was unable to extinguish the fires that were driving her men from the guns.

The *Almirante Oquendo* armored cruiser, same class as the *Vizcaya* and the *Teresa*, went through the most terrible baptism of fire of any of the ships except the torpedo boats. Her upper works were one ragged mass of cut up steel and her decks were covered with dead and dying. She was hit on the port side four times by 8-inch shells, three times by 4-inch shells (probably from the *Iowa*), twice by 6-inch and forty-two times by 6-pounders. The wounds made by 1-pounders show that she met the fire of the entire fleet. One of the findings of the Board of Survey was that an 8-in. shell had struck the forward turret just where the gun opening was, and that every man in the turret was killed, the officer standing in the firing hood being still in that position.

"The secondary battery fire of the *Brooklyn* was really terrible. It drove my men from their guns, and when you

were at close range did frightful work," said Captain Eulate two days after Schley's defeat of the Spanish squadron, and a rescued officer of the *Oquendo* said that nearly one-half of the terrible damage to that ship was done by one and 6-pounders, which constitute the secondary battery of the *Brooklyn*.

The battle orderlies will merit a place among those whose conduct is worthy of special mention. They were on the move constantly bearing battle orders from Commodore Schley and Captain Cook, and in no instance did they fail in the prompt and intelligent performance of their responsible duty. The signalmen occupied very exposed positions during the action and rendered excellent service. Signal halyards and numbers and speed cones were riddled by small projectiles and fragments of bursting shell, casualties that show in what a zone of danger the signalmen performed their duties. Signalmen Coombs and McIntire and Battle Orderlies Rall and Davis were so near Yeoman Ellis when he was killed that they were spattered with his blood. None showed more unflinching courage than the men in the military tops, who stood by their guns, delivering their fire with unerring precision, undismayed by the projectiles that were flying about them and striking in their immediate vicinity. Private Stockbridge, the only man on the sick list, climbed into the maintop at the signal for battle, where he remained until end of the action, doing good work at his gun.

While unlimited praise has been given to the gallant man who stood on the bridge of the fated *Merrimac*, and to his companions who were at their perilous posts of duty on the upper deck, on that memorable morning in Santiago harbor, let us not forget the heroes in the "stoke-hole."

If Lieutenant Hobson and his associates were brave,

what is to be said of the sublime courage of the engineer whose hand was at the throttle, and the firemen who shoveled coal into the blazing furnaces as the good ship sailed into the jaws of death! Here were heroes, indeed—heroes of song and story, of romance and rhyme, such as might inspire poets to the loftiest flights and the pen of the historian with glowing imagery.

On the bridge stood a man who played in the great lottery for the grandest prize of life. Whether he lost or won, enduring fame was his. Success meant the listing of his name on the roll of immortality along with those of Dewey, Schley, Paul Jones, Decatur, Perry and Farragut. What a laurel wreath of everlasting glory for one single act in the great drama of war! But down in the hold, twenty feet below the surface of the rolling billows, in ominous darkness relieved only by the light of flickering lamps, no sounds save the drone of the engine, the creaking of the hull and the swash of the lashing waves came to tell aught of what was transpiring above. Nothing but the soul of valor to inspire such men! No place for them on fame's eternal camping-ground. Nothing but the self-same spirit of Jim Bludsoe to keep "her nozzle agin the bank" till all but himself were safe on shore. The man with his hand upon the valve and his keen ear intent upon the warning bells, the men, grimy, sweating, blackened, furiously piling coal into the yawning, roaring furnaces—neither knowing when the dread explosion would come that might send them, torn to fragments and scattered upon the four winds, to their fearful doom—these were the real heroes of the *Merrimac*.

They knew there would be no lasting reward for them, no glorious heritage which they could transmit to their children, no renown such as would envelop the leaders at Thermopylæ, at the Alamo, or the cool and daring lieu-

tenant on the bridge above them. To them it was duty, plain and simple, humble and obscure, with the full knowledge that the reward must be the consciousness of duty well performed. No substantial promotion, only a fleeting notoriety, no pointing to the way where glory waits.

CHAPTER XI.

THE expedition against Santiago, which General Shafter commanded, was undertaken in compliance with instructions of May 30 from headquarters of the army to General Shafter which were thus briefly given :

“Admiral Schley reports that two cruisers and two torpedo boats have been seen in the harbor of Santiago. Go with your force to capture garrison at Santiago and assist in capturing harbor and fleet.”

At the time of receiving this order the troops assembled at Tampa were poorly prepared to enter upon the perils of an invasion of Cuba. Many of the volunteer soldiers were insufficiently drilled, and lack of transportation facilities for moving the cavalry were such that it was impossible to act promptly upon the order received June 7, and it was not until June 14 that sufficient transports were provided, upon which were embarked 16,072 men and 815 officers. This expedition was convoyed by a squadron of our best ships and succeeded in landing at Daiquiri, fourteen miles from Santiago, on the 20th to 22d. Directly after anchoring the transports off the Cuban coast, General Shafter had an interview with General Garcia, who offered the services of his troops, comprising about 4,000 men in the vicinity of Asseraderos, and about 500 under General Castillo at the little town of Cujababo, a few miles east of Daiquiri. General Shafter accepted this offer, impressing it upon him that he could exercise no military control over him except

such as he would concede, and as long as he served under the Americans rations and ammunition would be furnished him.

After conferring with Admiral Sampson and General Garcia, General Shafter outlined the plan of campaign. The disembarkation was to be completed on the twenty-second at Daiquiri, with feints by the Cubans on Cabanas and by the navy at various shore points, in order to mislead the enemy as to the place of landing. These movements permitted the Americans to approach Santiago from the east over a narrow road, at first in some places not better than a trail, running from Daiquiri through Siboney and Seville, and making attack from that quarter.

In pursuance of this plan General Young's brigade passed beyond Lawton on the nights of the twenty-third and twenty-fourth, thus taking the advance, and on the morning of the latter date became engaged with a Spanish force intrenched in a strong position at La Guasima, a point on the Santiago road about three miles from Siboney. General Young's force consisted of one squadron of the First Cavalry, one of the Tenth Cavalry and two of the First United States Volunteer Cavalry; in all, 964 officers and men. The enemy made an obstinate resistance, but were driven from the field with considerable loss. Our own casualties were one officer and fifteen men killed; six officers and forty-six men wounded. The reported losses of the Spaniards were nine killed and twenty-seven wounded. The engagement had an inspiring effect upon our men and, doubtless, correspondingly depressed the enemy, as it was now plainly demonstrated to them that they had a foe to meet who would advance upon them under a heavy fire delivered from intrenchments. General Wheeler, division commander, was present during the engagement, and reported that our troops, officers and

men fought with the greatest gallantry. This engagement gave us a well watered country farther to the front, on which to encamp our troops.

It was not until nearly two weeks after the army landed that it was possible to place on shore three days' supplies in excess of those required for the daily consumption.

On June 30 the Americans reconnoitered the country about Santiago, and General Shafter made his plan of attack. From a high hill, from which the city was in plain view, San Juan hill could be plainly seen and the country about El Caney. The roads were very poor and indeed little better than bridle-paths until the San Juan River and El Caney were reached. Lawton's Division, assisted by Capron's Light Battery, was ordered to move out during the afternoon toward El Caney, to begin the attack there early the next morning. After carrying El Caney, Lawton was to move by the Caney road toward Santiago and take position on the right of the line. Wheeler's Division of dismounted cavalry and Kent's Division of infantry were directed on the Santiago road, the head of the column resting near El Pozo, toward which heights Grimes' battery moved on the afternoon of the thirtieth, with orders to take position there early the next morning, and at the proper time prepare the way for the advance of Wheeler and Kent on San Juan hill. The attack at this point was to be delayed until Lawton's guns were heard at El Caney and his infantry fire showed he had become well engaged.

The preparations were far from what were desired, but our men were in a sickly climate, our supplies had to be brought forward by a narrow wagon road, which the rains might at any time render impassable; fear was also entertained that a storm might drive the vessels containing our stores to sea, thus separating us from our base of supplies and lastly, it was reported that General Pando, with 8,000

reinforcements for the enemy, was *en route* from Manzanillo, and might be expected in a few days. Under these conditions it was determined to give battle without delay.

Early on the morning of July 1, Lawton was in a position around El Caney; Chaffee's Brigade on the right, across the Guantanamo road; Miles' Brigade in the center and Ludlow's on the left. The duty of cutting off the enemy's retreat along the Santiago road was assigned to the latter brigade. The artillery opened on the town at 6.15 A. M. The battle here soon became general and was hotly contested. The enemy's position was naturally strong, and was rendered more so by block-houses, a stone fort, and intrenchments cut in solid rock and the loop-holding of a solidly built stone church. The opposition offered by the enemy was greater than had been anticipated, and prevented Lawton from joining the right of the main line during the day as had been intended. After the battle had continued for some time, Bates' Brigade of two regiments reached General Shafter's headquarters from Siboney, and was directed to move near El Caney to give assistance, if necessary. He did so, and was put in position between Miles and Chaffee. The battle continued with varying intensity during most of the day, and until the place was carried by assault about 4.30 P. M. As the Spaniards endeavored to retreat along the Santiago road, Ludlow's position enabled him to do very effective work and to practically cut off all the retreat in that direction.

After the battle at El Caney was well opened, and the sound of the small-arm fire caused us to believe that Lawton was driving the enemy before him, Shafter directed Grimes' battery to open fire from the heights of El Pozo on the San Juan block-house, which could be seen situated in the enemy's intrenchments extending along the crest of San Juan hill. The fire was effective, and the enemy could

be seen running away from the vicinity of the block-house. The artillery fire from El Pozo was soon returned by the enemy's artillery. They evidently had the range of this hill, and their first shells killed and wounded several men. As the Spaniards used smokeless powder, it was very difficult to locate the position of their pieces, while on the contrary the smoke caused by our black powder plainly indicated the location of our battery.

At this time the cavalry division under General Sumner, which was lying concealed in the general vicinity of the El Pozo house, was ordered forward, with directions to cross the San Juan River and deploy to the right on the Santiago side, while Kent's Division was to follow closely in its rear and deploy to the left. These troops moved forward in compliance with orders, but the road was so narrow as to render it impracticable to retain the column-of-fours formation at all points, while the undergrowth on either side was so dense as to preclude the possibility of deploying skirmishers. It naturally resulted that the progress made was slow, and the long range rifles of the enemy's infantry killed and wounded a number of our men while marching along this road, and before there was any opportunity to return the fire. At this time Generals Kent and Sumner were ordered to push forward with all possible haste, and place their troops in position to engage the enemy. General Kent, with this end in view, forced the head of his column alongside of the cavalry column as fast as the narrow trail permitted, and thus hurried his arrival at the San Juan and the formation beyond that stream. A few hundred yards before reaching the San Juan the road forks, a fact that was discovered by Lieutenant Colonel Derby, of Shafter's staff, who had approached well to the front in a war balloon. This information he furnished to the troops, resulting in Sumner moving on the

left-hand road, while Kent was enabled to utilize the road to the right.

General Wheeler, the permanent commander of the cavalry division, who had been ill, came forward during the morning, and later returned to duty, and rendered most gallant and efficient service during the remainder of the day.

After crossing the stream the cavalry moved to the right, with a view of connecting with Lawton's left when he could come up, and with their left resting near the Santiago road.

In the meantime Kent's Division, with the exception of two regiments of Hawkins' Brigade, being thus uncovered, moved rapidly to the front from the forks in the road previously mentioned, utilizing both trails, but more especially the one to the left, and crossing the creek, formed for attack in the front of San Juan hill. During this formation, the Second Brigade suffered severely. While personally superintending this movement, its gallant commander, Commodore Wikoff, was killed. The command of the brigade then devolved upon Lieutenant-Colonel Worth, Thirteenth Infantry, who was soon severely wounded, and next upon Lieutenant-Colonel Liscum, Twenty-fourth Infantry, who five minutes later also fell under the terrible fire of the enemy, and the command of the brigade then devolved upon Lieutenant-Colonel Ewers, Ninth Infantry.

While the formation just described was taking place, General Kent took measures to hurry forward his rear brigade. The Tenth and Second Infantry were ordered to follow Wikoff's Brigade, while the Twenty-first was sent on the right hand road to support the First Brigade, under General Hawkins, who crossed the stream and formed on the right of the division. The Second and Tenth In-

fantry, Colonel E. P. Pearson commanding, moved forward in good order on the left of the division, passed over a green knoll, and drove the enemy back toward his trenches.

After completing their formation under a destructive fire, and advancing a short distance, both divisions found in their front a wide bottom, in which had been placed a barbed wire entanglement, and beyond which there was a high hill, along the crest of which the enemy was strongly posted. Nothing daunted, these gallant men pushed on to drive the enemy from his chosen position, both divisions losing heavily. In this assault, Colonel Hamilton, Lieutenants Smith and Ship were killed, and Colonel Carroll, Lieutenants Thayer and Myer, all in the cavalry, were wounded.

In this fierce encounter words fail to do justice to the gallant regimental commanders and their heroic men, for while the generals indicated the formations and the points of attack, it was, after all, the intrepid bravery of the subordinate officers and men that planted our colors on the crest of San Juan hill and drove the enemy from his trenches and blockhouses, thus gaining a position which sealed the fate of Santiago.

In this action on the part of the field, most efficient service was rendered by Lieutenant John H. Parker, Thirteenth Infantry, and the Gatling gun detachment under his command. The fighting continued at intervals until nightfall, but our men held resolutely to the positions gained at the cost of so much blood and toil.

General Shafter's health was impaired by over-exertion in the sun and intense heat of the day before, which prevented him from participating as actively in the battle as he desired, but from a hill near his headquarters he had a general view of the battlefield, extending from El Caney on the right to the left of our lines on San Juan hill,

General Duffield, with the Thirty-third Michigan, attacked Aguadores, as ordered, but was unable to accomplish more than to detain the Spaniards in that vicinity.

On the night of July 1, General Shafter ordered General Duffield, at Siboney, to send forward the Thirty-fourth Michigan and the Ninth Massachusetts, both of which had just arrived from the United States. These regiments reached the front the next morning.

All day on the second the battle raged with more or less fury, but such of our troops as were in a position at daylight held their ground, and Lawton gained a strong and commanding position on the right. About 10 P. M. the enemy made a vigorous assault to break through our lines, but he was repulsed at all points. On the morning of the third the battle was renewed, but the enemy seemed to have expended his energy in the assault of the previous night, and the firing along the lines was desultory, until stopped by General Shafter sending the following letter within the Spanish lines.

“ HEADQUARTERS FIFTH ARMY CORPS,
CAMP NEAR SAN JUAN RIVER, CUBA, July 6.

“ *The General-in-Chief commanding the Spanish forces,
Santiago de Cuba :*

“ SIR:—In view of the events of the third instant I have the honor to lay before your Excellency certain propositions, to which I trust your Excellency will give the consideration which in my opinion they deserve.

“ 2. I inclose a bulletin of the engagement of Sunday morning, which resulted in the complete destruction of Admiral Cervera's fleet, the loss of 600 of his officers and men, and the capture of the remainder. The Admiral, General Paredes and all others who escaped alive are now

prisoners on board the *Harvard* and *St. Louis*, and the latter ship, in which are the Admiral, General Paredes and the surviving captains (all except the captain of the *Almirante Oquendo*, who was killed), has already sailed for the United States.

“If desired by you, this may be confirmed by your Excellency sending an officer under a flag of truce to Admiral Sampson and he can arrange a visit to the *Harvard*, which will not sail until to-morrow, and obtain the details from Spanish officers and men aboard that ship.

“3. Our fleet is now perfectly free to act, and I have the honor to state that unless a surrender be arranged by noon of the ninth instant, a bombardment of the city will be begun and continued with the heavy guns of our ships. The city is within easy range of these guns, the 8-inch being capable of firing 9,500 yards, the 13-inch of course much further. The ships can so lie that with a range of 8,000 yards they can reach the center of the city.

“4. I make this suggestion of a surrender purely in a humanitarian spirit. I do not wish to cause the slaughter of any more men either of your Excellency's forces or our own; the final result under circumstances so disadvantageous to your Excellency being a foregone conclusion.

“5. As your Excellency may wish to make reference of so momentous a question to your Excellency's home government, it is for this purpose that I have placed the time of the resumption of hostilities sufficiently far in the future to allow a reply being received.

“6. I beg an early answer from your Excellency.

“I have the honor to be,

“Your Excellency's obedient servant,

“W. R. SHAFTER,

“Major-General.”

General Shafter was of the opinion that the Spaniards would surrender if given a little time, and he thought this result would be hastened if the men of the Spanish army could be made to understand they would be well treated as prisoners of war. Acting upon this presumption General Shafter determined to offer to return all the wounded Spanish officers at El Caney who were able to bear transportation and who were willing to give their paroles not to serve against the forces of the United States until regularly exchanged. This offer was made and accepted. These officers, as well as several of the wounded Spanish privates, twenty-seven in all, were sent to their lines under the escort of some of our mounted cavalry. Our troops were received with honors, and there is reason to believe the return of the Spanish prisoners produced a good impression on their comrades.

The cessation of firing about noon on the third practically terminated the battle of Santiago; all that occurred after this time may properly be treated under the head of the siege that followed. After deducting the detachments retained at Siboney and Daiquiri to render those depots secure from attack, organizations held to protect our flanks, others acting as escorts and guards to light batteries, the members of the hospital corps, guards left in charge of blanket rolls, which the intense heat caused the men to cast aside before entering battle, orderlies, etc., it is doubtful if we had more than twelve thousand men on the firing line on July 1, when the battle was fiercest and when the important and strong positions of El Caney and San Juan were captured.

A few Cubans assisted in the attack at El Caney and fought valiantly, but their numbers were too small to materially change the strength, as indicated above. The enemy confronted us with numbers about equal to our

own; they fought obstinately in strong and intrenched positions, and the results obtained clearly indicate the intrepid gallantry of the company, officers and men, and the benefits derived from the careful training and instruction given in the company in recent years in rifle practice and other battle exercises. Our losses in these battles were twenty-two officers and 208 men killed, and eighty-one officers and 1,203 men wounded; missing, seventy-nine. The missing, with few exceptions, reported later.

The arrival of General Escario at Santiago was not anticipated. General Garcia, with between four and five thousand Cubans, was entrusted with the duty of watching for and intercepting the reinforcements expected. This, however, he failed to do, and Escario passed into the city along on the Americans' extreme right, near the bay.

After the destruction of Cervera's fleet General Shafter again called on the Spanish commander to surrender. On the same date the General informed Admiral Sampson that if he would force his way into the harbor the city would surrender without any further sacrifice of life. Commodore Watson replied that Admiral Sampson was temporarily absent, but that in his (Watson's) opinion the navy should not enter the harbor.

The strength of the enemy's position was such that Shafter did not wish to assault, if it could be avoided. An examination of the enemy's works, made after the surrender, fully justified the wisdom of the course adopted. The intrenchments could only have been carried with very great loss of life.

On the eleventh the surrender was again demanded. By this date the sickness in the army was increasing very rapidly, as a result of exposure in the trenches to the intense heat of the sun and the heavy rains. Moreover the dews in Cuba are almost equal to rains. The weak-

ness of the troops was becoming so apparent that Shafter was anxious to bring the siege to an end, but, in common with most of the officers of the army, he did not think an assault would be justifiable, especially as the enemy seemed to be acting in good faith in their preliminary propositions to surrender.

July 12, Shafter informed the Spanish Commander that Major-General Miles, commander-in-chief of the American Army, had just arrived in camp, and requested him to grant a personal interview on the following day. He replied he would be pleased to meet the American commander. The interview took place on the thirteenth, and Shafter informed him his surrender only could be considered, and that as he was without hope of escape he had no right to continue the fight. This hopeless condition was frankly admitted by General Toral, who after communicating to General Blanco his situation, surrendered his army, together with all the Spanish soldiers in the province of Santiago.

The natural obstacles which our army had to encounter, and which no foresight could have overcome or obviate, were extremely great. The rocky and precipitous coast afforded no sheltered landing places, the roads were mere bridle-paths, the effect of the tropical sun and rains upon unacclimated troops was deadly, and the dread of strange and unknown diseases had its effect on the army. At Daiquiri the landing of the troops and stores was made at a small wooden wharf, which the Spaniards tried to burn, but unsuccessfully, and the animals were pushed into the water and guided to a sandy beach about two hundred yards in extent. At Siboney the landing was made on the beach, and a small wharf erected by the engineers.

In spite of the fact that nearly one thousand men were continuously at work on the roads, they were at times im-

passable for wagons. The San Juan and Aguadores Rivers would often suddenly rise so as to prevent the passage of wagons, and then the eight pack trains with the command had to be depended upon for the victualing of the army, as well as the 20,000 refugees who could not, in the interests of humanity, be left to starve while we had rations. Often for days nothing could be moved except on pack trains.

CHAPTER XII.

THE first hard fight before Santiago, known as the battle of El Caney, resulted in a loss of 1,806 men, killed and wounded, on the American side, and though General Linares was dislodged from his intrenchments and driven six miles back to the main fortifications of the city, the victory was not sufficiently great to warrant an immediate advance. There was also the menace of Cervera's fleet lying in the harbor with guns trained upon the roads over which the Americans must pass in making an assault, so that the obstacles were considered sufficiently great to justify a halt to strengthen the position that had been gained at such immense sacrifice.

A demand to surrender had been sent by General Shafter on July 2, to which General Linares gave a defiant reply, and reckoning that the resistance would be a desperate one, Shafter set about the work of investment with a grim and steady resolution to draw the lines so tightly about the city that all supplies, of both food and water, should be entirely cut off and the city be forced to capitulate through starvation. The plans were well conceived, but execution proved to be a more difficult thing than had been contemplated. Landing of the heavy guns from the transport vessels had been extremely slow and tedious, but greater trouble was encountered in the effort to convey them to points where they could be used effectively in shelling the city. The rainy season now set in, which made the always bad roads almost impassable, besides it

was necessary to drag the large guns up very steep hills, and in many cases roads had to be made by cutting the thick growth and bridging the way at frequent intervals. This labor Garcia's Cuban soldiers were called to assist in, but they contemptuously refused, so that the work devolved entirely upon the unacclimated American troops. The result was that exposure to the incessant rains, the drinking of foul water, and the inhaling of noxious airs, produced so much sickness that almost one-half the besieging force became incapacitated through illness. But there was no complaining of the hardships, and only restlessness was exhibited by the soldiers because not permitted to make an attack.

On Sunday, July 10, a joint attack by the army and navy was made upon Santiago, a number of shells being thrown by our vessels—the *Brooklyn*, *Massachusetts*, and *Indiana*—that had taken positions of Aguadores, but the distance was so great, quite five miles, that though a few shells landed in the city, small damage was wrought. The land attack was also made with little spirit, and met with a feeble resistance, so that there were few casualties on either side, but Shafter accomplished his purpose, which was not to force conclusions at once with General Toral, who had succeeded General Linares, but to feel the enemy and locate the strongest defenses, and also to relieve the eagerness of his troops, who had become almost insubordinate through sufferings entailed by lying so long inactive in their trenches.

General Shafter made a second demand upon Toral to surrender, July 7, giving him until the ninth to make reply, but at the expiration of the date named the answer came back as before, rejecting all proposals to that end and declaring he would defend Santiago as long as a soldier remained able to fire a gun. Firing was therefore re-

sumed July 11 by several batteries, which opened briskly at daylight, and three hours later the *New York*, *Brooklyn*, and *Texas* drew near the shore off Aguadores and joined in the attack, throwing many shells into the city that did considerable damage. In the afternoon General Wheeler entered Santiago under a flag of truce to meet General Toral, to whom he represented the hopelessness of further resistance and his ability to destroy the city, which might easily be accomplished by either the army or the navy without the aid of the other, and pleaded with Toral to surrender upon the grounds of humanity. Toral requested that three hours be allowed him to make reply, which was granted; but the expiration of that time brought no definite answer, and the attack was renewed. There was so little response that the impression obtained very generally among the besieging forces that Toral had utilized the suspension to get his troops out of the city, with the purpose of quietly evacuating the place after removing his stores, but when further delay was asked for General Shafter allowed it, a policy which, though condemned at the time, proved to be eminently wise. A letter from General Toral explained his request by reminding General Shafter that he was unable to act upon his own responsibility, and that he was compelled to await answer from General Blanco, his immediate superior, who in turn was waiting instructions from Madrid. Hostilities were therefore suspended until July 14, when a communication was received from General Toral indicating his willingness to surrender the city, upon condition that his army be allowed to retain their small arms, to march out of the city with the honors of war, and that all the troops surrendered should be paroled and returned to Spain at the expense of the American government. Some modification of these terms was made in that the troops thus surrendered should include

all those in that part of the province of Santiago lying east of the line from Sagua, which should include those at Guantanamo, Caimanera, and Sagua, which comprised the Fourth Corps of the Spanish army. The total number of Spaniards who thus surrendered was about 24,000, together with a like number of Mauser rifles and a corresponding large amount of ammunition.

Although agreement to surrender was made on the fourteenth, there was a contention over the retention of arms, and the actual surrender did not take place until the seventeenth, upon which date the American flag was raised, with much ceremony, over the City Hall. The capitulation of Santiago brought with it a responsibility that could only be met by the energetic employment of every possible means at the government's command to relieve suffering. It was found that the Spanish soldiers had been for nearly two weeks subsisting on rice, and that the citizens were upon the very brink of starvation. The American army of occupation was therefore hailed as a deliverer. The humility of surrendering an army which was really larger than that of the besieging force was tempered, if not entirely relieved, by the fact that the Spanish soldiers were emaciated by hunger and exhausted by long exposure until they were incapable of effective resistance. It accordingly devolved upon the captors to relieve, so far as possible, this flood of distress that had been thus suddenly let loose upon them. Never before was such sympathy and magnanimity manifested by conquerors as the Americans displayed toward the Spaniards, save that similar humane regard and chivalrous sentiment were shown to Cervera and his men. There were indeed the evidences of fellowship, rather than of exultation, for nothing was omitted, that lay within the means of our commanders, to minister bountifully to the needs of both the Spanish citi-

zens and soldiers, by which kindly acts the most confidential relations were established between captor and captive, and proved to the world the generous spirit that animates the great heart of the American people.

The Cuban soldiers had counted certainly upon the largest recognition following the successes of the American arms, and Garcia expected that the surrender of Santiago would result in his succeeding to the command of the city, but consideration of the rights of property and of the citizens, which might be imperiled by becoming subject to the disposition of the Cubans, whose vengeful hatred of all Spaniards was unrestrainable, influenced our government to the magnanimous policy of refusing to disturb the regular order, and of continuing generally the Spanish civil officers, being content with appointing General Wood military commander. This action so displeased, as it disappointed, General Garcia and his followers, that he withdrew from Santiago and proceeded westward to join Gomez and to continue the war independently of the Americans.

General Miles arrived in Santiago July 11, not to take personal command of the army there, or to interfere in any wise with the plans of the officers, but to inform himself upon conditions that would enable him to assume direction and to plan future movements as they might appear necessary. The surrender of Santiago left all of Eastern Cuba practically free, besides giving an excellent base for subsequent operations of the army on the island, but the climate is a deadly one in summer time, besides having no rail communication with Havana, so it was wisely decided to hold Santiago and the territory included in the terms of surrender, but to suspend further movement in Cuba until the close of the rainy season. But it would have destroyed the spirit of the army to allow it to remain inactive so long a time, so General Miles planned a campaign

against Porto Rico. This island, though lying only four hundred miles east of Cuba, and within the same latitude, is generally mountainous and salubrious, is rarely visited by yellow fever and is singularly free of malaria, so that no great dangers of sickness might be anticipated to attend an invasion by our troops.

In pursuance of the plans perfected by General Miles, the first expedition, comprising 4,000 men, under Major-General Wilson, left Charleston July 20, and on the following day General Miles with a somewhat larger body left Guantanamo for Porto Rico, convoyed by the *New Orleans*, *Massachusetts*, *Cincinnati*, *Columbia*, *Yale* and *Dixie*. In addition to these forces, an expedition of 6,200 men was dispatched from Tampa, and on the twenty-fifth a landing of the troops under General Miles was effected without resistance at Guanica, on the south coast of Porto Rico, near the city of Ponce, which latter is a place of considerable commercial importance, with a population of nearly fifty thousand souls, the largest on the island.

The removal of 3,500 men from Santiago was fortunate, for humane reasons as well as from a military point of view, as the congestion had grown so great and provisions so few that terrible privations and sickness were shockingly prevalent. On the day of General Miles' landing in Porto Rico, General Shafter reported 500 cases of yellow fever, and the situation thereafter became constantly worse until two-thirds of the army remaining became invalided and the death list was appallingly large. There was also an insufficiency of hospital supplies, and the number of physicians was inadequate to the needs. Complaints increased, and finally became so loud that the government was compelled to take action toward securing relief. Two hospital ships were loaded with sick and wounded and sent North, but such small provisions had been made to care for the

invalids that the suffering was indescribable, and many died *en route* through lack of attention. Criticisms of the severest nature were heaped upon the War Department for its indifference and inefficiency, which was not wholly undeserved, and it had the beneficent effect of stimulating the government to energetic measures, through which all the soldiers, not immunes, were removed from Santiago, chiefly to Montauk, Long Island, and to other points; but this removal was not completed before the middle of August.

On July 26 M. Cambon, Ambassador to the United States from France, called upon President McKinley and on behalf of the Madrid government submitted a peace proposal, being the initial step taken by Spain to end the war, but the discussion which followed was of an indefinite character, that resulted in no action, so that the peace overtures had no effect upon the advance movement against Porto Rico, though negotiations being thus opened they continued in a diplomatic way until a conclusion was reached, as will presently be related.

On July 28 General Miles marched upon Ponce, but instead of meeting a stubborn resistance he was received by the inhabitants with demonstrations of the wildest joy. Finding the people so anxious to welcome the Americans as deliverers from the Spanish yoke, Generals Miles and Wilson were driven to the Casa Del Ray, where they were cordially welcomed by the mayor and presented to the people, who shouted themselves hoarse with cries of "Vive los Americanos!" General Miles, finding the Porto Ricans so favorable to the American occupation, issued a proclamation expressing the loftiest sentiments of appreciation and declaring the purpose of his government to give peace to the island, to encourage industry, to foster commerce, and to relieve the people from those oppres-

sions which Spain had for nearly four centuries imposed upon them. His proclamation had the most salutary effect, which was further increased by continuing in their several positions those Spanish officials who had administered the city affairs with satisfaction, and also by releasing a number of political prisoners, many of whom had been confined for years, and not a few were under sentence of death. Perfect order was promptly established and such tranquillity succeeded that every indication of war completely disappeared. Ponce was therefore made the base for the invading army's supplies, and collection of the revenues from duties and other forms of government tax was begun by the officers continued or appointed by General Miles.

On July 31 the capture of Juan Diaz was made after a brief skirmish, and on the same day occurred the first land fight between the Americans and Spanish forces at Manila. General Merritt landed at Manila with a force of 6,000 men on the twenty-fifth, and immediately set about the work of fortifying a shore position, but made no hostile demonstration, preferring to await the arrival of other troops that had been dispatched from San Francisco, and the two monitors, *Monterey* and *Monadnock*, though the second detachment under General Greene had been disembarked at Manila on the twentieth. Considerable friction had taken place between the Americans and insurgents, and threats to disarm the Filipinos had been made to avoid a threatened rupture. Aguinaldo, the insurgent leader, gave many promises of assistance and professed the highest admiration for the Americans, but his acts betrayed intense jealousy, and there was reason to fear his open hostility if occasion were presented. The position was therefore regarded as being serious, for which reason General Merritt requested a force of not less than 25,000 men,

which, on account of the scarcity of transports, would require several months to convey. During this period of waiting a line had been thrown around Manila, part of which was composed of insurgents who had been armed by Admiral Dewey, and the city was thus so completely cut off from communication that supplies could not enter. A demand to surrender was made upon General Augusti, the Spanish commandant, but though confessing his precarious situation and reporting to Madrid his inability to hold out against the besieging force, he defiantly refused to consider any terms looking to his capitulation. This was the situation of the respective armies on July 31, one waiting reinforcements, the other stubbornly standing upon the defensive.

On July 29 a body of American troops threw up a line of breastworks extending from the Manila road to the beach, which brought them within 750 yards of the Spanish shore batteries of Malate. The troops were not molested while performing this labor, but on Sunday night (31st) heavy firing began all along the Spanish line, to which a vigorous reply was made. There were in the trenches at the time about 1,000 men, supported by the Utah battery of four pieces, to which was opposed 3,000 of the enemy, who selected the darkness, during the down-pour of a torrential rain, to make the attack. The early part of the action favored the Spaniards, who secured the right range and attempted to turn the left flank of our army, which for a short while they were upon the point of accomplishing. The volunteers fought desperately, holding in check a force three times greater than their own, and performing individual acts of wonderful heroism, until their ammunition was exhausted. At the most critical moment Lieutenants Krayenbuhl and Kessler arrived with a fresh supply, and two companies of regulars, which happy

relief turned the tide of battle, and after four hours of fighting the Spanish were driven back with a loss of 350 dead. The American loss was thirteen killed and forty wounded. During all the action the insurgents remained neutral, though their line joined that of our intrenchments, thus giving indisputable proof of their jealous hatred of foreigners, and especially of the American army, which Aguinaldo has regarded as an obstacle to his ambitious designs of becoming the dictator of his people. Indeed, in July, he issued a manifesto to the Filipinos, and declared the founding of a republic, of which he became the head, intending no doubt to follow the recognition of independence with the establishing of another form of government that will place him in a more autocratic position. It is with this growing ambition of Aguinaldo that the American forces had to contend, and which gives promise of serious complications.

On August 2 the State Department made public a summary of the American peace terms offered to Spain, and on the following day M. Cambon sent his reply to the President, which contained a request from the Madrid government for a reasonable time in which to consider the proposals. While the Spanish court were debating the peace terms submitted as an ultimatum, a vigorous prosecution of hostilities was continued in Porto Rico. The advance from Ponce toward San Juan, the capital, was pushed by General Miles, who met with no resistance until August 9, when General Wilson's staff, with the Sixteenth Pennsylvania Volunteers, while making a detour with the view of entering the town of Coamo, were met by a strong Spanish force and a sharp engagement ensued. The Americans were taken by surprise and almost overwhelmed by a terrific fusillade from superior numbers, but after the first shock they heroically rallied and held the enemy at

bay until reinforcements arrived, which brought with them a dynamite gun, and then making a gallant charge drove the Spaniards pell-mell through and beyond the town, of which possession was taken, and also 180 prisoners. The American casualties were seven wounded, two mortally, while of the Spaniards nine were killed and thirty-five wounded. On the same day Garcia was reported as having defeated a force of 500 Spanish troops at Gibara, and following up his success with 8,000 men laid siege to Holguin, whose commander, General Lague, had been called upon to surrender.

On August 11 General Miles' advance, under General Schwan, while reconnoitering met a force of 1,200 Spaniards near the village of Hormigueros, Porto Rico, and an engagement followed in which two men of the Eleventh Infantry were killed and fourteen wounded. The loss of the enemy was not reported, but believed to be much greater than our own, for the Spaniards were driven from their positions and the advance towards Mayaguez was continued, which post the enemy evacuated.

On August 10 the reply from Madrid was received at Washington, accepting the terms of peace submitted by the President, and two days later (12th) a protocol was drafted, agreed to and signed by Secretary of State Day for the United States, and by M. Cambon, authorized to sign for Spain, the terms of which included the following conditions:

The cession of Porto Rico to the United States, together with other Spanish West Indian Islands, not including Cuba.

The relinquishment of all claim and sovereignty over and to Cuba.

The cession of an island in the Ladrones.

Recognition that the United States shall temporarily occupy the city and harbor of Manila, until the final decision as to the disposition of the Philippines is reached.

The appointment of a commission to determine the final disposition of the Philippines.

The constitution of a peace commission to arrange the future of the Philippines, with the time and place of meeting.

A suspension of hostilities to follow the formal signing of the protocol.

Cuba, Porto Rico and other Spanish islands in the West Indies shall be evacuated, and commissioners, to be appointed within ten days, shall, within thirty days from the signing of the protocol, meet in Havana and San Juan respectively, to arrange and execute the details of the evacuation.

The disposition of the Spanish warships now in blockaded Cuban ports to be settled by the Commission of Capitulation.

Raising of the blockade against Cuba.

Certain fortified points, such as Morro Castle, and Fort Cabanas, to be occupied by United States troops at the discretion of the President.

Spanish soldiers shall remain in Cuba until the end of the rainy season to perform police duty and to preserve order.

A special commissioner shall be appointed to co-operate with Captain-General Blanco in the direction of affairs.

The Spanish municipal government to be continued, as was done at Santiago, until such time as the evacuation shall have been completed.

Spanish officials to be permitted to collect revenues, with the exception of those imposed upon the importation of food products.

Arrangements to be made for feeding, if not compensating, such Spanish soldiers as shall be employed in police duty.

Mines in the harbor of Havana to be removed by the Spanish authorities.

All minor details regarding the evacuation of Cuba and Porto Rico will be left to the Commission of Capitulation.

Signing of the protocol was followed by the prompt issuance of orders by both governments to suspend hostilities, but because of slow transmission of the news by cable to Manila, vigorous operations which were begun by Dewey and Merritt against that city on the sixth instant (August) were continued until capitulation was forced by an assault and a bombardment on the thirteenth. Demand was made upon Augusti by Dewey and Merritt on the seventh to surrender, which being refused, time was given for the removal of non-combatants, and early on the morning of the thirteenth the American squadron formed in line off Malate and opened a bombardment. The land forces, acting in conjunction with the navy, stormed the Spanish outer trenches with great gallantry and in fifteen minutes

drove out the enemy, who took refuge behind the city walls. Two hours later a white flag was raised and Manila was ours, with a loss of eight killed and forty wounded, while the casualties of the Spaniards were reported 160 killed and 600 wounded. 7,000 prisoners surrendered. Augusti escaped on a German cruiser and proceeded to Spain, leaving General Jauderies Alvarez to complete the terms of surrender. The insurgents were not permitted to take part in the assault, and after the capitulation were forbidden to enter the city except unarmed, as it was feared the flush of victory would prompt them to deeds of violence upon the Spaniards.

The downfall of Manila completed the chain of victories that distinguished our arms from the beginning, during which time the Spanish forces had not gained so much as a skirmish. But the capitulation of Manila meant more to us than the defeat of Spain, for it was the permanent planting of United States authority in the Philippines, the entering upon an experiment of territorial annexation that is destined to put to the severest test the flexibility and constructive power of our government in building up and regenerating a semi-barbarous people.

The battle of Manila was not a sanguinary combat, but nevertheless was of such importance in the resultant that the particulars of the fight should be well fixed in the minds of all Americans. It is thus reported by General Merritt, who was in command of the American forces :

“ Upon my arrival at Manila, July 29 (1898), I found General Greene’s command encamped on a strip of sandy land, running parallel to the shore of the bay, and not far distant from the beach. Owing to the great difficulties of landing supplies, the greater portion of the force had shelter-tents only and were suffering many discomforts, the camp being situated in a low, flat place, without shelter

from the heat of the tropical sun or adequate protection during the terrific downpours of rain so frequent at this season.

“ The Filipinos, or insurgent forces at war with Spain, had, prior to the arrival of the American land forces, been waging a desultory warfare with the Spaniards for several months, and were at the time of my arrival in considerable force, variously estimated and never accurately ascertained, but probably not far from 12,000 men. These troops, well supplied with small arms, with plenty of ammunition and several field guns, had obtained positions of investment opposite to the Spanish line of detached works throughout their entire extent.

“ As General Aguinaldo did not visit me on my arrival nor offer his services as a subordinate military leader, and as my instructions from the President fully contemplated the occupation of the islands by the American land forces, and stated that the powers of the military occupant are absolute and supreme, and immediately operative upon the political condition of the inhabitants, I did not consider it wise to hold any direct communication with the insurgent leader until I should be in possession of the city of Manila, especially as I would not until then be in a position to issue a proclamation and enforce my authority, in the event that his pretensions should clash with my designs.

“ For these reasons the preparations for the attack on the city were pressed and military operations conducted without reference to the situation of the insurgent forces. The wisdom of this course was subsequently fully established by the fact that when the troops of my command carried the Spanish intrenchments, extending from the sea to the Pasig Road on the extreme Spanish right, we were under no obligations, by prearranged plans of mutual attack, to turn to the right and clear the front still held against the

insurgents, but were able to move forward at once and occupy the city and suburbs.

“To return to the situation of General Greene’s brigade as I found it on my arrival, it will be seen that the difficulty in gaining an avenue of approach to the Spanish line lay in the fact of my disinclination to ask General Aguinardo to withdraw from the beach and the *Calle Real*, so that Greene could move forward. This was overcome by instructions to General Greene to arrange, if possible, with the insurgent brigade commander in his immediate vicinity to move to the right and allow the American forces unobstructed control of the roads in the immediate front. No objection was made, and accordingly General Greene’s brigade threw forward a heavy outpost line on the *Calle Real* and the beach, and constructed a trench, in which a portion of the guns of the *Utah* batteries was placed.

“The Spanish, observing this activity on our part, made a very sharp attack with infantry and artillery on the night of July 31. The behavior of our troops during this night attack was all that could be desired, and I have in cablegrams to the War Department, taken occasion to commend by name those who deserve special mention for good conduct in the affair.

“Our position was extended and strengthened after this, and resisted successfully repeated night attacks, our forces suffering, however, considerable loss in wounded and killed, while the losses of the enemy, owing to the darkness, could not be ascertained.

“The strain of the night fighting, and the heavy details for outpost duty, made it imperative to reinforce General Greene’s troops with General MacArthur’s brigade, which had arrived in transports July 31. The difficulties of this operation can hardly be over-estimated. The transports were at anchor off Cavité, five miles from a point on the

beach, where it was desired to disembark the men. Several squalls, accompanied by floods of rain, raged day after day, and the only way to get the troops and supplies ashore was to load from the ship's side into native lighters (called *cascoes*) or small steamboats, move them to a point opposite the camp and then disembark them through the surf in small boats, or by running the lighters' heads on the beach. The landing was finally accomplished after days of hard work and hardship; and I desire here to express again my admiration for the fortitude and cheerful willingness of the men of all commands engaged in this operation.

“ Upon the assembly of MacArthur's brigade in support of General Greene's I had about 8,500 men in position to attack, and I deemed the time had come for final action. During the time of the night attacks I had communicated my desire to Admiral Dewey that he would allow his ships to open fire on the right of the Spanish line of intrenchments, believing that such action would stop the night firing and loss of life, but the admiral had declined to order it unless we were in danger of losing our position by the assaults of the Spanish, for the reason that, in his opinion, it would precipitate a general engagement, for which he was not ready.

“ However, the brigade of General MacArthur was in position, and the *Monterey* had arrived, and under date of August 6, Admiral Dewey agreed to my suggestion that we should send a joint letter to the captain-general (Augustin) notifying him that he should remove from the city all non-combatants within forty-eight hours, and that operations against the defenses at Manila might begin at any time after the expiration of that period.

“ This letter was sent August 7, and a reply was received the same date, to the effect that the Spanish were without

places of refuge for the increased numbers of wounded, sick, women, and children now lodged within the walls. On the ninth, a formal joint demand for the surrender of the city was sent in. This demand was based on the hopelessness of the struggle on the part of the Spaniards and that every consideration of humanity demanded that the city should not be subjected to bombardment under such circumstances.

“The captain-general’s reply, of same date, stated that the counsel of defense had declared that the demand could not be granted, but the captain-general offered to consult his government if we would allow him the time strictly necessary for the communications by way of Hong Kong. This was declined on our part for the reason that it could, in the opinion of the admiral and myself, lead only to a continuance of the situation, with no immediate result favorable to us, and the necessity was apparent and very urgent that decisive action should be taken at once to compel the enemy to give up the town, in order to relieve troops from the trenches and from the exposure of unhealthy conditions, which was unavoidable in a bivouac during the rainy season.

“The seacoast batteries in defense of Manila are so situated that it is impossible for ships to engage them without firing into the town, and as the bombardment of a city filled with women and children, sick and wounded, and containing a large amount of neutral property, could only be justified as a last resort, it was agreed between Admiral Dewey and myself, that an attempt should be made to carry the extreme right of the Spanish line of intrenchments in front of the positions at that time occupied by our troops, which, with its flank on the seashore, was entirely open to the fire of the navy.

“It was not my intention to press the assault at this

point, in case the enemy should hold it in strong force, until after the navy had made practicable breaches in the works and shaken the troops holding them, which could not be done by the army alone, owing to the absence of siege guns. It was believed, however, as most desirable, and in accordance with the principles of civilized warfare, that the attempt should be made to drive the enemy out of his intrenchments before resorting to the bombardment of the city.

“ By orders issued some time previously MacArthur’s and Greene’s brigades were organized as the Second Division of the Eighth Corps, Brigadier-General Thomas Anderson commanding, and in anticipation of the attack General Anderson moved his headquarters from Cavité to the brigade camps and assumed direct command in the field. Copies of the written and verbal instructions, referred to above, were given to the division and brigade commanders on the twelfth, and all the troops were in position on the thirteenth at an early hour in the morning.

“ About 9 A. M. on that day our fleet steamed forward from Cavité and before 10 A. M. opened a hot and accurate fire of heavy shells and rapid fire projectiles on the sea flank of the Spanish intrenchments at the powder magazine fort, and at the same time the Utah Batteries, in position in our trenches near the “ Calle Real,” began firing with great accuracy.

“ At 10.25 on a prearranged signal from our trenches that it was believed our troops could advance, the navy ceased firing and immediately a light line of skirmishers from the Colorado regiment of Greene’s brigade passed over our trenches and deployed rapidly forward, another line from the same regiment from the left flank of our earthworks advancing swiftly up the beach in open order.

“ Both these lines found the powder magazine, fort and

the trenches flanking it deserted, but as they passed over the Spanish works they were met by a sharp fire from a second line situated in the streets of Malate, by which a number of men were killed and wounded, among others the soldiers who pulled down the Spanish colors still flying on the fort and raised our own.

“The works of the second line soon gave way to the determined advance of Greene’s troops, and that officer pushed his brigade rapidly through Malate and over the bridges to occupy Binondo and San Miguel, as contemplated in his instructions.

“In the meantime, the brigade of General MacArthur, advancing simultaneously on the Passay Road, encountered a very sharp fire, coming from the blockhouses, trenches and woods in his front, positions which it was very difficult to carry, owing to the swampy condition of the ground on both sides of the roads and the heavy undergrowth which concealed the enemy. With much gallantry and excellent judgment on the part of the brigade commander and the troops engaged these difficulties were overcome with a minimum loss, and MacArthur advanced and held the bridges and the town of Malate.

“The city of Manila was now in our possession, excepting the walled town, but shortly after the entry of our troops into Malate a white flag was displayed on the walls, whereupon Lieutenant-Colonel C. A. Whittier, United States Volunteers, of my staff, and Lieutenant Brumby, United States Navy, representing Admiral Dewey, were sent ashore to communicate with the captain-general.

“I soon personally followed these officers into the town, going at once to the palace of the governor-general, and there, after a conversation with the Spanish authorities, a preliminary agreement of the terms of capitulation was signed by the captain-general and myself. This agree-

ment was subsequently incorporated into the formal terms of capitulation, as arranged by the officers representing the two forces.

Immediately after the surrender the Spanish colors on the sea front were hauled down and the American flag displayed, and saluted by the guns of the navy. The Second Oregon Regiment, which had proceeded by sea from Cavité, was disembarked and entered the walled town as a provost guard, and the colonel was directed to receive the Spanish arms and deposit them in places of security. The town was filled with the troops of the enemy driven in from the intrenchments, regiments formed and standing in line in the streets, but the work of disarming proceeded quietly and nothing unpleasant occurred in the proceedings of surrender to our forces of the Spanish army of defense, and our complete occupation of Manila."

It is not a difficult thing to estimate the causes, costs, and immediate results of the war, but the issues involved in the establishment of government in Cuba, and peace in the Philippines, are questions that require able statesmanship to justly settle. The war, counting from the day of virtual declaration, April 21 (1898), had continued for a period of one hundred and eleven days. The expense to America was approximately \$110,000,000, or \$1,000,000 per day, while to Spain the cost, besides the loss of her colonies, is estimated to have been \$200,000,000. The expense to this government was thought to be more than compensated by the gain of territory, so that no indemnity was demanded of Spain, which, in her impoverished condition, she would have been unable to pay. The Cuban indebtedness of \$550,000,000 naturally fell upon Spain, which, added to her other bonded obligations, made her total government debt \$2,200,000,000, which is about

equal to the United States debt at the close of the Civil War, 1865.

Porto Rico, which became a colony of the United States October 18, has an area of 3,670 square miles, or three times greater than that of the State of Rhode Island. Its topography is mountainous in the center, with a narrow level coast belt, where the heat at times is intense and the climate unhealthy, but the interior is equable and salubrious. The principal productions are sugar, tobacco, coffee, and molasses, of which the annual export is about \$17,000,000 in value. Development of the country has been slow, but there are 175 miles of railroad, completed and under construction, and 470 miles of telegraph lines. The population is nearly one million, one-half of which are whites, one-third creoles, and one-sixth negroes. The chief towns are San Juan, the capital, having 24,000 inhabitants; Ponce, 40,000; Mayaguez, 27,000, and Maguabo, 18,000. It has 1,300 streams, of which 47 are navigable, and the mountain region, penetrated by these rivers, is rich in gold, copper, salt, and coal, but the great mineral wealth is undeveloped. Its distance from New York is 1,500 miles, or five days' sail.

The Philippine Islands, it may be said, comprise a group of 1,200 islands, with an aggregate area of about 115,000 square miles, of which Luzon is the largest and most developed. The land is extremely fertile and the climate mild and generally healthful. The chief productions are hemp, sugar, copra, coffee, tobacco, teak, fruits and spices, while of minerals there is gold, copper, coal, iron, and sulphur. The value of exports approximates \$25,000,000 annually, of which \$12,000,000 worth were formerly shipped to Spain. The chief city is Manila, that has an estimated population of 200,000.

Cuba, which may become annexed to the United States

by petition of her people, has an area of 43,220 square miles, which is 3000 square miles greater than the State of Ohio. It is traversed its extreme length by a mountain chain, but toward the coast the land is low and swampy and extremely unhealthy. The productions are tobacco, sugar, coffee, cotton, rice, and fruits, the annual exports to the United States being estimated at \$80,000,000 in value. Cuba has about 1,000 miles of railroads, but they are poorly built and wretchedly managed. Up to the time of the war Spain received about \$20,000,000 annually from Cuba in the way of revenue, but it is estimated that the cost of maintaining her sovereignty over the island exceeded \$120,000,000 annually. The largest city is Havana, with a population of 230,000, other important places being Matanzas, 90,000; Santiago de Cuba, 75,000; Cienfuegos, 65,000; Puerto Principe, 48,000; Santo Espiritu, 35,000; Cardenas, 25,000. Cuba is scantily watered, there being only one navigable stream, the Cauto, in the island. The population at the close of the war probably did not exceed 1,200,000.

The immediate gain by the United States, as an offset to the expense of conducting the war, was not confined to the insular territory acquired, and the accomplishment of our humane ends in freeing Cuba from the thrall of Spanish tyranny. A greater benefit than these was found in the re-establishment of fraternal feeling and a perfect unification between the long-alienated North and South, which emerged from the conflict as reunited brothers prompted by identical patriotic ambitions. "Yankee Doodle" and "Dixie" have become blended in the air of "The Star-Spangled Banner."

Another and quite as distinct gain for the country was found in the effect produced upon the sympathies and estimation of European powers, which had come to regard

our government as being feebly upheld by shopkeepers who would not fight, and for lack of a large standing army was unprepared and unable to defend the national honor. The war with Spain disabused the European mind of such false impressions, and raised the American republic to a position of respect and fear that will give us an advantage for all time to come. We are now acknowledged, at last, as being "The land of the free and the home of the brave."

It is very doubtful if the annals of warfare have ever recorded such a document as the farewell address which was presented on August 21, 1898, to the American army at Santiago by 11,000 Spanish soldiers on the eve of leaving Cuba for their native country.

This tribute to our gallant boys reads as follows :

"Soldiers of the American Army :

"We would not be fulfilling our duty as well-born men in whose breasts there live gratitude and courtesy should we embark for our beloved Spain without sending to you our most cordial and sincere good wishes and farewell. We fought you with ardor, with all our strength, endeavoring to gain the victory, but without the slightest rancor or hate toward the American nation. We have been vanquished by you (so our generals and chiefs judged in signing the capitulation), but our surrender and the bloody battle preceding it have left in our souls no place for resentment against the men who fought us nobly and valiantly.

"You fought and acted in compliance with the same call of duty as we, for we all represent the power of our respective States. You fought us as men face to face and with great courage, as before stated, a quality which we had not met with during the three years we have carried on this war against a people without religion, without morals, without conscience, and of doubtful origin," who

could not confront the enemy, but, hidden, shot their noble victims from ambush and then immediately fled. This was the kind of warfare we had to sustain in this unfortunate land.

“ You have complied exactly with all the laws and usages of war as recognized by the armies of the most civilized nations of the world; have given honorable burial to the dead of the vanquished; have cured their wounded with great humanity; have respected and cared for your prisoners and their comfort; and, lastly, to us, whose condition was terrible, you have given freely of food, of your stock of medicines, and you have honored us with distinction and courtesy, for after the fighting the two armies mingled with the utmost harmony.

“ With the high sentiment of appreciation from us all, there remains but to express our farewell, and with the greatest sincerity we wish you all happiness and health in this land, which will no longer belong to our dear Spain, but will be yours, who have conquered it by force and watered it with your blood as your conscience called for, under the demand of civilization and humanity.

“ From 11,000 Spanish soldiers.

“ Pedra Lopez de Castillo, Soldier of Infantry.

“ SANTIAGO DE CUBA, *August 21, 1898.*”

CHAPTER XIII.

THE island of Porto Rico, which is 108 miles long by 37 miles broad, was discovered by Columbus on his second voyage, November, 1493. It was called Borinquen by the aborigines, who numbered about 600,000, and were most peaceable and hospitable. In 1510 Ponce de Leon founded the town now called Puerto Viejo, and a year later established San Juan, where he built a very splendid residence, for the times, and so substantial that it still remains in a fair state of preservation and is one of the objects that guides are certain to point out to foreign visitors to the city. The original natives of Porto Rico were so little accustomed to war or hardships that in a few years their numbers were reduced one-half by the ferocious Spaniards and buccaneers. In 1595 San Juan was pillaged by Drake, and three years later by the Duke of Cumberland. The English were beaten before San Juan in 1678, and in 1797 Abercrombie was forced to raise the siege he laid to the city. Slavery existed in the island until 1873, but the Porto Ricans never enjoyed civil liberty even after the abrogation of forced labor.

It was during Grant's second term as President that the proposition was brought forward to purchase the Spanish West Indies, it being then clearly understood that no extension of the sea power of this country, either naval or commercial, could be possible without coaling stations in or close to the Caribbean Sea. The opposition, however, to the expansion theory of those days was so fierce that

after a protracted debate and contest in the Senate, and chiefly through the opposition of Charles Sumner, of Massachusetts, the measure was killed, to be revived in the spring of 1898, when the conflict with Spain seemed impending. It was quickly realized, however, that whatever might be the varying fortunes of the war, that there could be but one end, and that favorable to the United States, and therefore Porto Rico must be one of the prizes of the struggle, which should compensate us for our endeavors, so that the proposed purchase of the Danish West Indies was again dropped, probably never to be revived.

As a delightful winter resort, a valuable tropical garden, and an important strategic point, Porto Rico is a valuable acquisition to the people and government of the United States.

It must not be expected that so small an island can become a large factor in supplying the tropical productions, valued in all at \$250,000,000, which the people of the United States annually consume, or that it can absorb a very large percentage of the \$1,200,000,000 of this country's annual productions. Smaller in area than the State of Connecticut and with a population less than that of the city of Brooklyn, it may not be able to meet the somewhat extravagant expectations which enthusiastic people have entertained with reference to it. Its population is more dense than that of Massachusetts, and the prospect of materially increasing its productiveness is not flattering. It is mountainous from center to circumference, and the million people who occupy its 3,530 square miles of territory have put under cultivation most of the available soil, much of which requires irrigating. While their methods of culture and transportation are in many cases primitive, it cannot be expected that the productions

of this densely populated and closely cultivated area can be largely increased, or its consumption greatly multiplied. The valleys and coast lands are well occupied with sugar estates; the area adjoining these is devoted to tobacco, and the mountain sides to the very peaks are occupied by large coffee plantations, with patches of cocoanuts, bananas, plantains, bread-fruit, oranges and other tropical fruits scattered among them.

Although the 200,000 of its population who live in cities and villages enjoy some of the conveniences to which our people are accustomed, the large proportion of the rural population is of extremely simple habits in the matter of food, clothing and habitations, and, with small earning capacity and a depreciated currency, cannot be expected soon to become large consumers of our products. A little rice, a little flour, a few beans, and plenty of bananas, plantains, bread-fruit and vegetables to satisfy their physical necessities; a few yards of cotton cloth for the adults and nothing for the children, meet their principal requirements for clothing, while a few rough boards and a plentiful supply of plantain and palm leaves supply the material for the humble dwellings throughout the interior, and in many of the villages.

With only one-fifth of its population able to read and write, knowledge of the outside world is extremely limited, and with only one hundred and fifty miles of railroad and less than two hundred and fifty miles of good wagon roads on the island, the means of communication are not such as to stimulate production or consumption. Most of the good roads—some of them fine—run from town to town along the coast, though there is one exception in the military road connecting Ponce, on the south shore, with San Juan, on the north shore.

Most of the interior, however, is only reached by bridle-

paths, over which transportation is effected by packs carried on small ponies. In the cities and towns most of the transportation is by bullocks, yoked in primitive fashion to two-wheeled carts, and urged to their work by a sharp-pointed pole in the hands of a native driver, who walks in front of his team, turning to give them a vigorous punch when they do not follow with sufficient speed. The cattle of the island are of a superior class, similar in appearance to Jersey cattle, but with broad horns, the cows being driven from door to door in the towns and milked into bottles in the presence of the customer, while the calves stand patiently upon the sidewalk awaiting the removal of the peripatetic dairy to the residence of the next customer.

Education on the island is not of a high order. A sort of public school system prevails in some of the towns and cities, but in the interior reading and writing, except among the plantation owners and managers, are rare. Spanish is the popular tongue, though the natives of France, of whom there are quite a number, retain their language, and there are in the towns some English-speaking negroes from St. Thomas and other near-by English colonies, who proved useful as interpreters to the Americans already on the island. One of the two daily newspapers published in Ponce prints one page in English, out of compliment to the new conditions, most of the matter so published being extracts from the Constitution of the United States and sketches of the lives of our distinguished men.

There are Roman Catholic churches in all the cities and large towns, some of them dating back over a century, handsomely finished within, and representing a large expenditure of money. There is one Protestant church at Ponce, said to have been the only one in the Spanish West Indies, but at present unoccupied. There are theaters in the principal cities, and several of the leading towns have

telephones and are connected by telegraph lines aggregating about four hundred miles in length, while cable communication is had with the United States at \$1.17 a word.

The Spanish government in 1895 took up all the Mexican and Spanish coins in circulation and substituted special silver coins struck in the mint of Spain. They bear on one side the Spanish coat-of-arms and the words "Isla de Puerto Rico," and on the other the face of the boy king and an elaborate inscription in Spanish. The largest of these is the peso, of 100 centavos, corresponding in appearance with our silver dollars, weighing 385.5 grains, and were generally spoken of as a "dollar." There were also smaller silver coins of 5, 10, 20 and 40 centavos, the 20-centavos piece being known as the peseta, with copper coins of one and two centavos. The Spanish government made no attempt to maintain the standing of the silver coins, and they represented little more than their bullion value, the banks and merchants gladly exchanging \$1.75 in this coin for \$1 in our silver or paper, and exchanges were sometimes made at two for one. The native drivers, boatmen and venders, learned quickly the superior value of our coins, and a 25-cent piece in United States coin was readily accepted at from 45 to 50 cents in payment for services.

Another interesting question was whether or not the plantation labor, which had in the past been satisfied with fifty to sixty cents a day in Porto Rican money, would be content to accept twenty-five to thirty cents a day in our coin in its stead. The silver money coined and sent to the island by Spain amounted to 6,000,000 pesos, and there had been added about one million in paper by certain of the five banks of the island. Some of it stood at par with the silver and some at a discount. Little of the paper money was seen in ordinary business transactions.

Much interest was shown by people from the United States in investments in Porto Rico, and on this subject there was a variety of opinion. Coffee plantations were first considered, as they had a reputation of having paid from 15 to 25 per cent. profit annually upon their cost. They were held at high prices, however, from \$75 to \$200 an acre in Porto Rican money, according to location, quality of coffee produced, age of trees, etc. The western part of the island is considered the best for coffee and produces the celebrated *Cafe Caracolila*, which was all sent to Europe at the export price of thirty-two cents a pound in Porto Rican money.

Sugar plantations were considered next in importance, and were relatively more costly, because of the more expensive machinery required, while their attractiveness as investments was reduced by the fact that many plantations had been abandoned and turned into cattle ranges.

Tobacco had been profitable because of the shortage in Cuban tobacco, for which it had been substituted, though whether it could continue its popularity when the Cuban article resumed its normal position in the market is uncertain.

Tropical fruits have had little attention, either among local exporters or American investors, but might prove more profitable than other interests more discussed, as they are ready for shipment at a time of the year when the markets of the United States have not begun to receive the Florida or California fruits.

As to the increase which may be expected in the production and consumption of the island it will depend somewhat upon the improvements made in harbors, roads, transportation facilities, etc., and the energy with which the Americans may push the work of development. The land in the valleys is extremely rich, and that of the moun-

tain sides, even to the tops, is of good color and productive, especially for coffee and some of the fruits. With the opening of roads to the interior it is probable that considerable land not hitherto tilled would be brought under cultivation. The general consensus of opinion among the intelligent inhabitants of the island was that the product could be increased 50 per cent., or perhaps more; the profits greatly increased by modern methods of cultivation and transportation, and the consuming power of the island increased in about the same proportion. Even should this happen, however, the island could furnish only about 10 per cent. of our annual consumption of tropical products, and consume only about 2 per cent. of our annual exports.

An acre of land in Porto Rico can produce more of value in sugar, or coffee, or tobacco, or fruit than if planted in corn or potatoes or used as pasture, while there are single counties in the United States larger than all Porto Rico which are only suitable for the production of these general food supplies. While there is a general demand for manufactures in Porto Rico, they can be more cheaply supplied by the great factories in this country than by attempting their manufacture there, especially as no coal has yet been developed in the island. Fuel is high and water power is not to be relied upon. Ice factories and breweries would do well, and it was believed that the production of grapes and the manufacture of wine would be successful, while the cigar industry would be profitable with the plentiful native labor and the high grade tobacco, especially if all tariff restrictions upon trade between the island and the United States are removed.

Among the most important needs for the development of the island are a thorough survey and readjustment of property lines and titles, construction of roads and harbor

facilities and the establishment of such hotel enterprises as will make practicable a leisurely and careful study of its conditions, conditions which had never been carefully studied or developed by the Spanish government, which had controlled the island since 1509.

As a resort for pleasure-seekers, or for those desiring a delightful winter climate, Porto Rico must be attractive whenever direct and fast steamship lines and American hotels supply some of the comforts to which the people of the United States have become accustomed. The constant breeze from the sea by day and the land at night renders the climate a fairly comfortable one in August, and the opportunity to obtain almost any desired altitude, coupled with the mineral springs which abound, must make the island attractive to those seeking health as well as recreation.

In the cities and towns the succession of strange sights and sounds presents a kaleidoscopic and always interesting spectacle. The street venders, carrying their stores upon their heads or in huge panniers on diminutive ponies, announce their wares in strange and not unmusical cries; long lines of rude carts drawn by broad-horned bullocks crowd the streets; native women smoking black cigars flit hither and thither; nude children of all colors and ages below eight disport themselves unconcernedly upon the sidewalks and streets, while soldiers and officers were everywhere busy with their duties establishing order and new conditions. On the country roads the succession of mountains and valleys covered with tropical growth, dashing mountain streams and overhanging cliffs, and the large sugar and coffee plantations, dotted with the tiny houses of their native workmen, present a panorama of constant interest.

Porto Rico resumed, politically, the relations with this

continent which long existed physically. Torn by great natural movements from the mainland, of which this chain of islands doubtless formed a part, she was restored by another great natural movement which reunited the continent and island in a system having one great purpose of co-operation and mutual advancement. Alone she can furnish only a small part of the tropical supplies for which we have been accustomed to send \$250,000,000 abroad each year, but with the co-operation of undeveloped Cuba, Hawaii and the Philippines, she could enable us to expend among our own people practically all of that vast sum which we have heretofore been compelled to send to foreign lands and foreign people.

From the point of view of the native Porto Rican, perhaps the most marked change which followed the American occupation of the island was the ending of the priestly power, which had dominated the lives of the islands in all affairs, big and little, for several centuries. The padre was, in a way, the most important man in every village, while in the large cities additional opportunities had given him an added power, for many of the priests were very able men. Under the new conditions the political and semi-political functions of the priests were necessarily cut off, but it is unlikely that they could lose all their moral influence over the people, who, as a rule, honored and revered them, not only as representatives of the Church, but as men. The Church of St. John in San Juan, although damaged by the fire of Admiral Sampson's warships, was placed in good order again and continued to occupy the place in the religious and social life of the people which it had filled so long.

The social life of the Porto Rican cities is like that of all other tropical Spanish-American countries, and invariably begins with attendance at Mass in the cool of the

early morning. But the churches were more than merely places of worship; they formed the principal rendezvous for social intercourse, especially between young men and women, who, under the strict ideas which prevail, were not allowed to meet in any other place, nor, for that matter, could they openly meet in church.

Nearly all the principal towns were garrisoned by Spanish troops, who were housed in regular barracks. In the Department of Arecibo, otherwise known as the Second Department of the Province of Porto Rico, there were two battalions of volunteers and one company of the Provisional Battalion, the whole under command of a lieutenant-colonel of infantry. At other places there were similar garrisons, sometimes more, sometimes less.

Another class of buildings which came into the possession of the American government comprised the military hospitals, of which there were several distributed about the island. As a rule, these hospitals were modern in equipment and first class in every respect. The one at San Juan was a fine two-story structure of brick covered with stucco, and well fitted to meet all the demands which might be made upon it in normal times.

Throughout the whole of the island there is perhaps no more picturesque and pleasant residence than the governor's palace in San Juan. It is situated on a high point of the island, with an extensive outlook over the sea and over the Bay of San Juan. The building is three stories in height, with a little park before it. When the American governor arrived in San Juan he found provided for him a very pleasant official residence.

The latest estimates of the population of the island put it at about 900,000, of whom 140,000 were peninsulares or natives of Spain and from 12,000 to 14,000, foreigners mostly Frenchmen, Italians, Germans, Englishmen, and

Americans, other nationalities being very little represented. The native population was composed of two-thirds whites, descendants of Spaniards and people of other European countries, and one-third negroes and mulattoes, or people of mixed blood.

The mode of life is very similar to that of the European countries, except for some slight differences due to the hot climate

Fashions for men and women alike were introduced from Spain, and especially from Paris and London. The well-to-do in the principal towns dressed just like people in European countries, men wearing woolen clothes all the year round. The young women dressed very elaborately, and all wear hats, the Spanish mantilla being worn only by elderly women. In the small towns men dress after the fashion of the cities, but wear linen fabrics, as woolen clothes are very uncomfortable, are considered a luxury, and are worn on holy days and Sundays only. Laborers and farm hands do not wear coats or shoes. They do not care to do so, and, if they did, they could not afford to, as their wages are very small.

Life at San Juan and other principal towns is very monotonous, the only amusements being retreat or concert by the military bands twice a week and theatrical performances three or four evenings a week, matinees being given very seldom. The theaters are own by the cities and rented to European companies traveling through the island at so much an evening.

San Juan, the capital seat of the government and also of the best society in the island, is built on a small island connected with the mainland by the San Antonio bridge, is quite a beautiful city, with straight but narrow streets, and many fine buildings. It has several public institutions and colleges, several churches and seven small parks, among

them the Plazuela de Santiago, with a very good statue of Columbus. The city was lighted by gas supplied by an English company and by electricity supplied by a local corporation. There were eleven newspapers of all kinds, the principal one being *La Correspondencia*, a daily political paper, with a circulation of about 7,000 copies, which was equal to that of the other papers combined. There was a local telephone company, but no water except that of the cisterns. A reservoir was projected and the plan was approved by the Spanish government some fifty years before, but owing to the *manaña* system it had not been finished yet.

The history of the Spanish administration in the island was one of cruelty and corruption. The Spaniards began by exterminating the native Indian population, which some historians placed as large as 500,000, in less than a century. Every branch of the administration of the island was conducted under a system of corruption, the law was constantly violated by the Spaniards and the natives were deprived of their rights. At elections the Spanish or conservative party always won, notwithstanding the fact that it was in a large minority.

The liberty of the press was unknown. Articles printed in the Madrid or other Spanish papers attacking the government could not be reproduced by any Porto Rican paper without the editors being punished, even if the article in question had not been considered ground for prosecution by the authorities in Spain.

No more than nineteen persons were allowed to meet in any place on the island without special permission of the government, and a representative of the mayor of the town had to attend meetings to see that nothing was done or said against "the integrity of the nation."

Licenses were required for everything, even for a danc-

ing party. These were some of the things which caused the people at Ponce to cheer the Americans who took possession of the town.

Porto Rico's foreign trade in 1896 was the largest in the history of the island, amounting to \$36,624,120; and, for the first time in more than a decade, the value of the exports exceeded that of the imports. The statistics of the year's trade were collected by Frank H. Hitchcock, chief of the Section of Foreign Markets of the Department of Agriculture, and published in a bulletin, "The Trade of Porto Rico." The statistics were based upon the official trade returns compiled by authority of the colonial government, and were procured in advance of publication from the colonial customs officials at San Juan by the New York and Porto Rico Steamship Company.

The foreign trade of Porto Rico was conducted chiefly with Spain, the United States, Germany, the United Kingdom, and France. Of all the merchandise imported and exported by the island during the four year 1893-96, fully eighty-five per cent., measured in value, was exchanged with the six countries mentioned. Spain received the largest share of the trade—an average of \$9,888,074 a year. The United States ranked second, with a yearly average of \$6,845,252. Cuba's trade with Porto Rico averaged \$4,606,220, Germany's was \$3,050,334, that of the United Kingdom was \$2,863,930, and that of France \$2,201,687. During 1896, nine other countries had a trade with the island exceeding \$1,000,000—British possessions, other than the East Indies, \$2,039,749; Italy, \$1,047,843; British East Indies, \$886,339; Austria-Hungary, \$553,793; Belgium, \$297,701; Argentina, \$251,844; Uruguay, \$223,793; the Netherlands, \$170,586, and Denmark, \$137,213. Other countries included in the trade returns were: French possessions, Danish possessions, Santo Domingo, Venezuela,

Sweden and Norway, Switzerland, Peru, Mexico Hayti, and Portugal.

Agricultural products made up a large part of the island's imports and nearly all her exports. The value of the agricultural imports in 1895 was \$7,171,352, and of the non-agricultural imports \$9,664,101. The agricultural exports were valued at \$14,573,366, and the non-agricultural at only \$617,490. Rice, wheat, flour, and hog products were the principal imports, comprising nearly two-thirds of the total agricultural imports. The imports of rice in 1895 were valued at \$2,271,819, wheat flour was imported to the extent of 170,460 barrels, worth \$1,023,694. The hog products imported were valued at \$1,274,618. Other agricultural imports, with values exceeding \$100,000, in 1895 were: wines, \$431,536; vegetables, \$400,656; olive oil, \$341,607; cheese, \$337,790; canned goods, \$178,536; jerked beef, \$139,245; bread, biscuit, and so forth, \$110,375; malt liquors, \$107,243. Vegetable products played the most important part in the agricultural imports. Bread stuff imports had a total value of \$1,134,017, and meat products imported were valued at \$1,531,986.

Cotton fabrics led the non-agricultural imports, their value in 1895 being \$2,070,667. The imports of fish amounted to \$1,918,107; of wood and its manufactures, \$840,511; of leather and its manufactures, \$711,417. The imports of tobacco in its manufactured forms amounted to \$692,333. Iron and steel and their manufactures, not including machinery and apparatus, were imported to the extent of \$658,413; and the imports of machinery and apparatus were valued at \$344,879. The value of the imports of manufactures of hemp, flax, jute, manila, etc., was \$408,974. Other important non-agricultural imports were soap, \$248,571; paper and pasteboard and their manufactures, \$196,197; mineral oils, crude and refined,

\$169,629; cotton, yarn and thread, \$154,964; woollens, \$154,947; paraffin, stearine, wax, spermaceti, and their manufactures, \$151,995; glass and glassware, \$125,688; coal and coke, \$124,536.

Coffee and sugar, the leading products of the island, comprised in value fully 85 per cent. of all the merchandise sent to foreign ports. The quantity of coffee shipped in 1895 was 40,243,693 pounds, and its value was \$9,159,985; the exports of sugar amounted to 132,147,277 pounds, valued at \$3,905,741. In addition to the sugar \$539,571 worth of molasses was shipped, making the total value of sugar and molasses exported \$4,445,312. Leaf tobacco was the next most important export, the amount in 1895 being 3,665,051 pounds, valued at \$673,787. Other important exports were: cattle, \$141,816; maize, \$69,410; hides, \$53,799; fruits and nuts, \$10,880; distilled spirits, \$9,466. Guano was the only important non-agricultural export. In 1895 the exports amounted to 15,491,476 pounds, valued at \$610,921. The value of all the other non-agricultural exports was only \$10,000.

Porto Rico's export of coffee more than doubled in ten years. The shipment in 1896 was 58,780,000 pounds, valued at \$13,379,000. The export in 1888 was worth only \$6,275,000, while in the year before the amount of the export was only 27,670,000 pounds and valued at \$3,391,000. During the first five years of the decade, ending with the year 1896, the annual average amount of the exports of coffee was 40,349,000 pounds, and the value \$4,945,000; while in the second half of the decade the amount averaged 49,229,000 pounds, and the value was \$10,872,000.

Sugar, molasses, and tobacco on the other hand were among the products whose export decreased. The tobacco export in 1896 amounted to 2,220,000 pounds, valued at

\$408,000; the export in 1887 was 7,663,000 pounds, with a value of \$1,089,000, and two years later the export of tobacco was still larger, averaging the exports of the first years of the decade, and comparing the result with the average for the last five, it is seen that the tobacco shipment decreased from 5,597,000 to 3,534,000 pounds, and from \$799,000 to \$642,000 in value. In the same way, it is seen that the sugar export decreased from 137,866,000 pounds, valued at \$3,923,000 for the first five years, to 121,035,000 pounds, valued at \$3,484,000, for the last five; and the molasses export was from 44,095,000 pounds, valued at \$463,000, to 29,609,000, valued at \$481,000.

The British East Indies sent Porto Rico 28,685,623 pounds of rice in 1896, Germany sent 26,120,840 pounds and Spain sent 12,977,220. The import of rice from all other countries was only 2,819,566 pounds. The United States shipped \$944,418 worth of flour, leaving only \$24,129 worth for Spain, the United Kingdom and France. This country also shipped \$1,342,104 worth of hog products to Porto Rico in 1896, all but \$13,337 of the total import.

Porto Rican coffee was shipped principally to Spain, Cuba, Germany, Italy and Austria-Hungary, Spain receiving 16,405,900 pounds, in 1896 and Cuba 15,577,710 pounds, together more than half the total export. France bought 11,306,689 pounds. To the United Kingdom only 334,119 pounds were shipped, and to this country only 322,591 pounds. The United States took more than half the export of sugar and molasses. Of the 122,946,335 pounds of sugar shipped from Porto Rico in 1896, 71,875,614 pounds came here and 43,600,064 pounds went to Spain. The United States received \$331,646 worth of the molasses exported in 1896, and the United Kingdom and the British possessions received the rest,

which was worth \$161,976. No molasses was exported to Spain or Cuba, but these countries got three-fourths of the tobacco. Of the 2,219,907 pounds shipped in 1896, Cuba received 2,160,347 pounds and Spain 1,375,751 pounds. Shipments of Porto Rican tobacco to the United States were rare.

Spain's trade with Porto Rico increased in value from \$4,929,799 in 1887 to \$12,644,955 in 1896. The chief gain was in the increase of Spain's exports to the island from \$2,411,216 in 1887 to \$7,268,498 in 1896. During the same period the value of the imports from Porto Rico advanced from \$2,518,563 to \$5,376,457. Coffee and sugar constitute in value about nine-tenths of the total imports, excluding coin and bullion. After coffee and sugar the most important agricultural imports from Porto Rico are leaf tobacco, cacao, hides and skins, and fruits. Spain's non-agricultural imports from Porto Rico amounted to less than \$100,000 a year, and were principally bags and sacks, tobacco manufactures, and guano.

Spain's exports to Porto Rico were three-fourths non-agricultural products. Cotton fabrics constituted nearly a third of all the merchandise shipped during 1892-96, the annual average valuation being \$1,581,706. The shipments of leather and its manufactures amounted to \$871,187 a year; of soap, \$257,227; sandals, \$160,907; hats and caps, \$160,448; paper and paper manufactures, \$125,966; candles, \$123,748; flax and hemp fabrics, \$77,524; wood and its manufactures, \$71,267; woolens, \$68,668; silk fabrics, \$59,147; perfumery, \$52,769. Chief among the agricultural exports for the period were rice, olive oil, wines, pulse and canned goods. The average annual export of rice was \$243,037; olive oil, \$238,373; wines, \$133,323; chick peas and other pulse, \$127,360; canned goods, \$124,999; wheat flour, \$64,624; fruits and nuts,

\$59,685 ; garlic, \$55,445 ; bread and biscuit, \$49,637 ; potatoes, \$36,832 ; chocolate, \$35,026 ; paste for soups, \$33,609 ; butter, \$25,805 ; distilled liquors, \$23,974 ; charcuterie, \$22,372 ; onions, \$20,756 ; oil of the almond, peanut, and other seeds, \$12,221 ; meats and lard, \$12,167 ; beer and cider, \$10,117 ; spices, \$5,293.

It is too early to predict to what extent the sudden and violent change in government is to affect the trade of this island. It would seem that eventually most of it must be diverted to the United States, but commercial ties are slower to be torn asunder than political ones, which, in this case, was brought about by force of arms ; therefore, a considerable time must elapse before Americans and American business ideas become dominant in the island.

In the first place, Spanish customs are so thoroughly engrafted that it will, in all probability, take years to remove them and substitute those in vogue in the United States. In the happy-go-lucky life of the tropics customs change slowly, when they change at all, and for this reason the transfer incident to the transfer of the island from one power to another will necessarily have to be accomplished gently, and with due regard for conditions that are the outgrowth of the usages of four centuries.

One of the most peculiar of local mercantile customs was the credit system in use. In the first place, the amount of money on the island was so limited that merchants were driven to getting goods on long time. They are content to make but little profit on what they sold, but to even matters up they insisted on credit extending anywhere from eighteen months to three years. Of course, only merchants with first-class financial standing could obtain the longer time, but those who practically lived from hand to mouth received eighteen months' time in which to meet their obligations. One of the prevailing

principles among the merchants was that the longer time he had, the more he was to buy. He did not care if prices could be advanced on him on account of the long credit, but he must have the credit, and he always got it.

These long credits and the reckless manner in which they had been extended gave rise to an enormous number of stores of all classes. Every little town had enough stores to accommodate a population five times as great as its own. As a rule these establishments were wretchedly small, and carried a large diversity of wares, yet with stocks that were mainly noticeable for their meagerness. Except in Juan city, it was the rule for storekeepers to sell nearly everything—from jewelry to salt pork, and from silk laces to wheelbarrows. Indeed, the Porto Rican stores, with the exception noted, were miniatures of the big department stores of New York. In the capital were stores where specialties were made of dry goods, of groceries, shoes and other commodities, and these, taken with the smaller and more conglomerate shops, could easily fill the wants of half the population of the island.

In Porto Rico, the native women seem to be the energetic members of the household; the men are decidedly indolent. Many women went into the camps of the invading army of the United States and offered for small sums to do the mending and laundering. Their method of washing was a curiosity to the soldiers, who often stood and watched them, for they wash in the streams and use stones in lieu of washboards, then spread the garments on the foliage to dry.

Some of the women keep small stores, in which they sell nearly everything from a paper of pins to a tart. A loaf of bread such as is sold here for five cents they divide into pieces and sell them for two cents each, the people pre-

ferring to buy only sufficient for each meal, or as they want it, instead of in a quantity. Some of the natives on visiting camp were shocked when told that the soldiers were each given a whole loaf of bread each day, and ate it, too.

CHAPTER XIX.

THE GREAT PEACE JUBILEE.

THE surrender of Santiago marked the culmination of hostilities of a pronounced character in the Spanish-American War, but it was almost one month later that definite proceedings were accomplished to bring about peace. When at last a protocol was signed, August 12, committing the two countries to terms of final agreement, great joy was felt which soon took the form of public demonstration. New York was first to give public expression to this jubilant sentiment by a magnificent naval parade in North River on August 20, which afforded a spectacle as magnificent as it was imposing.

Seven grim black ships, the fighting backbone of our navy, passed in review before the eyes of the nation's chief city, steamed up the North River to Grant's Tomb, and there fired a salute in honor of the hero who lies there magnificently entombed. The event was a triumph and a tribute—a triumph for the heroes of to-day, a tribute to the hero of yesterday.

New York had seen naval parades before ; it had never before seen a naval parade that meant what that pageant meant. It had never welcomed a victorious fleet, fresh from battle and with the marks of conflict still upon it. Five years before, all the powers of the world sent their ships there in celebration of our Columbian anniversary. There were Spanish ships there then. One of them lies

shattered and riddled, a wreck on the Santiago coast. It was a beautiful celebration, that parade of 1893, but the graceful white ships that formed a shining line down the river upon that occasion did not stir American hearts as they were stirred by the procession of battle-scarred war ships, fresh from their victories, that defiled down the river August 20.

No one who looked at them could say that those ships in their war paint were things of beauty. It was to a deeper sentiment than the æsthetic that they appealed. Each one of them stood for energy and skill and knowledge rightly directed, for duty cheerfully done, for death nobly faced, for the upholding of the nation's honor and the flag's glory. The men behind the guns were there, too. The eager thousands on shore could not see them, but the saluting guns spoke for them.

As they passed in review—*New York, Iowa, Indiana, Brooklyn, Massachusetts, Oregon, and Texas*—they were cheered from the shores and the boats by more people than Spain had left alive in Cuba. Not only did New York turn out, but for miles around people converged upon the city to gather on the shores of the North River, and that not for an event which had been determined upon long before and prepared for by excursions and special trains, but a parade that at best was dependent upon weather which might well have delayed the expected fleet. Not the least significant feature of the day was that never before had such an event been so promptly begun and completed. The navy was on time.

What New York could do to honor the ships it did. Not only did it turn out its millions, but it floated Old Glory on a hundred thousand buildings, it decked its shipping in gala colors and it answered the ships' salutes from the mouth of its own cannon, in fort and in the open. There

was not much time for preparation, and there was not a great splendor of formality, but the day was one that New York will not forget so long as generation hands down its records to succeeding generation.

It was a simple ceremonial. There were seven ships that sailed up the river, fired their salutes and sailed back to their anchorage. That was all. But the salutes were fired from guns that have made American history, and the men behind those guns and the ships that carried them had won new glory for our country.

Chicago had seen many parades greater than their Peace Parade of October 19, 1898, but she never saw one that pleased the people more. The greetings extended to President McKinley were enthusiastic in the extreme, as were those to General Miles and General Shafter. The President in his carriage was surrounded by members of the Chicago Hussars, formed in a square, and detachments of the Grand Army and of Confederate veterans acted as escort. He led the parade from the starting point, at Congress Street and Michigan Avenue, to the Union League Club House, where in company with the other distinguished guests he alighted and reviewed the parade. Throughout the entire march past the stand, which lasted a trifle over three hours, the President remained standing. Mrs. McKinley arrived at the Union League Club somewhat in advance of the President's party escorted by Captain McWilliams, and during the passage of the procession she remained at an upstairs window of the club house.

A cheer went up from the crowd as President McKinley took his place on the reviewing stand. Among those on the President's stand were Secretary and Mrs. Gage, Secretary Bliss, Secretary and Miss Wilson, Postmaster-General Smith, Generals Miles, Shafter, Duffield and Corbin, Samuel

E. Morse, Governor Mount, of Indiana ; Mayors Malster, of Baltimore ; Maybury, of Detroit, and Rose, of Milwaukee ; Admiral George Brown, the Chinese and Corean Ministers, Samuel Gompers, Judge Emory Speer, Assistant Secretary Meiklejohn, Señor Quesade, General Greely and wife, Governor Barnes, of Oklahoma ; Clark Howell, Governor Scofield, of Wisconsin ; Archbishop Ireland, ex-Vice-President Adlai E. Stevenson and wife, Booker T. Washington, Dr. and Mrs. William R. Harper and Captain McCalla. In the reviewing stand proper there were with the President General Miles and General Shafter, both in full uniform ; Governor Tanner, Mayor Harrison and Chairman Truax, of the Jubilee Committee.

At the head of the parade were the veterans of the Grand Army and of the Confederacy. Several of the posts carried old banners that waved in battle thirty-five years ago, and to each one of the tattered flags the President called the attention of those about him, and every head was bared until the flag had gone by. Behind the veterans of a former war came many civic societies.

After these came the Fourth Regiment of Infantry, from Fort Sheridan, and then such of the fighting men of Chicago as had returned from the war. As the military division, commanded by Brigadier-General Fitzsimmons, of the Illinois National Guard, approached the reviewing stand, the enthusiasm of the crowd grew. The First Illinois, which gave more lives in the war than any other Illinois body of enlisted men, stirred the people greatly. The Seventh Infantry closed the parade.

Philadelphia's great Peace Jubilee, October 26, 27, and 28, will long linger in the minds of those who enjoyed the celebrations as a notable monument to the patriotism of the people. When the great occasion was ushered in, the curtain rolled up on a city dressed in her best, her arms

stretched forth in welcome to her thousands of guests and her heart beating with pride in the knowledge of her ability to acquit herself happily in the eyes of her visitors.

The task of preparing for the jubilee was herculean, but it was gloriously perfected. Even on Tuesday, the day of the naval parade, which set the pace for the land demonstration, a tumbling tide of color rolled over the entire business section of the city, and after the review the crowds began to revel in the decorations and in the prospects of what was to come. The men of prominence who had been invited to the jubilee were all handsomely provided for; the visiting soldiers were comfortably billeted, and although several of the leading hotels turned crowds away, all were finally housed.

All roads led to the river on the first day of the jubilee, and from the wharves and banks thousands of people gazed at the mighty machines of war that lay at anchor on the broad bosom of the Delaware. The expanse of river between League Island and the New Jersey shore was as placid and as shiny as a sheet of glass after the haze cleared away, and the sun shone out in all its glory. It is a pretty expanse of water on all sunshiny days, but dotted with numerous yachts, row-boats and launches, and with almost every kind of craft that could be used for reviewing, some of which looked like crumbling relics of marine antiquity, all gayly bedecked with bunting, it was an especially attractive picture.

When Secretary John D. Long circled the great ships of war he was followed by the eyes and cheers of a multitude. With wild acclamation the crowd that thronged the piers, housetops, and huge flotilla in which every description of craft had a place, received the cannonade of the navy, and with equally wild outbursts of enthusiasm they greeted the ships and the men behind the guns. Mr. Long received

his first salute from a one-pounder mounted on the fore-castle of the steam yacht *May*, and as the sharp crack of the gun announced his arrival, the secretary's pennant was run up to the truck of the mizzenmast and the Stars and Stripes were unfurled at the foremast head, while the marines on board the *New Orleans* were paraded and presented arms.

On the way up the river there was a continuous chorus of cheers from both shores. Locomotive and factory whistles were blown, and every steamer lying at the wharves set its whistles blowing. From time to time the din was punctuated with the report of guns fired off on steam yachts, and on shore bells occasionally could be heard ringing.

The cruiser *Columbia* was the first of the line of war-ships to come into view, and while yet some distance lay between her and the *May* one of her starboard rapid-fire guns at the bow pealed forth with the first shot of the salutes with which Secretary Long was greeted as he passed the naval squadron in review. In quick succession sixteen other shots were fired from the port and the starboard side, alternately, the ensign on the mizzen-gaff was dipped, the marines on her decks presented arms, three ruffles of the drum were given, and the bugles were played, the blue-jackets stood at attention in a long line the length of the starboard rail of the ship, and from ship and crew Secretary Long had received the naval salute due to his rank.

The *Kasagi*, the superb cruiser built by the Cramps for the Imperial Japanese Navy, marked the upper turning point of the naval parade. The many colored signals of the international code were strung rainbow fashion from the *Kasagi's* bowsprit to her taffrail, while topmost of all were the national flags of Japan and the United States.

A fresh coat of paint had been given the graceful hull and all the upper works, the decks were spotlessly clean, and all on board was shipshape. The Japanese officers were resplendent in gold-braided and epauletted uniforms, chapeaus, white kid gloves and swords. A number of them wore decorations.

When the booming of the guns announced the approach of the parade, the *Kasagi's* officers formed in several lines, according to rank, on the stern deck. In the absence of Captain Kashiwafara, Commander Gin Seyeki was the most distinguished. On his breast gleamed the orders of the Rising Sun (sixth) and the Kinshi Kunsho (fifth).

The officers of the *Kasagi* were delighted with the enthusiasm and manifestations of friendship evoked by the sight of their splendid new warships, and expressed regret at not having guns with which to return the salute.

When not watching the parades the crowds spent their time gazing at the brilliant decorations which were to be seen on every hand. From windows and housetops the spreading streams of jubilee decorations flared gorgeously, bedizening the city in hues of the nation, and entwined with soft-tinted pigments in the colors of the city. From house to house the chromatic tide spread, and at night, when all was ablaze with electric lights, the grandeur and the impressiveness of the scene were beyond description.

The massive Athenian arch of the Court of Honor was an imposing work of architectural and sculptural art, and many will marvel when they reflect that this magnificent structure was designed and brought to completion in two weeks. It was the idea of Joseph M. Huston. The wiring for the electric lights alone cost \$900, and the expense of lighting the arch each night was \$450. The hotels fronting on the Court of Honor were studded with thousands of incandescent lamps, many of them including designs that

were appropriate and beautiful. On the building of the Union League Club was a large design filled with colored lamps, and around the arch over the south entrance to the City Hall, in letters of lamps, were the words of the refrain of the National Anthem, "The Star Spangled Banner in Triumph doth Wave."

At night high up in the heavens, hanging gracefully from the corona of arc lamps on the top of the City Hall tower, there could be seen four long chaplets of lamps looking like brilliant beads against the black sky. The City Hall was illuminated with more than four thousand incandescent electric lights and one hundred and sixty arc lights, which were so arranged that every part of the big structure was brought out. Many electrical displays were also made on other streets. Chestnut Street was ablaze from Broad to Third. Nearly all the clubs made special decorations, and the streets at night were almost as light as during the day. One of the most striking decorations was that of the United States Mint. The six large pillars on the Chestnut Street front were each encircled in a huge American flag, while hanging from the cornice over the main entrance was a pretty drapery of National colors. Strings of signal flags, extending from the flagstaff on top to the cornice on either side, added to the beauty of the display.

The great Peace celebrations of New York and Philadelphia were largely naval and special interest attached thereto, because of the participation of so many of our larger warships, some of which still showed the scars of injuries received in the sea-fights off Cuba. But grandly imposing civic demonstrations were made at jubilee commemorations in Chicago, Omaha, and Atlanta, all of which were attended by the President, and the character of these celebrations were such that it may truly be said one city had no pre-eminence over another in patriotic enthusiasm.

After the great peace jubilee the government addressed itself to the task of establishing authority in Cuba and Porto Rico, and making arrangements for removing the Spanish soldiers from those islands, and for negotiating a treaty of peace. For the United States the President appointed William R. Day, of Ohio, ex-secretary of state; Senator William P. Frye, of Maine; Senator George Gray, of Delaware; Senator Cushman K. Davis, of Minnesota; and Hon. Whitelaw Reid, of New York; and for Spain the Queen Regent designated Mr. Eug. Montero Rios, Mr. J. de Garnica, Mr. W. Z. De Vi Laurrutia, Mr. Buenaventura Abarzuza, and General R. Cerero, the two sets of commissioners being instructed by their respective governments to meet in Paris and there hold continuous sessions from day to day until terms of a treaty should be agreed upon. In pursuance of these instructions the commissioners assembled October 10, 1898, and on December 12 concluded their labors, in perfect agreement and good understanding, and submitted a treaty which was immediately promulgated by the President, though it was not ratified until February 16, 1899.

Almost simultaneous with the appointment of Peace Commissioners, the President designated commissioners to confer with a similar body appointed by the Queen Regent, who met in Havana, November 16, 1898, and concluded arrangements for the evacuation of all Spanish troops on the Islands of Cuba, Porto Rico, and Isle of Pines, also for turning over certain stores, arms, heavy ordnance, docks, fortifications, and public properties to representatives of the United States, the conclusion of these latter commissioners being amicably concluded, the President ordered the establishment of provisional military governments in the islands and appointed officials to carry into effect the purposes in view.

CHAPTER XV.

THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS.

OUR new possessions in Mid-Pacific comprise a group of eight inhabited and four uninhabited islands, the names of the former being, Hawaii, Maui, Oahu, Kauai, Lanai, Molokai, Kahulau, and Niihau, Honolulu, on the island Oahu, is the capital. The total area is 6,640 square miles.

The Hawaiian Islands, which are 2,100 miles from San Francisco, were discovered by Captain Cook, January, 1778, and in honor of Lord Sandwich he named them the Sandwich Islands. The natives, whose numbers he estimated to be not less than 400,000, received Cook when he arrived at Kealakeakua Bay, Hawaii, with demonstrations of astonishment and delight. The treatment of the natives was kindly, and when some were induced to visit his ships they were so struck with all the wonderful things shown them that they believed Cook must be a god and paid him adoration as such.

Everything was pleasant for Cook until the 24th of January, 1779, on which date none of the islanders came near the ships, giving as their excuse that the place was *tabooed*, and all intercourse interdicted on account of the arrival of the king, Terreeoboo, who was about to visit the ships. "The next day," says Cook, "about noon, the king, in a large canoe, attended by two others, set out from the village and paddled towards the ships in great state. Their appearance was grand and magnificent. In

the first canoe was Terreeboo and his chiefs, dressed in their rich feathered cloaks and helmets, and armed with long spears and daggers; in the second came the venerable Kaoo, the chief of the priests, and his brethren with their idols displayed on red cloth. These idols were busts of a gigantic size, made of wicker-work, and curiously covered with small feathers of various colors, wrought in the same manner with their cloaks. Their eyes were made of large pearl oysters, with a black nut fixed in the center; their mouths were set with a double row of fangs of dogs, and together with the rest of their features were strangely distorted. The third canoe was filled with hogs and various kinds of vegetables. As they went along, the priests in the centre canoe sung their hymns with great solemnity; and after paddling round the ships, instead of going on board, as was expected, they made toward the shore at the beach where we were stationed."

Cook received the king with a salute, and then accompanied him on shore to the royal tent, where, after first being seated, the king arose and taking off his own cloak threw it over the shoulders of Cook, and then placed a feathered helmet on his head and a curious fan in his hand, the ceremony concluding with an exchange of names, which, among all the Pacific Islanders, is the strongest pledge of friendship.

The adoration and hospitality of the natives so effectually disarmed Cook and his men of all fears that the crews went about freely among the people, who seemed never to tire of showing them kindnesses. But all this familiarity resulted to the disadvantage of the explorers, for after a time the natives began to systematically plunder their visitors, and carried their thefts so far as to endanger the further success of the expedition. To stop their thieving Cook was at length compelled to resort to harsh means,

and an example was made by flogging one of the natives on the decks of the *Discovery*.

The harbor of Karakakooa was by no means a safe one, and Cook decided to leave there and find, if possible, a more secure shelter, which fact becoming known to the king, he made a large present of hogs and provisions to his white visitors, but appeared to be glad that his duties of entertaining them were at end. Accordingly Cook weighed his anchor and stood out of the bay just as a terrific gale came on, so sudden that several natives on board the ship at the time found it safer for them to remain than to attempt to return to shore in canoes. But after sailing around the islands from the 4th to the 10th of February, 1779, without finding any better anchorage Cook was forced to return to Karakakooa, but on putting into the bay again he was astonished to find the natives very different in their demeanor from that previously exhibited, though the priests continued to show their former kindnesses.

The people no longer betrayed any curiosity, nor did they return to the ships to renew their protestations of friendship or to trade. Things began to look suspicious, though there was no interference of any kind until the evening of the 13th February, when a party being sent on shore for a supply of fresh water, they soon returned with the report that the islanders were growing tumultuous and arming themselves with stones. The mob of natives was soon dispersed, however, but not without evidence of a concerted hostile movement. To meet any attempt of a warlike character, the marines were sent on shore with loaded muskets, and Cook went himself in the pinnace, hoping that his presence would prevent any uprising. At the same time, there was heard musket firing, which proved to be from the crew of the *Discovery*, who

were shooting at a canoe in which were several natives who, Cook supposed, had stolen something from the ship, and he set out in pursuit of them; but they escaped. Another affair, growing out of the same circumstances, led to the knocking down of Pareea, one of the chiefs, who was struck on the head by one of the seamen with an oar, whereupon the natives attacked the marines with a shower of stones and with such fury that the crew were driven into the sea, and forced to swim to a rock near by.

The attack was not followed up, however, but the feeling of uneasiness continued to increase. The next morning the cutter belonging to the *Resolution* was missed, having been stolen during the night, and to recover this Cook armed nine of his marines, and taking a musket himself, went ashore in the pinnace, first giving orders to capture every canoe possible, and to seize upon and hold as hostages any priests or chiefs that might be arrested. The events which followed are thus described by Captain King, who succeeded to the command of the *Resolution* after Cook's death:

“ In the meantime, Captain Cook having called off the launch, which was stationed at the north point of the bay, and taken it along with him, he proceeded to Kowrowa and landed with the lieutenant and nine marines. He immediately marched into the village, where he was received with the usual marks of respect, the people prostrating themselves before him, and bringing their accustomed offerings of small hogs. Finding that there was no suspicion of his design, his next step was to inquire for Terreeoboo and the two boys, his sons, who had been his constant guests on board the *Resolution*. In a short time the boys returned along with the natives who had been sent in search of them, and immediately led Captain Cook to the house where the King had slept. They found the old

man just awoke from sleep, and after a short conversation about the loss of the cutter, from which Captain Cook was convinced that he was in no wise privy to it, he invited him to return in the boat, and spend the day on board the *Resolution*. To this proposal the King readily consented, and immediately got up to accompany him.

“ Things were in this prosperous train, the two boys being already in the pinnace, and the rest of the party having advanced near the water-side, when an elderly woman called Kaneekabareea, the mother of the boys, and one of the King’s favorite wives, came after him, and, with many tears and entreaties, besought him not to go on board. At the same time, two chiefs who came along with her laid hold of him, and insisting that he should go no farther, forced him to sit down. The natives who were collecting in prodigious numbers along the shore, and had probably been alarmed by the firing of the great guns and the appearances of hostility in the bay, began to throng round Captain Cook and their King. In this situation, the lieutenant of marines observing that his men were huddled together in the crowd, and thus incapable of using their arms, if any occasion should require it, proposed to the captain to draw them up along the rocks close to the water’s edge ; and the crowd readily making way for them to pass, they were drawn up in a line at the distance of about thirty yards from the place where the King was sitting. All this time the old King remained on the ground, with the strongest marks of terror and dejection in his countenance ; Captain Cook, not willing to abandon the object for which he had come on shore, continued to urge him in the most pressing manner to proceed ; whilst, on the other hand, whenever the King appeared inclined to follow him, the chiefs who stood round him interposed at first with prayers and entreaties, but afterward, having

recourse to force and violence, insisted on his staying where he was. Captain Cook, therefore, finding that the alarm had spread too generally, and that it was in vain to think any longer of getting him off without bloodshed, at last gave up the point; observing to Mr. Phillips that it would be impossible to compel him to go on board, without the risk of killing a great number of the inhabitants.

“ Though the enterprise which had carried Captain Cook on shore had now failed, and was abandoned, yet his person did not appear to be in the least danger till an accident happened, which gave a fatal turn to the affair. The boats which had been stationed across the bay, having fired at some canoes that were attempting to get out, unfortunately had killed a chief of the first rank. The news of his death arrived at the village where Captain Cook was, just as he had left the King and was walking slowly towards the shore. The ferment it occasioned was very conspicuous; the women and children were immediately sent off, and the men put on their war-mats and armed themselves with spears and stones. One of the natives, having in his hands a stone and a long iron spike (which they called a *pahooa*), came up to the Captain flourishing his weapon by way of defiance, and threatening to throw the stone. The Captain desired him to desist; but the man persisting in his insolence, he was at length provoked to fire a load of small shot. The man having his mat on, which the shot were not able to penetrate, this had no other effect than to irritate and encourage them. Several stones were thrown at the marines, and one of the Erees attempted to stab Mr. Phillips with his *pahooa*, but failed in the effort, and received from him a blow from the butt end of his musket. Captain Cook now fired his second barrel, loaded with ball, and killed one of the foremost of the natives. A general attack with stones immediately followed,

which was answered by a discharge of musketry from the marines and the people in the boats. The islanders, contrary to the expectations of every one, stood the fire with great firmness, and before the marines had time to reload they broke in upon them with dreadful shouts and yells. What followed was the scene of the utmost horror and confusion.

“Four of the marines were cut off amongst the rocks in their retreat, and fell a sacrifice to the fury of the enemy; three more were dangerously wounded, and the lieutenant, who had received a stab between the shoulders with a *pahooa*, having fortunately received his fire, shot the man who had wounded him just as he was going to repeat his blow. Our unfortunate commander, the last time he was seen distinctly, was standing at the water's edge, and calling out to the boats to cease firing, and to pull in. If it be true, as some of those who were present have imagined, that the marines and boatmen had fired without his orders, and that he was desirous of preventing any further bloodshed, it is not improbable that his humanity, on this occasion, proved fatal to him; for it was remarked, that, whilst he faced the natives, none of them had offered him any violence, but that having turned about to give his orders to the boats, he was stabbed in the back, and fell with his face in the water. On seeing him fall, the islanders set up a great shout, and his body was immediately dragged on shore and surrounded by the enemy, who, snatching the daggers out of each other's hands, showed a savage eagerness to have a share in his destruction.”

The marines having been killed or beaten off, the body of Captain Cook fell into the hands of the natives, who at once cut it up, and, after offering it great indignities, burnt a considerable part. On the night following, two friendly islanders came out to the ship, bearing with them about

nine pounds weight of flesh, that proved to have been a part of the body, and which they had brought to the ship as a proof of their friendship and sincere regret for the tragedy. Soon after the surviving marines of both ships made a resolute attack on the natives, killing a large number, and burning one of their villages, which ravages they declared that they would continue until the bodies of Cook and those that had fallen by the hands of the islanders were surrendered up. This threat not having the immediate effect of bringing the natives to terms, the attack was renewed with increased vigor, not only by the marines on shore, but by a bombardment from the ship's cannons, which dealt great havoc, destroying the *morai*, and killing a large number of the islanders, whose heads were afterwards cut off and displayed on the ship's decks. This slaughter was only stopped by a procession of peacemakers, who advanced in the face of a volley of musketry, signifying by signs, as best they could, their intentions to accept any terms that the victors might choose to impose.

Unfortunately these overtures for peace were not understood until several more of the natives had been sacrificed to the vengeful disposition of the marines, so that the shore was almost lined with dead bodies, while smoke from a hundred burning huts told how great had been the havoc.

In compliance with requests of Captains King and Clerke, a great number of people came down from the hill, carrying pieces of sugar-cane, bread-fruit, and plantains, who were preceded by two drummers. As they reached the seashore they sat down, and a chief, named Eappo, motioned for a boat to be sent to them from the ship. In response to the signal, Captain Clerke went himself on shore with a party of his marines, whereupon Eappo entered the boat, and delivered to Captain Clerke a package covered with fine new cloth and a cloak of black and white feathers, in-

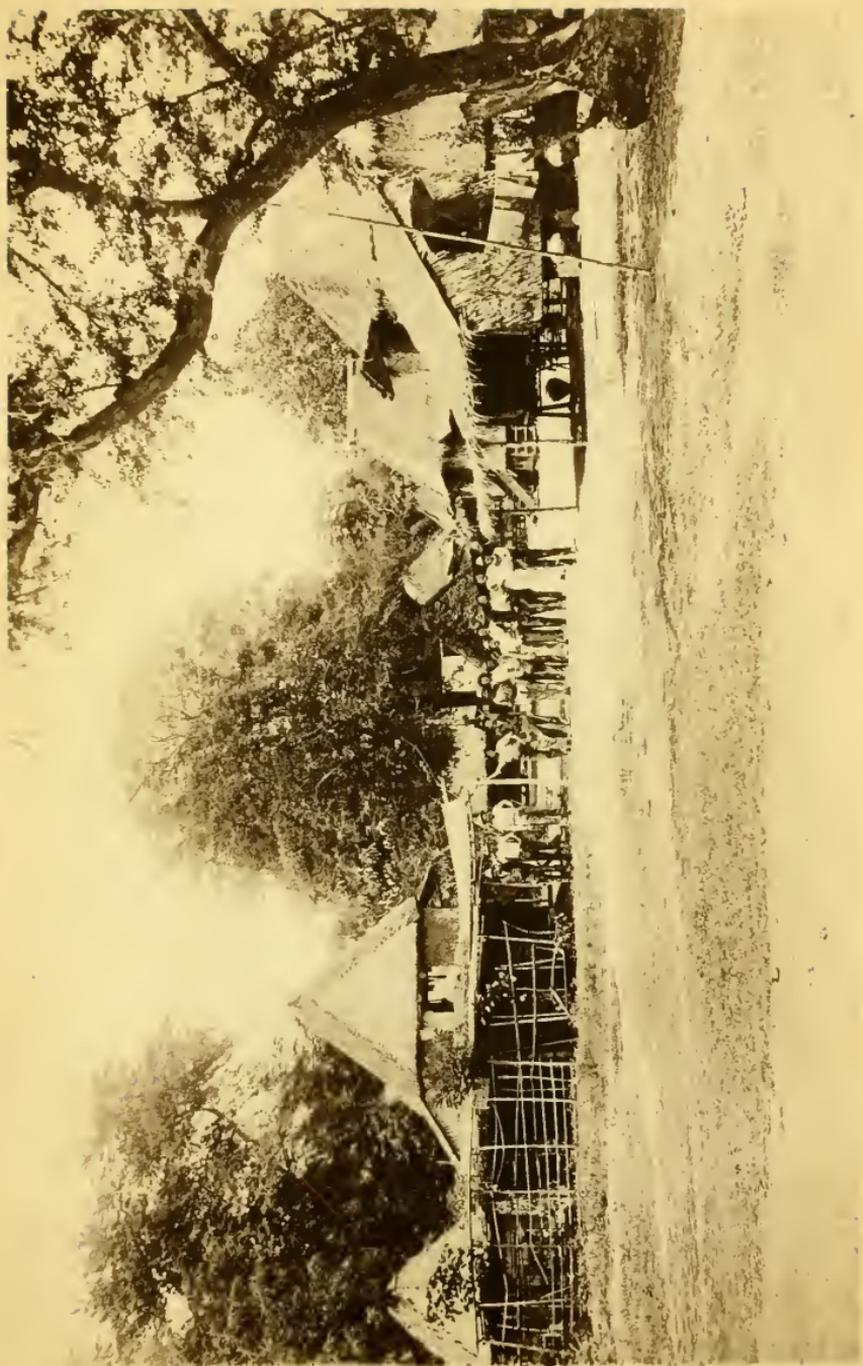
dicating that therein were all the remaining mortuary relics of Captain Cook. And so it proved to be, for on opening the bundle there were found entire both hands of the lamented commander, which were readily recognized by a scar of an old wound; there was also a portion of the skull, to which the scalp and two ears were still attached, and the bones of both arms from which the flesh had been cut. Says Captain King: "Eappo, and the King's son, came on board, and brought with them the remaining bones of Captain Cook, the barrels of his gun, his shoes, and some other trifles that belonged to him. Eappo took great pains to convince us that Terreeoboo, Maiha-maiha, and himself, were most heartily desirous of peace; that they had given us the most convincing proof of it in their power; and that they had been prevented from giving it sooner by the other chiefs, many of whom were still our enemies. He lamented with the greatest sorrow, the death of six chiefs we had killed, some of whom, he said, were amongst our best friends. The cutter, he told us was taken away by Pareeal's people, very probably in revenge for the blow that had been given him, and that it had been broken up the next day. The arms of the marines, which we had also demanded, he assured us, had been carried off by the common people, and were irrecoverable; the bones of the chief alone having been preserved, as belonging to Terreeoboo and the *Erces* gods. Nothing now remained but to perform the last offices to our great and unfortunate commander. Eappo was dismissed with orders to *taboo* all the bay; and, in the afternoon, the bones having been put into a coffin, and the service read over them, they were committed to the deep with the usual military honors. What our feelings were on this occasion, I leave the world to conceive; those who were present know that it is not in my power to express them."

The account given by Captain King of the killing of Captain Cook and the indignities offered to his remains, does not agree with information since given by the natives to missionaries stationed on the islands. Mr. Ledyard, who was one of the marines who accompanied the expedition, also dissents from Captain King's opinion, and declares that the murder of his commander was not premeditated, but was precipitated by the rash act of one of the marines killing a chief, and a series of petty quarrels and abuses, for which the ship's crews were responsible. The mutilation of Captain Cook's body was at first considered as a proof of disgusting revenge, but it was in fact only an evidence of the high honor in which he had been held. Mr. Ellis, who took great pains to ascertain all the facts attending this melancholy occurrence, was informed by one of the natives, who was present at the time, that after Cook's death "they all wailed. His bones were separated, the flesh was scraped off and burnt, as was the practice in regard to their own chiefs when they died. They thought he was the god *Rono*, worshiped him as such, and after his death, revered his bones."

The extraordinary honors paid to Captain Cook at the Sandwich Islands were undoubtedly rendered in the belief that he was their god *Rono* or *Orono*. "But," says Mr. Ellis, "when in the attack made upon him, they saw his blood running and heard his groans, they said, 'No, this is not *Rono*.' Some, however, after his death still supposed him to be *Rono*, and expected he would appear again. Some of his bones, his ribs, and breast-bones were sacredly regarded as part of *Rono*, and deposited in a *hciau* (temple) dedicated to *Rono*, on the opposite side of the island. There religious homage was paid to them, and from thence they were annually carried in procession to several other *hciaus*, or borne by priests round the island, to collect the

SAN ROQUE, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

The village of San Roque, which was the scene of several sharp skirmishes between the Filipinos and United States troops, is about five miles west of Bacolor, which, in turn, is fifty miles northwest of Manila, on the Manila and Dagupan railway. The illustration is used to show the character of houses occupied by the agricultural classes in the Philippines, for though dignified with the designation of village San Roque is in fact the smallest settlement, there being neither a store nor a shop of any kind in the place and only three houses. The natives spend little of their time or means in building country houses, for their life is so essentially out-of-doors that scant shelter suffices, the climate being mild even in winter, and during the summer only the sun's beating rays need to be guarded against. The chief occupation of the agricultural classes in the island of Luzon is raising rice, tobacco, hemp, sugar cane and fruit, the last chiefly for their own consumption.



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offerings of the people, for the support of the worship of that god. The bones were preserved in a small basket of wicker-work, completely covered with red feathers, and were in those days considered to be the most valuable articles the natives possessed. The bones thus preserved were never recovered, having no doubt been deposited by the priests, to whose care they were intrusted, in some secret cave, where probably they still remain. But the natives have never since ceased to cherish the memory of the unfortunate commander, and a cairn was by them erected to his honor on the site where he fell. This rude monument was replaced a few years after by a pretentious shaft of marble.

On March 15, 1779, the two ships, *Resolution* and *Discovery*, took their departure from the Sandwich Islands, and steered northward again in quest of the long sought passage around North America. Captain Clerke, though suffering in the last stages of consumption, was unwilling to abandon the first purpose of the voyage, and being now invested with the command of the expedition, his ambition made him the more anxious to succeed in the great undertaking, and this intense desire no doubt served to prolong his life, as it nerved him to increased endeavor.

The two ships made excellent progress, and in a month the shore of Kamtchatka was reached, where a considerable stay was made to increase their store of provisions by traffic with the Kamtchadales. Thence continuing, the vessels pushed northward to 80 degrees (to Icy Cape), but finding another barrier of ice, they sailed south and then northwest to a like latitude along the shore of Siberia. The extreme limit was named North Cape, from which, on account of the impassable ice, the expedition returned southward again. On August 22d when the ships were near the harbor of St. Peter and St. Paul, on the coast of

Kamtchatka, Captain Clerke expired, being no longer sustained or inspired by an ambition; for his hopes were destroyed by the limitless field of ice that disputed his further passage northward. In the harbor was a small Russian village and garrison, and to this place the remains were taken and given Christian burial, a priest officiating at the service, and the soldiers of the garrison and all the marines firing a volley over his grave, which was made under the shadow of a large tree that stood on the north side of the harbor.

Captain Clerke had accompanied Captain Cook on his three voyages, on the first acting as master's mate, on the second as lieutenant, and on the third being promoted to the command of the *Discovery*, and after Captain Cook's death he became commander-in-chief of the expedition. At his death, Captain Gore succeeded to the command of the *Discovery*, and Captain King was made chief commander. After this change, considerable time was spent on the shore at Kamtchatka among the people of that frigid clime, hunting bears, wolverines, foxes, wolves and seals, by which a large quantity of fresh meat was obtained, and many valuable furs. The vessels then departed, calling at points in Japan, China, and the East India Islands, so that it was not until the 4th of October, 1780, that the expedition returned to England, having been absent for a period of four years, two months, and twenty days.

At the time of Cook's death the inhabitants of the Hawaii group were regarded physically, as being the finest race in the Pacific, but the settlement among them of Europeans was followed by rapid deterioration both in physique and number, until there are not more than 50,000 pure-blooded Hawaiians and their total extinction is a matter of comparatively few years.

Productions of the islands are sugar, rice, arrow root, a little coffee, kolo plant, wheat, and tropical fruits. Considerable sheep are raised on the islands and large numbers of wild cattle descended from stock brought over by Vancouver roam the hills and valleys least accessible to man. The islands have a large commerce, which is increasing rapidly under the effects of American capital. The climate is almost perfect, and the people are generally wealthy. The remarkable increase of trade with what may now be called our island possessions is shown in the annexed statistics.

The exports from the United States to Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Hawaiian, Philippine and Samoan Islands :

	1897.	1898.	1899.
Cuba.....	\$ 9,308,515	\$10,751,257	\$24,861,261
Puerto Rico.....	2,023,751	1,404,004	3,677,564
Hawaiian Islands...	5,478,224	6,827,848	1,305,581
Philippine Islands..	69,459	147,846	1,663,213
Samoa Islands... .	42,356	41,387	73,465
Total exports...	<u>\$16,922,305</u>	<u>\$19,172,336</u>	<u>\$41,581,084</u>

Imports into the United States from Cuba, Puerto Rico, and the Hawaiian, Philippine, and Samoan Islands :

	1897.	1898.	1899.
Cuba.	\$16,233,456	\$18,321,517	\$29,619,759
Puerto Rico	1,943,251	2,382,170	3,416,681
Hawaiian Islands...	15,311,685	16,587,317	22,188,206
Philippines.....	4,352,181	4,099,525	4,903,467
Samoa Islands.....	78,946	58,848	47,492
Total.....	<u>\$37,919,519</u>	<u>\$41,444,377</u>	<u>\$60,175,605</u>

Before the beginning of hostilities with Spain a large public interest developed in the proposal, and steps taken, to acquire Hawaii, which was made the subject of many fiery disputes in Congress, and no small amount of political

debate before the hustings, there being a strong objection to the measure left over from President Cleveland's opposition to the scheme of acquisition. But the matter was so completely obscured by the stirring events of the war that to all appearances the public had quite forgotten that a proposition looking to the annexation of Hawaii was still before the Senate when final action thereon was taken. On July 6 the leading antagonists of the measure made their final stand in the Senate, but it was more of a perfunctory than an earnest opposition, patriotic sentiment having influenced Democrats as it had Republicans and Populists, to support the views of President McKinley, who by his open indorsement naturally became the protagonist of the annexation measure. After the Senate had disposed of several factional amendments to the bill, a direct vote on the passage of the joint resolution was taken, and it passed by a vote of forty-two to twenty-one. The announcement was greeted with a round of applause on the floor and in the galleries. As the House joint resolution passed without amendment, it then needed only the signature of the President to become a law and to make the Hawaiian Islands an integral portion of the United States republic.

The collapse of the opposition to annexation, while it had been expected for some time, came with a suddenness that gave everybody a surprise, amounting almost to a shock. The vote was reached without the semblance of an agreement to that effect, and because the opponents were finally satisfied beyond peradventure that the majority intended to remain until the resolutions had been disposed of.

“ Joint resolutions to provide for annexing the Hawaiian Islands to the United States were as follows :

“ WHEREAS, The government, of the Republic of Hawaii, having in due form signified its consent, in the manner pro-

vided by its constitution, to cede absolutely and without reserve to the United States of America all rights of sovereignty of whatsoever kind in and over the Hawaiian Islands and their dependencies, and also to cede and transfer to the United States the absolute fee and ownership of all public, government or crown lands, public buildings or edifices, ports, harbors, military equipment, and all other public property of every kind and description belonging to the government of the Hawaiian Islands, together with every right and appurtenance thereunto appertaining; therefore,

“ *Resolved, etc.*, That said cession is accepted, ratified, and confirmed, and their dependencies be and they are hereby annexed as a part of the territory of the United States and are subject to the sovereign dominion thereof, and that all and singular the property and rights hereinbefore mentioned are vested in the United States of America.

“ The existing laws of the United States relative to public lands shall not apply to such lands in the Hawaiian Islands, but the Congress of the United States shall enact special laws for their management and disposition, provided that all revenue from or proceeds of the same, except as regards such part thereof as may be used or occupied for the civil, military, or naval purposes of the United States, or may be assigned for the use of the local government, shall be used solely for the benefit of the inhabitants of the Hawaiian Islands for educational and other public purposes.

“ Until Congress shall provide for the government of such islands, all the civil, judicial, and military powers exercised by the officers of the existing government in said islands shall be vested in such person or persons, and shall be exercised in such manner as the President of the United States shall direct; and the President shall have power to remove said officers and fill vacancies so occasioned.

“The existing treaties of the Hawaiian Islands with foreign nations shall forthwith cease and determine, being replaced by such treaties as may exist, or as may be hereafter concluded, between the United States and such foreign nations.

“The municipal legislation of the Hawaiian Islands not enacted for the fulfillment of the treaties so extinguished, and not inconsistent with this joint resolution, nor contrary to the Constitution of the United States, shall remain in force until the Congress of the United States shall otherwise determine. Until legislation shall be enacted extending the United States customs laws and regulations to the Hawaiian Islands, the existing customs relations of the Hawaiian Islands with the United States and other countries shall remain unchanged.

“The public debt of the Republic of Hawaii, lawfully existing at the date of the passage of this joint resolution, including the amounts due to depositors of the Hawaiian Postal Savings Bank, is hereby assumed by the government of the United States, but the liability of the United States in this regard shall in no case exceed \$4,000,000. So long, however, as the existing government and the present commercial relations of the Hawaiian Islands are continued as hereinbefore provided, said government shall continue to pay the interest on said debt.

“There shall be no further immigration of Chinese into the Hawaiian Islands, except under such conditions as are now or may hereafter be allowed by the laws of the United States; and no Chinese, by reason of anything herein contained, shall be allowed to enter the United States from the Hawaiian Islands.

“The President shall appoint five commissioners, at least two of whom shall be residents of the Hawaiian Islands, who shall as soon as reasonably practicable recommend to

Congress such legislation concerning the Hawaiian Islands as they shall deem necessary or proper.

“SECTION 2. That the commissioners hereinbefore provided for shall be appointed by the President by and with the advice and consent of the Senate.

“SECTION 3. That the sum of \$100,000, or so much thereof as may be necessary, is hereby appropriated out of any money in the treasury not otherwise appropriated, and to be immediately available, to be expended at the discretion of the President of the United States of America for the purpose of carrying this joint resolution into effect.”

By adoption of this bill Hawaii, island gem of the Pacific, came under the protection of our flag, and the first step in the new policy of territorial expansion was thereby taken, which is now leading the country towards an experiment the wisdom of which, while comparatively few doubt, remains to be shown.

There fell to the United States, through the peace treaty with Spain, several islands that have seldom been heard of by Americans, yet of an importance that will soon cause them to be brought into prominent notice and which are destined to attract the attention of capitalists, tourists, and seekers of health. Among the most interesting of these secondary possessions is the Isle of Pines, a veritable Edenic island that lies fifty miles south of the western extremity of Cuba. It has an area of only 1,214 square miles, and a population that probably does not exceed 5,000, but its value is disproportionate to its size. In the event that the United States constructs the Nicaragua Canal the Isle of Pines will furnish an admirable naval base, and is no less suited for military concentration.

The island was discovered by Columbus during his second voyage to the West Indies, and he writes of it as

being one of the natural garden spots of the earth. The southern part is generally swampy, but the north half is somewhat mountainous and covered with a luxuriant growth of tropical vegetation. Near the center there is a mountain peak called the Dolphin's Head, that has an altitude of 2,000 feet, from which the whole expanse of the island may be viewed. The western extremity ends in a promontory visible on clear days from Cuba, and is a most eligible site for a lighthouse and signal-station.

The island is accessible by a comfortable steamer that makes tri-weekly trips from Batabano, which is the south terminus of a railroad running from Havana, and the trip is through a chain of picturesque islets known as the Mangle Cayos and the landing is at Neuva Gerona, the principal town of the island, five miles from the mouth of Rio de Cerro. During the Spanish occupation this town was a military headquarters, and prior thereto it was a favorite rendezvous of buccaneers, ruins of their rude fortifications still being seen.

The soil of the Isle of Pines is extremely fertile, but it is not fully cultivated, and presents unusual opportunities for coffee-growing. Cocoanuts grow there in vast profusion, as do also bananas, pineapples, mangoes, oranges, and other fruits common to the tropics. The island is particularly famous for its mineral springs, whose medicinal properties are said to rival those at Carlsbad. The largest magnesium spring is near the village of Santa Fé, seventeen miles from Neuva Gerona, close to the river Santa Fé, and seven miles inland. The waters, which gush from an aperture of a rocky glen, are regarded as affording a sovereign cure for all stomach troubles and blood diseases. So miraculous were the cures effected that the natives formerly worshiped the waters of these springs believing they contained the divine spirit, and more than one interesting

legend is told of how the springs were created. The war department is at this time considering plans for establishing a sanitarium near the springs, and several American syndicates have applied for concessions in the vicinity of Santa Fé, with the view of erecting hotels and making the place a winter resort. Consumption is said to yield readily to the balsamic influences of the pine-laden atmosphere.

The largest resources of the Isle of Pines are to be found in its valuable forests of ebony, mahogany, oak, cedar, cocoa, pine, walnut, and rubber trees. The royal palm grows on the island in its grandest perfection, which is not only the loftiest and most graceful of trees but it yields so beneficently, that it is called by the natives the tree that affords food, drink, raiment, and shelter. The island also produces a very fine quality of marble, white, blue, and green, and the tobacco that is grown on the island is said to be of a finer flavor than the best production of Cuban soil.

Guam, another of the minor islands ceded by Spain to the United States under Article 2 of the Peace Treaty, is the largest of the Ladrone Archipelago, discovered by Magellan, 1521. Its exact situation is on a direct line from San Francisco to the southern part of the Philippines, 5,200 miles from San Francisco and 900 miles from Manila. The island has an area of 1,100 square miles, and a population of 9,000, of whom 6,000 live in Agaua, the capital. The island is generally mountainous and well wooded, but the soil is not specially fertile and agriculture is not much cultivated. There is undoubtedly great mineral wealth in the island, but it is wholly undeveloped, the natives being too indolent to make any use of the opportunities that nature so generously invites them to improve. The Spaniards are little more industrious than the natives, and the island has never been made to serve any other purpose than a military station. Though extremely indolent, the natives,

who are nearly all descended from the Filipinos, are intelligent, and 90 per cent. are able to read and write; they are also shrewd traders, and it is this proclivity that induces so large a number to live in Agaua.

The first attempt made by Americans to take possession of the island was on June 21 1898, when the cruiser *Charleston*, Captain Glass, bombarded fort Santa Cruz above Agaua, and was answered by the Spanish Governor, who sent a polite note to Captain Glass expressing regret that he could not return the salute because his supply of gunpowder was quite exhausted. The governor was ignorant that war was being waged between Spain and America, and took the bombardment to mean a courtesy to his distinguished rank. Being defenseless he yielded prompt submission and the *Charleston* sailed away.

On February 1, 1899, Commander Taussig of the gunboat *Bennington* took formal possession of Guam and raised the United States flag above the Agaua fort. The President appointed Captain Richard P. Leary governor of the island, who arrived at his post in July, 1899, and at once issued a proclamation to the inhabitants announcing the establishment of the authority of the United States, and, confirming all their private rights, gave assurance that security of persons and property would be maintained. Captain Leary addressed himself at once to the task of winning the confidence and allegiance of the islanders, which, in his short administration of ten months, he completely accomplished.

The island of Guam is of importance to the United States as a coaling and naval station, for it contains an excellent harbor and is a needed stopping-place on the long trip across the ocean. Wake Island was taken possession of by Captain Taussig, of the *Bennington*, in February, 1897, but no ceremony of permanent occupation has followed that

act. Wake Island is a small volcanic formation of twenty square miles area and no regular inhabitants. It is on the direct route to Hong Kong from Hawaii, 3,000 miles from the former and 2,000 miles from the latter. Should the United States lay a cable to connect San Francisco with Hawaii and Manila, Wake Island may be made a station, but it can hardly be serviceable to this country for any other purpose unless it be made a place for coaling vessels.

CHAPTER XVI.

THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

IT was Monday August 10, 1519, the feast of St. Lawrence, that Magellan, the intrepid navigator, set sail from Seville with a fleet of ships to make discoveries in foreign seas, and to attempt a circumnavigation of the globe. After many vicissitudes of a perilous character he reached the South Sea islands, discovered, besides other groups, the Ladrões, sailed through the eastern archipelago and on March 16, 1521, he came in sight of Samar, one of the Philippines. Having accomplished the prime motive of his expedition he thenceforth addressed himself to the task of making conquests, for his master Charles, King of Spain and Emperor of Germany, and setting up the cross as a symbol of annexation. After taking possession, in the name of his sovereign, of several inferior islands of the vast archipelago, Magellan arrived on April 7 at the island of Cebu. Here he at once opened negotiation with the savage King, showed him the benefits that would accrue from a Spanish protectorate, and so cleverly were his arguments stated that the King not only consented to become a Spanish vassal, but also to receive baptism and embrace Christianity. This was a piece of unexpected good fortune, for to make converts was as much a part of Magellan's duty as to complete conquests. A large tent formed of the sails of the ships was set upon the shore, the King was baptized and named King Charles, and twenty-three hundred of his people were in one day added to the

number of believers. Great was the rejoicing. All the labors, all the sufferings of the past were forgotten, even the loss of his ship, the *San Antonio*, was remembered but for a moment in the glory of this splendid triumph. Imposing were the ceremonials. All the guns of the fleet were loaded and fired again and again in honor of the occasion ; all the flags were displayed ; all the crews paraded in their finest uniforms. The sermon of the officiating priest compared the day to that of Pentecost. Valuable presents were given by Magellan and the captains to the King, who in return sent them whole cargoes of fruits, besides spices, wine, oil, and what more than all excited the cupidity of the Spaniards, several bags of gold dust. Visits of ceremony were exchanged between the King and the Admiral ; Pigapheta went to visit the Queen, and delighted her beyond expression with the gift of a looking-glass. She insisted that she too must be baptized, and a day was appointed for the public ceremony. Clad in costly garments and attended by forty of her ladies, she submitted to the rite, and another great festival was held. Never had the like been known, for besides adding this wealthy island to the crown of Spain, Magellan had converted its entire population to the faith.

Emboldened by his splendid success, he determined that this should be but the beginning of his conquests ; that as Columbus had added a world to Spain, so would he ; nor would he stop till all the islands which surrounded him on every hand should admit his authority. A man of resolute purpose and prompt action, to conceive was to carry into execution. He persuaded the King of Cebu that as he was now a Christian all the neighboring islands ought to be subject to him, and offered to help him conquer them. The proposition was favorably considered by the king, who, although conversion to Christianity had not induced

him to dispense with his idols in spite of the remonstrances of Magellan, evidently thought himself enough of a Christian to govern the neighboring islands if they could be conquered. The Admiral had little confidence in the religious professions of the dusky monarch, but thinking he might be used as a convenient tool, determined to undertake the task of subjugating the surrounding islands and conciliating them under one rule.

Messengers were therefore sent to the Island of Matan, which was in sight, requiring its king to submit and pay tribute to Magellan and the King of Sebu, who had formerly been his vassal. He refused, whereupon Magellan entered at once upon an intended career of conquest by arming sixty of his men, and with a large force of friendly Indians proceeded to Matan to make an attack. Confident of the superiority of his men and arms, he requested his savage allies to remain in their canoes and witness with what ease the Spaniards could overcome an enemy. The water was shallow, and the boats were compelled to remain two bow shots from the shore. Magellan with forty-two Spaniards landed about three hours before daylight, and sent messengers to the people of Matan, desiring that they reconsider their refusal to submit, otherwise they should learn how Spanish lances and bullets could wound. A fierce reply came back, and as soon as day broke the Spaniards beheld a strange spectacle. As far as the eye could reach up the beach, from the seashore to the jungle of the interior, a solid mass of footmen presented itself to their gaze. A forest of lances waved as the savage warriors danced and shouted, and ere the battle began the air was filled with flying arrows and javelins.

Singing, dancing, and shouting, waving their shields and feathery banners in the air, the savages advanced to the attack, two thousand five hundred strong. Like a wave

of the sea they rolled upon and around the little group of Spaniards on the beach. Bravely the whites resisted; they fired again and again, but their powder was bad, and the balls did not penetrate the shields of dry hide. Finding themselves unhurt even after repeated discharges of the Spanish fire-arms, the Indians, grown bolder, fell on the Spaniards with lance, arrow, and club. Armor was no protection, for the Indians perceiving they could not wound the bodies of their foes struck at their legs and arms. With heroic valor the Spaniards resisted, but by sheer force of numbers were slowly pressed into the water. Back to back, the Spanish kept up the battle, no longer for conquest, but for life. In the front rank stood the Admiral in his white armor and gilded helmet blazing in the sun, a conspicuous mark for hostile missiles. A hundred lances were leveled at him; but he withstood them all, until at last an Indian from behind struck a javelin deep into his sword-arm, while another in front wounded him in the face with a lance. Magellan's arm fell helpless and at the same time a tall savage with a coronet of feathers struck a terrific blow on the Admiral's leg. The brave Magellan sank down, still fighting; a dozen savages threw themselves on him, and yet they could not overcome him before he had killed several of his foes. Deserted by his men, overwhelmed by the foes, he kept up the hopeless struggle; but the end came when a savage, with face painted red, struck the old soldier on the head with a huge club, crushing helmet and skull, and the gallant captain met a hero's death.

Upon the accession of Philip the Second to the throne of Spain, he issued an order to the Viceroy of Mexico for the conquest of the Philippines, in which Portuguese influence had become dominant. The expedition was under the command of Lopez Legaspi, whose assistant was Friar

Urdaneta, who was a celebrated navigator, and had been a companion of Loyasa. The expedition set sail in the latter part of 1564, and in January following discovered a small island which Legaspi named De los Barbudos. On the following morning they came in sight of a chain of islands which, because of the shoals that surrounded them, they called De los Plazeres. Two days later, another chain of islands was found, which Legaspi named The Sisters. These islands are supposed to be the Piscadores and the Arrescifes of modern charts. The fleet finally landed at the Ladrones, where it was decided to form a settlement; but the sealed orders of the king being opened here, they found that the decree ordered the establishment of a settlement in the Philippines. The natives proved to be kindly and hospitable, but they were such consummate thieves that from this propensity the islands received their European designation. Their dwellings were handsomely formed and lofty, being raised some distance from the ground by stone pillars, and divided into square chambers, which were usually occupied by several families, living in a strictly communal state. The only creatures which they found among them were turtle-doves, which the natives kept in cages and taught to speak, and a few chickens. The islanders had an extremely rude kind of religion, consisting, it would seem, of the worship of the bones of their ancestors. This would appear, however, to have been more of the nature of reverence than a system of worship, as they seemed to have no idea of a spiritual existence. In February the fleet anchored off the eastern shore of the island Tandaya, which is one of the Philippines. The natives received them with manifestations of friendship, and at the solicitation of Legaspi they entered into an alliance, which was attested by the chiefs and the commander drawing blood from their arms and breasts and

mingling it with wine or water, and drinking it together as a pledge of mutual fidelity. This pledge, however solemnly made, was not faithfully kept; for the natives soon discovered the avaricious policy of the Europeans, and directly accused them of giving good words, but performing bad deeds. The fleet sailed from one island to another, but the inhabitants of each exhibited a similar want of confidence in the Spaniards, so that one station after another was abandoned, until at last Cebu was selected as the place for a settlement. The natives here were no more disposed to enter into friendly relations with the Spaniards than on the other islands, so that, losing faith in peaceful methods, the Spaniards found a pretext for aggression and the foundation of the first settlement of the Spaniards in the Philippines was made in the smouldering ashes of the sacked capital of Cebu.

Hostilities having now begun, they were waged for a considerable time between the islanders and the invaders with great fierceness, until at length mutual interest dictated peace, and the settlement was completed. The news of the occupation was carried back to America by the Friar Urdaneta, who, leaving the Philippines on the 1st of January, reached Acapulco on the 3d of October—a passage which won for him great honor, as the voyage between the Philippines and the Mother Country had hitherto baffled every navigator. This route afterwards became the regular one between the Philippines and New Spain, the track being called Urdaneta's passage. The fame of this monk became so great that among European navigators he was credited with having discovered the northwest passage, long before Sir Francis Drake had attempted that difficult enterprise.

In 1565 Legaspi founded the Spanish settlement of San Miguel at the town of Cebu, and which in 1571 determined

in large measure the future lines of conquest by fixing the capital at Manila. It is in a letter of Legaspi's in 1567 that the name *Islas Filipinas* appears for the first time. Manila was captured by the English under Draper and Cornish in 1762 and ransomed for \$5,000,000, and was restored in 1764.

The original inhabitants of the Philippines were the *Aetas* or *Negritos*, whose number do not now exceed 25,000. They are thin, have flat noses, full lips, frizzled hair, are dwarfish in stature and possess extraordinary prehensile power, with thin toes that make them almost quadrumanous.

The most powerful and numerous of the many native tribes are the *Tagals*, who generally occupy the low lands and as a rule live in huts built upon piles over water. Their language is called *Tagalog* and is more expressive and copious than that of any other of the island tribes. They are agriculturists and keep vast numbers of domestic animals and fowls. Externally they are Catholics, but they are still largely influenced by their ancient superstitions. The *Tagals*, like the *Negritos*, live in Luzon, the former in the valleys, the latter wander among the hills.

The *Visays* are to be found in all the islands to the south of Luzon, and to the north of Borneo and the *Sulus*. They were easily persuaded to embrace Christianity and assisted in the subjugation of the *Tagals*. Towards the interior the members of this tribe are very savage but those on the borders are quite civilized.

The *Igorrates* or *Igolotes* show traces of Chinese and Japanese intermixture. They are dirty, savage, and extremely superstitious, and yet are industrious agriculturists, and skillful miners and metal workers. Equally marked is the fact that, though surrounded by Mohammedans and Malays, who are distinguished for their licentious

habits, the Igorrates are monogamists, allow no divorce, and inflict severe punishment for infidelity.

Chinese immigrants, notwithstanding the persecutions practiced upon them, and administrative restrictions, are the most powerful commercial race in the Philippines. In Manila they number more than 50,000, and in every village they may be found, for practically all the small trade and banking business is in their hands.

CHAPTER XVII.

AMONG the eight or nine or, as some say, fifteen millions of people in the Philippines, the number of Europeans is less, proportionately, than in any other European colony. There may be from seventy to one hundred thousand Spaniards, descendants of the conquerors or children of Spanish parents, but it is probable that a large number of these have native blood in their veins. The Spaniards born in Spain, comprising the military, have never exceeded 10,000, and to hold in check some 6,000,000 of disaffected Indians, as well as the pirates of Sulu and Mindanao, always ready to rise and never completely conquered, Spain had only a force of 4,175 soldiers and a dozen war vessels manned by 2,000 sailors, those sailors who made such a poor showing before our squadron. Probably she would not have been able to maintain her sway for more than three hundred years over a population which had always been hostile to her power but for the infinite variety of races inhabiting the archipelago and the enmities bred by their differences of origin. This confusion of races was complicated by the fact that tribes who are ethnologically as far asunder as the poles, are often not separated from one another by any material boundaries. In the same district are found Indians, Negritos, Manthras, Malays, Bicolis, half-breed Indians and Spaniards, Tagales, Visayas, Sulus, and other tribes.

The Negritos (little negroes) are real negroes, blacker than a great many of their African congeners, with woolly

hair growing in isolated tufts. They are very diminutive, rarely attain four feet nine inches in height, have small retreating skulls, and no calves to their legs to speak of. This race forms a branch equal in importance to the Papuan. It is believed to be the first race inhabiting the Philippines, but, as well as everywhere else, except in the Andaman Islands, it has been more or less absorbed by the stronger races, and the result in the archipelago has been the formation of several tribes of half breeds numbering considerably more than half a million. Side by side with them and equally poor and wretched are the Manthras, a cross between the Negritos and Malays and the degenerate descendants of the Saletes, a warlike tribe conquered by the Malayan Rajah Permicuri in 1411. Then come the Malay Sulus, all Mohammedans and still governed by their Sultan and their datos, feudal lords who, under the suzerainty of the Spaniards, possessed considerable power.

The soil is fully sufficient—indeed more than sufficient—to support this population, whose wants are of the most limited character. The land is exceedingly fertile and bears in abundance all tropical products, particularly rice, sugar, and the abaca, a variety of the banana tree. The rice is consumed at home. It forms the staple food of the people, and nearly \$3,000,000 worth is imported yearly. The husbandman cannot certainly complain that his toil is inadequately rewarded. A rice plantation will yield him a return of at least fifteen per cent.; if he plant his farm with sugar-cane he will be pretty sure of realizing thirty per cent., if not more. On the other hand, the price of labor is very low. An adult who gains a real fuerte (about thirteen cents) a day thinks he is doing well. The higher commerce of the country, until lately monopolized by England, was slipping from her grasp; Germany holding most of it. Many of the industries controlled by the Teu-

ton threaten a serious rivalry with those of France, and his silk factories were becoming a serious menace to those of Lyons.

In this Asiatic archipelago, as in Europe and America, Spain left on the localities occupied by her an indelible mark. In Manila, as well as in Mexico, Panama and Lima, you find again the severe and solemn aspect, the feudal and religious stamp, which this race impresses on its monuments, its palaces, its dwellings in every latitude. Manila looks simply like a fragment of Spain transplanted to the archipelago of Asia. On its churches and convents, even on its ruined walls, overturned in the earthquakes of 1863, time laid the brown, somber, dull-gold coloring of the Mother Country. The ancient city, silent and melancholy, stretches interminably along its gloomy streets, bordered with convents, whose flat facades are broken here and there by a few narrow windows. It still preserves all the austere appearance of a city of the reign of Philip II. But there is also a new city within the ramparts of Manila; it is sometimes called the Escolta, from the name of its central quarter, and this city is alive with its dashing teams, its noisy crowd of Tagal women, shod in high-heeled shoes, and every nerve in their bodies quivering with excitement. They are almost all employed in the innumerable cigar factories, whose output supplies all Asia.

Here all sorts of nationalities elbow one another; Europeans, Chinese, Malays, Tagales, Negritos, in all some 260,000 people of every known race and of every known color. In the afternoon, in the plain of lunetto, carriages and equipages of every kind drive past, and pedestrians swarm in crowds around the military band-stand in a marvelously picturesque square, lit up by the slanting rays of the setting sun, which purples the lofty peaks of the Sierra de Marivels in the distance, unfolds its long, luminous

train on the ocean, and tinges with a dark reddish shade the somber verdure of the city's sloping banks. This is the hour when all the inhabitants hold high festival, able at length to breathe freely after the burning heat of the noon-tide.

In this archipelago of the Philippines, where races, manners, and traditions are so often in collision, the religious fanaticism of the Spaniard had more than once come into conflict with a fanaticism fully as fierce, that of the Musulman. At a distance of 6,000 leagues from Toledo and Granada, the same ancient hatreds brought European Spaniards and Asiatic Saracen into the same relentless antagonism that swayed them in the days of the Cid and Ferdinand the Catholic. The island of Sulu, on account of its position between Mindanao and Borneo, was the commercial, political, and religious center of the followers of the Prophet, the Mecca of the extreme Orient. From this center they spread over the neighboring archipelagoes. Dreaded as merciless pirates and unflinching fanatics, they scattered everywhere terror, ruin and death, sailing in their light proas up the narrow channels and animated with implacable hatred for those conquering invaders, to whom they never gave quarter, from whom they never expected it; constantly beaten in pitched battle, they as constantly took again to the sea, eluding the pursuit of the heavy Spanish vessels, taking refuge in bays and creeks where no one could follow them, pillaging isolated ships, surprising the villages, massacring the old men, leading away the women and the adults into slavery, pushing the audacious prows of their skiffs even up to within 300 miles of Manila, and seizing every year nearly 4,000 captives.

Between the Malay creese and the Castilian carronade the struggle was unequal, but it did not last the less long on that account, nor, obscure though it was, was it the less

bloody. On both sides there was the same bravery, the same cruelty. It required all the tenacity of Spain to purge these seas of the pirates who infested them, and it was not until after a conflict of several years, in 1876, that the Spanish squadron was able to bring its broadsides to bear on Tianggi, the nest of the Suluan pirates, land a division of troops, invest all the outlets, and burn up the town and its inhabitants, as well as the harbor and all the craft within it. The soldiers planted their flag, and the engineers built a new city on the smoking ruins. This city is protected by a strong garrison. For a time, at least, it was all over with piracy, but not with Moslem fanaticism, which was exasperated rather than crushed by its defeat. To the rovers of the seas succeeded the organization known as juramentados.

One of the characteristic qualities of the Malays is their contempt of death. They have transmitted it, with their blood, to the Polynesians, who see in it only one of the multiple phenomena, and not the supreme act of existence, and witness it, or submit to it, with profound indifference. Travelers have often seen a Canaque stretch his body on a mat, while in perfect health, and without any symptoms of disease whatever, and there wait patiently for the end, convinced that it is near, and refuse all nourishment, and die without any apparent suffering. His relatives say of him: "He feels he is going to die," and the imaginary patient dies, his mind possessed by some illusion, some superstitious idea, some invisible wound through which life escapes. When to this absolute indifference to death is united Musulman fanaticism, which gives to the believer a glimpse of the gates of a paradise where the abnormally excited senses revel in endless and numberless enjoyments, a longing for extinction takes hold of him and throws him like a wild beast on his enemies; he stabs them and gladly in-

vites their daggers in return. The juramentado killed for the sake of killing and being killed, and so winning, in exchange for a life of suffering and privation, the voluptuous existence promised by Mahomet to his followers.

The laws of Sulu make the bankrupt debtor the slave of his creditor, and not only the enslaved also. To free them there is only one debtor, but the debtor's wife and children are means left to the husband—the sacrifice of his life. Reduced to this extremity, he does not hesitate—he takes the formidable oath. From that time forward he was enrolled in the ranks of the juramentados, and had nothing to do but await the hour when the will of a superior should let him loose upon the Christians. Meanwhile the Panditas, or priests, subjected him to a system of enthusiastic excitement that turned him into a wild beast of the most formidable kind. They maddened his already disordered brain, they made still more supple his oily limbs, until they had the strength of steel and the nervous force of the tiger or panther. They sang to him their rhythmic, impassioned chants, which showed to his entranced vision the radiant smiles of intoxicating houris. In the shadow of the lofty forests, broken by the burning and sensual images of the eternally young and beautiful companions who were calling him, opening their arms to receive him. Thus prepared, the juramentado was ready for everything. Nothing could stop him, nothing could make him recoil. He could accomplish prodigies of valor. Though stricken ten times, he would remain on his feet, would strike back, borne along by a buoyancy that was irresistible, until the moment when death seized him. He would creep with his companions into the city that had been assigned to him; he knew that he would never leave it, but he knew also that he would not die alone, and had but one aim—to butcher as many Christians as he could.

An eminent scientist, Dr. Montano, sent on a mission to the Philippines by the French government, describes the entry of eleven juramentados into Tianggi. Divided into three or four bands, they managed to get through the gates of the town, bending under loads of fodder for cattle, which they pretended to have for sale, and in which they had hidden their creeses. Quick as lightning they stabbed the guards. Then in their frenzied course, they struck all whom they met.

Hearing the cry of "Los juramentados!" the soldiers seized their arms. The juramentados rushed on them fearlessly, their creeses clutched in their hands. The bullets fell like hail among them. They bent, crept, glided, and struck. One of them, whose breast was pierced through and through by a bullet, rose and flung himself on the troops. He was again transfixed by a bayonet; he remained erect vainly trying to reach his enemy, who held him impaled on the weapon. Another soldier had to run up and blow the man's brains out before he let go his prey. When the last of the juramentados had fallen and the corpses were picked up from the street which consternation had rendered empty, it was found that these eleven men had with their creeses hacked fifteen soldiers to pieces, not to reckon the wounded.

"And what wounds!" exclaims Dr. Montano; "the head of one corpse was cut off as clean as if it had been done with the sharpest razor; another soldier was almost cut in two! The first of the wounded to come under my hand was a soldier of the Third Regiment who was mounting guard at the gate through which some of the assassins entered; his left arm was fractured in three places; his shoulder and breast were literally cut up like mince-meat; amputation appeared to be the only chance for him, but in

that lacerated flesh there was no longer a spot from which could be cut a shred."

It is easily seen how precarious and nominal had been Spanish rule on most of the islands of this vast archipelago. In the interior of the great island of Mindanao there was no system of control, no pretense even of maintaining order. It is a land of terror, the realm of anarchy and cruelty. There murder is a regular institution. A bagani, a man of might, is a gallant warrior who has cut off sixty heads; the number is carefully verified by the tribal authorities, and the bagani alone possesses the right to wear a scarlet turban. All the datos, or chiefs, are baganis. It is carnage organized, honored, and consecrated; and so the depopulation is frightful, the wretchedness unspeakable.

The Mandayas are forced to seek a refuge from a would-be baganis by perching on top of trees like birds, but their aerial abodes do not always shelter them from their enemies. They build a hut on a trunk from forty to fifty feet in height, and huddle together in it to pass the night and to be in sufficient number to repulse their assailants. The baganis generally try to take their victims by surprise and begin their attack with burning arrows, with which they endeavor to set on fire the bamboo roof. Sometimes the besiegers form a testudo, like the ancient Romans, with their locked shields, and advance under cover up to the posts, which they attack with their axes, while the besieged hurl down showers of stones upon their heads. But once their ammunition is exhausted, the hapless Mandayas have nothing to do but witness, as impotent spectators, the work of destruction until the moment comes when their habitation topples over and falls.

Then the captives are divided among the assailants. The heads of the old men and of the wounded are cut off, and the women and children are led away as slaves.

The genius of destructiveness seems incarnate in this Malay race. Had it been more numerous and stronger it would have covered Asia with ruins. Shut up in the Philippines and the neighboring islands, it turns its instincts of cruelty against itself. The missionaries alone venture to travel among these ferocious tribes. They, too, have made the sacrifice of their lives, and, holding life worth nothing, they have succeeded in winning the respect of these savages in evangelizing and converting them. They work for God and for their country, and the poorest and most wretched among the natives were not unwilling to accept the faith and to submit to Spain; but the missionaries insisted on their leaving their homes and going to another district, to which, for many reasons, the neophytes gladly consented. After several days' journey a pueblo was founded. These villages of *infeles reducidos* had multiplied for some years, forming cases of comparative peace and civilization amid the barbarism by which they were surrounded, and were open to all who choose to seek a shelter in them. The more neophytes the pueblo held, the less exposed was it to hostile incursions. Dr. Montano gives a very striking account of one of these daring missionaries, Father Saturnino Urios of the Society of Jesus, who, in a single year, converted and baptized 5,200 infidels. That a good number of these conversions were more apparent than real, that misery had a much larger part in them than faith, may easily be the case; it was not the less true that the result obtained was considerable, and that to win souls it is no bad thing to begin by saving bodies.

But, on the whole, what the Spaniards had been elsewhere they were in the Philippines, a fearless, fanatic race, never a colonizing race. Perhaps they have not been altogether unlike the hardy pioneers of the past in the United States, who plunged fearlessly into the solitudes of

the West, killed Indians like rats, opened a path through the forests, clearing the way for that higher civilization of which they were the forlorn hope, the unconscious vanguard. Dazzled by the splendor and rapidity of their conquests, they regarded their incredible success as due to matchless daring. Europe for a long time believed the Spaniards, as it was later on to believe the English, to be the greatest colonizing people this globe had ever seen. But gold hid the horrible bloodshed wherewith it was purchased, the imposing grandeur of a world-wide dominion and veiled the abject misery of the enslaved natives. Wherever Spain passed like a storm cloud, a hurricane of wrath, she made a desert, and the few survivors wandered over the devastated wilderness, starving, tracked like wild beasts. To conquer is not to civilize, and so of all the immense countries through which the arrogant and destructive power of Castile has swept there remained to her only Cuba and the Philippines. She lost all the New World, from Texas and Florida to Cape Horn. It was not to her profit that all her conquests, the genius of Columbus, the marvelous daring of Cortez, Pizarro, and Almagro, the tenacity of Magellan, were to accrue. She sought to put herself in the place of the conquered races, not to elevate, instruct, civilize them. She reaped the fruits of her barbarous policy and the descendants of these who had conquered for her have been the first to take up arms against her.

Spain had possession of the Philippine Islands for several centuries, yet in all that time she was never able to conquer and hold all of her unwilling subjects long enough to count them accurately, and her easy-going representatives lacked the energy even to enumerate or survey the hundreds of islands composing the group. As a result accurate information upon either population or area simply cannot be

obtained. The American naval officers went into both subjects carefully and made estimates of both, based upon the best official information obtainable and their own observations, making allowance for certain conditions encountered. They placed the population of the group at 7,500,000, the area at 143,000 square miles and the number of islands, including the small ones, at 1,200. Spanish reports from the provinces and islands where the Castilian was completely established and his government duly recognized, showed the entirely tame population to be 5,976,341. The same report placed the number of natives who defied Spanish authority at 692,000 in the Philippines, and 50,000 in the Carolines, and added the fact that there were no doubt many concealments in the returns from the peace districts. In the latter connection the pure Chinese were credited with an actual registration of 49,696 and evasions and concealments to the number of 24,848 or fifty per cent. of the number acknowledged by the wily heathen. The natural instinct of the natives and coolies was to avoid knowledge of their existence on the part of officials, as discovery and registration meant harassing taxes.

Spain had never been at peace with all of the black subjects, despite sundry claims as to complete pacification. As stated above, the official census returns gave the strength of the independent tribes at 692,000, but the number is probably far in excess of that. Mindanao and Basilan with 209,000; Paragua and the Sulu or Jolo group, with 100,000, and the Carolines, with 50,000, were officially credited as being the strongholds that defied the red and yellow, but they were not alone in their defiance. There were thousands of natives on the island of Luzon who could see the shining towers and spires of Manila from their mountain retreats, who defied the soldiers of Alfonso

and paid no tribute to the imperial treasury. Mindanao, with its fierce and warlike tribes, knew no greater freedom than all, although in nearly every island there are tribes who have remained unconquered for centuries. Their own ability as warriors had been aided by swamp, jungle, and mountain fastnesses. Modern methods of warfare have been useless against them, and they had almost invariably triumphed. Spanish experience there was that which Japan had in Formosa.

Blanco, Captain-General in Cuba, was most successful of all the leaders sent to Mindanao. He closed a very successful campaign there in the fall of 1895 with the battle of Laguna de Lanao, in which he completely defeated and routed the allied tribes. He crushed the native army, blockaded the seaports and stopped all trading until peace was sued for. The fragments gathered soon after he left, however, and the actual gain was in the long run materially reduced. The two great centers of population are the Bay of Manila and the island of Panay. The four provinces fronting on Manila Bay contain nearly 1,000,000 people. The province of Manila contains over 300,000, most of whom live in the city of Manila. Panay is a formidable rival of the countries of the world that boast of dense populations, for, with an area of 4,800 square miles, it has a population placed at 860,000. The figures offer some suggestions to the people of California, who boast of a better soil, more resources, and a better climate.

The latest official returns as to the peace population are as follows, the figures being in most instances for provinces, but in some for islands individually :

Name.	Male.	Female.	Total.
Abra.....	20,685	20,633	41,318
Albay.....	146,498	147,281	293,779
Antique.....	54,887	60,547	115,434

Name.	Male.	Female.	Total.
Balabac.	1,319	791	2,110
Bataan.	25,923	24,858	50,781
Batangas.	155,434	155,746	311,180
Benguet.	8,000	7,734	15,734
Bohol.	121,095	123,870	224,965
Bontoc.	6,873	7,112	13,985
Bulacan.	119,043	120,178	239,221
Burias.	902	806	1,702
Cagayan de Luzon.	48,996	47,361	96,357
Calamianes.	6,720	7,571	14,291
Calamianes Norte.	14,832	14,277	29,109
Calamianes Sur.	82,085	82,828	164,913
Capiz.	94,877	100,013	194,890
Carolinas.	861	4	865
Cavité.	68,224	66,345	134,569
Corregidor.	248	326	484
Cebu.	257,875	246,201	504,076
Cottabato.	3,024	1,114	4,138
Davao.	2,195	1,771	3,966
Ilocos Norte.	82,615	80,754	63,340
Ilocos Sur.	87,467	90,791	178,258
Iloilo.	210,986	212,476	424,462
Infanta.	3,575	3,525	7,200
Isabella de Basilan.	717	402	1,119
Isabella de Luzon.	25,130	23,173	48,302
Islas Batanes.	5,248	5,269	10,517
Islas Marianas.	5,034	5,138	10,172
Isla de Negros.	124,841	117,592	242,433
Jolo or Sulu.	2,548	348	2,896
Laguna.	83,744	86,239	169,983
Lepanto.	8,231	7,921	16,152
Leyte.	139,003	131,488	270,491
Manila.	163,989	136,403	300,092
Masbate Yticas.	10,819	10,547	21,366
Mindero.	34,318	33,338	67,656
Misamis.	59,439	56,585	116,024
Morong (Distrito de).	23,710	23,230	46,940
Nueva Ecija.	79,819	76,791	156,610
Nueva Viscaya.	9,988	9,391	19,379
Pampanga.	112,739	111,163	223,902
Pamgasinan.	153,414	148,764	302,178

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Name.	Male.	Female.	Total.
Paragua.....	3,437	2,548	5,985
Principe (Distrito de).....	2,105	2,093	4,198
Romblon.....	17,616	17,212	34,828
Semar.....	96,421	89,145	185,566
Surigas.....	34,189	33,571	67,760
Singan ..	3,870	3,923	7,793
Tarlac.....	46,698	46,641	89,339
Tayabas.....	55,149	54,631	109,780
Union.....	53,406	55,658	110,064
Zambales.....	43,753	43,522	87,275
Zamboanga.....	9,763	7,436	17,199
Totals.....	3,035,377	2,960,963	5,966,341

The number of priests is given at twenty-three hundred; the number of Europeans and Americans, exclusive and Spanish, at one thousand, but no figures as to the Spanish population are ventured. The latter was estimated by the naval officers at from three to five thousand. There are a large number who have a small amount of Spanish blood, and they are not included in the estimate.

A limited observation of the native has not created a very favorable impression. He is lazy to a marked degree, and, like the American Indian, permits the woman to do most of the drudgery. He lacks the faintest idea of hygiene or sanitation, although most of the houses are clean, while their immediate surroundings reek with filth. There has apparently been little effort made to improve his condition. Many have taken advantage of the opportunities offered for education by the Jesuit order, and have been carried through the classics, but the majority seem to have suffered from the "civilization" offered them.

They are a happy lot, though, and exist with few struggles. The average table bears little beyond rice, fruits,

and fish, and all are easy to get. The blistering sun or something else has burned both ambition and emotion out of him if he ever possessed either. Practically nothing but his curiosity, which seems insatiable, will stir him from his rut, and the vocabularies of hundreds of thousands of the tribesmen lack anything that answers for "Thank you."

A sort of wheel of civilization, with Manila for its hub and Mindanao and the Sulus for its tire, may be said to exist. In Manila there is a native population of position and importance, but as you leave the city and other centers the shading comes quickly, and at Mindanao you find pirates and freebooters and wild mountaineers who know no friend but nature.

Aguinaldo and his followers represented but a small fraction of the people of the group, despite the fact that they overran all Luzon, which has an area of one-third of the entire group, and the control and government of the people of all the islands offer a series of difficult problems to those intrusted with the task. They have never known just rule, however, and relief from burdensome and grinding taxation may find them appreciative of just rule and stable government. But even along peaceful lines the task of developing the country and bringing order to its affairs is a stupendous one.

With the possible exception of some parts of the interior of India and Arabia, it is doubtful if there is any hotter climate than that of Manila. The islands reach within four degrees of the equator. The temperature is not so very high, but the humidity excessive. The most extreme care must constantly be exercised to keep one's physical condition properly toned all summer long. The hottest days in the year are in May and June. Fortunately a breeze usually springs up in the early evening, and that

tempers the atmosphere so that one can get some sleep if he is properly fixed for it, when midnight comes. The mean temperature at the Philippines is 72 degrees. In November the weather cools, and then for weeks at a time along the seacoast it is about as near perfection as any one can imagine. To call the months of December, January, and February there winter is a mockery. For seven months in the year, from April to October, no one but the poorest laborer goes out of doors, unless compelled to do so, between 8 in the morning and 4 in the afternoon. In Manila the whole population rises at 4 and 5 A. M., and gets the work of the day out of the way before 8 o'clock. The houses are opened, the servants clean up, merchants do their business and the school children are busy with their teachers. Even the civil and military officers attend to most of their duties between 4 and 8 A. M. Then when old Sol begins to shoot his darts down upon the country more perpendicularly, the whole population go into their houses of stone and of wood, with heavy roofs of tiles and a sort of asphaltum found in that country, and stay there until sundown. It is a land of siestas. Every one who can sleeps there all day long, and slumber there is reduced to a science. Hammocks abound and couches of bamboo are in every home, hotel, club, store, and loafing place. The servants are trained to keep their masters and mistresses comfortable by bringing them iced drinks or a tray of smoking material whenever they awaken after a nap. All buildings are erected with the idea of keeping the heat out as much as possible. Business is suspended all day long; even the men at the wharves quit work for six or seven hours when the sun is highest.

At sundown Manila wakes up. There is an opening of the heavy board window blinds and an exodus of people

from their homes. Even the tree and shrubbery shake off their drowsiness. The merchants open their heavy store doors and the streets suddenly start to life.

The principal meal of the day is served at about 6 o'clock, and with the rich Spanish it is a ceremonious affair. Thereafter the whole population goes out for a walk. Evening calls are made upon friends and the plazas are at their gayest.

The cock-fights take place in the evening; the old theater is always crowded at night—especially Sunday nights. The Luneta is the fashionable promenade in Manila, and one may there see the best social side of the Philippines. The Luneta is a sort of Fifth Avenue along the banks of the Pasig River. The composite character of the population in Manila makes the throng of people along the Luneta very picturesque. A long bridge extends along the Pasig, and the promenade is across that. The shops and stores of the city are close at hand, and at night they are gorgeously illuminated. The street electric lights shed their effulgence on the moving mass of humanity, and the music by the band enlivens the scene. One cannot see such picturesque throngs in America. Every one smokes a cigar or cigarette. There are beggars by the hundred, Hindoos and Javanese in their native garments. The Bocals, or native Indians, come trooping along in bare feet and semi-nudity. There are the latest Parisian styles and the raggedest, poorest people imaginable. There is a family group with the parents at the head, arrayed in garments of reds, blues, and purples. The father strides along with a huge cigar in his mouth, and his wife with a cigarette. The daughters and sons are close behind, and each is smoking a cigar or cigarette. Next follow a group of smiling, chattering padres from the numerous Catholic churches or the great cathedral,

and all, too, are puffing at mammoth cigars. Then there are Japanese by hundreds, Chinese by scores, and native Malays and Negritos by thousands. They all wear light flowing garments of gay-colored fabrics, and all smoke. There comes a company of native girls with raven hair and the blackest of black eyes, set off by fresh olive complexions and the ruddiest of lips. They wear black lace mantillas on their heads and some pretty flower decks their hair. Their dress is of loose thin red and white fabrics. As they go sauntering along behind a parent or chaperon they roll cigarettes and smoke like old professionals. Spanish soldiers and naval officers in gaudy uniforms were always in the throngs that promenaded the Luneta at night. There were Europeans in linen suits and bamboo helmet hats. Occasionally one might see an American among the promenaders, but there were fewer than 150 Americans on Luzon Island. The parade continues back and forth until after midnight. Fashion and poverty go side by side. It is the only chance that lovers have to see one another, and it is always amusing to Americans to see how these young folks in the Orient make their passionate longings known to one another.

Manila is a dilapidated old town. It was founded in the latter part of the sixteenth century. There are old walls and battlements all about the city. There have been less than a dozen fair-sized buildings erected in Manila in ten years. Everything in the city is ancient. People live in old, musty, two-story houses that come flush with the narrow sidewalks. All have a dull, forbidding look with their board blinds and heavy doors, which are seldom open. In the center of almost every house is an open court, known as the patio. All the rooms in the house open on this patio, and there the families hold their social gatherings and eat their meals ten months in the

year. Some patios are beautified by palms, beds of flowers, and arbors of vines. The commercial buildings are all old, too. The shop-windows are little, cheap affairs, and there are none of the modern conveniences in any of the best stores in the whole city. A unique feature of all homes and offices in Manila is the use of tiny square panes of translucent oyster shell instead of glass. A window six feet long and four feet wide will contain 260 of these oyster-shell panes. They temper the fierce glare of the sun in the buildings, and in a country where many people go blind from the constant sunshine this is a precaution to be taken.

Spaniards seldom remain longer than five years in the Philippines—indeed, if so long. As fast as they depart for their native land, newcomers arrive to take their places. The islands have been for generations a region in which people of influence at Madrid might come and recover their financial losses, and where young Spaniards might in a few years make a fortune. There are, however, several Spanish families who have made Manila their home for years. They are immensely wealthy and live in beautiful old palaces in Binodo—a pretty residence suburb of Manila. A genuine census has never been taken in the Philippines, but of a total population of about 300,000 in Manila, about 8,000 were Spanish. The troops were relieved once in two years, but the rebellions had been so many in the islands during the last few years that the soldiers had been kept on duty at Cavité and other garrisons longer than usual.

There have been seventeen respectable-sized rebellions in the last sixty years. It seems strange that such an easy, slumbering, happy-go-lucky race as the natives of the Philippines should have such turbulent politics. With almost any other government over them, the natives would undoubtedly have been peaceful and contented,

but the rapacity of the Spanish had increased, and the poor people were desperate. They longed for any other governing power than the Spanish. The taxes and licenses that the people in the islands paid for their government were too many. All males over twenty-one years of age paid an annual poll tax that equaled eighteen dollars in our money. All females paid fourteen dollars as a poll tax. A person had to get a license to gather cocoanuts from his own trees and sell them. Every article of furniture that cost a sum equal to two dollars in our money was taxed. The curtain never went up at the theater that ten dollars was not paid to the government. No one in the Philippines could kill his own animals for market, clip his sheep, or cut down a tree without first paying a fee to some of the army of collectors that infested the country. A couple paid a tax when they wished to get married, besides a fee to the padre. The natives love showy funerals, and the Spanish decided that the grave-digger must collect \$1.50 for the government before he could bury any one in any cemetery. These sums may seem petty, but it should be considered that the average native has little opportunity to work for hire, that if he did succeed in procuring employment his wages were often not more than five cents a day, and that he was usually unable to dispose of his farm products for cash, being compelled to exchange them for other commodities. In addition to these and other taxes, there was a tax on beasts of burden, a tax for keeping a shop, a tax on mills or oil presses, a tax on weights and measures, and a tax on cock-fighting. At every turn the poor native found himself face to face with the dire necessity of paying tribute, and he frequently spent his life in an ineffectual effort to meet the obligation thus imposed. The revenue went to Spain to pay the soldiers and navy.

There was no escape from these taxes. Women were whipped in the rural towns because they had perhaps failed to get a license before they sold their annual crop of cocoanuts, or had secreted a cow or a goat so that the tax collector did not see it in his official rounds. For the collection of taxes the Spanish revived the plan which was in use in France before the revolution of 1789. For each district of 2,000 square miles a tax collector was appointed by the Governor of the province. He was called a *gobernadorcillo*, and he was responsible for the estimated amount which his district should pay in taxes, so that if collections fell short he had to make them good from his own pocket. He had under him a number of deputy collectors, known as *cabezas*, each of whom collected the taxes of from forty to sixty taxpayers, and was personally responsible for the amount expected from each. If they failed to pay up he distrained their property and sold it. If the proceeds of the sale failed to cover the indebtedness the delinquent debtors were imprisoned.

A large book might be written about the popular revolts that have sprung up in the Philippines because of these tyrannous oppressions. In 1876 the natives lost 5,000 of their best men in rebellion against Spain. In 1882 they lost several thousand more men, and 600 of their leaders were beheaded and shot to death in squads at the garrisons at Cavité as a warning to other sympathizing rebels. The last rebellion broke out in June, 1897, and was quelled for a time by the Spanish troops. In January, 1895, 100 rebels were shot in the suburbs of Manila. Suddenly the rebellion broke out again, and seemed to be the most general revolt yet known in the islands. The intent of the last rebellion seemed to be to rid the Philippines of the Spanish by any means—whether by dynamite, poison or assassination. The natives hoped for a year or two that

Japan would assume control of the islands, and that the hard, cruel hand of Spain would be removed. When they found that their hopes were groundless they rose in armed rebellion. General Schlatter, who was sent to the Philippines by the German Government, in August, 1897, to look into affairs there, reported that the Japanese were leading the revolt. There were 10,000 Spanish regulars on guard in the islands. The insurgents numbered about, 46,000 of whom 5,000 were armed with good guns. The insurgents had a few good cannon cast from melted church bells and bits of metal that they gathered here and there. Manila, like Havana, had naturally been in control of the Spanish troops, and the insurgents had been carrying on a warfare forty and sixty miles from Manila, similar to that of the Cubans about Havana.

Manila is a very bustling port with a very beautiful bay. The town, which is the capital of the Philippines, is a city of 250,000 inhabitants, according to the census of 1880. The large bay, on the shores of which it lies, is oval in form and at least 120 miles in periphery. Into it the River Pasig empties. The city proper, that is, the fortified portion of it, is on the left bank of the Pasig, a spot selected in 1571 by Lopez de Legaspi as the future center of Spanish power in the islands. The Spanish and Creole portion of the population constitute about one-tenth of the whole, the others being natives and Chinese. Most of the Chinese are engaged in commerce.

The city proper is a group of forts, convents, and administrative buildings. It is surrounded by lofty walls and connected with the commercial part of the community, on the right bank of the Pasig, by two fine bridges. As a center of trade it is admirably situated at the mouth of a navigable river and of an interior sea, which insures it the products of a whole province. Upon the waters of the

bay, rides in times of peace a commercial fleet representing the nations of the whole world.

A canal connects Manila with the seaport towns on the other side of the island—the eastern side. In the narrows at the entrance of the bay is the volcanic island of Corregidor. During the southwest monsoon, when the tides are highest, ships of 500 tons can anchor in the mouth of the Pasig, under cover of a long jetty, while small warships can enter the cove of Cavité nine miles further down. This cove is protected from the high tides by a long sandy promontory called the Hook.

Manila is very favorably situated for general commerce. It commands all the routes of navigation between the Strait of Londe and the mouth of the Yang-tse-Kiang. Laperause said of the city that its commercial location was the best in the world.

Up to 1811 it was the connecting point of Spain's trade with her American colonies.

Manila was founded by the Spaniards in 1571, on the site of a Malay town defended by stockades. Miguel Lopez de Legaspi, conqueror of the Philippines and founder of the city, was indefatigable in promoting its growth. He founded the cathedral, which is the metropolitan church of all Catholic Oceania; he established a municipal organization which was confirmed by Philip II. of Spain, and continued to be the form of municipal government. Chinese laborers and traders settled in great numbers, and in time became very turbulent.

In 1603 an insurrection took place and 23,000 Chinese were massacred, notwithstanding which the Chinese population in 1639 was about 30,000.

The severity of imposts and religious persecution again led to an insurrection, which terminated in the slaughter of about 25,000 Chinese and the banishment of the rest.

They soon returned to the city, however, in large numbers, and assisted Admiral Cornish and Sir William Draper in its capture in 1762. The English expedition, composed of 2,300 Europeans and Sepoys, which sailed from Madras, took the city by storm after a siege of ten days. The governor and archbishop agreed to pay \$5,000,000 to save the rich cargoes then lying in port, but the Spanish king refused to ratify the offer. Manila was restored to Spain by the Peace of Paris on February 10, 1763.

Earthquakes have been frequent and disastrous; in that of 1645, 3,000 lives were lost, while in that of June, 1863, about 1,000 perished. In March, 1833, about 10,000 huts were burned, some lives were lost, and about 30,000 persons were rendered homeless. The history of the Philippines has been marked by frequent uprisings against the despotism of Spanish rule. There had been two since the beginning of the last Cuban insurrection, one of which was still in progress when our war with Spain broke out.

In the summer of 1896, the order of the Katipunan was secretly formed among the Malays and Chinese. The purpose was to remove by blood the bondage by Spain. The members of the order were sworn by a gash across the left upper arm. With the blood which issued from the wound the initiated crossed himself and daubed his mouth and solemnly swore that he would spill the blood of at least one Spaniard every six months. The Spaniards got hold of the plot. By trials that lasted an hour or two in some cases and thirty or forty minutes each in most cases, 4,700 of the persons suspected as being in the plot were convicted and shot to death. In the month of November, 1896, there were 800 executions on the outskirts of Manila. In one day seventy-five men were stood up before a wall and shot.

The earthquakes in the Philippines, especially on Luzon

and Negros Islands, deserve a special story by themselves. The whole group of islands is of volcanic origin. There are several volcanoes in constant eruption on the islands. Several of them are the most violent in the world, and are always being studied by scientists from Europe and America. The famous volcano Mayara is within sight of Manila. An earthquake occurs on an average of once every ten days. Small quakes come at the rate of a dozen a day for a week at a time. About a dozen times a year there are shocks so severe that people will run about in fright, and damage will be done to the buildings. The big bridge over the Pasig River at Manila has been swerved by earthquakes twice, so that it has been made unsafe for travel. In 1884, an earthquake nearly ruined the great stone cathedral in Manila, razed many buildings to the ground, rocked hundreds more, and 2,000 people on Luzon Islands were killed by falling timbers and walls. In 1860 the great earthquake occurred on Negros Island. It has never been known how many people were killed then, but the number is estimated at seven thousand. Almost every structure on the island was shaken down, and great gaps, yards wide and miles long, were cracked across the island. The quake opened seams in the earth from the seacoast and made passages from the interior lakes to the ocean. If such a quake should occur in New York City, there wouldn't be one building left on all Manhattan Island.

The people at Manila have the fondness of Spanish countries for exciting sports. The old theater, which seats about fifteen hundred people, is nearly always filled. It paid the Spanish government a revenue of about \$5,000 a year. Sometimes an opera or theatrical company came there from Paris or Madrid and played seven nights in the week for months at a time. Operas with a lot of buffoonery and a lot of desperate villains are immensely pop-

ular in Manila, and dramas in which there is a vein of immorality will draw for weeks. While the play proceeds, boys go about the theater vending cigars and sweetmeats. Often a cloud of tobacco smoke obscures the stage at the close of an evening. When the play pleases a whole scene will be repeated. Once, at an opening night of a new Spanish drama, the audience cheered so lustily that the whole first scene was repeated twice before the second came on. There are some marvelous incongruities in the drama there, but the audience enters so enthusiastically into the plot that there is no chance for such trifling criticism.

Gambling is universal in the Philippines. Every one except the half-civilized men on the little islands in the Philippine archipelago does some gambling. There were lotteries galore. The government got \$1,000,000 revenue a year from the lotteries, and no matter how hard the times, how sad the islands might be over some frightful calamity, there were always some lotteries in full blast under the protection of the Spanish. Sellers of lottery tickets had booths along the streets, at the plazas, and wherever the people congregated for an evening's promenade. Thousands of people scrimped and pinched a whole month to get money to buy chances in some lottery scheme. The business men laid aside a certain share of their receipts to buy tickets. The Manila newspapers got a large part of their business from advertisements for lotteries.

Naturally, the average native of the Philippines is a humble and peaceable sort of fellow. He has very little education and has no knowledge of the world outside the islands. There were men in Manila who had held government offices, and were accounted great successes there, who had never heard of the United States previous to the war. The natives are simple people; they love to dance, sing,

and loaf. Poverty is more general than anywhere on the continent. Under a good government there would never be a suggestion of rebellion, and these people could be made prosperous.

Outside of the Spanish colony in Manila, there is little care for the fashions as they change from season to season in Europe and America. The same material and cut does in summer and in winter—or, more accurately, in the wet season and in the dry. There is never any frost and never any occasion for furnaces or open fires. Except for cooking, there is plenty of heat in the atmosphere the year round.

Men wear white duck suits, with thin flannel or silk underwear, no linen shirt or collar, white pith helmets, and white canvas shoes the year around. The Spaniards and the Spanish half-castes go in for style a little more. The Spaniards were haughty and fond of displaying their uniforms of blue or white and their gold trimmings. The half-castes, or *Mestiza*, are equally fond of display, but their attire is something of a compromise between European and Chinese modes.

Besides the one year out of seven that all foreign employes of the great mercantile houses represented in Manila have given to them as "home leave," there is a month's vacation each year, a regular holiday each month, and all the saints' days, and Spanish, French, English, German, and American holidays. Not to observe a saint's day in Manila is sinful, and every one holds such sinfulness in especial detestation. Figuring in all the saints' days, Sundays and general holidays, there were 129 days in each year when these people did not work.

Clerks earn from \$2,500 to \$5,000 a year, besides having lodgings found, a mess allowance, medical attendance and traveling expenses. In many cases their rooms are over

the offices. They work from daylight to noon, rest for two or three hours, and then work till 5 o'clock, but they have much freedom in choosing their hours and were hurried only on mail days.

There are many excellent bands in Manila, and open-air concerts are given every evening in fair weather. Theatrical companies, both native and foreign, play through the season. The Mestiza chorus girl is alluring. In the cathedral and the churches the music is always good, though it is startling to the newcomer to hear, as he will in some services, a Gloria from "Trovatore," the Credo with music from "Barbieri," and the Elevation from "Traviata."

The tongue spoken by all but a few of the dwellers in the Philippine archipelago has been the subject of a good deal of curious speculation, as well as of scientific research. It has been traced to the Africans, to the ancient Hebrews, to the American Indians, to the world at large, and to an indigenous "primitive race," whose skulls and other bones have been interviewed. Conservative philology and ethnology ascribe to the language, and to the untold millions of men and women who use it, an origin almost undoubtedly Malayan.

Practically this tongue has been of considerable utility in the advancement of civilization, and is interesting as an available and effective engine of further progress. The quasi-conquerors ignored the benefit of colloquial intercourse with the islanders; but for 300 years the friars taught and preached, and the traders bought and sold, in the language of the people. To acquire it, the conventuals have gone out and worn the bahaque, or native costume, and the almond-eyed hustlers from China have married the sprightly dalagas.

The language of the archipelago divides into innumerable local dialects, of which vocabularies of about thirty-five

have been written down. Every dialect is dim with an infinity of idioms, and the technical and pet words of Mussulman and Christian propagandists, Japanese and Chinese castaways, Negrito wanderers and Negrilla sweethearts, Celestial merchants and Spanish dons, have been mixed with the whole as occasion offered.

Of these dialects the most important is the Tagaloc. It is spoken by fifteen hundred thousand Tagals in Luzon and the adjacent islands. Ten thousand girls have often been heard chattering Tagaloc all at once in a Manila tobacco factory. The word Tagal means a native; talaga, a native woman; zagala, a lady; dalaga, a girl; behaque, the native dress—to wear which is to be a native. Luzon is said to be from Losong, a primitive rice mill kept in every house. Cavité is Cavit, “The Hook,” and not from the Latin cave “beware.” Manila, which has given name to a valuable textile fiber, and, in some places, to the peanut, was ma nilad, “the place of the nilad,” a scrub growing wild among the mangroves.

“Clarie, riche, elegante, metaphorique, poetique!” says an enthusiast of this tongue. Poetic and other licenses, indeed, are granted freely. Euphony is made to order; syncopation, addition, transposition, mutation, while you listen. Nouns and verbs are blended; a word may be a sentence, or a stickful half a word. Imitative words grow wild; as halotictic, the noise of the lizard, that mustn’t be killed, because there will be no earthquake or excess of rain while its song lasts.

The natives, a musical and poetical people, are much given to the intoning of extemporaneous verses, and their improvisations are often upon the gravest themes. A touching incident is related of a poor woman who chanted a heartrending impromptu invocation to the Virgin as her little child lay dying in her arms.

The native aptitude in the use of modern writing material is beyond doubt. "They no longer make use of arrows and lances against us," says an ecclesiastic, "but of pens, ink and paper; of fables, calumnies, and jokes. Scribblers and pettifoggers are in all the pueblos, ready enough at writing memorials on government paper. Let the padre set himself against their wickedness, and immediately they get together, drink, fill their folios with crosses, and away to the most easy-going court they can find." A Tagaloc proverb is, "Maminsanminsan ay susulat ca at maminsanminsa y babata ca nang sulat" (Write once in a while and read once in a while). In 1610, a book was written by Pinpin, a native, and printed by Talaghay, another native, to enable the Tagals to learn the Spanish language.

The native dramas are of an intolerable length; a tragedy will often include the entire life of some king. "There is much talk on the stage," says a traveler, "and brandishing of swords, and frowns, and fierce fighting, and genii-hunting women into wild forests, and kings and queens gaily dressed." Religious dramas are very popular. Of these, the Passion Play, in Tagaloc verse, is the favorite.

There is a body of poetry, consisting largely of lyrics, wedding songs, romanzas, ballads, and ditties of all kinds. These are all set to native music; weird and fascinating melodies that are a flat insult to Western ideas of tune. A composition in a minor key and full of accidentals will take a notion to pause in the middle a half tone below the fifth, and to wind up without any resolution a half tone below the tonic. These songs bear particular names; as the "Batanguino," the "Cavitegan," and the favorite of all, the song of the conquest of love—the "Comintang de la Conquista." The Comintang is a peculiar song and dance, in which a young couple execute

an appropriate pantomime as the spectators sing the words to the instrumental rendering of a languorous and melancholy air. The lover seeks to inflame the heart of the dalaga, and, finally, in despair, drops as if dead. She, too late relenting, is about to die of grief, when he jumps up and catches her. The music of the Comintang indicates an influence either Spanish and remotely Moorish, or possibly directly Arabian.

FULL TEXT OF THE AGREEMENT WHICH CONCLUDED
OUR WAR WITH SPAIN.

The Spanish-American war was practically terminated by the surrender of General Toral's forces at Santiago de Cuba on June 17 (1898), but the terms of final adjustment of all disputes were referred to commissioners, appointed by the respective governments of the United States and Spain, which held their sessions in Paris, where their labors were completed on December 10; and on the fourth day of January following, the peace treaty, as agreed upon, was submitted to President McKinley and by him referred immediately to the Senate for action, and ratified by that body on February 6.

The full text of this important instrument is as follows :

The United States of America and Her Majesty the Queen Regent of Spain, in the name of her august son, Don Alfonso XIII., desiring to end the state of war now existing between the two countries, have for that purpose appointed as plenipotentiaries :

The President of the United States—

William R. Day, Cushman K. Davis, William P. Frye, George Gray, and Whitelaw Reid, citizens of the United States ;

And Her Majesty the Queen Regent of Spain—

Don Eugenio Montero Rios, President of the Senate ; Don Buenaventura de Abarzuza, Senator of the Kingdom and ex-Minister of the Crown ; Don Jose de Garnica, Deputy to the Cortes and Associate Justice of the Supreme

Court; Don Wenceslad Ramirez de Villa Urrutia, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary at Brussels, and Don Rafael Cerero, General of Division.

Who, having assembled in Paris and having exchanged their full powers, which were found to be in due and proper form, have, after discussion of the matters before them, agreed upon the following articles :

ARTICLE I. Spain relinquishes all claim of sovereignty over and title to Cuba.

And as the island is, upon its evacuation by Spain, to be occupied by the United States, the United States will, so long as such occupation shall last assume, and discharge the obligations that may, under international law, result from the fact of its occupation for the protection of life and property.

ARTICLE II. Spain cedes to the United States the island of Porto Rico and other islands now under Spanish sovereignty in the West Indies, and the island of Guam in the Marianas or Ladrones.

ARTICLE III. Spain cedes to the United States the archipelago known as the Philippine Islands and comprehending the islands lying within the following line :

A line running from west to east along or near the twentieth parallel of north latitude and through the middle of the navigable channel of Bachi, from the one hundred and eighteenth (118th) to the one hundred and twenty-seventh (127th) degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich; thence along the one hundred and twenty-seventh (127th) degree of longitude east of Greenwich, to the parallel of four degrees and forty-five minutes ($4^{\circ}45'$) north latitude to its intersection with the meridian of longitude one hundred and nineteen degrees and thirty-five minutes ($119^{\circ}35'$) east of Greenwich; thence along the meridian of longitude one hundred and nineteen degrees and thirty-five minutes ($119^{\circ}35'$) east of Greenwich to the parallel of latitude seven degrees and forty minutes ($7^{\circ}40'$) north; thence along the parallel of latitude seven degrees and forty minutes ($7^{\circ}40'$) north to its intersection with the one hundred and sixteenth (116th) degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich; thence by a direct line to the intersection of the tenth (10th) degree parallel of north latitude with the one hundred and eighteenth (118th) degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich, and thence along the one hundred and eighteenth (118th) degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich to the point of beginning.

The United States will pay to Spain the sum of twenty million dollars (\$20,000,000) within three months after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty.

ARTICLE IV. The United States will, for the term of ten years from the date of exchange of ratifications of the present treaty, admit Spanish ships and merchandise to the ports of the Philippine Islands on the same terms as ships and merchandise of the United States.

ARTICLE V. The United States will, upon the signature of the present treaty, send back to Spain, at its own cost, the Spanish soldiers taken as prisoners of war on the capture of Manila by the American forces. The arms of the soldiers in question shall be restored to them.

Spain will, upon the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, proceed to evacuate the Philippines, as well as the Island of Guam, on terms similar to those agreed upon by the commissioners appointed to arrange for the evacuation of Porto Rico and other islands in the West Indies under the Protocol of August 12, 1898, which is to continue in force till its provisions are completely executed.

The time within which the evacuation of the Philippine Islands and Guam shall be completed, shall be fixed by the two governments. Stands of colors, uncaptured war vessels, small arms, guns of all calibers, with their arms and accessories, powder, ammunition, live stock and materials and supplies of all kinds belonging to the land and naval forces of Spain in the Philippines and Guam, remain the property of Spain. Pieces of heavy ordnance, exclusive of field artillery, in the fortifications and coast defenses, shall remain in their emplacements for the term of six months, to be reckoned from the exchange of the ratifications of the treaty, and the United States may, in the meantime, purchase such material from Spain if a satisfactory agreement between the two governments on the subject shall be reached.

ARTICLE VI. Spain will, upon the signature of the present treaty, release all prisoners of war and persons detained or imprisoned for political offenses in connection with the insurrection in Cuba and the Philippines and the war with the United States.

Reciprocally, the United States will release all prisoners made prisoners of war by the American forces, and will undertake to obtain the release of all Spanish prisoners in the hands of the insurgents in Cuba and the Philippines.

The Government of the United States will, at its own cost, return to Spain and the Government of Spain will, at its own cost, return to the United States, Cuba, Porto Rico and the Philippines, according to the situation of their respective homes, prisoners released or caused to be released by them, respectively under this article.

ARTICLE VII. The United States and Spain mutually relinquish all claims for indemnity, national and individual, of every kind, of either government, or of its citizens or subjects against the other government, that may have arisen since the beginning of the late insurrection in Cuba and prior to the exchange of ratifications of the present treaty, including all claims for indemnity for the cost of the war.

The United States will adjudicate and settle the claims of its citizens against Spain relinquished in this article.

ARTICLE VIII. In conformity with the provisions of Articles I., II. and III.

of this treaty, Spain relinquishes in Cuba and cedes in Porto Rico and other islands in the West Indies, in the islands of Guam and in the Philippine archipelago, all the buildings, wharves, barracks, forts, structures, public highways and other immovable property which in conformity with law belong to the public domain, and as such belong to the crown of Spain.

And it is hereby declared that the relinquishment or cession, as the case may be, to which the preceding paragraph refers, cannot in any respect impair the property or rights which by law belong to the peaceful possession of property of all kinds, of provinces, municipalities, public or private establishments, ecclesiastical or civic bodies, or any other associations having legal capacity to acquire and possess property in the aforesaid territories renounced or ceded, or of private individuals of whatsoever nationality such individuals may be.

The aforesaid relinquishment or cession, as the case may be, includes all documents exclusively referring to the sovereignty relinquished or ceded that may exist in the archives in the peninsula. Where any document in such archives only in part relates to said sovereignty, a copy of such part will be furnished whenever it shall be requested. Like rules shall be reciprocally observed in favor of Spain in respect of documents in the archives of the islands above referred to.

In the aforesaid relinquishment or cession, as the case may be, are also included such rights as the Crown of Spain and its authorities possess in respect of the official archives and records, executive as well as judicial, in the islands above referred to, which relate to said islands or the rights and property of their inhabitants. Such archives and records shall be carefully preserved, and private persons shall without distinction have the right to require, in accordance with law, authenticated copies of the contracts, wills and other instruments forming part of notarial protocols or files, or which may be contained in the executive or judicial archives, be the latter in Spain or in the islands aforesaid.

ARTICLE IX. Spanish subjects, natives of the peninsular, residing in the territory over which Spain by the present treaty relinquishes or cedes her sovereignty, may remain in such territory or may remove therefrom, retaining in either event all their rights of property, including the right to sell or dispose of such property or of its proceeds; and they shall also have the right to carry on their industry, commerce and professions, being subject in respect thereof to such laws as are applicable to other foreigners.

In case they remain in the territory, they may preserve their allegiance to the Crown of Spain by making before a court of record, within a year from the date of the exchange of ratification, of their decision to preserve such allegiance; in default of which declaration they shall be held to have renounced it and to have adopted the nationality of the territory in which they may reside.

The civil rights and political status of the native inhabitants of the territories hereby ceded to the inhabitants of the United States, shall be determined by the Congress.

ARTICLE X. The inhabitants of the territories over which Spain relinquishes or cedes her sovereignty, shall be secured in the free exercise of their religion.

ARTICLE XI. The Spaniards residing in the territories over which Spain by this treaty cedes or relinquishes her sovereignty shall be subject in matters civil as well as criminal to the jurisdiction of the courts of the country wherein they reside, pursuant to the ordinary laws governing the same; and they shall have the right to appear before such courts and to pursue the same course as citizens of the country to which the courts belong.

ARTICLE XII. Judicial proceedings pending at the time of the exchange of ratifications of this treaty in the territories over which Spain relinquishes or cedes her sovereignty, shall be determined according to the following rules:

1. Judgments rendered either in civil suits between private individuals or in criminal matters, before the date mentioned, and with respect to which there is no recourse of right of review under the Spanish law, shall be deemed to be final, and shall be executed in due form by complete authority in the territory within which such judgments should be carried out.

2. Civil suits between private individuals, which may on the date mentioned be undetermined, shall be prosecuted to judgment before the court in which they may then be pending or in the court that may be substituted therefor.

3. Criminal actions pending on the date mentioned before the Supreme Court of Spain against citizens of the territory which by this treaty ceases to be Spanish, shall continue under its jurisdiction until final judgment; but such judgment having been rendered the execution thereof shall be committed to the competent authority of the place in which the case arose.

ARTICLE XIII. The rights of property secured by copyrights and patents acquired by Spaniards in the island of Cuba and Porto Rico, the Philippines and other ceded territories at the time of the exchange of the ratification of this treaty, shall continue to be respected. Spanish scientific, literary and artistic works, not to subversive of public order in the territories in question, shall continue to be admitted free of duty into such territories for the period of ten years, to be reckoned from the date of the exchange of the ratification of this treaty.

ARTICLE XIV. Spain will have the power to establish consular offices in the ports and places of the territories, the sovereignty over which has either been relinquished or ceded by the present treaty.

ARTICLE XV. The government of each country will, for the term of ten years, accord to the merchant vessels of the other country the same treatment in respect of all port charges, including entrance and clearance duties,

light dues and tonnage duties, as it accords to its own merchant vessels not engaged in the coastwise trade.

This article may at any time be terminated on six months' notice, given by either government to the other.

ARTICLE XVI. It is understood that any obligations assumed in this treaty by the United States with respect to Cuba, are limited to the time of its occupancy thereof, but it will, upon the termination of such occupancy, advise any government established in the islands to assume the same obligations.

ARTICLE XVII. The present treaty shall be ratified by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate thereof, and by her Majesty the Queen Regent of Spain; and the ratification shall be exchanged at Washington within six months from the date hereof, or earlier if possible.

In faith whereof we, the respective plenipotentiaries, have signed this treaty and have hereunto affixed our seals.

Done in duplicate at Paris, the tenth day of December, in the year of our Lord, one thousand eight hundred and ninety-eight.

SOME INTERESTING STATISTICS OF THE WAR.

THE losses by the *Maine* explosion, February 15, 1898, were two officers and 264 men. At the great naval engagement in Manila Bay, May 1, seven American seamen, all of the *Baltimore*, were wounded, none fatally. At the bombardment of Cienfuegos, May 11, we had one killed and eleven wounded. At Cardenas, on the same date, five were killed and three wounded. At the bombardment of San Juan, May 12, our casualties were one killed and seven wounded. In the two sharp fights at Guantanamo, June 11 and 20, we had six killed and sixteen wounded. When Santiago was bombarded, June 22, only one man was killed and nine were wounded. In the great naval fight before Santiago, June 3, our losses were one killed and one wounded. One man on the auxiliary *Yankee* was wounded June 13, and a seaman of the *Eagle* was wounded July 12. One of the crew of the *Bancroft* lost his life July 2, and on the *Amphitrite* one man was killed August 7. Making a total of all losses in the navy, during the war, nineteen

killed and forty-eight wounded, of which latter number twenty-nine died of their injuries. During the time of hostilities the strength of the navy and marine corps was 26,102 officers and men, and the total deaths from disease during the 114 days was fifty-six.

Nearly all our losses were sustained in the Santiago campaign, where twenty-three officers and 237 men were killed and ninety-nine officers and 1,332 men were wounded. The casualties of the Porto Rico campaign were three men killed and four officers and thirty-six men wounded. In the campaign for the reduction of Manila seventeen men were killed and ten officers and ninety-six men were wounded. Our total losses from the beginning of hostilities until the truce following the signing of the protocol was thirty-three officers and 257 men killed, 113 officers and 1,464 men wounded. The number of deaths in the army from disease during the same time was eighty officers and 12,485 men. The total number of officers and men engaged in all branches of the land service was 274,717.

Nearly all the arms captured from the Spaniards were taken at Santiago when General Jose Toral surrendered to General William R. Shafter, July 17: 16,902 Mauser rifles, 872 Argent rifles, 6,118 Remington rifles, 833 Mauser carbines, 84 Argent carbines, 330 Remington carbines, 75 revolvers, 30 bronze rifled cannon, 10 cast iron cannon, 8 steel cannon, 44 smooth-bore cannon, 5 mortars. Of ammunition there was surrendered at the time 3,551 solid shot, 437 sharpnel, 2,577 shells; and for small arms 1,471,200 rounds Mauser, 1,500,000 rounds Argent, 1,680,000 rounds for carbines.

In the engagement in Manila Bay, Dewey destroyed the cruisers *Reina Cristina*, *Castilla*, *Isla de Cuba*, the *Ulloa*, and the *General Lozo*, and the gunboats *José Garcia*, *Isla*

de Cuba, Isla de Luzon, Ducro, Corres, Velasco, Mindanao, Callao, Leyte, Sandoval, and Manila. A few days later Dewey captured the torpedo boat *Barcelona*. Captures made by our blockading fleet in Cuban waters were the gunboats *Hernandez Cortez, Vasco Nunez, Alerta, Pizarro, Velasquez, Ardilla, Flecha, Tradera, Satellite, Marguerite, Virgin, Ligera, General Blanco, Intrepida Gauto, Alvarado,* besides many merchant vessels. Of the several Spanish war vessels sunk in battles with our squadrons the following were raised, repaired, and are now a part of the United States Navy: *Isla de Luzon, Isla de Cuba, and Reina Cristina,* all cruisers, and the gunboats *Sandoval, Callao, and Mindanao.*

Generals have the same relative rank as admirals, but there is now no office of these grades, though they may soon be revived. The office of lieutenant-general and vice-admiral has also been abolished. Major-generals have the same rank as rear-admirals. Brigadier-generals have the rank of commodores. Colonels rank with captains. Lieutenant-colonels rank with commanders. Majors rank with lieutenant-commanders. Captains rank with naval lieutenants. Lieutenants rank with ensigns.

Relative rank, however, does not signify equality of salary, that of army officers being somewhat greater than the pay of ranking officers of the navy, because the latter are allowed prize money as rewards for victory, while the former, however valorous and triumphant, receive no such bounty.

Following are major-generals of the regular and volunteer forces, January 1, 1899: Nelson A. Miles, general commanding, regular; Wesley Merritt, major-general, regular; John R. Brooke, major-general, regular; William R. Shafter, Joseph C. Breckenridge, Elwell S. Otis, John J. Graham, James F. Wade, John J. Coppinger, William M.

Graham, Henry C. Merriam, promoted from the active list of brigadier-generals by nomination of the President, May 4, 1898; and the following civilians nominated at the same time to serve as major-generals during the war: Joseph H. Wheeler, from Alabama; Fitzhugh Lee, from Virginia; William J. Sewell, from New Jersey; James H. Wilson, from Delaware. The annual salary of major-general is \$7,500, which sum is increased 10 per cent. after each period of five years of service for twenty years. At retirement the pay is \$5,625. Brigadier-generals receive \$5,500; colonels, \$3,500.

George Dewey was promoted to the rank of Admiral, March 5, 1899, which is the highest office in the navy, corresponding to that of general of the army, which does not now exist. His salary is \$13,500 per annum.

The active list of rear-admirals is as follows: Winfield S. Schley, William T. Sampson, John A. Howell, Frederick V. McNair, H. L. Howison and Albert Kautz.

The pay of naval officers is as follows:

Rear-admirals, when at sea, receive \$6,000; on shore, \$5,000; on leave, waiting orders, \$4,000 per annum.

Commodores receive \$5,000; on shore, \$4,000; waiting orders, \$3,000.

Captains receive \$4,500; on shore, \$3,500; waiting orders, \$2,800.

Commanders receive \$3,500; on shore, \$3,000; waiting orders, \$2,300.

Although the war with Spain lasted only one hundred and fourteen days, it is estimated that the cost to the government was \$150,000,000, of which \$98,000,000 was paid out of the Treasury, to the time of signing the protocol, August 12. Beginning with March 1, when the first increases in the expenditures in anticipation of war became apparent in the daily expenditures of the Treasury,

the actual disbursements on this account were approximately as follows:

MARCH.		JUNE.	
Army	\$ 600,000	Army.....	\$16,500,000
Navy	2,400,000	Navy	6,500,000
	<hr/>		<hr/>
Total.....	\$ 3,000,000	Total.....	\$23,000,000
APRIL.		JULY.	
Army.....	\$ 1,200,000	Army.....	\$29,500,000
Navy	9,800,000	Navy	5,500,000
	<hr/>		<hr/>
Total.....	\$11,000,000	Total.....	\$35,000,000
MAY.		TO AUGUST 13.	
Army	\$12,000,000	Army.....	\$ 5,500,000
Navy.....	7,000,000	Navy	1,500,000
	<hr/>		<hr/>
Total.....	\$19,000,000	Total.....	\$ 7,000,000
Total charged to War Department.....			\$65,300,000
Total charged to Navy Department.....			32,700,000
			<hr/>
Grand Total.....			\$98,000,000

The appropriations made by Congress on account of the war aggregated about \$360,000,000, and covered the time to January 1, 1899.

THE OCCUPATION OF HAVANA.

UNDER the terms of the protocol of August 12, and the peace treaty of December 10, 1898, Spanish sovereignty was to cease in Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines, and by particular agreement made with the American evacuation commissioners December 27, Spain was to lower her flag from Morro Castle, and from the governor-general's palace, Havana, and surrender the city to the representative of the American government, the date of which trans-

fer being fixed for January 1, 1899. The ceremonies attending this important event were very impressive, although slightly marred by acts of Spanish hauteur, which, however, are almost pardonable when the awful humiliation involved is considered.

Captain-General Castellanos failed to make good his promise to meet the moment with fortitude, for after the general program of surrender had been agreed to, the Spaniards violated their promise by lowering the crimson and gold flag that floated above the palace two hours before the time fixed, and disappearing with it. As noon approached it was learned that no other flag had been provided and when Major Butler protested he was met with shrugs that meant everything or nothing. Then as the Spanish and American officers gathered in the reception room of the palace for the final ceremonies, it was seen that while the Americans were in full dress uniforms the Spanish wore fatigue uniform without side-arms. However, they suffered in comparison for their lack of courtesy. The Americans, physically giants anyway, led by Brooke, who towered above Castellanos as an oak over a weeping willow, had their stature increased by their toggery. Had it not been for their discourteous conduct the Spaniards would have had general sympathy instead of what approached contempt.

After the ceremony General Castellanos, instead of bidding his friends good-bye, led an immediate and tearful procession to the water front, where he took a launch for the steamer *Ribat*, vowing he would never again set foot on Cuban soil.

In spite of these incidents the ceremony was impressive and one never to be forgotten by those who saw it. A cordon of United States troops of the Tenth Infantry kept all without passes two blocks from the palace, in front of

which six companies were marched. Drawn up along directly in front of the palace and facing the American soldiers were two companies of the Leon Battalion, with Colonel Raffael Salamanca in command.

Just at half-past eleven o'clock Major-Generals Wade and Butler, with their staffs, rode down Obispo Street, and as they wheeled into the palace plaza the Eighth Infantry band with Jacob Haest, who is six feet and six inches tall, as drum major, struck up the Royal March of Cadiz, in which the Spanish bugle corps joined. Next to arrive were Major-Generals Brooke and Ludlow and staffs in carriages. As they stepped to the street "The Stars and Stripes Forever" was played. Next to arrive were Generals Chaffee, Humphreys, Davis, and Keifer, who were honored with a fanfare from the Spanish trumpeters.

Perhaps the most dramatic incident of the morning and of more moment was the arrival of the Cuban generals, Rodriguez, Menocal, Vidal, Laret, Cardenas, Agramonte, Medarse, Valiente, and Jose Gomez. The Americans had been saluted by the Spanish officers as they arrived and greeted by Spanish trumpets. The Cubans received no salute. No blare of trumpets announced their appearance. From the Americans, however, they received every courtesy and the Second Illinois band played in their honor a medley which sounded much like the Cuban national hymn. Last to arrive was Major-General Fitzhugh Lee with his staff and guard, making a most imposing appearance as they encircled the palace.

By this time it was approaching the hour of noon. General Brooke had sent word to Major Butler not to insist upon having the Spanish flag raised. Generals Brooke and Wade led the procession up the wide but broken marble steps running from the central court of the palace to the reception room on the second floor. Following them

were Generals Butler, Lee, Ludlow, Humphreys, Chaffee, Davis and Keifer, and then the staff officers and the invited guests.

General Castellanos advanced and shook hands coldly with Generals Brooke and Wade. The Spaniards were gathered in small groups at the south end of the room, General Castellanos being supported by his two sons and aides and Colonels Girauti, Benitez, and Galvez, with a few others of lesser rank. The Americans made an imposing group at the north of the room. After their positions had been taken General Lacret marched into the room with his associates of the insurgent army. They were given a position of vantage at right angles to others and half facing them. Behind the American generals stood Acting British Consul Jerome, who has represented the United States in Havana. With the Spaniards stood French Consul Martin. He was the only one in the group in full dress uniform. It was noted, as places were taken, that Marquis de Montero, a member of the Spanish Evacuation Commission, was absent.

Promptly as the big clock in the palace struck the first note of the twelfth hour came the thunder of cannon from Cabanas across the harbor. Three distinct echoes followed, so that the second gun sounded before the first had ceased to reverberate. A Spanish bugle sounded a note in the courtway below, and Captain-General Castellanos, pale to sallowness, advanced, meeting General Wade in the center of the room.

There was a moment of hushed expectancy and all listened for the strangest words ever pronounced within those grim walls that had known Spanish power and glory and were now to know Spanish humiliation. While his conduct had been petty for a man in his position, there is no doubt that General Castellanos felt deeply. For a mo-

ment he was absolutely unable to proceed. Tears rolled down his stern old face, and when he spoke his voice was broken with emotion. He spoke in Spanish and beautifully, as follows :

“GENTLEMEN :—In compliance with the Treaty of Paris, the agreement of the military commissioners of the island and the orders of my king, at this moment of noon, January 1, 1899, there ceases in Cuba Spanish sovereignty and begins that of the United States. In conclusion, I declare you in command of the island, with the object that you may exercise it, declaring to you that I will be the first in respecting it. Peace having been established between our respective governments, I promise you to give all due respect to the United States government, and I hope that the good relations already existing between our armies will continue until the termination of the evacuation of those under my orders in this territory.”

At the conclusion of his speech Captain Hart, attached to the American Commission, advanced, and, taking from General Castellanos a roll of manuscript, translated that which the Spanish captain-general had just said. Captain Hart is almost as large a man as General Brooke, and he presented a heroic figure acting as the instrument through which the transfer of sovereignty was made. He was pale, too, but his voice was unbroken, and as he read every one within the room heard his voice.

At the conclusion of Captain Hart's reading, General Wade turned to General Brooke and in a dignified manner announced as beautifully as possible that the command of the American forces in Cuba henceforward rested with him. General Brooke spoke feelingly, Captain Hart translating, accepting the responsibility and expressing the good will of the American government and the people for Spain.

In the meantime a signal had been given and Major Butler raised the Stars and Stripes over the palace, which ceased at that moment to represent Spanish power and oppression. As the flag floated in the breeze two bands stationed in the plaza played the "Star Spangled Banner," while the troops presented arms in salute. From thousands of throats a song of welcome came, and whether it was heartfelt or not, which the future only can tell, it was certainly long and loud.

Thunders of salutes from the harbor still continued to roll over the city, and from every available staff the American flag was unfolded to receive the plaudits of the people, who, during the morning, had remained within doors, but who were now pouring into the streets literally in thousands.

General Castellanos had informed the Americans that he would be happy to receive any one who might come to pay his respects, but at the last moment his heart failed him. As the simple ceremonies closed the officers fell to the right and left, opening a passage to the throne room, along which Castellanos and his aides passed. Immediately strapping on their side arms they filed solemnly down to the plaza, which they crossed, accompanied by General Clous and Captain Hart, to the harbor front, where they took launches for the steamship *Ribat*, which latter took General Castellanos to Matanzas.

As they departed the American troops all stood at attention. No voice was raised in exultation, the grief of the conquered being respected. As the party approached the water front a woman appeared upon the balcony of a building, shook out the Spanish flag, and in shrill tones cried "Viva España."

General Castellanos and his aides halted, saluted their flag, and with tear-broken voices gave three feeble "Vivas."

As they entered their launch they were sobbing as though broken-hearted. General Castellanos' last words after bidding good-bye to General Clous were that he should again set foot on Cuban soil, but should live while at Matanzas and Cienfuegos on board the *Ribat*.

After the withdrawal of the Spanish officials General Lacret made a brief speech in which he pledged the loyalty of the Cuban troops and people in giving every assistance to the American forces in establishing in Cuba a free and independent government. General Brooke responded, evading the delicate reference to Cuban independence.

"I have been sent by my government," he said, "to establish in Cuba that order which has been unknown in the island for years. To do this it is necessary that I shall have your support. In you I place the greatest trust. From you I expect extraordinary assistance. From the people I expect co-operation."

As the Cuban generals withdrew, representatives of the Ayuntamiento were presented to General Brooke, who signified his desire that they should act in full accord with the American plans as made public by him. The faculty of the university appeared in full gowns and pledged their heartiest support to the new order of affairs. General Brooke thanked them and expressed a desire that their work should proceed without interruption.

The most spectacular incident within the palace was when the bombaras, Havana's firemen, dressed in full uniform, crowded in the reception room unexpectedly and gave three rousing cheers for "Los Americanos!" They captured General Brooke's heart and the genial old general shook hands all round with them.

A hurried inspection of the palace was made, showing that the Spaniards before their departure had stripped the rooms of everything save the broken lot of furniture.

The pictures had been taken from the walls with the exception of a portrait of Spain's boy king, which still graces the walls of the throne room. Early in the afternoon Captain Mott placed a guard about the palace, closing it to the public.

General Lacret, who acted as spokesman for the Cuban officers, assured the United States Military Governor that everything in the power of the Cuban military officials would be done to help the Americans to restore Cuba to a condition of peace and prosperity. This speech was translated by Captain Page, of Virginia.

It was scarcely half-past twelve o'clock when General Brooke and his staff left the palace for the Hotel Inglaterra. Commodore Cromwell and Captains Sigsbee, Berry, Cowles, and Foss, of the United States squadron, arrived a few minutes after, too late to pay their respects. The only woman who witnessed the scene in the salon was Mrs. John Adams Fair, of Boston, who was ushered into the palace by mistake. When she was about to retire Colonel Gelpi, the captain-general's chief of staff, begged her to remain. All the other ladies were assigned places in the balcony of the barracks overlooking the plaza.

The parade of the United States troops showed the feeling of the Cuban element of the population. The march was from El Vedado, along the Achia Del Norte, the Prado and Central Park to Cerro and Quemados. About every fourth house displayed some decoration, a palm branch, a bit of red, white, and blue bunting or a flag. There was no general expression of public rejoicing, though Major-General Lee, who rode at the head of the column on a gray charger, received a personal ovation along nearly the entire route. Major-General Brooke, Major-General Ludlow and the other generals reviewed the

corps, standing on a bench in front of the Hotel Inglaterra and surrounded by their staffs.

Every man in the last company of the One Hundred and Sixty-first Indiana infantry, as he entered Central Park, drew from under his uniform a small Cuban flag and waved it. The Cubans went nearly wild with cheers and excitement, and General Lee sent Lieutenant-Colonel Curtis Guild, Jr., to order the Indianians to put away the flags, which they did. It was reported that the entire company was under arrest. General Lee turned in after the column passed, the crowd pressing close around his horse, shaking his hand and making other demonstrations of affectionate interest. His orderly was heavily burdened with flowers for the general.

When Lieutenant Lee, son of General Lee, with Lieutenant Jones and Lieutenant-Colonel Livermore, of the army; Ensign Webster, Boatswain Hill and Gunner Applegate, of the cruiser *Brooklyn* representing the navy, entered Cabanas, they found no Spanish flag flying from the staff and the halyards were tangled. Two sailors from the *Brooklyn* rove off new halyards, and Lieutenant Lee requested the Spanish officer in charge, Lieutenant Cache, to hoist the Spanish flag, that the Americans might salute it. Lieutenant Cache was about to do this when the governor of the fortress said it would be unnecessary. Then, on a signal from the *Brooklyn*, the sailors fired twenty-one guns at Cabanas, after which Lieutenant Lee, who was in full dress, hoisted the Stars and Stripes, the Spaniards firing twenty-one guns in salute, and Lieutenant-Colonel Cavestany handing the keys of the fortress and an inventory of its contents to the American officer.

At Morro Castle, Lieutenant Wade, son of General Wade, raised the Stars and Stripes, and Quartermaster-Sergeant Mersoig hauled down the Spanish flag amid

cheers. About noon a Cuban produced a spectacular effect, by letting loose a big Cuban flag from a tight string high over Morro Castle, where it flew all the afternoon. The United States Military Commissioners cabled to President McKinley at 12.30, and in reply General Wade, president of the commission, received the following:

“I congratulate the commission upon the successful termination of its mission, and the peaceful occupation of Cuba by the United States.

“WILLIAM MCKINLEY.”

General Castellanos was escorted to the wharf by Generals Clous and Chaffee. As he stepped into his launch he wept. Crowds of Spaniards, men and women, all dressed in black, gathered upon the sea wall and silently watched the fleet pass out. There was not a shout, not a handkerchief waved. Men and women wept together.

CHAPTER XVIII.

OUR BATTLES WITH THE FILIPINOS.

THE intervention of a superior power to aid a struggling people to free themselves from the oppressions and abuses practiced by their subjugators is invariably attended by ingratitude, which usually manifests itself in hostile demonstrations against their liberators. This sudden change to enmity of a freed people has its origin in the soulless ambition of thankless leaders, who, conceiving a purpose to become absolute as rulers, promote the military spirit of their followers, which they then employ for their own selfish ends, and often to the ruin of their purblind followers, as well as themselves. This is especially true of the semi-civilized, among whom insurgent leaders who once taste the fruit of victory, however small and transitory, may nevertheless be depended upon to yield loyal allegiance to any power above them. The United States government is in an attitude to feel the effects of this base ingratitude, and that our humane intervention in Cuba and in the Philippines will bring upon us the hostility of those liberated peoples there can be no doubt; indeed it has already involved us in a long and costly war, leaving us in the position from which Spain has been driven. The first blow was struck by the Filipinos, who, mindless of the service which the United States rendered in freeing them from the exactions and cruelty of their Spanish taskmasters, are now anxious to expel their civilized liber-

ators, to disclaim all obligations, and to assert their independence.

The signing of the Peace Treaty at Paris, December 10, which terminated our war with Spain, was almost immediately followed by acts of arrogance and supercilious conduct on the part of Aguinaldo, who assuming the powers of a sovereign—though without recognition—proceeded to levy taxes, issue proclamations, impose restrictions upon American troops, and conducted himself in a manner that was calculated to irritate our officers and to incense our soldiers to the limit of patience. Refusal by the President and Secretary of State to recognize Aguinaldo's representative, Agoncillo, who visited Washington and memorialized Congress in a vain effort to secure acknowledgment of Philippine independence, so angered Aguinaldo that he made preparations to resume the war against American troops in the Philippines as invaders. He was able to secure from traders, who were more mercenary than patriotic, 10,000 Mauser and Remington rifles, 3,000,000 rounds of ammunition, two 20-pounder Krupp guns and several pieces of field artillery. He thereupon began active operations by intrenching his 20,000 troops in the vicinity of Manila, and in making preparations for conducting hostilities. The administration entertained the hope that forbearance and kind treatment might influence Aguinaldo to accept the kind offices and sincere good-will of America, which, however, instead of being appreciated, served no other purpose than to provide opportunity desired by the insurgents to strengthen their position and to complete their preparations for war.

It unfortunately happened that the administration's pacific utterances and great forbearance was regarded by the Filipinos as an evidence of hesitation and weakness. In practicing toleration to avoid actual conflict with the

natives, and to save bloodshed, a certain official recognition was given the Filipinos. A striking illustration of this fact occurred on December 21, when the two forces were very near an engagement. Up to that date the sentries of the American and insurgent forces had guarded opposite ends of the Paco bridge, a stone structure across a ten-foot creek on the outskirts of the city, but in accordance with instructions the American officer of the day essayed to post his sentry in the center of the bridge. The Filipino guard objected, however, and when a protest was made informed the Americans that at nine o'clock the next morning they would fire upon the American line unless the sentry was withdrawn. At the appointed hour Major-General Anderson and some 4,000 men were on hand, but after a conference the Filipinos were recognized to the extent that the sentry was withdrawn to his former position, and the American troops marched back to their quarters.

The issuance of General Otis' proclamation regarding the intentions of the Americans in the Philippines gave Aguinaldo the opportunity desired, and in less than twelve hours after the former was published the Filipino's response was posted on the walls of the city. Its effect was instantaneous upon the natives generally and their attitude was such that it was deemed advisable to keep the entire army of occupation in quarters and under arms, in order that they might be ready should an emergency arise.

Two trivial incidents which occurred simultaneously in different parts of the city occasioned a false alarm at 2.30 o'clock, January 6, 1899, and the entire troops were called "to arms." Within fifteen minutes after the echoes of the bugles had died away the whole force was under way, every company of every regiment being in its allotted position ready for action. While this created somewhat of a sensation temporarily, the promptitude with which

the troops responded to the call had the effect of restoring confidence.

In response to the conciliatory proclamation of Major-General Otis, issued January 4, Aguinaldo issued an official manifesto in which he says:

“General Otis calls himself in the proclamation referred to, ‘Military Governor of the Philippine Islands,’ and I protest once and a thousand times and with all the energy of my soul, against such authority. I solemnly proclaim that I have never had, neither in Singapore nor in Hong Kong, nor here, in the Philippines, any undertaking or agreement, either by word or by writing, to recognize the sovereignty of America in this, our loved country. On the contrary, I say that I returned to these islands on board an American warship on the sixth of May of last year, with the decided and manifest proposition to carry on the war with the Spaniards, to reconquer our liberty and our independence.

“In the proclamation of General Otis, he alludes to instructions written for him by His Excellency, the President of the United States, referring to the administration of affairs in the Philippine Islands. I solemnly protest in the name of God, the root and foundation of all justice and of all right, and who has given to me power to direct my dear brothers in the difficult work of our generation, against this intrusion of the Government of the United States in the sovereignty of these islands. Equally, I protest in the name of all the Philippine people against this intrusion, because when they gave me their vote of confidence, electing me, though unworthy, as president of the nation, when they did this they imposed on me the duty to sustain to the death their liberty and independence.”

It was against such sentiment that the American authorities had to contend, which appeal for the right of self-

government had a powerful influence in the United States Congress, and among a large proportion of the American people, which manifested itself in an opposition to a ratification of the Paris treaty strong enough to postpone the vote until February 6. Aguinaldo persuaded himself to believe that a hostile demonstration by his troops immediately before the time set for senatorial action would cause a rejection of the treaty on the final vote. This vain belief he put into effect on the night of Saturday, February 4, by making an attack on the American lines guarding Manila, entertaining no doubt that he would be able to surprise Major-General Otis and under the cover of darkness achieve an easy victory.

The situation was precarious for a long while, though the Filipinos sought to quiet suspicion of their designs by profuse assurances whenever they were discovered in a hostile act. They maintained a strictly belligerent attitude, however, and their sentries were posted within a few yards of our outposts, while day and night a large force was industriously engaged increasing their intrenchments and otherwise preparing for an attack upon Manila. Such strained relations could not endure indefinitely, and the rupture was finally precipitated by an invasion of the neutral zone by a small party of insurgents who passed the American guards and refused to halt or turn back when challenged. At this time the fighting force of the insurgents was estimated to be 30,000 men, of which number 20,000 were before Manila, fairly well armed and occupying strong positions. Our total force in the Philippines was about twenty-one thousand, two thousand of which number was incapacitated, by sickness, or on leave, and less than ten thousand were in Manila, the others being distributed at various points in the islands.

When hostilities began by an attack made by the Filipi-

nos on the night of Saturday, February 4, 1899, the American army encircled Manila in two divisions. The First division was commanded by General Anderson, the First brigade of the First division being under command of Brigadier-General King, and the Second being commanded by Brigadier-General Ovenshine. The lines extended from the sea along the line of Spanish block-houses to the Pasig River, in Samapaloc. The Second division, under General MacArthur, with the First brigade, commanded by Brigadier-General Harrison G. Otis, and the Second brigade, by Brigadier-General Hale, occupied a position to the north of the city from Pasig River to the sea.

The most extreme point inland occupied by American troops was the camp of the Nebraska regiment, at Santa Mesa, where the first fight began on Saturday at 8.45 P. M. The Nebraska outposts challenged and fired on an insurgent company, which was advancing into the neutral zone, but the Filipinos disregarded the command and a few moments later another company swept across the neutral zone as if by preconcerted signal, which drew the fire of our sentries, and the battle opened. A heavy force of insurgents on the north of the city began a sharp fusillade on the Nebraska camp, to which the regiment responded with spirit. Springfields flamed in the half moon all about the camp, while the enemy's Mausers gave no flash.

A four o'clock on Sunday morning, with the shout of "Viva la Republica!" the Filipinos tried to rush across the bridge, over a road leading to the waterworks, opposite the American camp. One company of Nebraska men met the advancing insurgents at the bridge and drove them back. Twice the Filipinos, with indomitable pluck, charged upon the bridge again, but they were driven back each time.

Lieutenant Webb, of Battery A, stationed on Santa

Mesa Hill, prayed for daylight, and when dawn came two guns of the Utah battery opened fire so near to the firing line that two men were killed at once.

The plan of the second division was to sweep forward and carry a high position held by the enemy north of the Pasig River. The Colorado volunteers, under command of Colonel Mecoy, rushed block-houses No. 2 and No. 6, and the villages beyond San Juan Bridge were cleared with shrapnel. The Nebraska men made their way over the bridge, crouching in pairs, amid the hissing and pattering of bullets. On the other side they were met with a hail of lead from the steep hill of San Juan; but they were followed closely by two Nordenfeldts, under charge of Lieutenant Gibbs. As these rumbled over the bridge a battalion of Tennessee troops approached and quickly followed across, in columns of four, under fire. Colonel Smith fell from his horse and died of apoplexy at the moment of the charge.

Up the hill the artillery and infantry scrambled, digging with their hands and feet. Nothing could stand before them. It was a grand sight. At twelve o'clock noon (Sunday, February 5) our men took the reservoirs at the top of the hill. Further to the left, on the heights, was Binando church. In order to take this the Americans did not have to advance up a steep incline, but could make a gradual ascent over two miles of rough country, though barbed wire impeded their advance.

The Utah guns followed the troops step by step, to clear the way, while the Third Artillery moved along dikes through a cul-de-sac, with swamps on either side, and got into the open, losing twenty-five men. Two batteries then swung to the right, under Captain O'Hara, going into the open like veterans, and drove from the Chinese church the insurgents, who were pouring a cutting fire on the Mon-

tana and Pennsylvania troops while they were coming up the hill through a cemetery toward Binando church.

Colonel Frost, commanding the South Dakota regiment, swung that body around from the left and carried two insurgent redoubts, where thirty Filipinos were killed. The South Dakota and a part of the Pennsylvania troops then stormed and took the Binando church.

The *Concord* from the bay shelled the woods near the shore, and the Kansas men, followed by the Montana troops and supported by one gun, moved on Saturday night along the Caloocan road. The enemy charged them six times, coming within one hundred yards, but they were steadily pushed back until, by Sunday night, the American line had advanced three miles.

Thus, all along, the Second division had little difficulty in driving the enemy, who fought well behind trenches, but, once dislodged, fled in panic. Against the First division, south of the city the fighting was hardest, the insurgents showing wonderful pluck, under the command of General Noviel.

During Saturday night everything was quiet; but at half-past seven o'clock on Sunday morning, from Artillery Knoll—General Anderson's headquarters—the Sixth Artillery opened fire, and from the bay to block-house No. 14—where the American troops entered Manila—the ground was held by the North Dakota regiment and the Fourteenth Infantry. The *Monadnock*, from her place in the bay, pounded the insurgents with her big guns.

Captain Murphy, in command of the Fourteenth battalion, began fighting at eight o'clock in the morning. So stubborn was the resistance at this point that he succeeded in taking block-house No. 14, four hundred yards' distance, only at two o'clock in the afternoon. This place is called "Bloody Lane" by the Spaniards.

Lieutenant Michael fell, crying, "Never mind me. Go on!" Lieutenant Miles then took the lead. One hundred yards from the block-house the fire was so hot he called for volunteers, and, with eight men, he took it, the insurgents going out as his men went in.

General Ovenshine was ordered to dislodge the enemy in Murphy's front. He formed a brigade of the Fourteenth Infantry on the right of Murphy's position, with volunteers on the right of the Fourteenth Infantry and Troops E, C and L, of the Fourth Cavalry, dismounted, on the left of Murphy's men. All the men to the right of Murphy's position wheeled to the left across an open field till a thicket was reached. Then they opened fire and the enemy finally was dislodged. The engagement was hot, but the fire of our men was irresistible. General Ovenshine, with his brigade, then proceeded to Pasay, which he entered without resistance.

The line of the First division on Sunday extended from the bay at Pasay to the Pasig River, at San Pedro and Macati. Further inland our line ran along the stream to Triega. Three miles in front was an open country. One and a half miles diagonally across the line Colonel Smith, with three companies of California troops, one Washington and four Wyoming companies, was ordered to advance toward San Pedro Macati. General King was to move forward as soon as Colonel Smith came opposite. The troops waded the stream and marched into the open as if they were on drill. From the stone houses, nipa huts and earthworks the enemy poured bullets upon the Americans, while Battery D, of the Sixth Artillery, under Captain Dyers, and Hawthorne's separate Montana battery continued to shell the enemy magnificently over the heads of the advancing troops.

At San Pedro Macati the position of the insurgents

seemed impregnable, but Lieutenant Haven, of Company A Engineer Corps, forced a way back of the town, and, by plucky work, made the position untenable for the enemy. Washington troops swam the estuary under fire, and later the Idaho troops, with one company of Washington men, swept the insurgents toward the left. One hundred of the Filipinos jumped into the Pasig River, but only twenty succeeded in getting across the stream. The village was burned on every side to dislodge the guerillas. The smoke of fire and battle encircled the city.

An improvised river gunboat, with Captain Randolph, of the Third Artillery, commanding, riddled Santa Ana with its guns. The Idaho troops charged the bastion fort, and Major McConville was killed. Two Krupp guns were captured. Sixty-five dead insurgents were found in one heap and the rice-fields were dotted with dead and wounded Filipinos. The hospital corps did splendid work for both friend and enemy. The insurgents, once dislodged, ran miles back into the country, all along the line swept by the First division.

On Monday afternoon the Nebraska battalions, the Twenty-third Infantry and the Tennessee troops, General Hale commanding, with four guns, under Major Young of Utah, swept the country for four miles to the pumping station. They shelled the insurgents from hill to hill. At the foot of the second hill was found the stripped body of Dr. Young, of Utah, who rode through the lines by mistake. His horse had been shot and twelve empty revolver cartridges were found by his side, indisputable evidence of the heroic fight he had made against the multitude that overwhelmed and shot him to death.

The insurgents retired, firing as they went, and at five o'clock in the afternoon of Monday the pumping station had been taken. The cylinder heads had been removed

by the insurgents, but they were found later, in the coal works, and, being in good condition, were promptly replaced. On Tuesday General Anderson moved his left up to the Lagana Pasig, which surrendered.

For several days thereafter trainloads of insurgents were seen landing at Caloocan, north of Manila, and on Friday the *Concord* shelled the town. General MacArthur sent the Kansas and Montana troops and the Third Artillery to take the place. In a splendid charge the Kansas men went through a jungle near shore, driving the enemy before them, and killing great numbers.

For several days after being routed from before Manila the insurgents were to be seen gathering at Caloocan, twelve miles to the north, evidently with the intention of rallying their forces for another attack. To anticipate the plans of the enemy and render them ineffectual, Major-General Elwell S. Otis, commander of the American forces, determined to attack the city at once. Accordingly, on Friday, the tenth, he sent instructions to his officers, and also requested assistance of the naval forces under Admiral Dewey. A few hours later Major-General MacArthur reported that all was ready, and at three o'clock he received the following message:

The commanding general orders you to go ahead with the program.
BARRY.

The monitor *Monadnock* and the cruiser *Charleston* immediately maneuvered for position, and as Caloocan is within easy range from the bay, a vigorous bombardment from their eight-inch guns was begun.

At the same time that the warships began shelling, the Sixth Artillery and the Utah Battery opened fire on the rebel intrenchments on the landward sides of the town.

The country between the American portion and Caloocan was covered with banana groves, bamboo hedges and paddy fields, with here and there straggling collections of nipa huts, all of which afforded excellent shelter for the native soldiers near the town proper who were not in the trenches or otherwise disposed of. Some of these men had the reputation of being sharpshooters, but their work did not justify the title, as the damage done by them was trifling.

The artillery and the warships pounded away until four o'clock, when orders were given for General Harrison G. Otis' brigade, except the Pennsylvania regiment, which was held as a reserve, to move on the enemy's works. The men had been impatiently waiting for the order, and as the word was passed down the line they responded with cheers. The movement was made in the following order from left to right: Twentieth Kansas Infantry, First Montana Infantry and Third Artillery, the Twentieth Kansas and the First Montana being supported by the First Idaho Infantry, and the Third Artillery by the Fourth Cavalry.

The Filipinos were awaiting the advance of the troops, and as the Americans began to move forward the rebels started a rattling fire, which made considerable noise but did no great damage. The Americans declined to answer, but pressed steadily forward. Not a stop was made until they reached the intrenchments, from which most of the natives hastily scrambled as the Americans drew near. The rebels tried to make their way to the shelter afforded by the town, but scores of them failed to reach their goal, being stopped by American bullets.

Just at this time the Filipinos were thrown into worse confusion by the discovery that they had been flanked. A company of the First Montana Infantry, under command of Major J. Franklin Bell, Chief of the Bureau of Military Information, whose services had been invaluable,

had volunteered to execute the flank movement, and moving off to the east, without being detected, arrived on the enemy's flank back of the town. The natives saw they were trapped, and scattering, fled like sheep, many of them dropping their weapons in their anxiety to escape. The Americans had jumped the trenches, and, yelling and cheering, were in full pursuit. It was simply a rout, and proved that, even with the aid of artificial defenses, the Filipinos are no match for the Americans who are fighting them. Barricades had been erected at the place where the Malabon road crosses the line of the Dagupan Railway, in the center of the town. These had been torn to pieces in many places by the fire from the warships and land batteries.

As the Twentieth Kansas and First Montana regiments entered the town from the south, some of the fleeing natives set fire to the huts, whose roofs are made of nipa grass, thinking to start a blaze which would destroy the place. In this they were disappointed, however, as the Americans extinguished the fires.

The losses of the Americans were slight, but the enemy suffered heavily both in killed and wounded. Most of the casualties to the Filipinos were caused by shrapnel, the screaming and effectiveness of which caused terror among the natives. Among the Americans wounded was Colonel Bruce Wallace, of the First Montana Infantry.

After the Americans were in possession of the town it was found that there was only one house in the place that had a flagstaff. This belonged to Mr. Higgins, an Englishman, who is president of the Dagupan Railway. He lent the staff to General Otis, and at half-past five o'clock the American flag was floating over the town. Its appearance was greeted with enthusiastic cheering by the troops.

Insurgent troops were massing to the support of Agui-

naldo's forces at Caloocan and Malabon when the fighting began. It was reported that there were 6,000 rebels at the two places, among them being the famous Seventy-third Filipino Regiment, which in the last rebellion killed its Spanish officers and then deserted to Aguinaldo.

Except for the advance on Caloocan the American line was much the same as it was on Wednesday. On the right General Ovenshine's brigade extended to the beach two miles north of Camp Dewey and to the Pasig River. Lieutenant-Colonel Treumann, with the North Dakota volunteers, had established his headquarters on the beach, whence he was in signal communication with the American fleet. The Second battalion of the Dakota regiment extended along the front, and all of the Fourteenth Infantry except Companies M and E was stationed at the Pasig River and extended thence to San Pedro and Malate. General King's headquarters was in Pasig Village, which surrendered the day before the attack on Caloocan, and the California regiment occupied the villages of Pasig, Malate, and Santa Ana. On the left General Otis' brigade, consisting of the Twentieth Kansas regiment, eight companies of the Pennsylvania regiment, the Montana regiment, and four batteries of the Third Artillery, stretched back from Caloocan to the Chinese cemetery, where there was an excellent signal station on a hill, and from a church tower the signalmen communicated with the fleet.

The Third Artillery regulars, acting as infantry, pushed forward in the face of Filipino bullets as cheerfully as though the deadly missiles had been snow-balls, before which resolute advance and the combined action of the swiftly closing lines of the Americans the enemy retreated in an utter rout and fled helter-skelter to the mountains.

At six o'clock "cease firing" and the "recall" were sounded. The troops were then well through Caloocan

and north of it with the enemy flying in utter rout in every direction.

By the capture of Caloocan control of the Manila-Dagupan Railroad was obtained, which enabled the Americans to move and concentrate troops promptly along the line, and to invest Malabon, Aguinaldo's seat of government, which was, however, evacuated on the following day, most of the town being burned by the Filipinos. The American casualties in the two engagements were fifty-nine killed and 199 wounded, while the loss of the Filipinos is supposed to have exceeded 2,500 killed and wounded, and 4,000 prisoners.

About three hundred miles south of Manila is the Island of Panay, which comprises 4,633 square miles, and contains a population of 775,000. The island, though a small one, is extremely rich, and the people are more advanced than in any other part of the group. The chief town is Iloilo, of some 35,000 inhabitants, and is the seat of the Catholic see of Jaro. The natives of this island maintained a stubborn resistance against the Spanish for more than a year, and having a fairly well organized army of 10,000 men, were unwilling to disband after the treaty between Spain and the United States was concluded. Several efforts at pacification were made by our commissioners, but all peaceful overtures failed of their purpose, the natives always demanding recognition of their independence, and refused to treat upon any other basis. The cruiser *Boston*, accompanied by the *Petrel*, was finally dispatched to the island, convoying three transport ships, carrying 3,000 troops, but these were not permitted to land, and for nearly two weeks they lay off Iloilo awaiting orders; in the meantime General M. P. Miller, who was in command, was vainly trying to persuade the insurgents to peacefully permit American occupation. So far from accepting the over-

tures made by General Miller, the insurgents remained defiant and prepared for vigorous resistance by strengthening their defenses.

This irritating condition was at length relieved by the action of Major-General Otis, who, on February 8, dispatched Colonel Potter with instructions for General Miller, upon receipt of which, on February 10, an ultimatum was delivered to the insurgents, warning them that an attack would be made upon Iloilo in twenty-four hours, if the work of strengthening the defenses of the city were not at once discontinued.

The *Boston* and the *Petrel* made a reconnoissance on the morning of February 11. The insurgents apparently were quiet, but at half-past eight o'clock officers on the *Petrel* observed the enemy constructing new earthworks and bringing additional guns to bear. Captain Wilde was informed, and the *Boston* fired two small projectiles as a warning to the insurgents, who immediately entered their intrenchments and opened fire on the *Petrel*. Both vessels replied, and soon the insurgents abandoned their works.

Several fires were observed in the town soon afterward, and at 11 o'clock our ships landed parties under Lieutenant Niblack, of the *Boston*, one battalion occupying the fort and substituting the American for the Filipino flag, the sailors assisting. Our troops, taking possession of the trenches, pushed through the town, extinguishing the fires where possible, and driving the insurgents outside. General Miller later landed additional troops. Pushing forward to the bridges leading to Jolo and Molo, the insurgents fired the native Chinese houses, which they had previously saturated with kerosene, and also the offices of the Smith Bell Company, and the British and American consuls, the German consulate, a Swiss business house, and an empty warehouse belonging to an American firm.

This destructive vandalism was all the injury the insurgents were able to inflict, as not a single American soldier was killed or wounded in the attack, and complete possession of Iloilo was obtained, with a prospect that no further resistance to our arms would be offered by the Filipinos of Panay.

That our government entered upon a grave undertaking, which, though great in the beginning, has assumed a more serious aspect than could be foreseen, was clearly proved by events directly following conclusion of the peace treaty with Spain. The Filipinos quickly manifested their intention to form an independent government, and when Aguinaldo's request of the United States to make a declaration of purpose respecting the acknowledgment of a Filipino republic was refused, that ambitious leader took the offensive by preparing to continue the struggle for independence which the conclusion of our war with Spain had interrupted. In an earlier article to be found in this work, description is given of the battle precipitated by the Filipinos on the night of February 4, and of the capture of Iloilo and the engagements near Manila to February 10, resulting in a defeat of the insurgents at Caloocan and Malate. These conflicts were believed, for a while, to have so discouraged Aguinaldo that he was well disposed to treat for peace, and overtures to this end were actually made, but General Otis refused to consider any terms except such as provided for an unconditional surrender of all the insurgents, and their unqualified submission to the dictates of the United States government.

Aguinaldo, as has been previously shown, is a man of unbounded ambition, who having risen to not only the position of leadership, but to the presidency of the newly organized Filipino republic, was unwilling to descend from the high estate which he had gained by the fortunes of war,

and elected to continue a war for independence against the United States, hopeless as it appeared, rather than relinquish the power he had achieved, which to him was the pearl of great price. Resolutely therefore he reformed his shattered ranks, and set all the machinery of his influence in motion to stir up and encourage the several tribes of the archipelago to wage war against the American army of invasion. So well did he succeed that insurrections followed in the islands of Mindanao, Panay and Cebu, and all the tribes in Luzon acknowledged allegiance to him, and flocked to the support of his banner.

There was almost constant skirmishing after February 10, but the Filipinos always retired before the Americans, endeavoring to lure their enemies into the interior, beyond the range of Admiral Dewey's fleet, and to points where it would be most difficult for our army to maneuver effectively. It was not therefore until Saturday, March 25, 1899, that a movement was made to engage the Filipinos, the main army of which was known to be concentrated in the vicinity of Polo, twenty miles north of Manila, and supposed to be 25,000 strong, by which position they were able to guard the approach to Malolos, the Filipinos capital. The movement of our troops was begun by General MacArthur advancing with two brigades towards Nova-liches, which is twenty-five miles northeast of Manila, and then swinging to the left to strike Polo from the north. Wheaton's brigade, which lay in front of Caloocan, pressed forward at the same time, and Hall's brigade on the old line north of Pasig made a demonstration towards the left. The enemy in our immediate front was estimated to be 12,000 strong, with a reserve of as many more, while east of Pasig there was a force of 5,000, which had to be reckoned with, the line being thus a semicircle with a radius of twenty miles and a sweep of fifty miles.

The troops engaged were the Third Artillery, as infantry ; the Montana, Kansas, Pennsylvania, Nebraska, Wyoming, Colorado, South Dakota, Minnesota, and Oregon volunteers ; the Third, Fourth, Seventeenth and Twenty-second regulars ; the Utah Artillery battalion and Twenty-third regulars.

The Nebraska and Colorado volunteer regiments encountered the first strong resistance. This was at San Francisco del Monte, four miles from Manila, and in the surrounding trenches. The cavalry outflanked the enemy, who broke and ran, suffering a severe loss, but they directly reformed and made a stubborn stand in the woods north of the Laloma Church.

General MacArthur's division, composed of General Harrison Gray Otis' brigade on the left, made up of the Third Artillery and the Twentieth Kansas and First Montana regiments, and General Hale's brigade, which included the First South Dakota, Tenth Pennsylvania, and First Nebraska regiments, led the advance. As this force moved forward beyond the trenches that had been deserted by the Filipinos, the reserves occupied the trenches, prepared to advance when their services might be needed. The reserve force was made up of General Wheaton's command, composed of the Second Oregon Regiment and the Twenty-second and Third Infantry, and General Hall's brigade, which included the Fourth Infantry, two battalions of the Seventeenth Infantry and the Thirteenth Minnesota and First Wyoming regiments.

General MacArthur advanced to the eastward, encountering sharp and immediate opposition from the Filipinos, who were massed in considerable force in that direction, and poured a heavy small-arm fire upon the Americans. General Hale quickly extending his front, Otis' artillery rushed to the firing line two guns of the Utah battery of light artillery under Lieutenant Naylor, two guns of the

Sixth Artillery under Lieutenant Flemming and a Colt automatic field gun in command of Ensign Davis.

While the artillery vigorously shelled the village of Masambong, the infantry charged across the level open fields in utter disregard of the terrible volleying of the insurgents, and with a great cheer carried the trenches, driving the enemy from them in disorder. The Filipinos gave ground stubbornly, but they could not withstand the impetuous rushes of the United States troops, which continually advanced in the face of the most galling fire. They stood the assaults for a time, but the relentless oncoming of the Americans was demoralizing; they could not understand such deadly, earnest work, and at last they fell back.

After carrying the trenches the Americans swung to the northward, capturing in splendid style the fortified towns of Balintauac, Baeza and Cathuhan, and finally driving the enemy before them through the swamps bordering the Juliaha River toward the town of Novaliches. The rough character of the country, with its dense undergrowth, and the determined resistance of the enemy, prevented further advance in this direction, and the line swung to the left along the river.

General Wheaton began operations from Caloocan, which is seven miles due north of Manila. He was met with a heavy fire from Malabon, about a mile to the west and slightly north of Caloocan, and from the trenches directly in front, where the enemy were stationed in large numbers.

At 8.30 o'clock the Twenty-second regulars advanced with the purpose of forming connection between Colonel Egbert's regiment on the right and the Third Artillery, which formed the left of General MacArthur's division. The attempt was a daring one, and was pluckily maintained under a galling fire, but the end was failure, which left a gap of a mile on the extreme left of the American line.

The Oregon regiment advanced almost to the confines of the town of Malabon, thus receiving the heaviest fire of any of the United States troops who were engaged. The natives fought like demons, at times actually leaving their trenches and with reckless bravery charging the Oregon regiment. It was only by the most magnificent fighting on the part of the latter and their utter disregard of the incessant volleying of Aguinaldo's followers that they were enabled to hold their ground. In this engagement they lost eight killed and twenty-three wounded.

The position of the Oregon men was still a most trying one when they were reinforced by a battalion of the Third Infantry in command of Captain Cook. With the arrival of reinforcements the assault was renewed with spirit and the enemy was soon compelled to yield. The Filipinos retreated upon Malabon helter-skelter, the Americans pursuing them clear into the streets of the town and inflicting great loss. The Oregon regiment and the Third Artillery suffered the heaviest loss on the American side, the latter being particularly exposed in storming a strong earth fort which they carried at the point of the bayonet.

The Montana and Kansas troops met the hottest resistance in a strip from which the rebels had greatly worried the Americans recently during the night-time. Ninety minutes after the start—at six o'clock—the whole front for a distance of three miles to the north had been cleared. General Hale's brigade had simultaneously swept in a north-westerly direction, routing the enemy and burning the town of San Francisco del Monte and a number of scattered huts. The line was then opposite Novaliches, the artillery advancing along a good road from Laloma, to Novaliches, the wagons, carrying pontoons, telegraph supplies and ammunition, following. The infantry moved in splendid order. Smoke from the burning huts marked the line of

the American advance. Ambulances and horse litters, led by Chinese, brought in the wounded, among whom were a few Filipinos.

A strong opposition was offered by the enemy that made a stand between Malabon and the river Tuliahan, where, being well protected by the woods, they held their fire until General Wheaton's troops had approached within 200 yards, when a murderous volley was delivered that did frightful execution. Our soldiers never faltered, however, and charged the brush so resolutely that the Filipinos retreated in disorder, dividing up after the manner of Indians, so that they could not be successfully pursued. The heat was overpowering during the whole of the engagement, and so many prostrations occurred that the army was seriously incommoded.

The fighting continued throughout Sunday and nearly all of Monday, always to the advantage of the Americans, but without decisive results. Aguinaldo is said to have personally commanded his army and to have acted with great skill and courage, for though defeated at every point where a stand was made, he prevented a disastrous rout and succeeded in drawing off his forces towards Malolos without having sustained great damage. The losses on both sides were severe, that of the enemy being estimated at 500 killed and 1,000 wounded, besides 100 prisoners taken. This estimate, it may be admitted, is no better than a guess, but our own losses prove the courage and effective fighting qualities of the Filipinos, and that to conquer them will require the expenditure of a large amount of blood and treasure. The number killed on our side in two days' engagement was approximately forty, and there were 207 wounded. Among the former was Colonel Harry C. Egbert, of the Twenty-second Infantry of Regulars. He was shot in the abdomen while leading a bayonet charge,

and fell from his horse. General Wheaton saw him fall and went immediately to his aid. He was laid upon a litter and carried to the rear, but died before reaching a hospital. Colonel Egbert was a second lieutenant in the Twelfth United States Infantry during the Civil War, and was twice taken prisoner, being confined some time in Libby prison. After the war he remained in the army and was made major of the Seventeenth Infantry, afterwards being promoted to lieutenant-colonel of the Sixth Infantry. He was with General Shafter's army in the campaign against Santiago, and succeeded Charles A. Wyckoff as colonel of the Twenty-second Infantry after that brave officer was killed at San Juan Hill. He was wounded soon after, but recovered in time to accompany his regiment when it sailed for Manila February 1, arriving March 4.

Lieutenant Maurice G. Krayenbuhl, commissary of subsistence, with the rank of captain in the volunteer service, was also mortally wounded. He had distinguished himself by specially valorous action in the battle of Malate, fought with the Spanish July 31, 1898, where he is credited with having saved from panic the first platoon of Battery K, Third United States Artillery, serving as Infantry. In the same engagement Adjutant Jonas H. Lien and Lieutenants Frank H. Adams and Sidney E. Morrison were killed while heroically advancing in front of the line.

There was a lull in the fighting on March 27 because the retreating Filipinos crossed the Bulican River and burned the bridges so as to stop the advance of their pursuers, until the pontoon corps provided means for crossing the stream. On the following day, however, a passage was made and the fighting was renewed before Marialo, where the Filipino army made a stand in the open and a sharp conflict took place. The enemy was commanded by four generals, viz.: Aguinaldo as generalissimo, and Garcia,

Torres, and Pacheco, who boldly advanced to meet the Americans under MacArthur, consisting of the Nebraska, South Dakota, and Tenth Pennsylvania on the right; the Kansas regiment, the Third Regular Artillery, and the Montana regiment on the left. Brigadier-Generals Hale and H. G. Otis were in command of their respective brigades, General Hale on the right and General Otis on the left. Following the formation that General MacArthur observed during his march to the northward, General Wheaton's brigade was in reserve, guarding the railroad. As the Filipinos advanced for the first time in battle order, our line reserved its fire until the enemy was well within four hundred yards. Then the command to fire was given all along the American front. There was a roar from field artillery and a shriek from rifles. Immediately the Filipino line was broken, and the soldiers of Aguinaldo began to retreat in confusion. The soldiers of our advance could plainly see the insurgent officers trying to stop the flight of the men under their command, but no control obtained against the advance of our soldiers, and soon the plain was clear for our force to cross.

Prisoners who were taken in the engagement declared that the officers stood behind the Filipino soldiers with whips instead of swords, and lashed the unwilling men to force them to hold their positions, a declaration which was supported by the appearance of marks found upon the bodies of Filipinos that were killed in the trenches. Aguinaldo employed, according to the relation of the prisoners, even more potent discouragers of hesitancy than the whip, for it is claimed that he daily executed sentence of death, summarily imposed upon men in his force who refused to further fight and those taken who fled from his camp.

In the stand made on the field four of our men were killed and about thirty-five were wounded. Of the killed

two were members of the First Montana, one was a member of the First Nebraska, and one was a member of the Tenth Pennsylvania. Among the wounded was an officer of the Kansas regiment.

Thenceforward our troops had little opposition. The Filipinos retreated in the general direction of Malolos. In their retreat they tore up sections of the railroad to harass movement of our supplies and burned the small villages.

We had expected stern resistance at Bocave, having been informed of concentration there of Filipino troops after the fall of Marilao. Aguinaldo evidently was not inclined to repeat his experiment of the plans north of Marilao, for MacArthur found no foe at Bocave, and entered the town without opposition, the artillery crossing the bridge. After a halt at Bocave to rest the men, the advance was resumed, and later in the day our army marched into Bigaa without having to fight their way across the river at that town. The Filipinos had set fire to the bridge at Bigaa, but the damage was slight.

Along the line of march were many unfinished trenches, indicating that the insurgent leaders were not prepared for the speed of our troops. Evidently the Filipinos had relied upon halting MacArthur at the Marilao River. Failing there, they tried on the plain north of Marilao. Again the resistance was futile, and they retreated in disorder beyond Bocave, passing to the westward from Bocave and halting east of Bulacan. Bulacan lies westward of Bocave and Bigaa is a little north of the latter; after the capitulation of these places, our army pushed ahead steadily towards Malolos, expecting the enemy to make a final stand in defense of their capital.

MacArthur's advance towards Malolos was continuous, except when interrupted by streams which it was necessary

to bridge by the pontoon corps. But his progress was not by peaceful marches, for the Filipinos harassed the flanks of his lines and several times made a stand that was broken only by fierce charges of our determined troops. On March 30 MacArthur crossed the Guiguinto River, and rested a few hours in the jungle less than three miles from Malolos; when the army began their movement again, along the railway, the enemy was encountered in considerable force, intrenched on the border of the woods on the right of the track. As the Americans were in the open they suffered from a galling fire poured into them by the concealed enemy, which killed four and wounded thirty of the Nebraska regiment, and a slight loss was also sustained by the Dakota and Pennsylvania regiments. After sharp fighting for half an hour the Filipinos were driven from their first intrenchments, and retired to two other lines, which, however, they held for only a few minutes, when they broke into a precipitate retreat towards their capital. General MacArthur and his staff were walking abreast of the advance, and were fired upon by sharpshooters hidden in the trees and houses, a shower of bullets falling about them, but without damage.

Mariguina, a small village, was taken before the close of the day, and after a rest of ten hours the victorious advance was resumed, about three o'clock on the morning of March 31, receiving a heavy fire from the right, but halted a mile and a half from Malolos, where our lines were formed for a final charge across the open country as follows: Third United States Artillery, Montana Volunteers, Kansas Volunteers, Tenth Pennsylvania, South Dakota Volunteers, Nebraska Volunteers, Fourth United States Cavalry.

There was great deliberation in the action of General MacArthur, who felt that the situation was sufficiently secure to allow of some indulgence to his tired but enthu-

siastic army. A good breakfast was partaken of just before daylight without any signs of hurriedness, and when the men declared themselves properly refreshed the line formations were perfected and at six o'clock the charge was sounded. The fight which followed was far from a bloodless one, for the Filipinos offered a stubborn resistance for nearly two hours, but failed to stop the advance. The Americans dashed into the city and then the battle raged in the streets, and from house to house, sometimes hand-to-hand, until the place broke into flames, set on fire by the Filipinos, when the enemy retreated northward, leaving their burning capital in our possession. In this desperate engagement our losses were three killed and fifteen wounded, and the casualties of the enemy were considerably greater.

The Filipinos left only smoking ruins to mark their line of retreat, for from the time they evacuated Bulucan, they applied the torch to all villages and country houses, and at Bocave they murdered twenty Chinamen who protested against the destruction of their property as aliens. The retreating army was accompanied by great numbers of women, children, and other non-combatants, and large bodies of Spanish prisoners were driven along in front of the fleeing columns, the Filipinos being careful to prevent their escape, reckoning that a large ransom may be offered for their release, or that better terms of peace may be arranged upon the conditions of setting them at liberty.

Aguinaldo's capital was captured before 9 o'clock A. M. of March 31st, but few houses were saved from the conflagration, and the insurgent chieftain contrived to not only make his escape but to bring off nearly the whole of his army, where it will probably scatter among the mountains in small bands and harass our troops and the country by predatory excursions and sharp dashes. A guerrilla

warfare must now follow, with a prospect of long continuance unless some fortune shall depose Aguinaldo, who is the head and heart of the insurrection.

While MacArthur was operating against Malolos General Hall's brigade advanced from Mariquina up the Mateo valley to a point near Montalban, the enemy retreating without offering resistance until at the junction of the Nanca and Ampit Rivers with the Mateo, where a stand was made and some sharp fighting took place. The insurgents exhibited great courage until our artillery was brought into action, which struck terror into their ranks and caused them to break into a pell-mell rout, leaving many of their dead and wounded on the field. To General Hall the credit must also be given of having driven the enemy from Mariquina, and of chasing 2,000 Filipinos into the hill country where it was not practicable to follow them at once.

It would be idle to deny that the commanders of our forces in the Philippines have had many anxious moments, or that the resistance of the Filipinos has been unexpectedly stubborn. The fighting quality of the Tagal insurgents has been proven to be clever, courageous, and unremitting, and the advantages which we have gained have been due to the discipline, determination, and control exerted against a wily foe, intrenched in and supported by a favorable field of action and inspired by a mistaken idea as to his fate in the case of defeat or capture.

The startling phase of the campaign was the forced abandonment of our declared plan. The original intention of General Otis was to take the initiative with two divisions. The first, under General Lawton, was depended upon to hold in check the force south of Manila, about Pasig, and his continued belief in the success of this

strategy is demonstrated in a dispatch where it is asserted that the movements of this southern enemy are giving him no concern—because “Lawton will look out for them.”

The second disposition of the army was to be an advance by General MacArthur's division northward and westward; one-half of the force attacking the insurgents to the south and the other closing its retreat to the north. It was hoped that this taking “in reverse” would be the resultant of a surprise, but unfortunately the Filipinos at Malabon escaped before the lines were drawn. This demanded a readjustment of the initial theory, and General Otis was compelled to consolidate both attacking columns and direct them for a united assault upon the insurgent stronghold and capital at Malolos.

The topography of the tropical country assailed offers a difficult problem to the attack. It is thickly wooded and bushed; many small creeks traverse it on their way to the bay; the roads are impassable for light artillery and scouting or quickly maneuvering cavalry; ambuscades await at every turn, and, owing to the nature of the soil and woods and undergrowth, intrenchments can easily be thrown up without the implements or the skill demanded in ordinary military engineering.

These impediments made our progress slow, though it is comforting to know that in less than three days' fighting our troops forced the enemy to retire fifteen miles, and were able without serious loss to advance our main army nearly ten miles. The strategy, therefore, resolved itself into a stolid, determined advance of our troops upon a slow and dogged retreat of the enemy, the objective point being Malolos, twenty miles north of Manila.

Admiral Dewey had disposed his vessels so as to cover the water flanks of the troops, and in a position where his ships could be called upon at any time to transport bri-

gades to a point north of Malolos, where an attack upon the rear was expected to decide the day. An army flotilla was in the meantime patrolling the Laguna to the southward of Manila, to hold in check the insurgents of that district.

TRAGIC INCIDENTS CONNECTED WITH THE CAPTURE OF
MALOLOS.

The last stronghold of the Filipino insurgents fell before ten o'clock Friday morning, March 31, and the shattered army of Aguinaldo, thought to be five thousand strong, and the administration, with all its official impedimenta, seals, banners, insignia, throne, and family, hurried away to the northeast in a most undignified retreat. There were some comical scenes enacted during the rout, but the incidents connected with the assault and evacuation were chiefly tragic. The sight that broke upon the vision of MacArthur's advancing columns, as they approached Malolos, was beautiful, and to the victorious troops it was inspiring. The morning was clear, with a sunlight that made the rich vegetation appear in glorious colors, while across the intervening low-lands toward the sea there was an ineffable calm and opalescent haze of indescribable grandeur. This peaceful scene was very soon interrupted by a boom on the right, which was taken as a signal for the battle that had been prepared for. As was afterwards ascertained, Aguinaldo had foreseen the result of MacArthur's attack, and, with the main body of his broken army, made his escape from the capital on Wednesday, the 29th, leaving two thousand of his soldiers to hold the city and cover his retreat. This remnant, small and poorly armed as it was, exhibited great courage during the first onset, but were awed by the extraordinary heroism of our

soldiers, whose charges were in such striking contrast with those to which the Filipinos had been accustomed in fighting the Spaniards.

The campaign was conducted on the most humane principles by our troops, but this did not prevent the commission of many deeds which ruthless war made unavoidable, that caused the eye of pity to moisten and the heart of sympathy to beat with awe, for sorrow everywhere abounded between Caloocan and Malolos.

One would be very inhuman indeed who could visit these scenes of desolation without a deep sense of sympathy for the houseless and homeless. The country is naturally a perfect paradise. From the city of Malolos the land rises in gently undulating ridges to the hills in the rear. Fertile plains are broken by hedgerows of bamboo, banana, and acacia trees, and the eye rests with grateful repose on the soft yellow flower of the amargosa, or welcomes the effective red blaze of the bougainvilla. In places the waving grass was ripe for the sickle that could never garner it; the fruit was ready to be plucked. Yet this paradise was devastated and made to show the blighting trail of the serpent. Crops were trampled under foot, the husbandmen who should have been reaping the fruits of their labor, or preparing the soil, were summoned by the fiery cross of Aguinaldo, and soon thereafter were watching the smoking ruins of their homes from the adjacent hillsides, unable in the majority of cases to understand why this evil thing had come upon them. But it was war, grim, gaunt, inexorable, that spares nothing, and destroys without limit with the blood-craving instruments of hate. These were now employed to drive the Filipinos from their capital, whose resistance, inspired by Aguinaldo's bootless ambition, had brought this grief upon their land.

The engagement was begun by the Third Artillery, which poured a terrific stream of shells into the trenches where the enemy was in force, and from which a hot fire was returned. The Utah battery quickly joined in the action, followed in half an hour by a charge of the South Dakota, Nebraska, and Kansas regiments that swept along both sides of the railroad over open fields, through thickets; and across streams to the main trenches south of the city. The insurgents' earthworks were well constructed, and had they been held by a thousand such fighting soldiers as our own might have repulsed a force ten times as great. But the Filipinos, while brave, lack the genius and the indomitable, irresistible dash of trained veterans, and also lacking modern firearms, they could not long withstand the charges of our troops and the hail of bursting shells that broke so fiercely over them. The conflict was so impetuous that the enemy became demoralized after an hour's fighting, abandoned their trenches, and took to the cover of adjacent thickets, from which they harassed Hale's brigade.

Seeing that our troops would soon pour into the city, the insurgents decided to destroy what they could no longer defend. The torch was accordingly applied to the palace, where for several months the Filipino congress had held its sessions, and from which Aguinaldo had fulminated so many boastful pronunciamientos. When our battalions poured through the streets they found it more necessary to combat flames than to do battle with the insurgents, who were now fugitives. The fiery scene was an appalling one. Hundreds of terrified, panic-stricken Chinamen were shrieking for mercy and striving to save their effects, while women and children were crying and piercing the air with appeals for help. Down the main streets our victorious troops charged, near the end of which they encountered a barricade, behind which a few insurgents lay

concealed, to become sacrifices in covering the retreat of the main body. These delivered three volleys into the Kansans' ranks, and then broke into retreat, followed by their assailants, at the head of which was Colonel Funston, who, swinging his hat, leaped over the barricade and cheered his men to pursue. Having routed the enemy from this point, the Kansans advanced to another part of the town, where they rescued several Chinamen who had been driven to the woods and whose lives were in the greatest peril from threatening Filipinos.

When the enemy had abandoned their capital a scene of desolation marked the place which two hours before had been a city of some pretension to elegance. The Presidencia was a building of considerable architectural beauty, and its decorations and furnishings were finer than one might expect to see among a semi-civilized people, especially among such as they are mistakenly represented to be. The Filipinos had a profound admiration for this stately building, which was to them the very enshrinement of their hopes of independence. It must, therefore, have been with deepest sorrow that they applied the torch, to preserve it from profanation by their enemies, and we may imagine their grief when fleeing for their lives they looked back to see boiling clouds of smoke, riven by flashes of flames, that marked the now desolated spot where their once proud capitol had stood.

After occupying Malolos our troops addressed themselves to the work of subduing the fire that was destroying the main part of the city. So energetic were the measures taken, and plenty of water being providentially at hand, that most of the town was saved, and few of the large, important buildings were seriously damaged. But the capitol having been reduced to ruins, our flag was raised in the public square, where it now floats triumphantly.

Our losses were strangely few, due to the poor marksmanship of the insurgents, who are unfamiliar with fire-arms, and who, while not wanting in courage, are very excitable, which causes them to fire at random and without discipline. As they retreated from the city they took the precaution to destroy several miles of railroad track so as to prevent pursuit. The rails were not only removed from the roadbed, but were taken into thickets, or thrown into streams, where they cannot be recovered, so that several months must elapse before they can be renewed, as it will be necessary to import new rails from England or America. The whole route of retreat was also devastated, and for some miles out of the city the line was distinctly marked by camp equipage left behind by the fugitives. But though defeated at every point the Filipinos never lost their determination to continue their resistance. When it became evident that it was impossible to hold the city against the Americans, several of the prominent natives pleaded with the authorities to surrender the place and thus save many lives and avoid destruction of property; but so far from granting their prayers the Filipino officers ordered the immediate execution of the petitioners, by which act they demonstrated their determination to contest to the last extremity, thus plainly indicating their purpose to resort to guerrilla warfare when no other means of resistance shall be left to them.

After the occupation of Malolos by our troops the insurgents moved north and west, and the general belief was for a while that they had scattered among the hills of North Luzon. The rainy season, too, was now near at hand and a suspension of hostilities was for a while contemplated; but the war department at Washington, acting upon the advice of General Otis, decided to continue the campaign despite the probable season difficulties, so as to afford no

time for recuperation or reorganization to the demoralized Filipinos. Accordingly, before the expiration of the service of the volunteers, General MacArthur moved rapidly northward with the design of attacking some 4,000 insurgents that were known to be strongly entrenched at Calumpit. The march was swift from April 20, and on the 25th Wheaton's brigade reached the city, upon which they made a direct attack, supported by General Hale on the flank. A stream of some size lay between the troops and the city, spanned by a bridge that had been partially destroyed. The first to cross was Colonel Fred Funston, who, calling for volunteers, accepted five out of the hundreds that promptly offered. These crawled along the spans of the bridge as far as possible, exposed to the fire of the enemy, until they reached the broken part, when they dropped into the water and swam the remaining distance. Gaining the bank they rushed upon the startled Filipinos, and with no other weapons than revolvers drove a squad of insurgents out of their trenches and occupied them themselves. The army crossed soon after and a hot fight followed, in which the Filipinos contested stubbornly but were finally routed and driven out of the city, but not until they had destroyed much of it by fire. Our loss in the engagement was six killed and twelve wounded.

Two days before the fight at Calumpit a sharp fight took place near Quingua, six miles northeast of Malolos, that proved to be one of the most fatal actions of the war, though the battle lasted only an hour. The Filipinos were beaten back, but not until our forces sustained a loss of nine killed and forty-four wounded, among the former being Colonel John M. Stotzenburg, of the First Nebraska, and Lieutenant August C. Nisson. Almost at the same time a party of sixteen sailors from the *Yorktown*, that had been sent ashore at Baler, Island of Mindanao, in command

of Lieutenant J. C. Gilmore, to relieve a Spanish garrison, were surprised and made captive by a large body of insurgents. They were treated well, however, but held for ransom or exchange upon terms that might promise to be of distinct advantage to the insurgent cause.

On April 28 Aguinaldo sent two of his confidential emissaries, Colonel Arguelles and Lieutenant Jose Bernal, to treat with General Otis for terms of peace. Their proposals were limited to request for a truce of three months, evidently with the purpose of securing time in which to reorganize the insurgent army, though their pretense was that this time was required in which to assemble the Filipinos congress, which alone had authority to confirm peace terms. General Otis denied the commissioner's request, which was repeated on May 2, and again on May 4, but with no better success. The army was in fit condition, notwithstanding the excessive heat, and a resolute movement was made to drive the insurgents from all their strongholds in North Luzon, back upon the hill tribes that were known to be implacable enemies of the Filipinos. In pursuance of this purpose General MacArthur's forces, on May 4, advanced against St. Thomas, which was captured after a hard fight, in which Colonel Funston again distinguished himself by intrepid daring and sagacious generalship, such as has won the admiration of the world. In this engagement the enemy was routed with considerable loss, and left behind 50,000 bushels of rice, which Colonel Funston secured in good condition.

Colonel Fred Funston, of the Twentieth Kansas Volunteers, has been brought into prominence by such exhibitions of heroism as make him probably the most picturesque character developed by the war, his career being such as might give him rank with the dashing musketeers of Dumas' heroic romance. He is son of ex-Congressman

Funston, of Kansas, born in 1863, and reared to deeds of daring and adventure. He received an excellent education, and after graduating took a position in the agricultural department at Washington, and because of his superior knowledge of botany and forestry was twice sent to Alaska to collect botanical specimens. On his last trip he lost his two companions and made a perilous journey down the Yukon, a distance of 1,500 miles, reappearing after he was long supposed to have perished. During the Cuban rebellion he served under Generals Gomez and Garcia as captain of artillery. He was once captured by the Spaniards but secured his release by a strategy and later was shot through both lungs while leading a charge. His horse was killed at the same time and, falling on him, broke his right leg. He was rescued by his Cuban companions and taken to a hospital, and later brought to the United States. After several months he recovered, and on the breaking out of the war between the United States and Spain he offered his services to his country and was commissioned colonel of volunteers. He was sent to San Francisco with the troops detailed for Manila, and during his short stay there married an excellent lady who, joining her fortunes with those of her adventurous husband, sailed with him for the Philippines. He has on so many occasions exhibited bravery and sagacity of such high order that, on May 2, the President promoted him to be brigadier-general of volunteers and the people of his native State (Kansas) sent him a magnificent sword as a testimonial of their admiration. General Funston, though one of the greatest of fighters, is the smallest man of his regiment, weighing less than one hundred pounds.

The capitulation of St. Thomas was followed on May 5 by an advance against San Fernando, but finding this place evacuated General Lawton's command engaged 800 insur-

gents under General Rio del Pilar and Colonel Gregario, near San Rafael, whom he defeated after a hard fight. On the next day, May 6, General Lawton attacked Balinag, where he found 2,000 Filipinos strongly intrenched and well armed. After an hour of desultory firing Brigadier-General Funston led a charge against the enemy across open ground and through a hail of bullets, which is said to have been one of the most dashing and daring assaults of the war. Several of his men were struck, but the thinning of ranks did not halt his impetuosity and his brave men swept down upon the amazed Filipinos like an avalanche that carries every movable object before it. The enemy made a stubborn resistance for a little while, but their courage failed them when the American Volunteers poured over the intrenchments, retreated with a precipitancy that quickly became a rout of wildest disorder, leaving arms and provisions behind, and scattering in the jungle, where they could not be successfully pursued. In this engagement our loss was ten killed and thirty-three wounded, while that of the enemy is supposed to have been many times as great.

It is useless to wonder now what would have been the situation in the Philippines had a large force been dispatched there directly after Dewey's admirable victory. Our main concern is with the present situation, and, measuring it fairly, it appears that the present condition of affairs is most favorable, and that if Aguinaldo had staked his fortunes upon a final battle our success would have been complete. This, of course, does not mean that the insurrection would be immediately stamped out. With such a people spasmodic and more or less intermittent outbreaks must be expected, but it is probable these would have been in character of no more importance than the uprisings of our Indians ten years ago.

While the wisdom of Philippine annexation is a disputed question, there can be no difference of opinion regarding the courage, discipline, and efficiency of the American troops.

Fighting ambuscaded and intrenched foes in a strange country, under a tropical sun, our men displayed a steadiness under fire and a headlong bravery when the charge was sounded which have evoked the highest praise from European experts and of which all American citizens have the right to be proud. That the operations in which they are engaged are no holiday warfare is proved by the figures of the casualties since February 4. In this time, to the capture of Malolos, the number of killed had reached 167, while 900 had been wounded. This is a showing which cannot be contemplated without keen regret. But it bears unmistakable evidence to the fighting qualities of the troops, when it is taken in conjunction with the fact that not a single American soldier, gun or flag was captured in battle, and that the enemy had been driven from their position in every conflict.

CHAPTER XIX.

THE war against the Filipinos was prosecuted with as much vigor as the conditions allowed, but the disadvantages were extremely great and could not be overcome except through enormous expenditures of money and the consumption of much time. In the beginning it was not generally believed that the war would be terminated by a few skirmishes, and that the affair would be little more than a military demonstration accompanied with some practice of firing and maneuvering. Spain had found it difficult to subjugate the Filipinos, and even subjugation had been so incomplete that revolutions were periodical affairs. The last had been conducted upon such a gigantic scale, and so effectively, that the Spanish forces were beaten and practically driven to their last stronghold, Manila, which surely would have fallen to the insurgents had there been no interference by the American forces, who captured the city with some help from the Filipinos.

There was, apparently, small appreciation of the difficulties that would attend the transportation of an army of invasion, and no adequate idea of the number of soldiers required to subdue the fierce Tagals that composed Aguinaldo's army. To these obstacles and misinformation was the even more serious one of maintaining an army in a hostile country and especially of preserving the health of our soldiers during the wet season that made a deadly climate. General Elwell S. Otis was intrusted with the grave responsibility of directing the American army in its

operations against the Filipinos, and of maintaining some form of civil government that would give security to property and business on the islands. The magnitude of his task soon presented itself and he took measures to perform it by first asking for an adequate number of soldiers that would not only permit of an aggressive campaign but would also allow of the garrisoning of places as they were captured from the enemy.

On April 13 Lieutenant Gilmore and eleven men from the gunboat *Yorktown* landed in a small boat near the village of Baler, Luzon, and ascended a small stream with the view of investigating a report that in the vicinity was a fort garrisoned by a company of Spaniards that were being besieged by a force of Filipinos. The little boat proceeded up-stream for nearly two miles, when suddenly Gilmore and his party were fiercely attacked, and three being killed, the others were taken prisoners and held in captivity for nine months, being subjected to horrible abuse and starvation meantime, and once sentenced to be shot, but saved by timely interposition. The survivors were finally liberated in a strange wood, and their sufferings in an effort to reach the coast were even more dreadful than those endured while they were prisoners. In a report to the Navy Department, received March 30, 1900, Lieutenant Gilmore says:

“We pulled in under muffled oars and landed Mr. Stanley and the quartermaster. It was just early daylight when we pulled out of the cove for the river’s mouth.

“As we neared the end of the swamp land I was about to give orders to return when we rounded the bend, and came full on an outpost on solid ground. He hailed us and fired a rifle as a signal. Before I could answer the hail a volley was fired into us at close range—fifty to sixty yards.

“The effect of this volley was terrible. Morrissey was killed instantly, his brains being scattered over the boat and crew, and Dillon was mortally wounded, never recovering consciousness and dying shortly afterward in the boat. Seaman Rynders had his fingers cut off, but kept bravely to his starboard stroke oar ; the starboard oars were riddled and most of them shattered ; besides the boat was pierced.

“The boat was covered with blood and presented a fearful sight. The cries of the mortally wounded in the stern of the boat, asking me to shoot them and not allow them to fall into the hands of the savages, were heartrending. At the same time could be seen, coming down the right bank of the river, a band of men armed with Remingtons, bows and arrows, bolos and spears.

“I gave the order to hoist the white flag, which was done by Rynders, who received a shot in the right wrist and dropped the flag. I thought the enemy intended to massacre all of us, so continued to fire, the fire of the enemy coming faster.

“We were now hailed from the left bank in Spanish, the officer saying that if we did not cease firing and surrender he would kill us. I then surrendered.”

The most furious battle in the Filipinos war was fought at Quingua, April 23d, when a superior force of the enemy was met which charged so resolutely that the Americans were forced to retreat after sustaining serious losses, which included the death of Col. J. M. Statzenberg and Lieutenant Sisson, the killing of six privates, and forty-three wounded. Afterwards the Americans were reinforced and returned to the attack, which was this time successful, and the Filipinos were driven to brush, leaving nearly fifty of their dead behind.

After the abandonment of Malolos, their capital, the Filipinos army retreated northward and made a stand at

Calumpit, which was captured by General MacArthur April 25, and following up his successes, he pursued and defeated 3,000 Filipinos at San Fernando. On April 22 General Lawton led an expedition southward of Manila, and on May 17 he took San Isidor after a sharp skirmish. The march southward continued, and on June 10 Generals Lawton and Wheaton formed a junction at Imus, and Calomba was taken on the 26th. The rainy season now set in and further military service on land was suspended until August, when on the 16th Angeles was taken. In the meantime, however, the southern islands were occupied by our forces, and the port of Iloilo was taken possession of by General Miller, who conducted his operations in conjunction with the navy, that had taken Cebu, Negros, and Mindanao. A treaty was also negotiated with the Sultan of the Sulu group, by which that Mohammedan ruler acknowledged United States supremacy in consideration of a guarantee of his rights and an allowance of \$3,000 annually for the maintenance of his court and harem.

Soon after the renewal of hostilities, at the close of the wet season, the army of occupation was reinforced by 30,000 men, making the total American force on the island nearly 60,000. General MacArthur resumed his interrupted campaign, and after days of sharp fighting occupied Poroc September 28, which success was followed by General Schwan, whose column swept part of South Luzon, capturing Rosano October 1 and Malabon on the 10th.

The Filipinos continued active despite their several reverses, and gathered in force at Dagupan, which was attacked by General Wheaton and taken November 7. About the same time, on November 2, the Philippine Commission appointed by the President submitted its preliminary report. The Commissioners, J. G. Schuman, President of Cornell University, Prof. Dean Worcester,

Charles Denby, Admiral Dewey, and General Otis, began their labors at Manila March 20 and continued until ordered home the following September. The results of their labors prompted them to issue a proclamation to the people of the Philippines April 4 in substance as follows:

1. The supremacy of the United States must and will be enforced throughout every part of the archipelago, and those who resist can accomplish nothing except their own ruin.

2. The amplest liberty of self-government will be granted which is reconcilable with the just, stable, effective, and economical administration, and compatible with the sovereign rights and obligations of the United States.

3. The civil rights of the Filipinos will be guaranteed and protected, their religious freedom will be assured, and all will have equal standing before the law.

4. Honor, justice, and friendship forbid the exploitation of the people of the islands. The purpose of the American government is the welfare and advancement of the Philippine people.

5. It guarantees an honest and effective civil service, in which, to the fullest extent practicable, natives shall be employed.

6. The collection and application of taxes and other revenues will be put upon a sound, honest, and economical basis. The public funds, raised justly and collected honestly, will be applied only to defraying the proper expenses of the establishment and maintenance of the Philippine government, and such general improvements as public interests demand. Local funds collected for local purposes shall not be diverted to other ends. With such prudent and honest fiscal administration it is believed the needs of the Government will in a short time become compatible with a considerable reduction in taxation.

7. The establishment of a pure, speedy, and effective administration of justice, by which the evils of delay, corruption, and exploitation will be effectually eradicated.

8. The construction of roads, railroads, and other means of communication and transportation, and other public works of manifest advantage to the people, will be promoted.

9. Domestic and foreign trade and commerce and other industrial pursuits and the general development of the country in the interest of its inhabitants will be the constant object of solicitude and fostering care.

10. Effective provision will be made for the establishment of elementary schools, in which the children of the people will be educated. Appropriate facilities will also be provided for higher education.

11. Reforms in all departments of the government, all branches of the

A MARKET SCENE IN THE PHILIPPINES.

Next to Luzon, Mindanao is the largest island of the Philippine Archipelago, but, unlike Luzon, it contains no towns of considerable size. Cebu, near the centre of the group, is one of seven islands of approximate size upon which the fairly important and most ancient Spanish city of Cebu is situated. Iloilo, on the island of Panay, is another place of some consequence, being a sea-port, like Cebu, and enjoys a prosperous trade. The picture on the opposite page represents a market day in Iloilo, when people from the country district near by bring the products of their fields and orchards to barter for money or articles of merchandise. The principal fruits exposed for sale on these market days are bananas, oranges, sapadillos, limes, and occasionally coconuts. The country people also bring to market samples of their handiwork, such as laces, shawls, tanned skins, etc., which often show remarkable deftness and originality. The market opens at an early hour and trade continues until 10 o'clock, when it ceases, to be renewed after three when the great heat of the day is passed.



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public service, and all corporations closely touching the common life of the people must be undertaken without delay and effected conformably with common right and justice, in a way to satisfy the well-founded demands and the highest sentiments and aspirations of the Philippine people.

Directly after issuing this proclamation the commission, except Admiral Dewey, sailed for home, and on November 2 delivered to the President a report of their investigations, which was a voluminous paper of more than 50,000 words, too lengthy to be quoted, but of which the following contains an intelligent summary and the gist of the whole. It deals exhaustively with conditions on the islands as the commissioners found them, and describes the chief historical events which preceded the Spanish war and the Filipino insurrection, also the exchanges between Admiral Dewey and the other American commanders and the insurgents; the breaking out and progress of the present insurrection, and, finally, a statement of the capacity of the Filipinos for self-government. A notable feature of the report is a memorandum of Admiral Dewey explanatory of his relations with Aguinaldo. The report begins with the following statement:

“The undersigned commissioners, appointed by you to investigate affairs in the Philippine Islands and to report the result of their investigations together with such recommendations as might in their judgment be called for by the conditions which should be found to exist in these islands, have the honor to submit the following preliminary statement in compliance with your request.”

The Commission next tells briefly how it conducted the task intrusted to it, hearing statements from all classes of people in Manila as to the capabilities of the Filipinos for self-government, the habits and customs of the people, and also the establishment of municipal governments in many towns.

Turning to the history of the islands, the Commission attaches little importance to the divers rebellions which have preceded that of 1896. As to this movement they declare that it was in no sense an attempt to win independence, but solely to obtain relief from intolerable abuses. To sustain this statement they quote from an insurgent proclamation, showing that what was demanded was the expulsion of the friars and the restitution to the people of their lands, with a division of the episcopal sees between Spanish and native priests. It was also demanded that the Filipinos have parliamentary representation, freedom of the press, religious toleration, economic autonomy, and laws similar to those of Spain. The abolition of the power of banishment was demanded, with a legal equality for all persons in law, and equality in pay between Spanish and native civil servants.

The Commission declares that these demands had good ground; that on paper the Spanish system of government was tolerable, but in practice every Spanish governor did what he saw fit, and the evil deeds of men in the government were hidden from Spain by strict press censorship. Allusion is made to the powerful Katipunan society, patterned on the Masonic Order, and mainly made up of Tagalos, as a powerful revolutionary force.

The war begun in 1896 was terminated by the treaty of Biac-Na-Bate. The Filipinos were numerous, but possessed only about 800 small arms. The Spanish felt that it would require about 100,000 men to capture their stronghold, and concluded to resort to the use of money. Certain concessions were also decided upon, including representation of the Filipinos in the Cortes, the deportation of the friars, which was the principal question; the grant of the right of association and of a free press.

Governor-General Rivera was willing to pay \$2,000,000,

Mexican, when Aguinaldo and his Cabinet and leading officers arrived in Hong Kong. It appears, however, that Paterno only offered the latter \$400,000, \$200,000 to be paid when Aguinaldo arrived at Hong Kong, and the balance when the Filipinos had delivered up their arms. The arrangement was not acceptable to the people; the promises were never carried out; Spanish abuses began afresh, in Manila alone more than two hundred men being executed. Hence sporadic risings occurred, though they possessed nothing like the strength of the original movement. The insurgents lacked arms, ammunition and leaders. The treaty had ended the war, which, with the exception of an unimportant outbreak in Cebu, had been confined to Luzon, Spain's sovereignty in the other islands never having been questioned, and the thought of independence never having been entertained.

The report then tells how General Augustine came to Manila as governor-general at this juncture and war broke out between Spain and the United States. Augustine sought to secure the support of the Filipinos to defend Spain against America, promising them autonomy, but the Filipinos did not trust him. Then came the first of May and the destruction of the Spanish fleet by Dewey, with the resulting loss of prestige to Spain. Then, in June, Aguinaldo came. On this point the Commission says :

“The following memorandum on this subject has been furnished the commission by Admiral Dewey :

“On April 24, 1898, the following cipher dispatch was received at Hong Kong from Mr. E. Spencer Pratt, United States Consul-General at Singapore : ‘Aguinaldo, insurgent leader, here. Will come Hong Kong, arrange with commodore for general co-operation insurgents Manila if desired. Telegraph, Pratt.’

“On the same day Commodore Dewey telegraphed Mr. Pratt: ‘Tell Aguinaldo come, as soon as possible.’

“The necessity for haste was due to the fact that the squadron had been notified by the Hong Kong government to leave those waters by the following day. The squadron left Hong Kong on the morning of the 25th, and Mirs Bay on the 27th. Aguinaldo did not leave Singapore until the 26th, and so did not arrive in Hong Kong in time to have a conference with the admiral.

“It had been reported to the commodore as early as March 1 by the United States Consul at Manila, and others, that the Filipinos had broken out into insurrection against the Spanish authority in the vicinity of Manila, and on March 30 Mr. Williams had telegraphed: ‘Five thousand rebels armed in camp near city. Loyal to us in case of war.’

“Upon the arrival of the squadron at Manila it was found that there was no insurrection to speak of, and it was accordingly decided to allow Aguinaldo to come to Cavité on board the *McCulloch*. He arrived with thirteen of his staff on May 19, and immediately came on board the *Olympia* to call on the commander-in-chief, after which he was allowed to land at Cavité and organize an army. This was done with the purpose of strengthening the United States forces and weakening those of the enemy. No alliance of any kind was entered into with Aguinaldo, nor was any promise of independence made to him then or at any other time.”

The Commission's report then rapidly sketches events now historical. It tells in substance how the Filipinos attacked the Spanish and how General Anderson arrived and Aguinaldo at his request moved from Cavité to Bacoor. Says the commission:

“Now for the first time rose the idea of national inde-

pendence. Aguinaldo issued a proclamation in which he took the responsibility of promising it to his people on behalf of the American government, although he admitted freely in private conversation with members of his Cabinet that neither Admiral Dewey nor any other American had made him any such promise."

The report states that Aguinaldo wished to attack the Americans when they landed at Paranaque, but was deterred by lack of arms and ammunition. From that point on there was a growing friction between the Filipinos and the American troops.

"There were no conferences," says the report, "between the officers of the Filipinos and our officers with a view to operating against the Spaniards, nor was there co-operation of any kind. . . . There never was any preconcerted operations or any combined movement by the United States and Filipinos against the Spaniards."

Reference is made to Aguinaldo's demand that he be allowed to loot Manila and take the arms of the Spaniards. The latter demand is said to confirm the statement that he intended to get possession of the arms to attack the Americans. Further evidence of the hostile intentions of the Filipinos was found in the organization of "popular clubs," which later on furnished a local militia to attack the Americans. The decrees of the Filipino Congress are also cited, as well as the making of bolos (knives) in every shop in Manila. It is shown that a considerable element in the Filipino Congress wished to address to President McKinley a request not to abandon the Filipinos (at this stage the Paris conference was discussing the future of the Philippines). The President was also to be asked his desire as to the form of government he wished to establish. But all this time Aguinaldo was preparing for war and delaying these messages, and it was understood that the attack would

come upon the first act by the American forces which would afford a pretext.

“After the landing of our troops, Aguinaldo made up his mind that it would be necessary to fight the Americans, and after the making of the treaty of peace at Paris this determination was strengthened.

“He did not openly declare that he intended to fight the Americans, but he excited everybody and especially the military men by claiming independence, and it is doubtful whether he had the power to check or control the army at the time hostilities broke out.

“Deplorable as war is, the one in which we are now engaged was unavoidable by us. We were attacked by a bold, adventurous, and enthusiastic army. No alternative was left to us, except ignominious retreat. It is not to be conceived of that any American would have sanctioned the surrender of Manila to the insurgents. Our obligations to other nations, and to the friendly Filipinos, and to ourselves and our flag, demanded that force should be met by force.

“Whatever the future of the Philippines may be, there is no course open to us now except the prosecution of the war until the insurgents are reduced to submission. The commission is of the opinion that there has been no time since the destruction of the Spanish squadron by Admiral Dewey when it was possible to withdraw our forces from the islands either with honor to ourselves or with safety to the inhabitants.”

The Commission then take up the conditions of the country at the time of their arrival, comparing them with conditions existing at the time they left. A vivid picture is given of the anarchy existing among the inhabitants in and about Manila during the early spring.

“The situation in the city,” says the Commission, “was

bad. Incendiary fires occurred daily. The streets were almost deserted. Half the native population had fled, and most of the remainder were shut up in their houses. Business was at a standstill. Insurgent troops everywhere faced our lines, and the sound of rifle fire was frequently audible in our house.

“A reign of terror prevailed. Filipinos who had favored Americans feared assassination, and few had the courage to come out openly for us. Fortunately there were among this number some of the best men of the city.”

The report then speaks of the issuance of the commission's proclamation and the good effects it had on public sentiment. The natives, accustomed to Spanish promises, urged upon the Commission that acts instead of promises should be given them. As a result native law courts were established, and this greatly aided in the restoration of public confidence. The flow of population soon began to set toward the city. Natives who had fled from their homes returned. As showing the limited scope of the rebellion the Commission states:

“We learned that the strong anti-American feeling was confined to the Tagalog Provinces, namely, Manila, Cavité, Laguna, Batangas, Morong, Bulacan, Nueva, Ecija, Principe, Infanta and Zambales. It was strongest in the first six named, and hardly existed in the last four. The population of these provinces is estimated to be about 1,500,000, but it should not be supposed that even in the six provinces immediately adjacent to Manila the people were united in their opposition to us. Even here there was a strong conservative element, consisting of people of wealth and intelligence, opposed to the war.”

Under the head, “The Rebellion, Not a National Movement,” the report treats of the rebellion outside of the provinces of Luzon, where, it is stated, the uprising was viewed

at first with indifference and later with fear. Throughout the archipelago at large there was trouble only at those points to which armed Tagalogs had been sent in considerable numbers.

The machinery of insurgent "Government" served only for plundering the people under the pretext of levying "war contributions," while many of the insurgent officials were rapidly accumulating wealth. It is stated that the insurgent administration throughout the interior was worse than in the days of Spanish misrule.

In speaking of General MacArthur's movement northward the report tells of the insurgent method of intimidating the natives by telling them fearful tales concerning the American soldiers. This method of procedure, eminently successful at first, in the end recoiled on its authors. As to the state of affairs when the Commission left, the report says:

"Before the Commission left the Philippines nearly all the inhabitants had returned to these ruined villages. Many of the houses had been rebuilt. Fields that had lain fallow for three years were green with growing crops. Municipal governments had been established, and the people, protected by our troops, were enjoying peace, security, and a degree of participation in their own government previously unknown in the history of the Philippines."

The chapter devoted to "Establishment of Municipal Governments" gives in detail the efforts in that direction. There were many difficulties encountered. The condition of the people was found to be most pitiable. They had been plundered by the insurgent troops, who had robbed them of jewels, money, clothing, and even food, so that they were literally starving.

At the request of General Lawton, who had been assigned to this work by General Otis, the Commission prepared a

simple scheme of municipal government, similar enough to the old system to be readily comprehensible to the natives, but giving them liberties which they had never before enjoyed. This scheme was adopted and gave general satisfaction. In every instance enthusiasm ran high before the commissioners took their departure, and cheers were raised for General Lawton and for the country which he represented.

Governments were organized with satisfactory results in Pandacan, Santa Ana, San Felipe, Meri, San Pedro, and Machei, while a slightly different system was put into effect in Malabon, Polo, Obando, Meycauya, Yang, and Malolos.

The Commission sums the situation at the time of its departure as follows :

“ When we left Manila a large volume of business was being done, and the streets were so crowded as to be hardly safe. The native population was quiet and orderly, and all fear of an uprising had long since passed. An efficient corps of native policemen was on duty. A system of public schools in which English was taught, had been advocated by the Commission and established by General Otis. Some 6,000 scholars were in attendance.

“ In the Tagalog provinces of Luzon, where the anti-American feeling had been strongest, public sentiment had greatly changed, as evidenced by the fact that the military Governor of Batangas had offered to surrender his troops and his province if we would only send a small force there. The Bicol, in southern Luzon, had risen against their Tagalog masters. The Macabebes were clamoring for an opportunity to fight in our ranks, and native soldiers and scouts were already serving under General Lawton. Stories of the corruption of insurgent officers were becoming daily more common, and the disintegration of the enemy's forces was steadily progressing. The hope of

assistance from outside sources seemed to be all that held them together."

Having given so much attention to the Island of Luzon, the Commission then takes up in detail the conditions in the other islands. On this point it is stated that the rebellion is essentially Tagalog, and that when it ends in Luzon it must end throughout the archipelago. The situation elsewhere than in Luzon is summed up as follows:

"The only island apart from Luzon, where serious trouble threatens, is Panay, to which a considerable force of Tagalog soldiers were sent before the outbreak of hostilities. In Samar, Leyte, and Masbate the Tagalog invaders are numerically few and are disliked by the natives of these islands, whom they have oppressed. We were assured that 200 men would suffice to restore order in Mindoro. Bobol was asking for troops. The Calamianes Islanders had sent word that they would welcome us. There can be no resistance in Palawan. Satisfactory relations had already been established with the warlike Moros, whose Sultan had previously been conciliated by a member of the Commission, and in Mindanao this tribe had even taken up our cause and attacked the insurgents, of whom there are very few in the island. In Cebu we have only to reckon with the lawless element, which has never been very formidable there."

Special attention is given to the Island of Negros, as this seemed a field well adapted to the extension of an American system. Here the natives had adopted a local form of government, including a Congress, and had raised the American flag. They believed themselves capable of managing their own affairs, and asked for a battalion of troops to hold in check a mountainous band of fanatics.

The battalion was furnished, but the people proved unable to carry out their program owing to ill-feeling

among their own officials. The Americans remained popular. At the request of General Otis a new and simplified scheme of government for the island, giving the people a large voice in their affairs, but placing an American in full control, was put into operation. It brought about satisfaction, and public order is better in the island to-day than at any time during the last twenty years. Summarizing the failure of the native form of government and the success of the American control, the Commission says :

“The flat failure of this attempt to establish an independent native government in Negros, conducted as it was under the most favorable circumstances, makes it apparent that here, as well as in the less favored provinces, a large amount of American control is at present absolutely essential to a successful administration of public affairs.”

The efforts at conciliation with Aguinaldo and his various commissions are set forth in detail. These commissioners were assured of the beneficent purposes of the United States and the President's readiness to grant the Filipino people as large a measure of home rule and as ample liberty as consistent with the ends of government, “subject only to the recognition of the sovereignty of the United States—a point which, being established, the Commission invariably refused even to discuss.” The Commission adds that nothing came of negotiations, as Aguinaldo's emissaries were without powers and merely came, and came again, for information. The report sums up the result of these fruitless exchanges as follows :

“No better proof could be furnished that the primary object of his (Aguinaldo's) struggle is not, as is pretended, the liberty of the Filipino peoples, but the continuance of his own arbitrary and despotic power. In any event, the American people may feel confident that no effort was omitted by the Commission to secure a peaceful end of the

struggle, but the opportunities they offered and urged were all neglected, if not indeed spurned."

The chapter devoted to "Capacity for Self-government" is the result, the report states, of diligent inquiry for several months, in the course of which a great number of witnesses were examined, of all shades of political thought and varieties of occupation, tribe, and locality.

The most striking and perhaps the most significant fact in the entire situation is the multiplicity of tribes inhabiting the archipelago, the diversity of their languages (which are mutually unintelligible), and the multifarious phases of civilization—ranging all the way from the highest to the lowest. As to this the report says :

"The Filipinos are not a nation, but a variegated assemblage of different tribes and peoples, and their loyalty is still of the tribal type."

As to the general intellectual capacities of the Filipinos, the Commission is disposed to rate them high. But excepting in a limited number of persons these capacities have not been developed by education or experience. The masses of the people are uneducated. Intelligent public opinion on which popular government rests does not exist in the Philippines. And it cannot exist until education has elevated the masses, broadened their intellectual horizon and disciplined their faculty of judgment. And even then the power of self-government cannot be assumed without considerable previous training and experience under the guidance and tutelage of an enlightened and liberal sovereign power. For the bald fact is that the Filipinos have never had any experience in governing themselves.

The report shows that this inability for self-government is due to the old Spanish régime, which gave the Filipinos little or no part in governing themselves. After reviewing this Spanish system the Commission sums up on this point :

“ This is all the training in self-government which the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands have enjoyed. Their lack of education and political experience, combined with their radical and linguistic diversities, disqualify them, in spite of their mental gifts and domestic virtues, to undertake the task of governing the archipelago, at the present time.

“ The most that can be expected of them is to co-operate with the Americans in the administration of general affairs, from Manila as a center, and to undertake, subject to American control or guidance (as may be found necessary), the administration of provincial and municipal affairs.

“ As education advances and experience ripens, the natives may be intrusted with a larger and more independent share of government ; self-government, as the American ideal, being constantly kept in view as the goal. In this way sovereignty over the archipelago will prove a great political boon to the people. Should our power by any fatality be withdrawn, the Commission believe that the government of the Philippines would speedily lapse into anarchy, which would excuse, if it did not necessitate, the intervention of other powers and the eventual division of the islands among them. Only through American occupation, therefore, is the idea of a free, self-governing, and united Philippine commonwealth at all conceivable. And the indispensable need from the Filipino point of view of maintaining American sovereignty over the archipelago is recognized by all intelligent Filipinos, and even by those insurgents who desire an American protectorate.

“ We cannot from any point of view escape the responsibility of government which our sovereignty entails, and the Commission is strongly persuaded that the performance of our national duty will prove the greatest blessing to the peoples of the Philippine Islands.”

One of the closing chapters of the report is devoted to a tribute to "Our Soldiers and Sailors in the War." The Commission says that the presence of Admiral Dewey as a member of this body makes it unfitting to dwell on its personal achievements, but he joins in the eulogy of his comrades. The Commission witnessed some of the many brave deeds of our soldiers, and they declare that all that skill, courage and a patient endurance can do has been done in the Philippines.

They dismiss the reports of the desecrating of churches, the murdering of prisoners, and the committing of unmentionable crimes, and say they are glad to express the belief that a war was never more humanely conducted, saying: "If churches were occupied, it was only as a military necessity, and frequently after their use as forts by the insurgents had made it necessary to train our artillery upon them. Prisoners were taken whenever opportunity offered, oftener to be set at liberty after being disarmed and fed. Up to the time of our departure, although numerous spies had been captured, not a single Filipino had been executed. Such wrongs as were casually committed against the natives were likely to be brought to our attention, and in every case that we investigated we found a willingness on the part of those in authority to administer prompt justice."

The Commission gives a general view of the value of the islands, their richness in agricultural and forest products, their mineral wealth and their commanding geographical position. They state that the Filipino Islands should soon become one of the great trade centers of the East. Manila is already connected by new steamship lines with Australia, India and Japan, and she will become the natural terminus of many other lines when a ship canal connects the Atlantic with the Pacific. It cannot be doubted that

commerce will greatly increase and the United States will obtain a large share in this. The report says in closing :

“ Our control means to the inhabitants of the Philippines internal peace and order, a guarantee against foreign aggression and against the dismemberment of their country, commercial and industrial prosperity, and as large a share of the affairs of government as they shall prove fit to take.

“ When peace and prosperity shall have been established throughout the archipelago, when education shall have become general, then, in the language of a leading Filipino, his people will, under our guidance, ‘ become more American than the Americans themselves.’ ”

The report is signed by J. G. Schurman, George Dewey, Charles Denby, and Dean C. Worcester.

CHAPTER XX.

NOTWITHSTANDING the peace overtures and promises contained in the proclamation of the commissioners the Filipinos were distrustful of the assurances given them by the representatives of our government, a lack of faith being natural considering that they had so often been deceived by Spanish emissaries, by which the natives had been beguiled to their greater undoing. They longed for independence, and resolved to continue the struggle regardless of the overwhelming odds against them.

On November 14 Major Bell engaged a small force of natives at Torlac, whom he easily defeated, and on the same day the Americans moved against a stronger force near San Jacinto, where a sharp engagement was fought and Major John A. Logan was killed, but the Filipinos were beaten with heavy losses and the survivors retreated to the hills. Ten days later there appeared such a pacific condition of affairs on the islands that General Otis sent to the President a very optimistic report in which he represented that all of central Luzon was in possession of American troops, that the President of the Filipino Congress, the Secretary of State and Treasurer, had been captured, and that Aguinaldo was a fugitive hiding in the mountains and trying to make his escape from the islands. While the situation at the time seemed to justify this conclusion, circumstances very soon showed that the war was still very far from a conclusion; that the Filipino not only possesses marked courage and

endurance, but a crafty nature as well, and that the resources of Aguinaldo's army were not yet nearly spent. The determination frequently expressed that defeat in towns would drive the Filipinos to guerrilla warfare was now verified.

On November 26 an attack was made upon Vigan, on the coast, that promptly yielded, and another lull in military movements against the enemy followed. On December 11, by direction of the President, General Otis opened all the Philippine ports to commerce, and the hope and belief was freely expressed that the war was over, and that no further trouble was likely to arise too great for a police force to successfully contend with. This hopeful prospect was soon to be dispelled by one of the greatest losses sustained since the beginning of the war with Spain. It was ascertained that a considerable force of armed Filipinos had gathered at the town of San Mateo, and that they were concerting an attack upon Manila. General Lawton, the bravest and the most resolute officer in the Philippines, was sent against this force of the enemy which he met on December 19. The fighting was of a desultory character, because the Filipinos, taking wisdom of their former experience, broke up into small squads and harassed the Americans from coverts. Sharpshooters were also posted, some in the brush and others hidden in the dense foliage of trees, from which they fired with fatal effect without revealing their positions, for they used smokeless powder. It was by one of these Filipino sharpshooters that Major-General Lawton was shot in the breast, as he was standing beside his horse ready to mount. The bullet performed its deadly mission so perfectly that the brave soldier sank down and died almost instantly. Enraged to the point of desperation by the loss of their beloved general the American soldiers pushed forward, and by shelling the woods drove out the

Filipinos and then took possession of San Mateo. The body of the general was carried into the town and then sent to Manila, where it was embalmed and laid in a temporary grave preparatory to shipment to the United States for final interment. The news of General Lawton's death was a great public bereavement, and produced a shock from which the people did not soon recover. He was remembered as one of the bravest of Indian fighters, as the captain who led a company in a six-hundred-mile pursuit of Geronimo, the Apache chief, and captured him, as the hero of many fierce engagements on the plains, as the President's private physician, and as one of the hardest and best fighters in the Santiago campaign, where he won his promotion to brigadier-general.

It was soon reported by his intimate friends that General Lawton had died leaving a wife and son poorly provided for, whereupon with a great general impulse some Americans started a subscription to raise \$50,000 for the widow's benefit. So liberal were the donations to this most worthy charity that before the tide of donation could be arrested more than \$90,000 had been subscribed, which was promptly turned over to Mrs. Lawton as a tribute from the nation, the admirers, the lovers, of her brave husband, who had given his life to this country.

The body of General Lawton, and also that of Major Logan, was brought to America in January, and great civic and military honors were paid to the remains, which lay in state for a while in several cities, and were viewed by vast numbers of people. The body of Major Logan was taken to his home in Ohio and buried in the cemetery of Youngstown, but that of General Lawton was given interment in Arlington Cemetery, Washington, the funeral services being attended by the President and his Cabinet and a concourse of military and civic bodies, forming, prob-

ably, the most imposing pageant and obsequies ever witnessed in this country.

After the deplorable affair at San Mateo the Filipinos retired to the hills and another period of inactivity followed, during which time, however, there was an energetic effort upon the part of the Tagals to stir up other of the native tribes to join in the war against United States authority in the islands. Aguinaldo, being unable to maintain any semblance of government, resorted to his old tactics of sowing discord, and, being both eloquent and influential, he accomplished much in strengthening the revolution. His wife was captured by the Americans and taken to Manila, where it was hoped, by kind treatment, she might be brought to an appreciation of the generous intentions of our government towards her people, but she was not amenable to the most kindly attentions, and heroically declared that Aguinaldo and the Tagals would never abandon the fight for independence. Nor was this threat made boastfully, but with a sincerity that reflected the sentiments of the natives.

Although Aguinaldo kept well hidden from his enemies, and even procured the assassination of his leading general, Del Pilar, for suggesting a surrender to the American forces, his influence continued as active as before. The Tagals managed to continue the publication of their paper through which Aguinaldo issued his propagandas, and circulated "official" reports of great reverses to the American arms, and recounted particulars of imaginary victories that serve to keep alive the patriotic spirits of his people. Nor was his influence confined to outlying districts, but thoroughly permeated Manila, where secret societies of natives were formed that exercised the largest effect upon the Tagals especially, and gave the American authorities no end of trouble, by keeping them in dread of an uprising.

In fact, after fifteen months of war with the Filipinos, American authority was not exerted to any appreciable extent outside of Manila, Cebu, and Iloilo. Notwithstanding Aguinaldo was a fugitive, the Congress disbanded, and no form of government was maintained by the Filipinos, guerrilla fighting continued even in the thickly settled portions of Luzon, while in the interior and many of the outlying islands, scores of thousands that Spain had been unable to subdue after three centuries of occupation, resisted all efforts at pacification.

Although the insurrection against the military attempt at subjugation showed little signs of extinguishment in any of the islands, President McKinley proceeded to establish a form of civil government, in anticipation of an early acquiescence of the insubordinate element in the Philippines. To this end a Commission was appointed, invested with supreme power, by which act General Otis's functions were reduced to that of a ministerial officer set to execute the laws prepared by the commission. By order of the War Department the Philippine archipelago was divided into four departments, to each one of which a general in the army was assigned as commander, but beyond this primary step towards quasi military government the scheme has not developed, but the Commission will later draft a code and attempt to institute a civil administration of the islands' affairs.

The task of repressing the Filipino rebellion and establishing an acceptable form of government among a people intensely hostile, semi-civilized, and divided by racial and religious prejudices, is one of immeasurable magnitude and may well excite grave concern. Aguinaldo is recognized as being the fountain source of the rebellious movement, and so long as he remains at large the war for independence may be expected to continue, not aggressively ac-

tive, for the Filipinos realize their inability to successfully meet the overwhelming and well-trained forces of the United States, but they fully understand the advantage they possess in guerrilla warfare, and are capable of keeping the country in a state of revolution indefinitely.

The plan is a feasible one, and soon to be acted upon, of organizing battalions of native Macabebes, who are implacably hostile to the Tagals, and utilizing them as a nucleus for a native army which may be able to subjugate the rebellious people by employing the tactics of the guerrilla Tagal bands. The question persistently obtrudes itself, will the cost of subjugating the rebellious islanders be compensated by benefits that will accrue? This is an inquiry that requires great foresight to answer, and large statesmanship to successfully solve. But aside from the purely commercial aspect of the war there is a sentimental view-point, as well as a moral question involved, and respecting our duty as the successors of Spain and the accomplishment of the task that has been taken, whether voluntarily, or by force of circumstances, there are two opinions. To enable the reader to form an intelligent judgment upon the subject it is necessary to be first fully advised as to the conditions that exist in the Philippines, and the character of Aguinaldo and his people.

A MINNESOTA VOLUNTEER'S REPORT OF AN AUDIENCE
WITH AGUINALDO.

“I have had the distinction and the satisfaction of presenting a communication to Aguinaldo, the renowned Filipino leader and president, and of inspecting his palatial—if not palace—headquarters at Malolos, which I visited in an official capacity early in January, 1899. The special duty which took me to Malolos I am not at liberty to

divulge, but I violate none of the proprieties by describing what I saw and heard while there. My purpose being of a peaceful character, so far as I may judge by the information disclosed to me, I was unaccompanied by guard or attendant, my uniform being regarded as a sufficient passport among a people whose gratitude we at least deserved for our effective intercession in their behalf.

“As I approached the president’s (Aguinaldo’s) headquarters I observed at either side of the door and up the broad stone stairway men holding huge spears, the heads of which shone like silver. At the top of the stairs a great surprise awaited me. I was conducted down a large hall furnished with oriental magnificence, and the men here were dressed in superb uniforms. I rubbed my eyes to make sure I was not dreaming—it was all so beautiful. Seated about a door were some fifteen or twenty people awaiting an audience with Aguinaldo. I simply sent in word: ‘An American with a communication.’ Instantly a man came out, his dress beyond description, and, addressing me in good English, said, ‘Walk in, sir.’ Again I rubbed my eyes, for I was in a room of enormous size; crystal chandeliers hung from the ceiling; at one end was a piano, and all about were signs of great wealth and even royalty. My escort was most gracious; he was sorry to detain me, but the president had just returned from a three days’ trip back in the mountains; he was sleeping, and I must wait until he should awake. He continued: ‘We are showing you great honor, as you represent the American nation. All others we keep waiting outside in the hallway.’ I thanked him in the name of Uncle Sam, and settled down for one of the most interesting talks of my life. The man was Aguinaldo’s secretary. He said among other things: ‘We are grateful to your country for freeing us from Spanish rule. We do not want to

fight you. We love and respect you. All we want are freedom and protection. The man sleeping in there is our Washington. Yours made a great nation of you. Ours will do the same for us; but should you hand the islands back to Spain, we will fight to the death.' The time passed all too quickly. Another door opened and another gorgeous creature said: 'President Aguinaldo will give audience to the American,' and I entered what to these poor people is the Holy of Holies. Seated on a sort of throne behind a desk most beautifully carved was Aguinaldo. He arose as I approached, and when within a few feet of him I saluted as to an American officer. He returned the salute and I handed him the communication, withdrawing again a few feet, while he, evidently much excited and still standing, had his secretary read and translate into his own language the contents. All this gave me time to use my eyes, which I did to good effect. First, the man himself. He is very short in stature, with a heavy face, and wearing his jet-black hair pompadour. He is only twenty-eight years old and has, like all the natives, copper-colored skin, with smooth face and tiny hands and feet; unlike his attendants, he was simply dressed in a white linen suit. The magnificent desk was covered with a mass of silver articles, all of superb workmanship. The inkstand particularly was massive. The room was hung in dark silks, over which on the walls were superb shields, daggers and spears, all highly polished. A huge globe stood by the desk, and many books were about the room.

"After he had perused the message, I withdrew to the former apartment while he dictated his reply, This consumed another half-hour, every minute of which I enjoyed, this time being entertained by his nephew, a boy of fourteen years, who was precocious and diverting, though my ignorance of his language prevented other communication

than we were able to conduct by signs and facial expressions. With the answer finally in my pocket, I was escorted out of the old convent which was used as Aguinaldo's official residence, and my departure was made the occasion of many perfunctory assurances of regard, etc., which, however, we have since learned is the Filipino's diplomatic disguise for evil designs."

A SKETCH OF AGUINALDO.

It is a difficult thing to do, to write with definiteness and accuracy of the self-appointed President of the Philippines, but it is no exaggeration to place him among the great men of our times, a position which he occupies quite as much by reason of the praise and abuse to which he is subjected as by virtue of his abilities as a leader.

Emilio Aguinaldo was born in the province of Cavité, near Manila, in 1870, but not even he knows the exact date. His father, it is said, was a Spanish officer and his mother a Tagalo-Chinese of low origin, of whom he knows but little, and less of his father, while some declare he is son of a dissolute but learned Jesuit priest. This latter claim has some support by the fact that at the age of four years he was house-boy in the home of a Jesuit priest, where, contrary to the general usage, he was treated with kindness and given educational advantages which ordinary native servants in the Philippines never receive. As a boy he was precocious, was gifted with a remarkable memory, and at the age of seven he was regarded as a prodigy of learning.

The Jesuit priest who undertook his care placed Emilio in the medical department of the University of Manila at the age of fifteen, where he remained a year, and then joining the Masonic Order, which was a capital offense

under the old Spanish law, he was compelled to flee to Hong Kong. Here he became associated with other expatriated Filipinos, and it was here he conceived the purpose of leading an insurrection of his people against Spanish rule in the Philippines. In order to prepare himself for the part of an insurgent leader, Aguinaldo attended the drills of the British garrison and acquired a knowledge of military tactics by a course of private study. He also served for a while in the Chinese army, and later in the Chinese navy, and was a studious reader of works on strategy and the campaigns of Wellington, Bonaparte, Von Moltke, and Grant. While at Hong Kong, Aguinaldo made the most of his opportunities by studying French, German, Latin, Greek, and Chinese, and it is said of him that he is able to converse in ten different languages. An unconfirmed report represents him as being a student at a Munich university, but if this be true his stay in Europe must have been a short one, for in 1893 he was in Manila—a recognized leader of the Filipinos.

So successful were the insurgents that the Spanish authorities, seeing the impossibility of subduing them by force, offered the rebels many inducements to lay down their arms, promising a money payment of \$1,000,000, to grant all reforms requested, and to give a pardon to all engaged in the rebellion. This agreement was accepted by the insurgents, who held themselves faithful to its terms. Aguinaldo went to Hong Kong to receive the money, but while the Spanish government voted the stipulated sum, corrupt officials kept the greater part, paying over only \$300,000. Nor was the promise of reform fulfilled, but on the contrary the impositions of taxes and torture became greater, until in the fall of 1897 Aguinaldo and his compatriots determined to raise the flag of revolt again. Thereupon he returned to Manila and made a tour of

Luzon, visiting all the towns of that island, and by the power of his eloquence stirred the fire of revolution until its red glare illuminated all the Philippines. His influence was predominant, the natives hailed him as a saviour, and invested him with miraculous attributes, believing him to be invulnerable and omnipotent.

Aguinaldo proved himself a man of amazing resources, as well as one remarkable for keen foresight and adroitness. Though never able to raise large sums of money, he managed to procure considerable arms and munitions, and maintained an army no larger than he was prepared to equip. The explosion of the *Maine* he accepted as a pre-*sa*ge of war between America and Spain, and all his prophecies were literally fulfilled. He wrote and spoke with intense and patriotic earnestness, which compelled the admiration of even his enemies. Foreseeing that war was inevitable, he went to Hong Kong, and there cultivated the friendship of Mr. Wildman, the American consul of that city, who, Aguinaldo and Agoncillo declare, promised independence to the Filipinos, and professed to have authority from Washington for making such promise. Belief that an agreement of this character was made seems to be generally prevalent among foreign consuls at Hong Kong, though Mr. Wildman vigorously denies that he ever held out any such inducements, and disclaims authority to act for the government as a ministerial agent. In any event, Aguinaldo, as if acting upon the belief that help of the insurgents to expel Spain would be rewarded by an acknowledgment of their independence, returned to the Philippines and inaugurated plans of campaign against the Spaniards at Manila and many other military posts on the islands. He was also furnished many stands of arms and a large quantity of ammunition by the American government, and in other respects was recognized as our ally.

During the war between Spain and America, it is admitted that the Filipino insurgents captured 15,000 Spanish soldiers and destroyed Spanish power in all the islands, except Luzon.

While fighting Spain successfully at every point, Aguinaldo organized a provisional government, and on June 23 (1898) he was confirmed general-in-chief and president of the Filipino government, thus preparing the way to the independence which he expected to achieve. In December Aguinaldo formed his second cabinet, and has since discharged the functions of an actual ruler, issuing proclamations, levying taxes, and collecting duties. He has also familiarized himself as far as possible with our form of government, and is said to be able to repeat from memory the whole of the Constitution of the United States. His army, at the outbreak of hostilities with the United States, February 4 (1899), comprised 25,000 men, all fairly well armed, but poorly drilled, though capable of offering a stubborn resistance, the character of the country being such as makes their kind of warfare most difficult to combat.

The situation in the Philippines became so serious and there was such a strong contention over the policy of retaining the islands as a permanent colony of the United States that the President appointed five commissioners to visit the principal seaport cities of the archipelago, and to make a thorough investigation of the resources of the islands and the fitness of the people for self-government. After a stay of several months in the Philippines one of the commissioners, Dean C. Worcester, submitted a private report giving his impressions of the natives, and thereafter he signed the public report that contained the suggestions and recommendations of the full board. He wrote :

LIFE AMONG THE PHILIPPINES.

“The insurrection headed by Aguinaldo in the Philippine Islands having assumed proportions far beyond general expectation, with a possibility that it may not be speedily suppressed, interest naturally now centers in the character of the population which has come under the guardianship of the United States and in the opportunities which the occupation of this large and valuable territory offers to American enterprise. The McEnery resolution, passed by a small majority of the United States Senate,—the vote in its favor being less than one-third of a full Senate,—would have been much more important in its influence on the future course of the United States, but for Aguinaldo’s attack upon our army at Manila. Had the Philippine insurgents yielded to American authority peacefully, after the passage of such a resolution by the Senate, they might have claimed that it was, in a certain sense, a guarantee of independence for the Philippines. As it is, the resolution amounts only to a declaration of policy, without any binding force upon the United States government.

“The people of the Philippine Islands are not all savages. The majority are semi-civilized, a few are civilized in the full meaning of that term, and a considerable number are still in a savage state. Nor are the civilized confined to the Island of Luzon, on which Manila is situated, for influences of considerable political and social development are to be seen in sections of all the five largest islands of the group. In my tour of the islands I visited the somewhat remote town of Damaguite, in southern Negros, which to my surprise I found to be a typical Visayan place of the better class. Its shops are kept by Chinese merchants. The population, numbering, perhaps, eight thousand souls, is composed chiefly of natives, with comparatively few half-breeds, and still fewer Spaniards. The soil

near the town is fertile, and the people seemed prosperous. The public buildings are more than ordinarily imposing. The church and a convent, or priest's house, are in excellent repair, and the population generally seemed happy and contented, although instances of the most cruel oppression on the part of the Spanish rulers were frequently witnessed. Living costs little. The average Visayan with a couple of bushels of shelled corn, or a measure of rice in the house, and a bit of dried fish for dessert, wisely lies on the floor, smokes his cigarette, thrums his guitar, and composes extemporary songs on current events. His wife does the cooking and brings the water. When the provisions give out, it will be quite soon enough to look for more.

“The savages on the Island of Negros may be described as good-natured people, who do no harm to others when they have no reason to fear harm to themselves. The Spaniards had been in the habit of shooting them, merely for amusement, and the so-called savages naturally resented this treatment. Negros, which is 4,670 square miles in area, is probably the richest island of its size in the archipelago. The fertile lowlands along the coast are extensively cultivated, although much good land still lies idle, and offers an opportunity to American settlers who have capital to invest in planting, and taste and health for that line of business in the hot climate of the Philippines. Fine tobacco is grown on some plantations, but sugar is the most important crop.

“It is a mistake to suppose that all Philippine towns are dirty. In this respect, some of them are considerably superior to Cuba. Zamboanga, on the Island of Mindanao, one of the oldest Spanish settlements, is large and clean. It has a pier extending out to moderately deep water, though large vessels have to lie some distance offshore. Spanish extortion has driven commerce from Zamboanga,

but under good American government Australian and other vessels will no doubt call there again, as in former times.

The manner in which the Spaniards have treated the natives was illustrated during my stay at Zamboanga. There was a gray-haired old fellow about the hotel, who did some work in the stables. He chanced to pass through a room in which I was sitting, in company with several Spanish officers, and one of the latter ordered him to bring a drink. Although he was not a waiter, he set off on the errand; but he was old and slow, and when he returned, the officer became angry because he had been gone so long, knocked him down, and kicked him in the ribs. I found the victim, later, dying in a manger.

“It may be mentioned here that the chief Spanish official at Concepcion, on the Island of Panay, caused delinquent taxpayers to be caught and tied to trees. Vicious dogs were then set upon the victims, and encouraged to worry them. The same official ordered the natives to concentrate in the towns, and made a practice of riding about the country and burning the huts of those who failed to heed his command.

“Mindanao is next in importance to, and nearly as large as, Luzon. It is probable that, notwithstanding the victories gained in Luzon, the Island of Mindanao will witness prolonged difficulty in the establishment of American authority. The reason is that the Spaniards have held only small strips of the coast, while the remainder is inhabited largely by pagan and Mohammedan tribes. When General Weyler commanded in the Philippines, he sent an expedition against the Mohammedans. The Spaniards marched into the forests of Mindanao, the enemy retreating before them. Fever and starvation disabled 80 per cent. of the Spaniards, and the mortality was terrible. Weyler remained safe on a dispatch boat, while his troops

were perishing, and sent messages to Manila, announcing glorious victories.

“These tribes remain unsubdued, and as most of them probably know no difference between a Spaniard and an American, it is likely that trouble will be encountered in bringing them to a recognition of American power. The experience of Weyler’s troops will be a valuable lesson for American military commanders, and may prevent the loss of many American lives. Mindanao is an island well worthy, however, of being rescued from the control of non-producing savages. The soil, especially in the river and lake regions, is remarkably productive. Little is known of the mineral wealth, but it is certain that gold exists in paying quantities at a number of points. Diggings have long been worked by the natives near Misamis and Surigao. The scenery of Mindanao, also, is very fine. The largest known flower, measuring three feet in diameter, has been discovered there. There are several active volcanoes on the island. Extensive areas are covered with magnificent trees, and apart from the valuable forest products which Mindanao has in common with several of the other islands, gutta-percha is abundant in certain localities. The island is well watered, and its rivers are more important than those of Luzon. Such is the rich territory which, although nominally possessed by the Spaniards for hundreds of years, is as free from civilized control as were the forests of Yucatan when Cortez landed on the Mexican coast. The presence of precious metals in the interior will certainly insure a large immigration of the same adventurous class that invaded California in 1849, and aroused the land of gold from its siesta of centuries.

“When the natives of the Philippines shall have been won over to the peaceable acceptance of American supremacy, they will, according to trustworthy opinion, prove

useful and faithful friends of the United States. One great need of the Philippine natives is education. The savages are, of course, without any literary training at all. The education of the semi-civilized natives consists of a little catechism and a few prayers, which they learn in their own dialect. The more fortunate get some knowledge of writing and arithmetic, with, possibly, a smattering of Spanish. Public school training will undoubtedly form part of the program of an American administration, and there is every reason to believe that it will have a redeeming and improving influence on the plastic native character.

“The question of recruiting native West Indians and Filipinos into our army service abroad is at present a very live one with the military authorities, who, with tables and plans, must anticipate in a measure any probable legislation affecting the army in these times of lightning transformation.

“England’s task in raising an army in India was somewhat similar to that which is about to face us in our colonial possessions, for, though India is one country, while we have to do with peoples of various islands, widely separated, it is such a vast stretch that its army had to be organized under three heads—Madras, Bengal, and Bombay—as ours would be divided into a Porto Rican, a Cuban, and a Philippine army. In Porto Rico a native army would be a simple affair. The inhabitants of that little island are peace-loving and indifferent to revolutions, and would be easily molded by good officers into a satisfactory and reliable body of rural guards. Firmness, tempered with kindness and justice, would be the chief factor of success. Cuba would be more difficult. The Cubans have had experience in fighting as members of the Cuban army, and their phenomenal success through happy-go-lucky methods has given

them a high idea of their abilities as soldiers, and, therefore, they will not be so amenable to discipline, probably, and will not accept without question and grumbling a new system of tactics so entirely at variance with their own.

“The Filipinos present such a difficult problem that it is hard to prophesy what success will come from our efforts to form a native force. The three principal tribes, scattered over the twelve hundred islands, are the Tagals, Visayans and Igorrotes, each totally different and sworn enemies for generations. Less promising material out of which to form good troops would be difficult to imagine at a first glance, but their very faults might, under wise administration, be transformed into soldierly qualities.

“Their bravery, amounting to cruelty and ferocity under Spanish influence, might be developed into the courage of civilized nations. and the fatalism of their Asiatic neighbors, the Mohammedans, which seems to have a place in their character, with its doctrine of “What is to be will be,” necessarily makes them indifferent to death. They are essentially crafty, but that is their misfortune rather than their fault, due to Spain’s policy of suppression and oppression.

“An eminent authority on the native troops of India has said that, without English officers, they are of little value, and the metaphor suggested by Sir Colin Campbell and quoted by Dr. Russell, in speaking of the general relation of the European to the native soldier of India, would seem as applicable to this opinion as to the Filipinos and to ourselves. ‘Take a bamboo and cast it against a tree, the shaft will rebound and fall harmless; tip it with steel and it becomes a spear which will pierce deep and kill. The bamboo is the Asiatic and the steel point is the European.’

“One lesson learned from the terrible Sepoy mutiny seems to be that it is better to make cavalry and infantry

out of native troops who cannot be trusted implicitly than to give into their hands unlimited artillery. Before 1857 the native Indian army had 248 field guns and 348,000 troops, as against 38,000 European troops, with 276 guns. At the present time the proportion is quite different. The European troops are strong in artillery and the natives strong in infantry and cavalry. In artillery, the English have 12,306 men and 370 guns, against the natives with 896 men and 36 guns; while the native infantry is over twice as large and the cavalry four times as large as the European cavalry and infantry.

“In the Philippines, cavalry would hardly be worth considering, the conditions of the country being such that horses are a hindrance rather than a help. Light artillery and Gatling guns will be the only part of the artillery arm used for the present. The native troops of India were made to use the musket to a certain extent, though they remained armed in the fashion of the country, as a general rule, with sword and lance. Probably the Filipinos would be given rifles, though of an inferior make to those used by the American army—Springfields, presumably.

“Most of the natives of the Philippines know the use of a musket, but their tactics are so totally different from ours that it would be necessary for them to go through a process of unlearning before they could be taught our methods. The question of uniform would be more easily solved than any other, as it is the one thing in which we could follow Spain's example. Her colonial uniform was inexpensive, and suited to the climate, being made of a material light in quality, though sufficiently dark in color to keep some semblance of cleanliness. The English colonial uniform is the khaki worn by our troops in the late war, but the Spanish uniform seems cooler, lighter, and cleaner.

“ England can again help us in the question of feeding a native army, for the Sepoys live on rice, which is the great food product in India as well as in the Philippines, although in the latter the supply does not always equal the demand. Sweet potatoes and ground nuts, and occasionally peas and potatoes, are also grown in the islands, and even wheat in the higher regions. From these simple elements we will form an inexpensive and satisfactory ration, meat not figuring to any extent.

“ The project of forming the natives of our new islands into a force to garrison them seems so reasonable and feasible that it is sure to succeed with the genius of America behind it, and a half century of European experience as a valuable lesson. We can profit enormously from Great Britain’s mistakes in India and the most important and never-to-be-forgotten lesson of the Sepoy rebellion—that native troops should be officered by Americans, and the American and native troops amalgamated with our regular soldiers in such a manner that the horrible experience of 1857 can never be duplicated.

“ Our task is less complicated than England’s in one great respect—that of the absence of caste in the inhabitants of Cuba, Porto Rico, or the Philippines. Some of the most direct causes of the Indian Mutiny came from the terror on the part of the Hindoos that their caste prejudices were to be interfered with. Possibly some time will elapse in the Philippines before the inhabitants will consent to enlist under our flag, but in Cuba and Porto Rico—especially in the latter—the plan seems simple enough, and the advantages manifold.

“ Great care should be taken, however, in the selection of recruits. They should be chosen not so much on account of their size and appearance as for their intelligence and promise, careful attention being given to their past records

as far as possible. At first the native army in India was recruited only from the high-caste Hindoos and Moham-medans, and as soon as the lines were relaxed and men of lower castes and classes were allowed to come in, the entire army deteriorated.

“According to a plan already outlined by the military authorities, the recruiting will be done at Manila, and each man’s record will be carefully examined, so that no brigands or murderers get in. At first only a fourth of a company will be natives and three-fourths American regulars. After a while the bulk of the company will be natives, except the captain, two lieutenants, ten sergeants, and fifteen corporals. By attention to duty a native will be able to become a non-commissioned officer.

“The Philippines are a vast domain, and an intelligent man might spend a lifetime in studying them. The population of the Philippines is roughly estimated at 8,000,000. There are more than eighty distinct tribes of natives, each with its own very marked peculiarities. The number of islands is estimated at 1,200. Hundreds of these are practically unexplored by white men. There is no regular communication with them.

“The islands extend from 4 deg. 45 min. to 21 deg. north latitude. They are wholly within the tropics. The mean annual temperature at Manila is 80 deg. Fahrenheit. There is no month of the year in which it does not rise above 91 degrees. Malaria is very prevalent in some of the islands, notably in Mindoro, Balabac, and portions of Palawan, Mindanao and Luzon ; but there are many localities entirely free from it.

“Malaria and bowel complaints are the most serious diseases for Americans in the Philippines. Smallpox is always prevalent in the islands, but as nearly all the natives have it in childhood there is no material for an epidemic.

Cholera is infrequent, but when it has broken out has never been checked. Leprosy occurs, but is not common. There is a great deal of beri-beri in Balabac and Mindoro.

“ The civilized natives are nominally Roman Catholics. The Franciscan, Dominican, Austin, and Recoleta friars own nearly all the cultivated land on the islands.

“ Manila, a city of 150,000 inhabitants and capital of the Island of Luzon, is celebrated for its earthquakes. In that of 1863, 400 people were killed, 2,000 wounded, and forty-six public buildings and 1,100 private houses destroyed. Other great earthquakes occurred in 1610, 1645, 1658, 1675, 1699, 1796, 1852, and 1880. In 1645, 600 people were killed. On account of the earthquakes, houses are not built more than two stories high. Galvanized iron is in great demand for roofs. Glass is not employed to any extent in windows, its place being taken by little squares of translucent oyster shell.

“ Iloilo, the second largest city of the island and capital of Panay, has just been taken by our troops. The gun-boat *Petrel* hoisted our flag without hindrance on the important Island of Cebu, in the Visayas group, and the Island of Negros has sent in its submission.

“ The following is a list of the larger islands, with their areas in square miles :

Luzon	41,000	Leyte	3,090
Mindano	37,500	Negros	2,300
Samar	5,300	Cebu	1,650
Panay	4,600	Masbate	1,315
Palawan	4,150	Bohol	925
Mindoro	4,040	Cantanduanes	450

“ The total land area is approximately 114,000 square miles.

“ There are some fine active volcanoes in the islands,

One is Mayon, in Luzon, 8,900 feet high. Apo, in Mindanao, is 10,312 feet high.

“The Philippines are peculiarly rich in what Mr. Kipling would call ‘the sullen, new-caught peoples, half devil and half child.’

“Of the eighty different tribes which compose the population the most peculiar are the Negritos. They are believed to be the aboriginal inhabitants of the Philippines and are the lowest of existing human beings. They are links between ordinary men and apes. They cannot count above five, do not build dwellings, and have only a semi-articulate speech. They practice little agriculture and live on fruits and roots, and on game which they bring down with their poisoned arrows. In appearance they are not unlike apes. They are a wretched, sickly race, of dwarfish stature, with thin limbs and protruding stomachs. Their skin is black and their hair curly. They linger only in certain barren or inaccessible parts. There are a few Negritos on Mariveles Mountain, near the mouth of Manila Bay, and in the vicinity of Cape Engano they are quite numerous.

“Some of the remaining Philippine wild tribes are of pure Malay extraction, and others are apparently half-breed races between Malays and Negritos. The Igorrotes, without clothes and armed only with bows and arrows, were conspicuous figures in the recent fighting with American soldiers. The word ‘Igorrote,’ which was originally the name of a single tribe, was extended to include all the head-hunting people in Luzon and later came to mean any wild tribe.

“Head-hunting is practiced by dozens out of the eighty Philippine tribes. The Gadannes practice head-hunting only in the season when the fire tree is in bloom. It is said to be impossible for a young man of this tribe to find

a bride until he has at least one head to his credit. Among other head-hunting tribes may be mentioned the Altasanes and Apsayaos. Not all of the wild tribes, however, are cannibals or head-hunters. The Tinguianes of Luzon are amiable and peaceful.

“The civilized Philippine natives number five millions. They belong chiefly to three tribes, the Tagals, Ilocanos, and Visayans. Professor Worcester, the leading American authority on the Philippines, has a favorable opinion of the civilized natives. The professor says:

“‘The civilized Filipino certainly has many good qualities to offset his bad traits. The traveler cannot fail to be impressed by his open-handed and cheerful hospitality. He will go to any amount of trouble and no little expense in order to accommodate some perfect stranger who has not the slightest claims to him. If cleanliness be next to godliness, he certainly has much to recommend him. Every village has its bath, if there is any chance for one, and men, women, and children patronize it liberally.’

“The fiercest people in all the Philippine Islands are the Moros, who inhabit the Sulu Islands. These islands form a separate group to the south of the Philippines, but the United States has gathered them in along with the rest. The Sulus are cannibals, head-hunters, and unqualified terrors. They are Mohammedans and are ruled by a collection of Sultans. A recent Spanish governor proposed to collect taxes. The Sultan of Sulu, with other chiefs, waited on the governor to pay the taxes. The Sultan held a bag of pearls in his left hand. With his right he drew a sword and split the governor’s skull from the crown to the backbone.

“The Moro gentleman will cut a slave in two merely to try the edge of a new knife. The Moros believe that one who takes the life of a Christian thereby increases his

chance of happiness hereafter. To be killed while fighting Christians means immediate transportation to the seventh heaven. From time to time it happens that a Moro becomes tired of life. Desiring to take the shortest route to heaven, he bathes in a sacred spring, shaves off his eyebrows, dresses in white, presents himself before a pandita and takes solemn oath to die killing Christians. He then hides a kris or barong about his person and seeks the nearest town. There he runs amuck, slaying every living being in his path until he is himself killed.

“The Tagbuanas, of Palawan, are a curious half-breed race between the Negritos and Malays. These people catch fish by throwing a poison called macasla into shallow water. It causes the fish to rise to the surface, where they are then taken.

“The pitcher plant, which eats insects, grows in the Philippines. Bats that live on fruit are eaten by the natives and much liked. There are enormous pythons in some of the islands. Dr. Worcester mentions killing one twenty-six feet long in Palawan Island. Cobras and other venomous snakes are common. Crocodiles cause considerable loss of life in Mindanao. There are no large carnivorous animals, such as tigers, on the islands. The Philippine house-cats have a curious crook in the ends of their tails. Mosquitoes and other insects are, of course, common. Pests of locusts occur every year. Fried locusts and a certain kind of water beetle are esteemed a delicacy by the natives.

“The soil of the Philippines is amazingly fertile. Year after year crops are taken from the same ground without any thought of fertilizing. The most important products are sugar, abaca, or manila hemp, tobacco, rice, coffee, maize, cacao, yams, cocoanuts, and bananas. Among edible fruits are the malodorous durian, which is very nutritious, mangoes, papaws, oranges, lemons, limes, citrons, shad-

docks, jack fruit, bread fruit, custard apples, lanzones, tamarinds, and laichees.

“Gold exists in paying quantities in Luzon and Mindanao, and there are vast quantities of iron and other minerals.

“The islands have been in the possession of Spain since 1565, but little has been accomplished towards civilizing the people outside of the coast cities and towns, where foreigners have settled. The Catholic Church has made good progress in several places, however, and through a numerous priesthood has been a strong ruling power, particularly in Manila. There are on the islands no less than thirty different races, speaking as many dialects, and this fact has been a serious obstacle to bringing the people under a uniform religion. A majority may be said to hold fast to primitive superstitions and are untouched by the influences of civilization.

“The climate, during the dry season, is almost ideal, the thermometer rarely rising above 97° or falling below 60° . During the rainy season, however, which lasts from June until October, the climate is extremely unhealthy for foreigners, for so great is the rainfall, reaching as much as 114 inches in a season, the country is flooded and the miasmatic vapors are dreadfully enervating, super-inducing malarial fever and diarrhea. Yellow fever is unknown, but cholera and smallpox are both common and fatal.

“Of the mineral wealth of the Philippines not much is yet known, though coal, petroleum, iron, lead, sulphur, copper, and gold have been found, but no development has been attempted. The islands contain great agricultural possibilities, for the soil is marvelously rich, except in the very mountainous regions, where fine timber forests abound. The cultivated area is hardly more than one-tenth of the surface, and it is estimated that the islands are capable of supporting a population of 50,000,000.”

CHAPTER XXI.

EDUCATING THE FILIPINOS.

WHEREVER the American flag floats there the cause of education and civilization is promoted, for education and good citizenship are inseparable. One of the first acts of the Military Governor of Cuba was to establish a system of free schools upon the island, for while under Spanish domination the Cubans had no advantages for acquiring an education except such as private schools afforded, and the poorer classes, which embrace more than nine-tenths of the population, were debarred from these through inability to pay for schooling. As a result, the great majority are unable to read or write. The same situation obtains in Puerto Rico, which is being amended by the inauguration of free schools there under the generous provisions made by our government for popular education. In all the principal towns of both Cuba and Puerto Rico free schools have been opened, and that the natives appreciate them is attested by the very large attendance of children.

The Filipinos are supposed to be less civilized than the Spaniards, and it was feared at first that they would show indifference to all efforts made to educate them, but this misgiving has been effectually destroyed by the results attending the introduction of free schools in Manila in 1899. American public schools are now thoroughly established in Manila, and as the experiment has proven successful, the system will be extended directly to other towns in the Philippines.

Every month has seen an increase in the attendance at the schools. From 3,700 boys and girls in July, 1899, the number reached over 5,000 January 1, 1900. The department then had thirty-nine schools for boys and girls, in which English was taught all day, half day, or one-fourth day in a very few schools, according to the size of the school. The English classes in reading, spelling, and penmanship were proceeding in one room at the same time that the Spanish studies were being taught in adjacent rooms.

Very fortunately for Manila, a superior grade of bright teachers were obtainable for the English work, being principally discharged volunteers, formerly well-known teachers at home, and young ladies belonging to the families of regular army officers. These latter, as a class, when arriving in the islands, at once attack the Spanish language scientifically, and are soon found to be well equipped for teaching English to Spanish people, while most of the discharged soldiers are known to have acquired a very desirable fluency sufficient for the purpose.

One difficulty some of these men encountered with outlying districts was a great lack of any knowledge of Spanish among the pupils. They resolutely set to work to learn Tagalog as a means of interpretation, so that soon as many as four or five acquired a very commendable knowledge of that language, and will in time be found to be rare men in the educational work of these islands.

A plan for reopening the old Spanish nautical school was recommended in November, 1899, a school for the purpose of producing graduates qualified as mariners to sooner or later become mates and captains on merchant vessels. The plan adopted was that an American naval officer be placed at the head of the school; that a schoolship or launch be obtained; that the English language be taught by an American for half of each day's session; that

all other teachers should be Filipinos, and that Spanish should be the language in which all other studies should be taught for the present. All of this plan was adopted and the school opened at No. 3 Santa Elena Street, in Tondo, on December 15, under the very able management of Lieutenant-Commander V. L. Cottman, of the Navy, a gentleman who was formerly in charge of the New York State Schoolship *St. Mary* in New York harbor. For the English was chosen the teacher of the Sampaloc district, Mr. Edmund L. Filmer, formerly of Massachusetts and of California, son of a prominent Massachusetts superintendent of public instruction in the City of Webster.

Great faith is placed in the Filipino children of Manila, considered as material in the educational laboratory. They are bright, capable, polite, earnest and persevering—at least those who have lived in Manila for a few years—and are not “raw material.” The Manila native is not at all a savage. He appreciates civilization and highly prizes good education. He now wants his boy and his girl to know English and obtain a good common-school training. The people have racial faults that interfere, the worst being a sluggish indifference to most things of true value. This is most noticeable in the cocheros and other laborers of little refinement and education. But it is a very encouraging fact that the native schoolmaster seems to have lost this. He is bright, faithful, patient, and is a good, steady worker. All these people need is to be led aright. They will follow. Give them schools and plenty of them. Wake them to a higher sense of duty and of proper living. They are good material. They already have great confidence in the American as the representative of true liberty of conscience, of real friendship and the standard-bearer of a yet better and nobler civilization.

It is true patience is lost with them sometimes. They

are often foolish ; many need to acquire true sagacity in place of short-sighted trickery. But they are a pleasant folk, who respond gratefully to kind treatment, and seem earnestly desirous of learning the right and the true, that they may apply it to their lives.

Second in importance only to the establishment of order and good government, the people of the United States should ever remember the plain duty of educating these people, which can be best accomplished through the medium of the schools. Thus far, all has been accomplished that seemed possible under the sad conditions caused by a foolish insurrection. But during another year, and more to follow, each one undoubtedly more prosperous than its predecessor, the public-school system of Manila ought to rise to a greatness comparable with those of many of our great home cities.

Present needs, which must be considered more and more as circumstances of Manila clear up, are as follows : American school buildings with playgrounds, large two-story, 6 x 12 rooms, buildings with modern furniture and conveniences. Binondo and Tondo alone could keep five twelve-room buildings crowded. Instead of schools crowded with a total of 5,000 pupils, as at present, Manila should have healthy accommodation for 30,000 or 50,000 children. At present the great majority are on the streets, learning nothing better than gambling. The schools need American books ; the Spanish books now used are unsuitable and fail to have sufficient good material. The American companies are well abreast of our needs in primary and common school books of the same material used at home, but printed in the Spanish language. The needs of Cuba and Puerto Rico have caused this. American books in both languages would assure the best instruction. For the next school year—June, 1900, to March, 1901—more English

studies will be taught and the proportion of teachers of English increased. The year will see one-half of the work and time devoted to English and the other half to Spanish branches, some especially-equipped teachers possibly being brought over from the States, in addition to the present force.

In general the teachers and the pupils are intensely interested in their work, the English study being the center of the greatest enthusiasm. Many spelling matches have taken place, and a few public programs have been successfully rendered.

While the schools have progressed as well as possible under all the circumstances, it is to be hoped that many vexing problems will have been solved by another year, and the schools in many ways remodeled and improved.

Notwithstanding the efforts made to improve the condition of the Filipinos, the establishing of free schools, the organization of courts, the overtures made with a view to restoring peace and prosperity to the long oppressed natives, the rebellious spirit continues and the insurrection that began February 6, 1899, appears to be still very far from being suppressed. Reports that came from Manila April 9, 1900, show how serious the condition continues, despite roseate views often expressed that the war is practically over. Here is the record for the month of March.

General Young, commanding in Northern Luzon, has made several requests for reinforcements, representing that his force is inadequate; that the men are exhausted by the necessity of constant vigilance; that he is unable to garrison the towns in his jurisdiction; that the insurgents are returning to the district and killing the amigos, and that it is necessary for him to inflict punishment in several sections before the rainy season begins.

General James Bell, who is in command in Southern

Luzon, has made similar representations. He says his forces are inadequate, and that he merely holds a few towns, without controlling the territory.

The president of the town of Samal, province of Bataar, Luzon, and another prominent native have been assassinated because they were known to be friendly to the Americans. The president of another town has joined the insurgents because they had threatened to kill him if he did not.

Reports of encounters between American troops and insurgents continue to arrive from many points. Captain Sturgis while reconnoitering Friday struck an insurgent outpost in the Novaliches road, five miles distant from Manila, killing two and capturing ten. All were in full uniform. Captain Sturgis' force was not large enough to pursue the main body.

A detachment of the Forty-second Infantry, while scouting in Laguna Province, was pursued by the insurgents and obliged to take refuge in a church in Paeto, where the Americans repelled the rebels until reinforcements arrived.

Lieutenant Gordon, with a company of the Sixteenth Infantry, while scouting near Aparri, Cagayan Province, engaged 250 insurgents. The lieutenant was wounded.

A sergeant and a corporal of Company L, Eighteenth Infantry, were killed in a severe fight in Capiz Province, Island of Panay.

Insurgents made a night attack upon Calbayon, Island of Samar. They killed a sentry, swarmed into town, and searched the house of Major Gilmore, of the Forty-third Infantry, who was absent. They killed his cook. Ultimately the Americans drove them out of the town, killing four and capturing twelve.

The insurgent General, Pana, a Chinaman, who surrendered to General Kobbe at Legaspi, a few days ago, is held pending an examination in his case. It has transpired that

he transferred the loot obtained during his operation from Panay to Luzon, and that his surrender was caused by his fear of the threats made against him by his own followers.

Active scouting continues throughout the archipelago. Lieutenants in command of small detachments are dispatched weekly on expeditions, the object of which is to hound the insurgents and ladrones. Successes are reported from Panay, Cebu, Samar, and Northern Luzon. One hundred and sixty rifles were captured April 3d. Six Americans have been killed on these expeditions and twenty-six wounded. One man belonging to the Thirty-second Infantry, who was captured by the insurgents in December, was rescued.

There are still 130 Spanish prisoners at Tayabas. General Smith says good conditions prevail in the Island of Negros. The civil governments that have been established there are showing much improvement in their administration of affairs. General Smith adds that it is probable that there will not be much organized fighting during the rainy season.

The prices of food in Manila reached the highest point known since the American occupation, April 1, 1900. In fact they were above those ruling during the blockade of the port by Admiral Dewey. Meat was selling for \$1.40 a pound, while chickens brought \$1. Rinderpest and glanders were at the same time working havoc among the local cattle. Foreign beef was unobtainable, and there was naturally much suffering among the poorer classes.

The plague returns for January, February, and March show that 10,000 houses were examined during the three months, 1,472 disinfected and 3,466 drains cleaned. The deaths from the disease in January were thirty, in February forty-eight, and in March fifty-six.

The rebellious spirit is not confined to the Tagalogs

though it is that tribe that keeps the fire of revolution supplied with fuel. The commercial classes, who would hail a return to good government with much satisfaction, betray great uneasiness and make bold to criticise the policy of the President. On February 15 the chamber of commerce of Manila cabled to President McKinley the following message :

“ Respectfully urge immediate action substituting American laws for Spanish, reduction where duties are excessive ; adjustment of shipping regulations, so American vessels may operate in coasting trade without requiring resident ownership.”

There is a general desire based upon both commercial and political reasons for the speedy establishment of some form of permanent government. The view held by intelligent Filipinos, who have held aloof from or have deserted the insurrection, is that the most effective steps towards restoring peace and prosperity will be to let the people know what voice they are to have in the conduct of the new machinery. It is recognized that the greatest handicap to the success of American rule thus far has been the retention of all the old Spanish laws in the face of clamor from the foreigners and Filipinos who expected sweeping reforms. Spanish customs duties on imports and exports are still collected, Spanish shipping and port laws are still enforced, inequitable and oppressive Spanish taxes are levied. Residents declare that they find the American administration even more vexatious and hampering to business than the Spanish was, for the reason that the Americans try to enforce by the book all the laws which they find, whereas during the former régime many of the most unreasonable statutes had fallen into disuse. Various sorts of petty taxes which the Spaniards had discontinued are now revived. Natives are brought into courts and fined for fail-

ing to pay taxes which they were not aware existed—laws for building nipa huts, for keeping a horse or a cart, a license for selling fish, peanuts, or seashells on the street, or an impost on each individual of the drove of useless but cherished dogs which appertains to every Filipino household. While the cedula tax has been reduced from one dollar to twenty cents, the income tax on all salaries of 2½ per cent. remains, every one who conducts a business must pay a license and the tariffs on imports are higher than ever before, so that the sum total of taxation is greater than under the Spaniards.

The most urgent demand of the business man is for tariff revision. The Spanish tariffs upon imports were almost prohibitive against every country except Spain, whose products were charged only a nominal rate. The purpose of the system—Spanish control of commerce—was realized, but the products of Spain could be bought at reasonable rates. The American government has abolished the discrimination in Spain's favor, but has retained the other rates of Spanish tariff, even against goods from the United States, so that the cost of all imported articles is much greater than before American control. It is significant of the increased tariff that the rates therefrom have been much greater during the American occupation than at any time in the Spanish rule, and, although only two or three ports outside of Manila have been open, trade with most of the interior has been suspended, and supplies for the army entered free.

Old residents estimate the general advance in the cost of living at 300 per cent. Salaries and wages have advanced hardly more than 50 per cent., and not nearly enough to keep pace with the increased prices of the necessaries of life. This inflation falls particularly hard upon the salaried employes of foreign commercial houses, who are a majority

of the foreign colony. War and tariffs are not altogether responsible for the costliness of living, because the past year's expenses have shown that the proverbial shrewdness of Americans in money matters will bring American colonies to the American scale of prices, instead of giving to the Americans the benefit of Eastern cheapness. The masses do not stop to analyze causes. They only know that with the Americans in control everything costs more than during the Spanish days.

The dissatisfaction of business men with the courts is chiefly based upon the retention of Spanish laws. The Philippine judges have proven fairly capable men, but Spanish laws are extremely unpopular, even with the Spaniards.

Partly on account of war conditions, and partly on account of the uncertainty what legislation Congress may enact, many enterprises are at a standstill.

The big flow of American capital which was expected has failed to appear, and intending investors who visit the islands go home to await developments. A frequent remark among business men is, "We wish Congress would stop talking about the good government it is going to give the Philippines and begin give us some of it."

As to the qualifications of the Filipinos, and their readiness for self-government, Gen. Joe Wheeler, who spent several months on the island, writes :

"As fast as possible, I believe that we should establish civil government in the Philippines. I am in favor of territorial government, and I see nothing incongruous in making these various islands into territories. We did it in Dakota while part of the territory was still occupied by Indians, and from the nuclei of the white populations, gathered in little groups, civilization spread. Just so it will be in the Philippines. The group should be divided into three or

four territories, not only because of the extent of the islands, but because of the antagonisms existing between the different peoples. The Macabebes and the Tagals are ancient enemies, and they should be put under different governments. Some of these tribes have been our devoted friends, and it would be most unfair not to give them the right of self-government. Many of them are already fit for self-government in local affairs, and under territorial government appointed by us they would get along very well, I am sure. The southern islands are entirely friendly to us, and from these small centers of municipal self-government the principles that we love would certainly spread, for this is an ambitious and aspiring people.

“ I consider the Filipinos a very superior people—a people with great possibilities. They are ambitious ; many of them have been finely educated in Europe ; they are not to be spoken of in the same breath with the Africans, so far as their possibilities go. They are, too, easily governed, and, with the fair treatment which they will receive from us, we shall have no trouble with them. They appreciate consideration, I have found, but they are sensitive and are unwilling to be treated as inferiors. They are a little distrustful of us.

“ On the question of ultimate annexation or the remote future of the Philippines—whether states should be erected there or not, in case we annex the islands—I am not yet prepared to speak, but I do think that we owe much to the many citizens of the islands who are not Filipinos, and especially to those Filipinos who have been friendly to us. If our army were to be withdrawn from the islands, the natives who have befriended us would be subjected to all sorts of persecutions, and many of them would meet death, all on account of their kindness to us.

“ As far as commercial advantages are concerned, we must

consider that about one-third of the population of the earth is concentrated in Eastern Asia, and that these multitudes are rapidly taking on the ways and appreciating the material things that characterize civilization. Europe and America are dependent on Asia for many things—tea, coffee, hemp, spices, silks, and the handiwork of the Asiatic peoples.

“But, on the other hand, there are many things that they must purchase from us, and their needs in this line will increase far more rapidly than ours. Asia has need of the cotton cloth of our Southern States to the enormous amount of four or five thousand millions a year. They need this for countless purposes besides for clothing. They will come to need shoes and hats—things that they have been going without. They will be fencing their farms with barbed wire some day, and they will import typewriters and sewing machines, nails, screws, farming implements, locomotives by the thousands and cars by the hundreds of thousands, and steel rails by the millions of tons. Steel for all sorts of structures, sewage pipes, all kinds of machinery, they will want. In this great development, in which commerce will play a large part, why should we not join? With Manila as our great depot, our steamers could reach the great markets of the East as easily as English steamers now reach them from Hong Kong.

“A bright English official was once arguing with a Chinaman and trying to convince him of the superiority of modern methods, and had much to say regarding what he called Oriental superstitions and illusions. The Chinaman listened with all attention and replied: ‘Take all I have; take my property, deprive me of my liberty, but leave me my illusions.’

“This teaches a valuable lesson. To obtain the best success in dealing with the people of China and the Philip-

pires we must send intelligent agents, who will study their customs, prejudices and preferences, and we can then offer them what they want in the shape most pleasing to them and in the way which best suits their convenience. If we take over our goods and insist upon forcing our goods and ideas upon them, we will fall far short of the highest attainable success."

CHAPTER XXII.

SOME PROBLEMS OF EXPANSION.

AFFAIRS in the Philippine Islands have been in a revolutionary state, active or torpid, ever since Spain forced a settlement upon the ashes of the native capital, Cebu, more than three centuries ago. While the islands became nominally a Spanish possession, by conquest, a relatively small portion of the territory acknowledged the authority of the subjugators, and almost half of the population, confined to interior districts, retained their freedom so completely that they hardly know there is such a country as Spain. It really mattered little to the common people who might be their sovereign, for robbery by taxation imposed by Spain was certainly no worse than the confiscations by native rulers, and there was no escape from the rapacities practiced by both forms of government. But after Spain took possession, instead of tribal wars there was concert between native factions against the white interloper. Naturally warlike, it was ever an easy thing to stir up rebellion among the Filipinos, nor could the severest repressive measures, set in force by such captain-generals as Weyler, deter the natives from rising in another insurrection almost as soon as one revolt was suppressed. It may be accepted as the experience of all colonizing nations that stable government is an impossibility among uncivilized people, because the prime principle, if it be principle,

among such is the law of might. Such people respect power only, and have no conception of the social amenities and the sense of justice that distinguish the highly civilized.

When Spain relinquished the Philippines her pride was sorely wounded, but her material condition was not in the least impaired thereby. Many Spanish officers enriched themselves from spoils obtained by impositions upon the natives, but the Spanish government derived no benefits from the revenues, which were never sufficient to pay the cost of holding the natives in subjection. In this respect, therefore, it was fortunate for Spain that she was forced to abandon the responsibilities inseparable from possession of the islands. But scarcely was the ink dry upon the treaty negotiated with Spain, transferring the Philippines to the United States, when rebellion against our authority showed its head, and the war that had been quickly concluded with Spain was directly renewed with our new possessions. We conquered Spain in one hundred and thirteen days with an army of 50,000 actually in the field, but in our war with the Filipinos we have an army of 63,000, and after one year of hostilities the insurrection is still in force, though it is of a desultory character. Several times quiet prevailed so long that General Otis telegraphed to the President that the war was ended, when in a few days fresh outbreaks, by bands of Tagalos, would dispel the pleasing hopes which such optimistic reports had raised. But Aguinaldo had taken flight, his congress was no longer able to find a capital, and the war, though continued in an intermittent manner, had become a pursuit of brigands rather than a contest with an organized enemy.

The Philippine Islands became by right of purchase and treaty a part of the territory of the United States, and the institution of a form of civil government that would guar-

antee the peace and security of the people and their commerce was the subject of highest consideration with the McKinley administration. A Commission had been dispatched to the islands in 1899 to ascertain as far as possible the lawful needs of the natives and the means for providing a satisfactory policy in governing the people. This Commission fulfilled its duty and submitted its ascertainments and recommendations in a voluminous report. With the information thus acquired before him, the President debated the subject with his Cabinet for several months until a system was devised which he instituted, and appointed a second Commission (February 5, 1900) to carry into effect. The delegation chosen to execute this important purpose were Judge William H. Taft, President; Professor Dean C. Worcester, Judge Henry C. Ide, Professor Bernard Moses, and General Luke E. Wright. Judge Ide was peculiarly fitted by experience with Polynesian people for the task assigned him, he having served as Chief Justice of the Samoan Islands.

Unlike the first Commission, the new body was made up entirely of civilians, as the purpose was to abandon as soon as possible the purely military rule and to provide instead a civil government. Special instructions were given by the President to the Commission, and the body was invested with plenary authority, under which they were ordered, as an initial act simultaneously with the inauguration of a civil government, to issue a proclamation granting amnesty to all natives who may still be in insurrection on July 1, upon condition that they lay down their arms and pledge allegiance to the new government. The Commission are intrusted with authority that is supreme and final as to all laws necessary for the civil administration of the islands, except in extremely important cases, when recourse must be had to the advice and direction of

the President, but it is left with the members to draft a code and to set up the entire civil government of the islands. The task thus set before the Commission is one of the most difficult that has ever been undertaken by an American body, requiring the highest order of tact, diligence, foresight, and prudence. They are to assume the weighty responsibility of creating a new form of government for a people who are in open hostility and with whose language, customs, and institutions they are unfamiliar; more than this, they become responsible for the enforcement of order and the protection of life and property among a population of probably ten millions of wholly barbarous and semi-civilized tribes scattered over the surface of several hundred islands and speaking a great variety of dialects. This would be a formidable undertaking even if the Philippines were thoroughly pacified, but the fact must be considered that American authority extends scarcely the distance of a rifle-shot from the few garrisons that are maintained by our forces on the islands. Beyond these anarchy and brigandage prevails, and to reduce these conditions to order is a task of infinite proportions.

One of the most encouraging features of American history has been the appearance in serious emergencies of men with the capacity to meet and solve the problems of the hour. But it is doubtful if any body of American administrators ever had to deal with a series of issues more perplexing, complicated, and original than those facing the Philippine Commission.

The questions involved in the acquisition and government of the Philippine Islands were of such a nature that it is not a surprising thing there should have developed an opposition to the policy of forcible retention. While the Republican party generally approved the scheme of

annexation of the archipelago, and sustained the President in all his proposals, there were nevertheless some distinguished antagonists in both branches of Congress who in all other measures gave their unqualified support to the administration. The Democratic party was similarly divided on the question, for while the leaders and a great majority opposed the policy of acquisition, there were not a few very prominent Democrats who for commercial reasons advocated the retention of the islands, but not a sufficient number to prevent the question from becoming an issue in the Presidential campaign of 1900, during which it continued to be fiercely debated, as it had been several months before in the United States Senate.

That the issue may be fully set forth and elucidated for the instruction of the reader, the views of the proponents and antagonists of the policy of holding the Philippines are here appended as they were expressed respectively by Whitelaw Reid, who was a member of the American Commission that negotiated the Peace treaty with Spain, and William J. Bryan, the leader of the Democratic party and opposition.

Mr. Reid, favoring the permanent acquisition of the islands, made his argument in a speech, before the ratification of the treaty, as follows:

QUESTIONS THAT INFLUENCED THE TREATY COMMISSIONERS IN THEIR NEGOTIATIONS WITH SPAIN'S REPRESENTATIVES.

“ Beyond the Alleghanies the American voice rings clear and true. It does not appear anywhere in our country that there is a considerable sentiment favoring the pursuit of partisan aims in questions of foreign policy or division among our people in the face of insurgent guns

turned on our soldiers. Neither has any reproach come, because, when intrusted with our interests in a great negotiation, your commissioners made a settlement on terms too favorable to their own country. If we have brought back too much, that is only a question for Congress and our own people. If we had brought back too little, it might have been a question for the army and the navy.

“Put yourself for a moment in our place, would you have had your representatives in Paris declare that while the Spanish rule in the West Indies was so wicked that it was our duty to destroy it, we were now so eager for peace that we were willing in the East to re-establish that same wicked rule? Would you have had them throw away a magnificent foothold for the trade of the farther East, which the fortune of war had placed in your hands?”

“Your representatives in Paris were dealing with a nation with whom it has never been easy to make peace, but they secured a peace treaty without a word that endangers the interests of this country. They scrupulously reserve for your own decision the question of political status for the inhabitants of your new possessions. They maintained, in the face of vehement opposition of well-nigh all Europe, a principle vital to oppressed people struggling for freedom. That principle is that debts do not necessarily follow the territory if incurred by the Mother Country distinctly in efforts to enslave it. But your representatives at the same time placed your country in no attitude of endeavoring to evade just obligations.

“They protected what was gained in the war from adroit efforts to put it all at risk again, through an untimely appeal to the noble principle of arbitration. They were enabled to pledge the most protectionist country in the world to the policy of the open door in the East.

“At the same time they neither neglected nor feared

the duty of caring for the material interests of their own country, the duty of grasping the enormous possibilities for sharing in the development of the East. In that way lies now the best hope of American commerce. The Atlantic Ocean carries mainly trade with people as advanced as ourselves, who could produce or procure elsewhere much of what they buy from us. The ocean carriage for the Atlantic is in the hands of our rivals. The Pacific Ocean, on the contrary, is in our hands now. Practically we own more than half the coast on this side, and have midway stations in the Sandwich and Aleutian Islands. To extend our authority over the Philippine archipelago is to fence in the China Sea. Rightly used it enables the United States to convert the Pacific Ocean almost into an American lake.

“Are we to lose all this through a mushy sentimentality, alike un-American and un-Christian, since it would humiliate us by showing lack of nerve to hold what we are entitled to, and incriminate us by entailing endless bloodshed on a people whom we have stripped of the only government they have known for three hundred years, and whom we should thus abandon to civil war and foreign spoliation?”

“Let us free our minds of some bugbears. One is the notion that with the retention of the Philippines our manufactures will be crushed by the products of cheap Eastern labor. Another is, that our American workmen will be swamped under the immigration of cheap Eastern labor. It is a bugbear that the Filipinos would be citizens of the United States. It is a bugbear that anybody living on territory or other property belonging to the United States must be a citizen. It is equally a bugbear that the tariff must necessarily be the same over any of the territory of the United States as it is in the nation itself.

“Brushing aside these bugbears, what are the duties of the hour ?

“First—hold what you are entitled to. If you are ever to part with it, wait, at least, till you have found out that you have no use for it. Next, resist admission of any of our new possessions as States, or their organization on a plan designed to prepare them for admission. Make this fight easiest by making it at the beginning. Resist the first effort to change the character of the Union. We want no Porto Ricans or Cubans to be sending Senators and Representatives to Washington. We will do them good, if we may, all the days of our life, but, please God, we will not divide this republic among them.

“Resist the crazy extension of the doctrine that government derives its just powers from the consent of the governed to an extreme never imagined by the men who framed it, and never for one moment acted upon in their own practice. Resist alike either schemes for purely military government or schemes for territorial civil governments, with offices filled by carpet-baggers from the United States, on an allotment of increased patronage.

“I wish to refer with respect to the sincere opposition to these conclusions, manifest chiefly in the East and in the Senate, and with especial respect of the eminent statesman who has headed that opposition. No man will question his ability or the courage with which he follows his convictions. But I may remind my readers that the noble State he represents is not now counted for the first time against the development of the country. In 1848, Daniel Webster, speaking for the same great State, conjured up the same visions of the destruction of the Constitution. With all due respect, a great spokesman of Massachusetts is as liable to mistake in this generation as in the last.

“It is fair to say that this hesitation over the treaty of

peace and acquisition of the Philippines is absolutely due to lack of faith in our own people, distrust of the methods of administration they may employ in the government of distant possessions, and distrust of their ability to resist the schemes of demagogues. If there is reason to fear that the American people cannot restrain themselves from throwing open the doors of our Senate and House of Representatives to Luzon, or the Visayas, or the Sandwich Islands, then the sooner we get some civilized nation with more common sense to take them off our hands the better. But, having thus shirked the position demanded by our success, let us never again presume to take a place among the self-respecting nations of the earth."

MR. BRYAN'S ARGUMENT AGAINST THE TREATY AND
RETENTION OF THE ISLANDS.

"Imperialists seek to create the impression that the ratification of the treaty has terminated the controversy in regard to the future of the Philippines, but there is no ground whatever for such a conclusion. The President has not as yet outlined a policy, and Congress has so far failed to make any declaration upon the subject. Several administration Senators have expressly denied that ratification commits the United States to the permanent annexation of the Philippine Islands.

"The treaty extinguishes Spanish sovereignty, but it does not determine our nation's course in dealing with the Filipinos. In the opinion of many (and I am among the number) the ratification of the treaty, instead of closing the door to independence, really makes easier the establishment of such a government in the Philippine Islands.

"The matter is now entirely within the control of Congress, and there is no legal obstacle to prevent the im-

mediate passage of a resolution promising self-government to the Filipinos and pledging the United States to protect their government from outside interference. If we have a right to acquire land, we have a right to part with it; if we have a right to secure by purchase or conquest a disputed title from Spain, we certainly have a right to give a quit-claim deed to the party in possession.

“If the power to part with the islands is admitted, the only question remaining for discussion is whether the United States should permanently hold the Asiatic territory acquired from Spain. For two months the sentiment against imperialism has been constantly growing, and there is nothing in the ratification of the treaty to make such a policy more desirable.

“Until Dewey's victory no one thought us under obligation to extend our sovereignty over the Filipinos. If subsequent events have imposed such an obligation upon the United States it is worth while to inquire as to its nature and extent. Is it political in its character? Must we make subjects of the Filipinos now because we made allies of them in the war with Spain? France did not recognize any such obligation when she helped us to throw off British supremacy. Are we compelled to civilize the Filipinos by force because we interfered with Spain's efforts to accomplish the same end by the same means? Are we in duty bound to conquer and to govern, when we can find a pretext for doing so, every nation which is weaker than ours and whose civilization is below our standard? Does history justify us in believing that we can improve the condition of the Filipinos and advance them in civilization by governing them without their consent and taxing them without representation? England has tried that plan in India for a hundred and fifty years, and yet Japan has made more progress in the last thirty

years than India has made in the one hundred and fifty. And it may be added, the idea of self-government has developed more rapidly among the Japanese during the same period than it has among the people of India.

“Government is an evolution and its administration is always susceptible of improvement. The capacity for self-government is developed by responsibility. As exercise strengthens the muscles of the athlete and education improves the mental faculties of the student, even so participation in government instructs the citizen in the science of government and perfects him in the art of administering it.

“We must not expect the Filipinos to establish and maintain as good a government as ours, and it is vain for us to expect that we would maintain there, at long range, as good a government as we have here. The government is, as it were, a composite photograph of the people, a reflection of their average virtue and intelligence.

“Some defend annexation upon the ground that the business interests of the islands demand it. The business interests will probably be able to take care of themselves under an independent form of government, unless they are very different from the business interests of the United States. The so-called business interest probably constitutes a very small fraction of the total population of the islands. Who will say that their pecuniary interests are superior in importance to the right of all the rest of the people to enjoy a government of their own choosing?

“Some say that our duty to the foreign residents in the Philippines requires us to annex the islands. If we admit this argument, we not only exalt the interests of foreigners above the interests of natives, but place higher estimate upon the wishes of foreigners residing in Manila than upon the welfare of our own people.

“The fact that the subject of imperialism is being discussed through the newspapers and magazines, as well as in Congress, is evidence that the work of education is still going on. The advocates of a colonial policy must convince the conservative element of the country by clear and satisfactory proof; they cannot rely upon catchwords. The “Who will haul down the flag?” argument has already been discarded. “Destiny” is not as “manifest” as it was a few weeks ago, and the argument of “Duty” is being analyzed.

“The people are face to face with a grave public problem. They have not acted upon it yet, and they will not be frightened away from the calm consideration of it by the repetition of unsupported prophecies. The battle of Manila, which brought loss to us and disaster to the Filipinos, has not rendered “forcible annexation” less repugnant to our nation’s “code of morality.” If it has any effect at all it ought to emphasize the dangers attendant upon (if I may be permitted to quote from the President again) “criminal aggression.”

“The Filipinos were guilty of inexcusable ignorance. They thought that they could prevent the ratification of the treaty by an attack upon the American lines, but no act of theirs can determine the permanent policy of the United States. Whether imperialism is desirable is too large a question to be stilled by a battle. Battles are to be expected under such a policy. England had been the dominant power in India for a century when the Sepoy mutiny took place, and rules even now by fear rather than by love.

“Force and reason rest upon different foundations and employ different forms of logic. Reason, recognizing that only that is enduring which is just, asks whether the thing proposed ought to be done; force says I desire, I can, I

will! When the desire proves to be greater than the ability to accomplish, the force argument reads (in the past tense) I desired, I tried, I failed! but even force, if accompanied by intelligence, calculates the cost. No one doubts that the United States Army and Navy are able to whip into subjection all the Filipinos who are not exterminated in the process; but is it worth the cost?

“ Militarism is only one item of the cost, but it alone will far outweigh all the advantages which are expected to flow from a colonial policy. John Morley, the English statesman, in a recent speech to his constituents, uttered a warning which may well be considered by our people. He said: ‘ Imperialism brings with it militarism, and must bring with it militarism. Militarism means a gigantic expenditure, daily growing; it means an increase in government of the power of aristocratic and privileged classes. Militarism means the profusion of the taxpayer’s money everywhere except in the taxpayer’s own home, and militarism must mean war. And you must be much less well read in history than I take the Liberals of Scotland to be if you do not know that it is not war, that hateful demon of war, but white-winged peace that has been the nurse and guardian of freedom and justice and well-being over that great army of toilers upon whose labor, upon whose privations, upon whose hardships, after all the greatness and the strength of empires and of states, are founded and are built up.’

“ Militarism is so necessary a companion of imperialism that the President asks for a two hundred per cent. increase in the standing army, even before the people at large have passed upon the question of annexation. Morley says that imperialism gives to the aristocracy and to the privileged classes an increased influence in government. Do we need to increase their influence in our government? Surely they

are potent enough already. He calls attention to the fact that the toiler finds his hope in peaceful progress rather than in war's uncertainties. Is it strange that the laboring classes are protesting against both imperialism and militarism? Is it possible that their protest will be in vain? Imperialism has been described as 'the white man's burden,' but since it crushes the wealth-producer beneath an increasing weight of taxes it might with more propriety be called 'the poor man's load.'

"If the Peace Commissioners had demanded a harbor and coaling station in the Philippines, and had required Spain to surrender the rest of the islands to the Filipinos, as she surrendered Cuba to the Cubans, we would not now be considering how to let go of the islands. If the sum of twenty millions had been necessary to secure Spain's release, the payment of the amount by the Filipinos might have been guaranteed by the United States. But the failure of the Peace Commissioners to secure for the Filipinos the same rights that were obtained for the Cubans could have been easily remedied by a resolution declaring the nation's purpose to establish a stable and independent government.

"It is still possible for the Senate alone, or for the Senate and House together, to adopt such a resolution. The purpose of the annexationists, so far as that purpose can be discovered, is to apply to the government of the Filipino methods familiar to the people of Europe and Asia, but new to the United States. This departure from traditions was authorized by the people; whether it will be ratified by them remains to be seen. The responsibility rests first upon Congress, and afterward upon that power which makes Congresses.

"Whatever may be the wish of individuals or the interests of parties, we may rest assured that the final disposition of the Philippine question will conform to the

deliberate judgment of the voters. They constitute the court of last resort, from whose decision there is no appeal."

Hon. George F. Hoar, in a speech which he delivered in the United States Senate April 17 (1900), on the question of extending American Sovereignty over the Philippines, opposed the administration's policy and stated his position and recommendations, as follows:

"I would declare now that we will not take these islands to govern them against the will of the natives.

"I would reject a cession of sovereignty which implies that sovereignty may be bought and sold and delivered without the consent of the people.

"I would require all foreign governments to keep out of these islands.

"I would offer to the people of the Philippines our help in maintaining order until they have a reasonable opportunity to establish a government of their own.

"I would aid them by advice, if they desire it, to set up a free and independent government.

"I would invite all the great powers of Europe to unite in an agreement that that independence shall not be interfered with.

"I would declare that the United States will enforce the same doctrine as applicable to the Philippines that we declared as to Mexico and Hayti and the South American republics."

CHAPTER XXIII.

THE PORTO RICO TARIFF AND CIVIL GOVERNMENT.

ONE of the most fiercely debated questions that has come before the American Congress since the disputes settled by Clay's Omnibus Bill, 1850, was the contention over the admission of Porto Rico as a sovereign State. Parties were divided on the proposition, just as they were on the policy of permanent acquisition of the Philippines, and both houses were given up for weeks to argument upon the Foraker Bill, providing for a discriminating tariff of fifteen per cent. of the Dingley rates upon productions of Porto Rico brought into the United States, as stated in a previous chapter. At length, on April 11 (1900), amid great excitement and bitter feeling, the bill, which had previously passed the Senate, was brought to a vote, for concurrence, in the House and sustained by a meager majority, viz.: 161 to 153. Nine Republicans voted against the bill, but only one Democrat cast in his lot with the majority. The President affixed his signature to the bill the same day. The bill, besides fixing a tariff, which places Porto Rico outside the Constitution, provides a scheme of civil government, as a colonial dependency. The full text of this historic bill, which is destined to become a milestone in our national highway is as follows:

AN ACT

TEMPORARILY TO PROVIDE REVENUES FOR THE RELIEF
OF THE ISLAND OF PUERTO RICO, AND FOR OTHER
PURPOSES.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, that the provisions of this Act shall apply to the Island of Porto Rico and to the adjacent islands and waters of the islands lying east of the seventy-fourth meridian of longitude west of Greenwich, which were ceded to the United States by the Government of Spain by treaty entered into on the tenth day of December, eighteen hundred and ninety-eight; and the name Porto Rico, as used in this Act, shall be held to include not only the island of that name, but all the adjacent islands as aforesaid.

SEC. 2. That on and after the passage of this Act the same tariffs, customs, and duties shall be levied, collected, and paid upon all articles imported into Porto Rico from ports other than those of the United States which are required by law to be collected upon articles imported into the United States from foreign countries: Provided, That on all coffee in the bean or ground imported into Porto Rico there shall be levied and collected a duty of five cents per pound, any law or part of law to the contrary notwithstanding: And provided further, That all Spanish scientific, literary, and artistic works, not subversive of public order in Porto Rico, shall be admitted free of duty into Porto Rico for a period of ten years, reckoning from the eleventh day of April, eighteen hundred and ninety-nine, as provided in said treaty of peace be-

tween the United States and Spain : And provided further, That all books and pamphlets printed in the English language shall be admitted into Porto Rico free of duty when imported from the United States.

SEC. 3. That on and after the passage of this Act all merchandise coming into the United States from Porto Rico and coming into Porto Rico from the United States shall be entered at the several ports of entry upon payment of fifteen per centum of the duties which are required to be levied, collected, and paid upon like articles of merchandise imported from foreign countries ; and in addition thereto upon articles of merchandise of Porto Rican manufacture coming into the United States and withdrawn for consumption or sale upon payment of a tax equal to the internal-revenue tax imposed in the United States upon the like articles of merchandise of domestic manufacture ; such tax to be paid by internal-revenue stamp or stamps to be purchased and provided by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue and to be procured from the collector of internal revenue at or most convenient to the port of entry of said merchandise in the United States, and to be affixed under such regulations as the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, with the approval of the Secretary of the Treasury, shall prescribe ; and on all articles of merchandise of United States manufacture coming into Porto Rico in addition to the duty above provided upon payment of a tax equal in rate and amount to the internal-revenue tax imposed in Porto Rico upon the like articles of Porto Rican manufacture : Provided, that on and after the date when this Act shall take effect, all merchandise and articles, except coffee, not dutiable under the tariff laws of the United States, and all merchandise and articles entered in Porto Rico free of duty under orders heretofore made by the Secretary of War, shall be admit-

ted into the several ports thereof, when imported from the United States, free of duty, all laws or parts of laws to the contrary notwithstanding; and whenever the legislative assembly of Porto Rico shall have enacted and put into operation a system of local taxation to meet the necessities of the government of Porto Rico, by this Act established, and shall by resolution duly passed so notify the President, he shall make proclamation thereof, and thereupon all tariff duties on merchandise and articles going into Porto Rico from the United States or coming into the United States from Porto Rico shall cease, and from and after such date all such merchandise and articles shall be entered at the several ports of entry free of duty; and in no event shall any duties be collected after the first day of March, nineteen hundred and two, on merchandise and articles going into Porto Rico from the United States or coming into the United States from Porto Rico.

SEC. 4. That the duties and taxes collected in Porto Rico in pursuance of this Act, less the cost of collecting the same, and the gross amount of all collections of duties and taxes in the United States upon articles of merchandise coming from Porto Rico, shall not be covered into the general fund of the treasury, but shall be held as a separate fund, and shall be placed at the disposal of the President to be used for the government and benefit of Porto Rico until the government of Porto Rico herein provided for shall have been organized, when all moneys theretofore collected under the provisions hereof, then unexpended, shall be transferred to the local treasury of Porto Rico, and the Secretary of the Treasury shall designate the several ports and subports of entry into Porto Rico and shall make such rules and regulations and appoint such agents as may be necessary to collect the duties and taxes authorized to be levied, collected, and paid in Porto Rico

by the provisions of this Act, and he shall fix the compensation and provide for the payment thereof of all such officers, agents, and assistants as he may find it necessary to employ to carry out the provisions hereof: Provided, however, that as soon as a civil government for Porto Rico shall have been organized in accordance with the provisions of this act and notice thereof shall have been given to the President, he shall make proclamation thereof, and thereafter all collections of duties and taxes into Porto Rico under the provisions of this Act shall be paid into the treasury of Porto Rico, to be expended as required by law for the government and benefit thereof instead of being paid into the Treasury of the United States.

SEC. 5. That on and after the day when this Act shall go into effect, all goods, wares, and merchandise previously imported from Porto Rico, for which no entry has been made, and all goods, wares, and merchandise previously entered without payment of duty and under bond for warehousing, transportation, or any other purpose, for which no permit of delivery to the importer or his agent has been issued, shall be subjected to the duties imposed by this Act, and to no other duty, upon the entry or the withdrawal thereof: Provided, That when duties are based upon the weight of merchandise deposited in any public or private bonded warehouse said duties shall be levied and collected upon the weight of such merchandise at the time of its entry.

GENERAL PROVISIONS.

SEC. 6. That the capital of Porto Rico shall be at the City of San Juan and the seat of government shall be maintained there.

SEC. 7. That all inhabitants continuing to reside therein who were Spanish subjects on the eleventh day of April,

eighteen hundred and ninety-nine, and then resided in Porto Rico, and their children born subsequent thereto, shall be deemed and held to be citizens of Porto Rico, and as such entitled to the protection of the United States, except such as shall have elected to preserve their allegiance to the Crown of Spain on or before the eleventh day of April, nineteen hundred, in accordance with the provisions of the treaty of peace between the United States and Spain entered into on the eleventh day of April, eighteen hundred and ninety-nine; and they, together with such citizens of the United States as may reside in Porto Rico, shall constitute a body politic under the name of The People of Porto Rico, with governmental powers as hereinafter conferred, and with power to sue and be sued as such.

SEC. 8. That the laws and ordinances of Porto Rico now in force shall continue in full force and effect, except as altered, amended, or modified hereinafter, or as altered or modified by military orders and decrees in force when this Act shall take effect, and so far as the same are not inconsistent or in conflict with the statutory laws of the United States not locally inapplicable, or the provisions hereof, until altered, amended, or repealed by the legislative authority hereinafter provided for Porto Rico or by Act of Congress of the United States: Provided, That so much of the law which was in force at the time of cession, April eleventh, eighteen hundred and ninety-nine, forbidding the marriage of priests, ministers, or followers of any faith because of vows they may have taken, being paragraph four, article eighty-three, chapter three, civil code, and which was continued by the order of the secretary of justice of Porto Rico, dated March seventeenth, eighteen hundred and ninety-nine, and promulgated by Major-General Guy V. Henry, United States Volunteers, is hereby repealed and annulled, and all persons lawfully married in Porto

Rico shall have all the rights and remedies conferred by law upon parties to either civil or religious marriages: And provided further, That paragraph one, article one hundred and five, section four, divorce, civil code, and paragraph two, section nineteen, of the order of the minister of justice of Porto Rico, dated March seventeenth, eighteen hundred and ninety-nine, and promulgated by Major-General Guy V. Henry, United States Volunteers, be, and the same hereby are, so amended as to read: "Adultery on the part of either the husband or the wife."

SEC. 9. That the Commissioner of Navigation shall make such regulations, subject to the approval of the Secretary of the Treasury, as he may deem expedient for the nationalization of all vessels owned by the inhabitants of Porto Rico on the eleventh day of April, eighteen hundred and ninety-nine, and which continued to be so owned up to the date of such nationalization, and for the admission of the same to all the benefits of the coasting trade of the United States; and the coasting trade between Porto Rico and the United States shall be regulated in accordance with the provisions of law applicable to such trade between any two great coasting districts of the United States.

SEC. 10. That quarantine stations shall be established at such places in Porto Rico as the Supervising Surgeon-General of the Marine-Hospital Service of the United States shall direct, and the quarantine regulations relating to the importation of diseases from other countries shall be under the control of the Government of the United States.

SEC. 11. That for the purpose of retiring the Porto Rican coins now in circulation in Porto Rico and substituting therefor the coins of the United States, the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby authorized to redeem, on presentation in Porto Rico, all the silver coins of Porto

Rico known as the peso and all other silver and copper Porto Rican coins now in circulation in Porto Rico, not including any such coins that may be imported into Porto Rico after the first day of February, nineteen hundred, at the present established rate of sixty cents in the coins of the United States for one peso of Porto Rican coin, and for all minor or subsidiary coins the same rate of exchange shall be applied. The Porto Rican coins so purchased or redeemed shall be recoined at the expense of the United States, under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, into such coins of the United States now authorized by law as he may direct, and from and after three months after the date when this Act shall take effect no coins shall be a legal tender, in payment of debts thereafter contracted, for any amount in Porto Rico, except those of the United States; and whatever sum may be required to carry out the provisions hereof, and to pay all expenses that may be incurred in connection therewith, is hereby appropriated, and the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby authorized to establish such regulations and employ such agencies as may be necessary to accomplish the purposes hereof: Provided, however, That all debts owing on the date when this Act shall take effect shall be payable in the coins of Porto Rico now in circulation, or in the coins of the United States at the rate of exchange above named.

SEC. 12. That all expenses that may be incurred on account of the government of Porto Rico for salaries of officials and the conduct of their offices and departments, and all expenses and obligations contracted for the internal improvement or development of the island, not, however, including defenses, barracks, harbors, light-houses, buoys, and other works undertaken by the United States, shall be paid by the treasurer of Porto Rico out of the revenues in his custody.

SEC. 13. That all property which may have been acquired in Porto Rico by the United States under the cession of Spain in said treaty of peace in any public bridges, roads, houses, water powers, highways, unnavigable streams, and the beds thereof, subterranean waters, mines, or minerals under the surface of private lands, and all property which at the time of the cession belonged, under the laws of Spain then in force, to the various harbor-works boards of Porto Rico, and all the harbor shores, docks, slips, and reclaimed lands, but not including harbor areas or navigable waters, is hereby placed under the control of the government established by this Act to be administered for the benefit of the people of Porto Rico; and the legislative assembly hereby created shall have authority, subject to the limitations imposed upon all its acts, to legislate with respect to all such matters as it may deem advisable.

SEC. 14. That the statutory laws of the United States not locally inapplicable, except as hereinbefore or hereinafter otherwise provided, shall have the same force and effect in Porto Rico as in the United States, except the internal-revenue laws, which, in view of the provisions of section three, shall not have force and effect in Porto Rico.

SEC. 15. That the legislative authority hereinafter provided shall have power by due enactment to amend, alter, modify, or repeal any law or ordinance, civil or criminal, continued in force by this Act, as it may from time to time see fit.

SEC. 16. That all judicial process shall run in the name of "United States of America, ss: the President of the United States," and all criminal or penal prosecutions in the local courts shall be conducted in the name and by the authority of "The people of Porto Rico;" and all officials authorized by this Act shall before entering upon the duties of their respective offices take an oath to support

the Constitution of the United States and the laws of Porto Rico.

THE GOVERNOR.

SEC. 17. That the official title of the chief executive officer shall be "The Governor of Porto Rico." He shall be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate; he shall hold his office for a term of four years and until his successor is chosen and qualified unless sooner removed by the President; he shall reside in Porto Rico during his official incumbency, and shall maintain his office at the seat of government; he may grant pardons and reprieves, and remit fines and forfeitures for offenses against the laws of Porto Rico, and respites for offenses against the laws of the United States, until the decision of the President can be ascertained; he shall commission all officers that he may be authorized to appoint and may veto any legislation enacted, as hereinafter provided; he shall be the commander-in-chief of the militia, and shall at all times faithfully execute the laws, and he shall in that behalf have all the powers of governors of the Territories of the United States that are not locally inapplicable; and he shall annually, and at such other times as he may be required, make official report of the transactions of the government in Porto Rico, through the Secretary of State, to the President of the United States: Provided, That the President may, in his discretion, delegate and assign to him such executive duties and functions as may in pursuance with law be so delegated and assigned.

THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

SEC. 18. That there shall be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, for the period of four years, unless sooner removed by the Presi-

dent, a secretary, an attorney-general, a treasurer, an auditor, a commissioner of the interior, and a commissioner of education, each of whom shall reside in Porto Rico during his official incumbency and have the powers and duties hereinafter provided for them, respectively, and who, together with five other persons of good repute, to be also appointed by the President for a like term of four years, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall constitute an executive council, at least five of whom shall be native inhabitants of Porto Rico, and, in addition to the legislative duties hereinafter imposed upon them as a body, shall exercise such powers and perform such duties as are hereinafter provided for them, respectively, and who shall have power to employ all necessary deputies and assistants for the proper discharge of their duties as such officials and as such executive council.

SEC. 19. That the secretary shall record and preserve minutes of the proceedings of the executive council and the laws enacted by the legislative assembly and all acts and proceedings of the governor, and shall promulgate all proclamations and orders of the governor and all laws enacted by the legislative assembly. He shall, within sixty days after the end of each session of the legislative assembly, transmit to the President, the President of the Senate, the Speaker of the House of Representatives, and the Secretary of State of the United States one copy each of the laws and journals of such session.

SEC. 20. That in case of the death, removal, resignation, or disability of the governor, or his temporary absence from Porto Rico, the secretary shall exercise all the powers and perform all the duties of the governor during such vacancy, disability, or absence.

SEC. 21. That the attorney-general shall have all the powers and discharge all the duties provided by law for

an attorney of a Territory of the United States in so far as the same are not locally inapplicable, and he shall perform such other duties as may be prescribed by law, and make such reports, through the governor, to the Attorney-General of the United States as he may require, which shall annually be transmitted to Congress.

SEC. 22. That the treasurer shall give bond, approved as to form by the attorney-general of Porto Rico, in such sum as the executive council may require, not less, however, than the sum of one hundred thousand dollars, with surety approved by the governor, and he shall collect and be the custodian of the public funds, and shall disburse the same when appropriated by law, on warrants signed by the auditor and countersigned by the governor, and shall perform such other duties as may be prescribed by law, and make, through the governor, such reports to the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States as he may require, which shall annually be transmitted to Congress.

SEC. 23. That the auditor shall keep full and accurate accounts, showing all receipts and disbursements, and perform such other duties as may be prescribed by law, and make, through the governor, such reports to the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States as he may require, which shall annually be transmitted to Congress.

SEC. 24. That the commissioner of the interior shall superintend all works of a public nature, and shall have charge of all public buildings, grounds, and lands, except those belonging to the United States, and shall execute such requirements as may be imposed by law with respect thereto, and shall perform such other duties as may be prescribed by law, and make such reports through the governor to the Secretary of the Interior of the United States as he may require, which shall annually be transmitted to Congress.

SEC. 25. That the commissioner of education shall superintend public instruction throughout Porto Rico, and all disbursements on account thereof must be approved by him; and he shall perform such other duties as may be prescribed by law, and make such reports through the governor as may be required by the Commissioner of Education of the United States, which shall annually be transmitted to Congress.

SEC. 26. That the other five members of the executive council, to be appointed as hereinbefore provided, shall attend all meetings of the executive council and participate in all business of every character that may be transacted by it; and they shall receive as compensation for their services such annual salaries as may be provided by the legislative assembly.

HOUSE OF DELEGATES.

SEC. 27. That all local legislative powers hereby granted shall be vested in a legislative assembly which shall consist of two houses; one the executive council, as hereinbefore constituted, and the other a house of delegates, to consist of thirty-five members elected biennially by the qualified voters as hereinafter provided; and the two houses thus constituted shall be designated "The legislative assembly of Porto Rico."

SEC. 28. That for the purposes of such elections Porto Rico shall be divided by the executive council into seven districts, composed of contiguous territory and as nearly equal as may be in population, and each district shall be entitled to five members of the house of delegates.

ELECTION OF DELEGATES.

SEC. 29. That the first election for delegates shall be

held on such date and under such regulations as to ballots and voting as the executive council may prescribe ; and at such elections the voters of each legislative district shall choose five delegates to represent them in the house of delegates from the date of their election and qualification until two years from and after the first day of January next ensuing ; all of which thirty days' notice shall be given by publication in the Official Gazette, or by printed notices distributed and posted throughout the district, or by both, as the executive council may prescribe. At such elections all citizens of Porto Rico shall be allowed to vote who have been bona fide residents for one year and who possess the other qualifications of voters under the laws and military orders in force on the first day of March, nineteen hundred, subject to such modifications and additional qualifications and such regulations and restrictions as to registration as may be prescribed by the executive council. The house of delegates so chosen shall convene at the capital and organize by the election of a speaker, a clerk, a sergeant-at-arms, and such other officers and assistants as it may require, at such time as may be designated by the executive council ; but it shall not continue in session longer than sixty days in any one year, unless called by the governor to meet in extraordinary session. The enacting clause of the laws shall be, " Be it enacted by the legislative assembly of Porto Rico ; " and each member of the house of delegates shall be paid for his services at the rate of five dollars per day for each day's attendance while the house is in session, and mileage at the rate of ten cents per mile for each mile necessarily traveled each way to and from each session of the legislative assembly.

All future elections of delegates shall be governed by the provisions hereof, so far as they are applicable, until the legislative assembly shall otherwise provide.

SEC. 30. That the house of delegates shall be the sole judges of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its members, and shall have and exercise all the powers with respect to the conduct of its proceedings that usually appertain to parliamentary legislative bodies. No person shall be eligible to membership in the house of delegates who is not twenty-five years of age and able to read and write either the Spanish or the English language, or who is not possessed in his own right of taxable property, real or personal, situated in Porto Rico.

SEC. 31. That all bills may originate in either house, but no bill shall become a law unless it be passed in each house by a majority vote of all the members belonging to such house and be approved by the governor within ten days thereafter. If, when a bill that has been passed is presented to the governor for signature, he approve the same, he shall sign it, or if not he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it originated, which house shall enter his objections at large on its journal, and proceed to reconsider the bill. If, after such reconsideration, two-thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be considered, and if approved by two-thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered upon the journal of each house, respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the governor within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the legislative assembly by adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law: Provided, however, That all laws enacted by the legislative assembly shall

be reported to the Congress of the United States, which hereby reserves the power and authority, if deemed advisable, to annul the same.

SEC. 32. That the legislative authority herein provided shall extend to all matters of a legislative character not locally inapplicable, including power to create, consolidate, and reorganize the municipalities, so far as may be necessary, and to provide and repeal laws and ordinances therefor; and also the power to alter, amend, modify, and repeal any and all laws and ordinances of every character now in force in Porto Rico, or any municipality or district thereof, not inconsistent with the provisions hereof: Provided, however, That all grants of franchises, rights, and privileges or concessions of a public or quasi-public nature shall be made by the executive council, with the approval of the governor, and all franchises granted in Porto Rico shall be reported to Congress, which hereby reserves the power to annul or modify the same.

THE JUDICIARY.

SEC. 33. That the judicial power shall be vested in the courts and tribunals of Porto Rico as already established and now in operation, including municipal courts, under and by virtue of General Orders, Numbered One hundred and eighteen, as promulgated by Brigadier-General Davis, United States Volunteers, August sixteenth, eighteen hundred and ninety-nine, and including also the police courts established by General Orders, Numbered One hundred and ninety-five, promulgated November twenty-ninth, eighteen hundred and ninety-nine, by Brigadier-General Davis, United States Volunteers, and the laws and ordinances of Porto Rico and the municipalities thereof in force, so far as the same are not in conflict herewith, all which

courts and tribunals are hereby continued. The jurisdiction of said courts and the form of procedure in them, and the various officials and attachés thereof, respectively, shall be the same as defined and prescribed in and by said laws and ordinances, and said General Orders, Numbered One hundred and eighteen and One hundred and ninety-five, until otherwise provided by law: Provided, however, That the chief justice and associate justices of the Supreme Court and the marshal thereof shall be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, and the judges of the district courts shall be appointed by the governor, by and with the advice and consent of the executive council, and all other officials and attachés of all the other courts shall be chosen as may be directed by the legislative assembly, which shall have authority to legislate from time to time as it may see fit with respect to said courts, and any others they may deem it advisable to establish, their organization, the number of judges and officials and attachés for each, their jurisdiction, their procedure, and all other matters affecting them.

SEC. 34. That Porto Rico shall constitute a judicial district to be called "the district of Porto Rico." The President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint a district judge, a district attorney, and a marshal for said district, each for a term of four years, unless sooner removed by the President. The district court for said district shall be called the district court of the United States for Porto Rico and shall have power to appoint all necessary officials and assistants, including a clerk, an interpreter, and such commissioners as may be necessary, who shall have like power and duties as are exercised and performed by commissioners of the circuit courts of the United States, and shall have, in addition to the ordinary jurisdiction of district courts of the United

States, jurisdiction of all cases cognizant in the circuit courts of the United States, and shall proceed therein in the same manner as a circuit court. The laws of the United States relating to appeals, writs of error and certiorari, removal of causes, and other matters and proceedings as between the courts of the United States and the courts of the several States shall govern in such matters and proceedings as between the district court of the United States and the courts of Porto Rico. Regular terms of said court shall be held at San Juan, commencing on the second Monday in April and October of each year, and also at Ponce on the second Monday in January of each year, and special terms may be held at Mayaguez at such other stated times as said judge may deem expedient. All pleadings and proceedings in said court shall be conducted in the English language.

The United States district court hereby established shall be the successor to the United States provisional court established by General Orders, Numbered Eighty-eight, promulgated by Brigadier-General Davis, United States Volunteers, and shall take possession of all records of that court, and take jurisdiction of all cases and proceedings pending therein, and said United States provisional court is hereby discontinued.

SEC. 35. That writs of error and appeals from the final decisions of the supreme court of Porto Rico and the district court of the United States shall be allowed and may be taken to the Supreme Court of the United States in the same manner and under the same regulations and in the same cases as from the supreme courts of the Territories of the United States; and such writs of error and appeal shall be allowed in all cases where the Constitution of the United States, or a treaty thereof, or an Act of Congress is brought in question and the right claimed

thereunder is denied ; and the supreme and district courts of Porto Rico and the respective judges thereof may grant writs of habeas corpus in all cases in which the same are grantable by the judges of the district and circuit courts of the United States. All such proceedings in the Supreme Court of the United States shall be conducted in the English language.

SEC. 36. That the salaries of all officials of Porto Rico not appointed by the President, including deputies, assistants, and other help, shall be so paid out of the revenues of Porto Rico, as the executive council shall from time to time determine : Provided, however, That the salary of no officer shall be either increased or diminished during his term of office. The salaries of all officers and all expenses of the offices of the various officials of Porto Rico, appointed as herein provided by the President, including deputies, assistants, and other help, shall also be paid out of the revenues of Porto Rico on the warrants of the auditor, countersigned by the governor.

The annual salaries of the officials appointed by the President, and so to be paid, shall be as follows :

The governor, eight thousand dollars ; in addition thereto he shall be entitled to the occupancy of the buildings heretofore used by the chief executive of Porto Rico, with the furniture and effects therein, free of rental.

The secretary, four thousand dollars. The attorney-general, four thousand dollars. The treasurer, five thousand dollars. The auditor, four thousand dollars. The commissioner of the interior, four thousand dollars. The commissioner of education, three thousand dollars. The chief justice of the supreme court, five thousand dollars. The associate justices of the supreme court (each), four thousand five hundred dollars. The marshal of the supreme court, three thousand dollars. The United States

district judge, five thousand dollars. The United States district attorney, four thousand dollars. The United States district marshal, three thousand five hundred dollars.

SEC. 37. That the provisions of the foregoing section shall not apply to the municipal officials. Their salaries and the compensation of their deputies, assistants, and other help, as well as all other expenses incurred by the municipalities, shall be paid out of the municipal revenues in such manner as the legislative assembly shall provide.

SEC. 38. That no export duties shall be levied or collected on exports from Porto Rico; but taxes and assessments on property, and license fees for franchises, privileges, and concessions may be imposed for the purposes of the insular and municipal governments, respectively, as may be provided and defined by act of the legislative assembly; and where necessary to anticipate taxes and revenues bonds and other obligations may be issued by Porto Rico or any municipal government therein as may be provided by law to provide for expenditures authorized by law, and to protect the public credit, and to reimburse the United States for any moneys which have been or may be expended out of the emergency fund of the War Department for the relief of the industrial conditions of Porto Rico caused by the hurricane of August eight, eighteen hundred and ninety-nine: Provided, however, That no public indebtedness of Porto Rico or of any municipality thereof shall be authorized or allowed in excess of seven per centum of the aggregate tax valuation of its property.

SEC. 39. That the qualified voters of Porto Rico shall, on the first Tuesday after the first Monday of November, anno Domini nineteen hundred, and every two years thereafter, choose a resident commissioner to the United States,

who shall be entitled to official recognition as such by all Departments, upon presentation to the Department of State of a certificate of election of the governor of Porto Rico, and who shall be entitled to a salary, payable monthly by the United States, at the rate of five thousand dollars per annum : Provided, That no person shall be eligible to such election who is not a bona fide citizen of Porto Rico, who is not thirty years of age, and who does not read and write the English language.

SEC. 40. That a commission, to consist of three members, at least one of whom shall be a native citizen of Porto Rico, shall be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to compile and revise the laws of Porto Rico ; also the various codes of procedure and systems of municipal government now in force, and to frame and report such legislation as may be necessary to make a simple, harmonious, and economical government, establish justice and secure its prompt and efficient administration, inaugurate a general system of education and public instruction, provide buildings and funds therefor, equalize and simplify taxation and all the methods of raising revenue, and make all other provisions that may be necessary to secure and extend the benefits of a republican form of government to all the inhabitants of Porto Rico ; and all the expenses of such commissioners, including all necessary clerks and other assistants that they may employ, and a salary to each member of the commission at the rate of five thousand dollars per annum, shall be allowed and paid out of the treasury of Porto Rico as a part of the expenses of the government of Porto Rico. And said commission shall make full and final report, in both the English and Spanish languages, of all its revisions, compilations, and recommendations, with explanatory notes as to the changes and

the reasons therefor, to the Congress on or before one year after the passage of this Act.

SEC. 41. That this Act shall take effect and be in force from and after the first day of May, nineteen hundred.

On the day following the signing of the Porto Rico tariff and civil government bill President McKinley appointed Charles H. Allen to be governor-general of the island, to take office May 1. Mr. Allen was born in Lowell, Mass., April 15, 1848, graduated at Amherst in 1869, and then engaged in the lumber business at Lowell, where he amassed a considerable fortune. He served in both branches of the legislature of his State, and in 1885 was elected to Congress and re-elected in 1887. He was a candidate for governor in 1891 upon the Republican ticket but was defeated. In May, 1898, upon the resignation of Theodore Roosevelt, Mr. Allen was appointed assistant Secretary of the Navy, a position that he held at the time of his nomination to the post of Governor of Porto Rico.

THE END.

COMPLETE CHRONOLOGICAL HISTORY OF OUR
WAR WITH SPAIN AND THE PHILIPPINES,
AND OF THE LAST INSURRECTION OF THE CUBANS IN THEIR
BRAVE FIGHT FOR INDEPENDENCE.

1895.

- February 24.—Insurgents rose against Spanish tyranny in Santiago, Santa Clara and Matanzas provinces.
- March 4.—Governor-General proclaimed martial law in Santiago and Matanzas. Julio Sanguily, J. Aguirre and other suspected Cuban sympathizers arrested and incarcerated in Cabanas prison at Havana.
- March 8.—American mail steamship Alliance fired upon by Spanish gunboat.
- March 10.—First battle of the war at Los Negros between 1,000 Spanish, under General Garrich, and 700 Cubans, under Colonel Goulet. Spaniards defeated. Spanish reinforcements arrive from Porto Rico and 7,000 men from Spain. Field Marshal Martinez Campos appointed Captain-General to succeed Colleja, and sent to Cuba with 20,000 troops. Martial law proclaimed over whole island.
- March 24.—Pitched battle at Jaraguana between 1,000 Spanish troops, under Colonel Araoz, and 900 Cubans, under Amador Guerra.
- March 31.—Antonio Maceo, with Flor Crombet, Dr. Frank Agramonte, Jose Maceo and other officers, landed at Baracoa with expedition from Costa Rico in British schooner Honor. Schooner wrecked and captain killed by Spaniards. Later attacked Maceo at Duaba, but were repulsed. Agramonte captured. Provisional government proclaimed by Maceo; Dr. Tomas Estrada Palma, president; Jose Marti, secretary-general, and General Maximo Gomez, military director and commander-in-chief.
- April 13.—General Maximo Gomez, Jose Marti and eighty companions arrived from Hayti and landed on the coast southwest of Cape Maysi.

- April 16.—Captain-General Campos landed with reinforcements at Guantanoma and issued proclamation pledging reforms. Spanish Cortes authorized government to raise 600,000,000 pesetas (\$120,000,000) for war, and decided to send 40,000 reinforcements.
- April 16-18.—Battles at and near Sabana de Jaibo. Cuban cavalry under Gomez defeated Colonel Bosch.
- April 21.—Battle of Ramon de las Jaguas; 100 Spaniards killed.
- April 29.—Jose Maceo ambuscaded 700 Spaniards at Arroyo Hondo; 150 Spaniards killed and heavy Cuban losses.
- May 6-14.—Raids and fights at Jobito and Cristo by Maceo; Spanish Lieutenant-Colonel Bosch killed.
- May 18.—Insurgent Convention elected Bartolome Masso president, Maximo Gomez general-in-chief, and Antonio Maceo commander-in-chief of the Oriental Division.
- May 19.—Jose Marti and party of 50 annihilated by Colonel Sandoval and 800 troops in a narrow pass; Gomez with reinforcements attempted to rescue Marti's body, and was wounded; Cuban loss, 50 killed and 100 wounded. Dr. Tomas Estrada Palma elected to succeed Marti as delegate to the United States.
- May 20.—Colonel Lacret and Colonel Torres landed with filibustering expedition of 220 men from Jamaica.
- June 2.—Gomez crossed trocha and entered province of Puerto Principe.
- June 5.—General Carlos Roloff's filibustering expedition, with 353 men, 1,000 rifles and 500 pounds of dynamite, landed by tugboat George W. Childs near Sagua Lachico, in Santa Clara.
- June 12.—President Cleveland issued proclamation warning citizens against joining or aiding filibustering expeditions.
- June 18.—Province of Puerto Principe declared in a state of siege.
- June 27.—Captain-General Campos asked Cabinet for 14,000 fresh troops.
- July 1.—Campos established Moron-Jucara trocha to keep Gomez out of Santa Clara Province.
- July 13.—Captain-General Campos, at head of 1,500 troops, attacked but defeated by Cubans under Maceo near Valenzuela, and compelled to retreat to Bayamo; Spanish General Santocildes and 119 men killed; Cuban loss, 100 men.

- July 15.—Provisional Government formally constituted and a declaration of independence proclaimed.
- August 7.—Cuban Convention at Puerto Principe elected the following officers: Provisional President of the Republic of Cuba, General Bartolome Masso; Minister of Interior, Marquis of Santa Lucia; Vice-President and Minister of War, General Maximo Gomez; Secretary of Foreign Affairs, Gonzalo de Quesada; General-in-Chief, General Antonio Maceo.
- August 31.—Spaniards defeated by 1,200 men under Jose Maceo near Ramon de la Jaguas.
- September 23.—Constitution of Cuban Republic proclaimed by Congress of Delegates at Anton de Puerto Principe, and the following elected permanent officers of the government: President, Salvador Cisneros; Vice-President, Bartolome Masso; Secretary of War; Carlos Roloff; Commander-in-Chief, Maximo Gomez; Lieutenant-General, Antonio Maceo.
- October 2.—Maceo defeated superior force of 2,000 Spaniards at Mount Mogote.
- October 9.—Cuban loan of 15,000,000 pesos (\$3,000,000) placed in Paris.
- October 10.—Barracoa captured by Cubans.
- October 27.—General Carlos M. de Cespedes landed near Barracoa with filibustering expedition of sixty men, 100 rifles and 10,000 rounds of ammunition fitted out in Canada. Laurada seized at Charleston, S. C., as a filibuster.
- November 18-19.—Spanish forces under Generals Valdes, Luque and Aldave defeated at Taguasco; Spanish loss, 500.
- December 26.—Gomez invaded the loyal Province of Havana.

1896.

- January 5.—Gomez broke through Spanish intrenchments and raided Pinar del Rio.
- January 12.—Gomez defeated Spaniards at Batanobo and recrossed trocha into Havana Province.
- January 12-20.—Maceo raided Pinar del Rio Province.
- January 17.—Captain-General Campos recalled to Madrid and General Valeriano Weyler appointed to succeed him.
- January 26.—Filibuster J. W. Hawkins, carrying General Calixto Garcia and 120 men, sunk off Long Island and ten men drowned.

- January 30.—Maceo recrossed Habana-Batabano trocha; Spaniards severely defeated by Diaz near Artemisia.
- February 10.—General Weyler arrived at Havana on the cruiser Alfonso XIII and was enthusiastically greeted.
- February 17.—Weyler issued three proclamations establishing rigid martial law.
- February 18.—Maceo attacked and captured Jaruco; the next day he joined Gomez, and together they marched eastward.
- February 22.—Eighteen non-combatants killed by Spanish troops in Punta Brava and Guatao, and two American correspondents who investigated outrage arrested.
- February 24.—Filibuster Bermuda seized by United States marshals; General Garcia and others arrested, tried and acquitted.
- February 28.—Senate adopted belligerency resolutions, and requested President to use "friendly offices" to secure Cuban independence.
- March 5.—Weyler issued proclamation offering amnesty to Cubans who surrendered with arms in hand.
- March 8.—Eighteen thousand Spanish reinforcements landed at Havana.
- March 12.—Commodore landed a filibustering expedition from Charleston.
- March 13.—Maceo captured the town of Batabano.
- March 15.—Maceo re-entered Pinar del Rio Province and attacked the town of Pinar del Rio.
- March 22.—Gomez captured the town of Santa Clara and secured a large amount of military stores.
- March 25.—Bermuda landed General Garcia with 125 men and arms in Cuba. Three Friends and Mallory landed a big expedition under General Collazo on the coast of Matanzas Province.
- April 6.—House of Representatives concurred in Senate's Cuban resolution.
- April 25.—American filibustering schooner Competitor captured off coast of Pinar del Rio. Alfredo Laborde and three Americans made prisoners.
- April 27.—Bermuda fired upon by Spanish gunboat while trying to land expedition under Colonels Vidal and Torres and forced to abandon the attempt.
- May 14.—Gomez captured a whole Spanish battalion under Colonel Segura.

- May 16.—Laurada landed General J. F. Ruiz and expedition in Cuba.
- May 29.—Three Friends landed large cargo of ammunition in Santa Clara.
- June 3.—Consul-General Fitzhugh Lee arrived at Havana as the successor of Ramon O. Williams, resigned.
- June 18.—Expeditions under Zarrago, Castillo and Cabrera landed by Three Friends and Laurada.
- July 5.—Jose Maceo killed in an engagement at Loma del Gato.
- July 15.—General Inclan badly defeated by Maceo at Caracarajicara; 200 killed and nearly 300 wounded.
- July 30.—President Cleveland issued another proclamation against filibustering.
- August 15.—General Rabi defeated Spaniards near Bayamo, killing 200.
- December 7.—General Antonio Maceo and Francisco Gomez, son of the rebel commander-in-chief, were killed in an engagement with a Spanish detachment under Major Cirujeda, just after Maceo had succeeded in passing around the end of the Mariel trocha. Dr. Zertucha, the only member of the staff who escaped, was accused of treachery. He surrendered to the Spanish.
- December 15.—Three Friends tried to land a large expedition at the mouth of the San Juan River, on the south coast of Cuba, but was fired on by a Spanish gunboat and compelled to put to sea again with her party, setting them down on a desert Florida key, where they were rescued by the Dauntless.
- December 20.—General Ruiz Rivera succeeded Maceo as commander-in-chief of the Cuban army of the West.
- December 28.—Julio Sanguilly was tried and sentenced to imprisonment for life on a charge of conspiring against the Spanish Government.
- December 31.—Filibuster Commodore sailed from Jacksonville with a small expedition for Cuba and sunk sixteen miles off the Florida coast. Most of the men were saved.

1897.

- January 13.—Spaniards under General Segura attacked General Calixta Garcia at Gabuquito, and were repulsed with a loss of 300 killed and 400 wounded.
- February 4.—Queen Regent of Spain signed a decree instituting reforms in Cuba.

- February 21.—Secretary of State Olney directed Minister Taylor, at Madrid, to demand a full inquiry into the case of Dr. Ricardo Ruiz, who was murdered in prison, in Guanabacoa, by the Spaniards.
- March 4.—General Weyler returned to Havana.
- March 21.—Insurgents captured Holguin.
- March 28.—General Ruiz Rivera, who succeeded Antonio Maceo, was captured with 100 men at Cabezudas by General Hernandez Velasco.
- March 30.—Laurada landed at Banes, on the north coast of Santiago, three dynamite guns, one Hotchkiss gun and a large quantity of ammunition.
- April 17.—Weyler declared that the province of Santa Clara and part of Puerto Principe were pacified.
- May 12.—Generals Calixto Garcia and Rabi defeated Spanish troops under General Lonos and compelled them to retreat on shipboard at Cabocoruz.
- May 17.—President McKinley sent a message to Congress suggesting an appropriation of \$50,000 to relieve the distress of American citizens in Cuba. It was passed by Congress and signed May 24.
- June 21.—General Weyler sailed from Havana for Santa Clara province, preceded by thirty-six battalions of infantry and strong forces of artillery and cavalry.
- June 27.—General Weyler reached the city of Santiago.
- November 10.—Marshal Blanco sent a cable to Senor de Lome, Spanish Minister at Washington, announcing that extensive zones of cultivation had been marked out, rations issued to the reconcentrados, and promised that thereafter they would be fed and treated well.
- November 18.—Crew of the American schooner Competitor captured in 1896, and all sentenced to death, were released.
- November 24.—General Blanco sent envoys to insurgent generals to induce them to lay down their arms.
- November 25.—Dr. Frank Agramonte, Thomas J. Sainz and other Americans imprisoned in Havana were released by Marshal Blanco.
- November 26.—Queen Regent of Spain signed royal decrees granting political and commercial autonomy to Cuba.
- December 2.—Bishop of Havana appealed for food for starving reconcentrados.

December 9.—Antonio Rodriguez Rivera, an envoy sent by Blanco to bribe the insurgents, was hanged by the insurgent leader Emilio Collazo.

December 10.—Insurgents captured the seaport town of Caimanera.

December 28.—President McKinley issued an appeal to the country to aid starving Cubans.

1898.

January 8.—A second appeal issued by President McKinley for contributions to aid suffering Cubans announced the co-operation of the American Red Cross Society.

January 12.—Rioters instigated by volunteers in Havana made a demonstration against newspaper offices.

January 17.—General Lee, in communications to the State Department, suggested that a ship be sent to protect Americans in Havana in the event of another riot.

January 21.—General Castellanos with 2,600 troops raided Esperanza, the seat of the insurgent government in the Cubites Mountains. Government officials escaped.

January 24.—Battleship Maine ordered to Havana for the purpose of resuming the friendly intercourse of our naval vessels in Cuban waters.

January 25.—Battleship Maine arrived at Havana and moored at the government anchorage.

January 25.—Filibuster steamer Tillie foundered in Long Island Sound; four men drowned.

January 27.—Brigadier-General Aranguren was surprised and killed in his camp near Tapaste, Havana province, by Lieutenant-Colonel Benedicto with the Spanish Reina Battalion. He had recently put to death Lieutenant-Colonel Ruiz, who had brought him an offer of money from Blanco to accept autonomy.

February 9.—Copy of a letter written by Dupuy de Lome attacking President McKinley, printed. Senor Dupuy de Lome admitted writing the letter, and his recall was demanded by the State Department.

February 15.—Battleship Maine blown up in Havana harbor; 264 men and two officers killed. Spanish Minister De Lome sailed for Spain.

- February 16.—General Lee asked for a court of inquiry on the Maine disaster.
- February 17.—Captains W. T. Sampson and F. E. Chadwick, and Lieutenant-Commanders W. P. Potter and Adolph Marix, detailed as Naval Board of Inquiry.
- February 18.—Spanish warship *Vizcaya* arrived at New York harbor.
- February 21.—Naval court of inquiry arrived at Havana and began investigation.
- February 25.—*Vizcaya* sailed from New York for Havana.
- March 6.—Spain unofficially asks for Lee's recall.
- March 8.—\$50,000,000 war fund voted unanimously by the House of Representatives.
- March 9.—War fund of \$50,000,000 passed unanimously by the Senate.
- March 12.—Government purchased Brazilian cruiser *Amazonas* and other ships abroad.
- March 14.—Spain's torpedo flotilla sailed for Cape Verde Islands.
- March 17.—Senator Redfield Proctor, in a speech to the Senate, told of the starvation and ruin he had observed in Cuba.
- March 21.—Maine Court of Inquiry finished its report and delivered it to Admiral Sicard at Key West.
- March 22.—Maine report sent to Washington.
- March 25.—Maine report delivered to the President, and officially announced that the Maine was blown up by a mine.
- March 26.—President McKinley sent two notes to Spain, one on the Maine report, and the other calling for the cessation of the war in Cuba.
- March 28.—President McKinley sent the Maine report to Congress, with a brief message stating that Spain had been informed of the court's findings.
- March 28.—Report of the Spanish Court of Inquiry, declaring the Maine was destroyed by an interior explosion, was received in Washington.
- March 30.—President McKinley, through Minister Woodford, asked Spain for a cessation of hostilities in Cuba and negotiations for ultimate independence.
- March 31.—Spain refused to accede to any of President McKinley's propositions.
- April 1.—House of Representatives appropriated \$22,648,000 to build war vessels.

- April 6.—Pope cabled President McKinley to suspend extreme measures pending the Vatican's negotiations with Spain.
- April 7.—Ambassadors of England, Germany, France, Italy, Austria and Russia appealed to the President for peace.
- April 9.—Spain ordered Blanco to proclaim an armistice in Cuba.
- April 9.—General Lee and American citizens left Havana.
- April 11.—President sent consular reports and message to Congress, asking authority to stop the war in Cuba.
- April 16.—United States Army began moving to the coast.
- April 19.—Both Houses of Congress adopted resolutions declaring Cuba free, and empowering the President to compel Spain to withdraw her army and navy.
- April 20.—President McKinley signed the resolutions and sent his ultimatum to Spain, and the Queen Regent sent a warlike message to the Cortes.
- April 21.—Minister Woodford was given his passport.
- April 22.—The President issued his proclamation to the neutral powers, announcing that Spain and the United States were at war. Commodore Sampson's fleet sailed from Key West to begin a blockade of Havana. Gunboat Nashville captured the Spanish ship Buena Ventura.
- April 23.—President issued a call for 125,000 volunteers.
- April 24.—Spain formally declared that war existed with the United States.
- April 25.—Commodore Dewey's fleet ordered to sail from Hong Kong for the Philippines.
- April 27.—Matanzas bombarded by the New York, Cincinnati and Puritan.
- April 30.—Admiral Cervera left the Cape Verde Islands for the West Indies.
- May 1.—Commodore Dewey defeated Admiral Montojo in Manila Bay, destroying eleven ships and killing and wounding more than five hundred of the enemy. American casualties, seven men slightly wounded.
- May 11.—Commodore Dewey promoted to be a rear-admiral. Attacks made on Cienfuegos and Cardenas, at which Ensign Worth Bagley and five of the Winslow's crew killed.
- May 11.—Admiral Cervera's squadron sighted off Martinique.

- May 12.—Commodore Sampson bombarded San Juan, Porto Rico, but caused little damage.
- May 13.—The Flying Squadron, under Commodore Schley, left Hampton Roads for Cuban waters.
- May 17.—Cervera's fleet, after coaling at Curacoa, put into the harbor of Santiago de Cuba.
- May 22.—Cruiser Charleston sailed from San Francisco for Manila.
- May 24.—Battleship Oregon arrived off Jupiter Inlet, Fla., from her great trip from San Francisco, which she left March 12.
- May 25.—The President issued his second call for volunteers, 75,000. First Manila expedition left San Francisco.
- May 27.—Commodore Schley discovered that Cervera's fleet was in Santiago harbor and blockaded him.
- May 30.—Commodore Sampson's fleet joined Commodore Schley's.
- May 31.—Forts commanding the entrance to Santiago harbor bombarded.
- June 3.—Hobson and seven men sank the Merrimac in the channel entrance, Santiago Harbor, and being captured, were confined in Morro Castle.
- June 6.—Spanish cruiser Reina Mercedes sunk in the Santiago harbor entrance by the Spaniards to prevent ingress of American war vessels.
- June 11.—Body of marines landed at Guantanamo from the Marblehead and Texas, and had a brisk skirmish.
- June 12-14.—General Shafter embarked at Tampa for Santiago with an army of 16,000 men.
- June 15.—Caimanera forts bombarded by our warships.
- June 15.—Admiral Camara, with a fleet of ten of Spain's best warships, left Cadiz for Manila.
- June 20-22.—General Shafter disembarked his army of invasion at Baiquiri, with a loss of one man killed and two wounded.
- June 21.—Angara, capital of Guam, one of the islands of the Ladronez, captured by the Charleston.
- June 24.—Juragua captured and the Spanish were defeated at Las Guasimas. Heavy loss on both sides, among the Americans killed being Capron and Fish.
- June 28.—General Merritt left for Manila to assume command of the American army operating in the Philippines.

- July 1-2.—Terrific fighting in front of Santiago, and El Caney and San Juan were carried by assaults, in which the American loss was great.
- July 3.—Admiral Cervera's squadron of four armored cruisers and two torpedo-boat destroyers annihilated by Commodore Schley's blockading fleet. The surrender of Santiago was demanded by General Shafter.
- July 6.—Hobson and his comrades were exchanged for six Spanish officers.
- July 8.—Admiral Camara was ordered to return with his fleet to Cadiz to protect Spanish coast threatened by American warships.
- July 10.—A second bombardment of Santiago, which severely battered Morro Castle.
- July 11.—General Miles joined the American Army before Santiago and conferred with General Shafter as to the means for reducing the city.
- July 17.—After the expiration of two periods of truce General Toral surrendered Santiago and the eastern province of Cuba to General Shafter.
- July 20.—General Leonard Wood was appointed Military Governor of Santiago, and entered upon his duties by feeding the hungry, clothing the destitute and cleaning the city.
- July 21.—The harbor of Nipe was entered by four gunboats, which, after an hour's fierce bombardment, captured the port.
- July 25.—General Miles, with 8,000 men, after a voyage of three days, landed at Guanica, Porto Rico. He immediately began his march towards Ponce, which surrendered on the twenty-eighth.
- July 26.—The French Ambassador at Washington, Jules Cambon, acting for Spain, asked the President upon what terms he would treat for peace.
- July 30.—The President communicated his answer to M. Cambon.
- July 31.—The Spaniards made a night attack on the Americans investing Manila, but were repulsed with severe losses.
- August.—The Rough Riders left Santiago for Montauk Point, Long Island.
- August 9.—A large force of Spanish were defeated at Coomo, Porto Rico, by General Ernst. The Spanish Government formally accepted the terms of peace submitted by the President.

- August 12.—The peace protocol was signed, an armistice proclaimed, and the Cuban blockade raised.
- August 13.—Manila was bombarded by Dewey's fleet and simultaneously attacked by the American land forces, under which combined assaults the city surrendered unconditionally.
- August 20.—Great naval demonstration in New York harbor.
- August 22.—All troops under General Merritt remaining at San Francisco ordered to Honolulu.
- August 23.—Bids opened for the construction of twelve torpedo boats and sixteen destroyers. General Merritt appointed Governor of Manila. General Otis assumed command of the Eighth Corps in the Philippines.
- August 25.—General Shafter left Santiago.
- August 26.—President officially announced the names of the American Peace Commissioners. Last of General Shafter's command leaves Santiago for this country.
- August 29.—Lieutenant Hobson arrived at Santiago to direct the raising of the Maria Teresa and Cristobal Colon.
- August 30.—General Wheeler ordered an investigation of Camp Wikoff.
- September 2.—Spanish Government selected three peace commissioners.
- September 3.—President visited Montauk.
- September 9.—Peace Commission completed by the appointment of Senator Gray. President ordered investigation of War Department.
- September 10.—Spanish Cortes approved Peace Protocol.
- September 11.—American Porto Rico Evacuation Commission met in joint session at San Juan.
- September 12.—Admiral Cervera left Portsmouth, N. H., for Spain.
- September 13.—Roosevelt's Rough Riders mustered out of service. Spanish Senate approved Protocol.
- September 14.—Evacuation of Porto Rico began. Queen Regent signed Protocol.
- September 17.—American Cuban Evacuation Commissions met in joint session at Havana. Peace Commissioners sailed for Paris.
- September 20.—Spanish evacuation of outlying ports in Porto Rico began. First American flag raised in Havana.
- September 24.—Jurisdiction of Military Governor Wood extended to embrace entire province of Santiago de Cuba. First meeting of the War Investigating Committee held at the White House.

- September 25.—Lieutenant Hobson floated the Maria Teresa. Revenue cutter McCulloch captured insurgent steamer Abbey, near Manila.
- September 27.—American Peace Commissioners convened in Paris.
- September 28.—American Commissioners received by French Minister of Foreign Affairs.
- September 29.—Spanish and American Commissioners met for first time at breakfast given at the Foreign Office, Paris.
- October 1.—Peace Commissioners held first joint session.
- October 4.—Two thousand irregular Spanish troops revolted near Cienfuegos and refused to lay down arms until paid back salaries. Battleship Illinois launched at Newport News.
- October 10.—American flag hoisted over Manzanillo, Cuba.
- October 12.—Battleships Iowa and Oregon left New York for Manila.
- October 16.—Opening of Peace Jubilee in Chicago.
- October 18.—United States took formal possession of Porto Rico.
- October 24.—Spanish evacuation of Porto Rico completed.
- October 25.—Philadelphia Jubilee began with naval parade in the Delaware.
- October 30.—Cruiser Maria Teresa left Caimanera for Hampton Roads.
- October 31.—American Peace Commissioners demanded cession of entire Philippine group.
- November 5.—Maria Teresa, cruiser, reported lost off San Salvador.
- November 8.—Maria Teresa reported ashore at Cat Island.
- November 17.—Evacuation of Camp Meade completed.
- November 21.—American ultimatum presented to Spanish Peace Commissioners.
- November 25.—First United States troops landed in Havana Province.
- November 28.—Spain agreed to cede Philippines.
- November 30.—Blanco left Havana for Spain.
- December 10.—Peace Treaty signed.
- December 11.—Small riot in Havana. Three Cubans killed.
- December 14.—General Lee arrived in Havana.
- December 23.—Iloilo surrendered to insurgents. Aguinaldo's "Cabinet" resigned.
- December 24.—Peace Treaty delivered to President McKinley.
- December 27.—American Evacuation Commissioners issued a proclamation to the inhabitants of Cuba.
- December 31.—Last day of Spanish sovereignty in Western Hemisphere.

1899

- January 1.—The American flag raised over the Palace at Havana.
- February 4-5.—Filipinos attack and try to burn Manila.
- February 6.—Treaty with Spain ratified by the Senate.
- February 10.—Capture of Iloilo by General Miller. Bombardment and capture of Caloocan.
- February 11.—General Miller occupied Iloilo.
- March 15.—Wheaton occupied Pasig.
- March 17.—Queen Regent of Spain signs the peace treaty.
- March 20.—The Philippine Commission has its first sitting in Manila.
- March 25.—A general advance against the Filipinos.
- March 26.—Colonel Harry C. Egbert killed near Malinta.
- March 27.—Our navy takes possession of Cebu.
- March 30.—General MacArthur captured Malolos, the Filipino capital.
- March 31.—Assault and capture of Malolos, the Filipino's capital.
- April 4.—Philippine Commission addresses a conciliatory proclamation to the insurgents.
- April 11.—General Lawton defeats the Filipinos at Santa Cruz. Final exchange of the ratifications of the Paris peace treaty. Proclamation of President McKinley, announcing restoration of peace between Spain and America.
- April 13.—Lieutenant Gilmore and eleven men of gunboat Yorktown captured at the village of Baler.
- April 22.—General Lawton led an expedition to San Isidor.
- April 23.—Battle of Quingua; Colonel Statzenberg and Lieutenant Sisson killed.
- April 25.—General MacArthur captured Calumpit.
- May 5.—General MacArthur takes possession of San Fernando.
- May 17.—General MacArthur captured San Isidor.
- June 26.—General Hall captured Calamba. Military operations were suspended during the wet season.
- August 16.—General MacArthur captured Angeles.
- September 28.—General MacArthur captured Ponce.
- October 1.—General Swan captured Rosano.
- October 10.—General Swan captured Malabon.
- November 2.—The Philippine Commission submitted its report to the President.

- November 14.—Major Bell fought a successful engagement at Torlae.
- November 14.—Major Jno. A. Logan was killed in a skirmish near San Jacinto.
- November 26.—Vigan was attacked and occupied.
- December 11.—General Otis declared all the Philippine ports open to commerce.
- December 19.—General Lawton was killed by a Filipino sharpshooter in a skirmish at San Mateo.

1900.

- February 18.—The President appointed a second Commission to the Philippines, with Judge Wm. H. Taft as president, and Henry C. Ide, Professor Bernard Moses, Professor Dean C. Worcester and General Luke E. Wright members. They superseded the military authority on the islands.
- March 31.—Chinese General Pana, in the Philippine army, surrendered to Brigadier-General Kablee, after a long career of brigandage and shocking cruelties in the province of Panay, Philippine Islands.
- April 3.—Captain Dodd with a squad of cavalry surprised 200 insurgents in Benguet Province and killed 53 and captured 44.
- April 7.—Twelve hundred Tagalos attacked Case's battalion headquarters of the Fortieth Regiment at Cagayau, Mindanao. A brisk fight followed, in which the Filipinos were repulsed, but not until fifteen of the Americans were severely wounded, some mortally.
- April 12.—The Porto Rico tariff and civil government bill became a law.
- April 17.—The second Philippine Commission sailed for Manila, with instructions to set up a civil government July 1.
- April 15-17.—A detachment of 31 men of the Forty-third U. S. V. Infantry was attacked by 600 Filipinos at Catubig, island of Samar, in which after sustaining a siege of two days, 19 Americans were killed and 6 wounded, but the remainder held out until Lieutenant Sweeney, with 10 men, came to their relief. 200 Filipinos were killed. Catubig is a seaport town of nearly 10,000 inhabitants.
- May 1.—Major-General Arthur MacArthur succeeded Major-General Elwell S. Otis as Military Governor of the Philippines. The latter returned to America.

