

A Concise History Of The UNITED STATES MARINE CORPS 1775-1969



**HISTORICAL DIVISION
HEADQUARTERS, U.S. MARINE CORPS
WASHINGTON, D.C.**



670

A CONCISE HISTORY
Of The
**UNITED STATES
MARINE CORPS**
1775-1969

By
Captain William D. Parker, USMCR



HISTORICAL DIVISION
HEADQUARTERS
UNITED STATES MARINE CORPS
WASHINGTON, D. C. 20380

1970

Library of Congress Card No. 74-608606

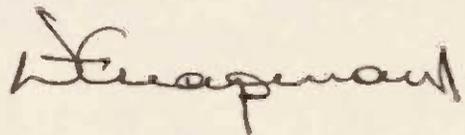
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PREFACE

Conceived and created in the pattern of European Marine forces of the 18th century, the United States Marine Corps has grown and developed in its nearly 200 years of existence into a unique military institution. Today, it furnishes the pattern by which many foreign Marine forces are shaped. In achieving this status, the Marine Corps has established an enviable reputation as a tough, reliable, disciplined, and combat-ready organization.

The Marine Corps owes its existence to the accomplishments of generations of officers and men who have served under its colors, the Marines who made its history. That history is an integral part of the sense of pride and tradition that pervades the present-day Marine Corps. Each of us holds in trust the deeds of those who manned the fighting tops of Continental frigates, who earned a new name for Belleau Wood in France, who stormed ashore through withering fire on many beaches of the Pacific, who fought their way to the sea against overwhelming odds in the bitter winter at the Chosin Reservoir, and who held the combat base at Khe Sanh against the North Vietnamese. For this reason, every Marine officer and enlisted man in his basic training is made aware of his military heritage.

For most Marines, and for many Americans, exposure to some facets of Marine Corps history leads to the desire to know more of the subject. The purpose of this monograph is to present in concise form the full sweep of that history through narrative, art, and photographs. It highlights significant events, and, for those whose interest is aroused, provides an extensive guide for further and more detailed reading. Most of all, this history provides an introduction to the brave and trusted men who gave our motto *Semper Fidelis* its meaning.



L. F. CHAPMAN, JR.
General, U.S. Marine Corps
Commandant of the Marine Corps.

Reviewed and approved:
23 April 1970.

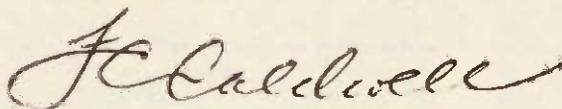
FOREWORD

This pamphlet supersedes a previous general history, *A Brief History of the United States Marine Corps*, which was first published in 1961 and last revised in 1964. In planning the new history, it was decided not only to expand the coverage to include Marine experiences in the decade of the 60s, particularly those in Vietnam, but also to publish a representative selection of illustrations and maps that would make the narrative more meaningful to the reader. The author, Captain William D. Parker, was encouraged to select a representative bibliography for further reading which would enhance the value of the history for the serious reader.

Like all publications of the Historical Division, this history was the product of a team effort with the author as the central figure. Captain Parker was responsible for many facets of its production besides his actual research and writing. He made the preliminary selection of many of the illustrations, supervised the preparation of the maps, and compiled the appendices. In addition to his active duty period with the Division during the summer of 1968, he spent many hours of his own time in the following months checking and revising his text.

While all manuscripts prepared in the Historical Division are subjected to a thorough intra-mural editing process by officer and civilian historian colleagues of the author, the lion's share of this work on the *Concise History* was done by Mr. Ralph W. Donnelly, Assistant Head, Reference Branch. The final editing and the work of preparing the manuscript for the printer was done by the Chief Historian and Head, Histories Branch, Mr. Henry I. Shaw, Jr. The many and exacting duties of processing the history from first draft through final printed form were handled by the Head, Administrative Branch, Captain Charles B. Collins, and his assistant, Mrs. Joyce E. Bonnett. The preliminary manuscript was typed by Miss Kay P. Sue and the printing manuscript by Sergeant Michael L. Gardner. Sergeant Kenneth W. White prepared the maps and charts. Unless otherwise noted, all illustrations are official Department of Defense (Marine Corps) photographs from the files of the Combat Pictorial Branch, G-3 Division of this Headquarters.

The Historical Division acknowledges with pleasure the courtesy of the Hawthorn Books, Incorporated for its permission to reproduce Mr. Gil Walker's sketch of historic Marine uniforms used on the cover of this monograph, which was taken from Lieutenant Colonels Philip N. Pierce's and Frank O. Hough's *A Compact History of the Marine Corps* (New York, 1960).



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INTRODUCTION

The United States Marine Corps today represents one of the most spirited and elite fighting forces ever assembled by any nation. From 1775 to the present, Marines have distinguished themselves during both war and peace. Their tradition and reputation to fight in any "clime and place" have won for them special recognition in the history of American military operations. Long before any official mission was established, the Marines were intimately acquainted with the process of ship-to-shore movement. Within the modern era, it was the Marine Corps which spearheaded the development of amphibious warfare in this country and brought continuity to the three-in-one force concept of sea, land, and air power.

While many Federal laws and directives have had a bearing on the organization and development of the Marine Corps, three Acts have been the most influential in its development. These are: (1) the Act of 11 July 1798, "Establishing and Organizing a Marine Corps"; (2) the Act of 30 June 1834, "For the Better Organization of the Marine Corps"; and (3) The National Security Act of 1947 as amended. Of the aforementioned Acts, it is the National Security Act of 1947 as amended (1952) which gives guidance for the present structure and function of the Marine Corps. Briefly, this Act sets forth the following provisions:

- (1) It reaffirms the Marine Corps' status as a Service within the Department of the Navy;
- (2) It provides for Fleet Marine Forces, ground and aviation;
- (3) It requires that the combatant forces of the Marine Corps be organized on the basis of three Marine divisions and three air wings, and sets a 400,000-man peacetime ceiling for the regular Corps;
- (4) It assigns the Marine Corps the missions of seizure and defense of advanced naval bases, as well as land operations incident to naval campaigns;
- (5) It gives the Marine Corps primary responsibility for development of amphibious warfare

doctrines, tactics, techniques, and equipment employed by landing forces;

- (6) It seats the Commandant of the Marine Corps in co-equal status with members of the Joint Chiefs of Staff whenever matters of Marine Corps interest are under consideration;
- (7) It affords the Marine Corps appropriate representation on various joint Defense Department agencies, notably the Joint Staff;
- (8) It assigns the Marine Corps collateral missions of providing security forces for naval shore stations; providing ships' detachments; and performing such other duties as the President may direct.

Since the enactment of the National Security Act of 1947, the Marine Corps has continuously performed its roles in the interest of national defense during times of war and crisis. From 1950 to 1953 the Marines fought in the mountainous terrain of Korea. In 1958 they landed in Lebanon to help the government restore order, and in 1962 they were prepared to land again during the Cuban missile crisis. When ominous signs developed in Southeast Asia, the Marine Corps stood ready for any eventuality. On 8 March 1965, the 9th Marine Expeditionary Brigade landed at Danang, South Vietnam, and the Marines began to help stem the tide of Communist aggression from the North. From April to June during the same year, the Marines were deployed ashore in the Dominican Republic to evacuate foreign nationals and take part in the inter-American peace keeping effort. Some of the Marines who took part in this action soon found themselves deployed once again, but this time in the jungle and rice paddies of the northern provinces of South Vietnam.

The challenge of Vietnam has posed one of the most severe tests of Marine Corps ingenuity. For it is there, more than in any other war, that the individual Marine has been called upon to be more than a fighter. To do his job well, he must combine the skill and cunning of a guerilla with that of the conventional tactician while maintaining the spirit of a humanitarian.

What might seem to be an impossible task was accepted with the same spirit and determination that has marked the long and proud tradition of the Marine Corps. In order for the Marines to meet the demands of "a different kind of war," their basic objective was fourfold: (1) To defend and provide security to the base areas from which they would operate; (2) To find, fight, and destroy the Communist main-force units, whether guerrillas or conventional North Vietnamese Army forces; (3) To extend the area under positive government control, to root out the Viet Cong infrastructure, and provide a

screen of security; (4) Behind this screen of security, to assist the Vietnamese in an organized program of "Revolutionary Development" (nation-building). It is in this latter capacity that the Marine Corps has become one of the strongest champions of pacification.

As long as the Communists practice a policy of aggression, limited or otherwise, which threatens the security of the free world, the Marine Corps stands prepared to answer such aggression at the discretion of the President. Thus, the Marine Corps remains a *force in readiness*.

PART I

THE BEGINNING

1775-1783

On 10 November 1775, a resolution of the Continental Congress formally established a military organization whose fame and tradition was destined to achieve prominence in the annals of American warfare. This Congressional resolution reads in part:

Resolved, that two Battalions of marines be raised, consisting of one Colonel, two Lieutenant Colonels, two Majors and other officers as usual in other regiments; and that they consist of an equal number of privates with other battalions; that particular care be taken, that no persons be appointed to office, or inlisted into said Battalions, but such as are good seamen, or so acquainted with maritime affairs as to be able to serve to advantage by sea when required: that they be inlisted and commissioned to serve for and during the present war between Great Britain and the colonies, unless dismissed by order of Congress: that they be distinguished by the names of the first and second battalions of American Marines. . . .

This resolution, sponsored by John Adams and enacted by Congress, established the Continental Marines and marked the birth date of the United States Marine Corps.

Prior to the American Revolution, able-bodied men from the colonies served as Marines in support of British operations. In this capacity, four colonial battalions were raised in 1740 to fight in England's war with Spain. These battalions, designated as the 43rd Regiment of Foot with approximately 3,000 men under the leadership of Colonel William Gooch, eventually became known as "Gooch's Marines." Serving under British Admiral Edward Vernon, Colonel Gooch led his Marines in battle and was wounded at Cartagena, Colombia during April 1741. In July of the same year, the Marines landed unopposed at Guantanamo (then known as Walthenham) Bay, Cuba, to secure a base for the British fleet.

During the Seven Years' War which began in the colonies in 1754, colonials again served

as Marines in support of the British against the French. By the end of the war in North America, colonial Marines had established themselves in the naval scheme of things. On every fighting ship, Marine detachments were present in support of both land and sea operations. During sea fights, Marines headed boarding parties and fought from the tops and rigging as sharpshooters and grenadiers. These same Marines were also used as the spearhead and backbone of any landing force.

During the decade from the end of the Seven Years' War to the eve of the American Revolution, events would cause the American colonials to confront the British in battle. The first clashes, a year before the Declaration of Independence, took place at Lexington and Concord in April 1775. A month later, on 13 May 1775, three days after the capture of Fort Ticonderoga and Crown Point, information was received at Hartford, Connecticut, saying that "the garrison at Ticonderoga [was] in a feeble state," and that "men and money" were desperately needed. The Continental Congress, sitting at Philadelphia, also received appeals for assistance from these two garrisons, and resolved "that the Governor of Connecticut be requested to send a strong reinforcement to those garrisons." With this request, a reinforcing expedition was immediately organized and soon left Hartford, Connecticut for the besieged garrisons. With the expedition was "money escorted with eight Marines" of Connecticut "well spirited and equipped." At Albany additional troops joined the expedition which soon arrived at Ticonderoga after passing through territory infested by hostile Indians and treacherous renegades. The state Marines who were a part of the reinforcing expedition have traditionally become known as the "Original Eight." Marines such as the "Original Eight" and others saw service on



New Englanders serving as Marines man the guns of the American fleet on Lake Champlain during 1775-76. Painting by H. Charles McBarron. (USMC Photo #308622).

American armed vessels operating to retain control of Lake Champlain in the summer and fall of 1775.

During October 1775, Congress directed General George Washington to secure two armed vessels from Massachusetts, place them on the "Continental risque and pay," and use them to capture two unescorted ships loaded with munitions of war that had sailed from England. He was also instructed to give orders for the "proper encouragement to the Marines and seamen" who served on the Massachusetts vessels. Records indicate that this was the first time the Continental Congress ever mentioned "Marines." In the same month, on 13 October, Congress also directed that two war vessels be fitted out. This, too, was the first legislation regarding the Navy, and it applied to the Marines as well since they would serve as a part of ships' companies. With the Congressional resolution which established the Con-

tinental Marines and the directives that called to arms the Navy, the Marines became an integral part of the American Navy during the American Revolution.

Marines in the American Revolution

There were three types of Marines serving during the American Revolution: Continental or Regular Marines, Marines of the state navies, and Marines of the privateers. It was, however, the Continental Marines who were officially charged by the Continental Congress with fulfilling a military role in the fight for independence.

On 28 November 1775, Samuel Nicholas of Philadelphia, owner of the Conestoga Wagon Inn, was commissioned a captain in the Continental Marines and was charged with raising a force of Marines as provided by Congress. Samuel Nicholas remained the senior Marine

officer throughout the American Revolution and is traditionally considered to be the first Marine Commandant. Others were also appointed as Marine officers, including Robert Mullan, the robust innkeeper of Philadelphia's Tun Tavern. It is reputed that because of Mullan's ability as a recruiter, and the fact that Tun Tavern served as the initial focal point for enlistment efforts, he was commissioned a captain.

On 3 December 1775, the U. S. frigate *Alfred* went into commission with Captain Nicholas commanding her Marines. Three months later, on 3 March 1776, 220 Marines and 50 seamen, under the command of Nicholas, landed on New Providence Island of the Bahama Group. The raiding party occupied two forts (Montague and Nassau), took possession of the Government House and Nassau town, and reembarked on 16 March with captured guns and supplies that were ultimately used by the Continental Army. Returning home on 6 April, ships under the command of Commodore Esek Hopkins engaged in the first naval battle by an American squadron. The American *Cabot* and *Alfred* fought the British frigate *Glasgow*. During this engagement, the *Glasgow* was able to escape but not without losses, and the Marines had their first officer killed in action, John Fitzpatrick, along with six other Marines. From April to December, the Marines were principally involved in actions which were being carried out by the Continental Navy.

During December 1776, approximately 300 Marines who had been organized into a battalion under Nicholas, who had been promoted to major, joined General Washington's Army prior to the Battle of Trenton. Although the Marines did not participate in the initial Battle of Trenton, remaining on the Pennsylvania side of the Delaware River as a reserve force, records indicate that this was the first instance in which regular Marines joined the Army and served as a part of it. While serving with the Army, the Marines provided both infantry and artillery personnel.

On 2 January 1777, the Marines under the command of Major Nicholas participated in the second Battle of Trenton (Assunpink), where they were able to slip through Lord Cornwallis' lines by the ruse of false campfires at night. On the next day Major Nicholas, Captain William Shippin, and Captain William Brown with the Marines under their respective commands participated in the Battle of Prince-

ton. The combined forces under General Washington attacked the British flank and rear, scoring an impressive victory. Later, Major Nicholas' battalion accompanied General Washington's Army to its winter camp at Morristown, New Jersey where it served through the severe winter months. When General Washington reorganized his Army in the spring of 1777, some Marines entered his artillery force while the remainder returned to their naval duties. Throughout the rest of the year, the most notable accomplishments of the Marines centered on the defense of Fort Mifflin and the Delaware River operations of October and November 1777. These tenacious efforts handicapped the British fleet from supporting and reinforcing British ground units active in and around Philadelphia.

On 10 January 1778, Captain James Willing left Fort Pitt with a small company of Marines aboard an old boat, which he had armed and renamed the *Rattletrap*. Proceeding down the Mississippi and raiding British traders along the way, the Marine unit arrived at New Orleans in March and reported to the American Commercial Agent. These Marines operated around New Orleans until 1779, at which time they returned north up the Mississippi under the command of Lieutenant Robert George who reported to General George Rogers Clark to participate in his campaign against hostile Indians. While Captain Willing and his company of Marines were heading for New Orleans, a force of 28 Marines and sailors under the command of Marine Captain John Trevelt landed at New Providence in the Bahama Islands and occupied its main fort. With the town captured, the newly adopted Stars and Stripes (authorized by Congress on 14 June 1777) was raised over a foreign fortification for the first time.

John Paul Jones, who favored Marines because of their value as naval fighting men, carried a large number of them on board his ship, the *Ranger*. Captain Matthew Parke and Lieutenant Samuel Wallingford were the Marine officers on board the *Ranger* when it ended a cruise at Brest (Quiberon Bay), France on 14 February 1778, and the Stars and Stripes received the first salute ever fired in its honor by any foreign power. During April of the same year, Marines on board the *Ranger* took part in two raids on British soil. These raids were conducted at Whitehaven and St. Mary's Isle. Within twenty-four hours after the raids, on 24 April, the *Ranger* engaged the British sloop



Continental Marines, under Captain Samuel Nicholas, storm Fort Montagu, New Providence Island on 3 March 1776. Painting by Colonel Donald L. Dickson. (USMC Photo #523397).

Drake and defeated her in battle. Lieutenant Wallingford of the Marine detachment was the only American officer killed during this hard-fought action.

On 24 September 1779, John Paul Jones, in command of the *Bonhomme Richard* (manned by both French and American sailors), engaged the British frigate *Serapis* off Flamborough Head on the east coast of England. In this famous sea battle, where Jones made his reply to Captain Pearson, "I have not yet begun to fight," Marines delivered devastating fire from the tops and rigging which cleared the weather deck of the *Serapis*. Although the *Bonhomme Richard* was out-manned and out-gunned, a grenade thrown from the rigging entered a hatch of the British frigate, ignited powder on the main gun

deck, and set off an explosion that contributed to the *Serapis'* defeat.

During July and August 1778, a joint Army-Navy force comprised of New England militia and naval vessels along with Continental ships, engaged in an expedition to seize a British fort which had been established at Penobscot Bay, Maine. Although the intervention of a superior British squadron prevented the successful accomplishment of the assigned mission, the force of slightly over 300 Marines who had participated in the operation under the command of Captain John Welsh of the *Warren* performed admirably. They executed two successful assault landings, capturing Banks Island on 26 July and storming Bagaduce Heights on 28 July. Though the latter engagement required the as-

cent up a steep bank against heavy British musket fire, the Marines who spearheaded the landing force were able to gain the heights and drive back the defenders. The fort was besieged but never taken, because on 14 April, a British rescue fleet arrived and the American ships were all run ashore or scuttled. The expedition members had to find their way back to Boston through thick forests. Although the Penobscot venture ended unsuccessfully, the Marines were commended for their "forcible charge on the enemy."

Later in the war, in May 1780, about 200 Marines and sailors of Commodore Abraham Wipple's squadron landed and assisted General Benjamin Lincoln's army in the unsuccessful defense of Charleston, South Carolina. Colonel John Laurens was placed in command of the combined force of Marines of the squadron. The Marines of the South Carolina state frigate *South Carolina* were sent to the Island of Jersey

in the English Channel on an expedition in the winter of 1780-1781. On 8 May 1782, 300 Marines on the *South Carolina* assisted in the capture of the Bahama Islands for Spain. In January of 1783, Marines serving aboard the *Hague* were involved in the capture of the British ship *Baille* in the West Indies. This capture represented the last significant prize taken at sea during the American Revolution.

On 11 April 1783, the Treaty of Paris brought an end to the American Revolutionary War. The United States on that date had only the *Alliance*, *Hague*, *General Washington*, *Duc de Lauzen*, and *Bourbon* left of the regular Navy. The *Duc de Lauzen*, *Hague*, and *Bourbon* were sold during 1783 and on 3 June 1785, Congress authorized the Board of Treasury to sell the *Alliance*, the last of the Navy's ships. With the sale of the *Alliance*, the Continental Navy and Marines went out of existence.

PART II

ESTABLISHING THE UNITED STATES MARINE CORPS 1798-1835

When the First Congress assembled in 1789 in New York, the United States had no navy. While a number of the states owned small cruisers, not one public armed vessel was owned by the new Republic. At the first Congressional session, after ratification of the Constitution by the states, the legal basis was then established for the Armed Forces of the United States. Although the revenue cutter service, forerunner of the U. S. Coast Guard, was organized in 1790 under the Treasury Department, it was not until 1794 that Congress took action to reactivate the regular Navy. A Congressional Act of 27 March 1794 provided for the construction of six frigates, each of which was to carry Marines. None of the authorized ships was built immediately even though the War Department, which was charged with matters relating to "military or naval affairs," was anxious to get vessels afloat as a result of impending trouble with the Barbary States.

On 20 April 1796, Congress authorized the construction of three of the frigates, the *United States*, *Constellation*, and *Constitution*. All three of these ships were launched during 1797 and carried Marine detachments. The number of Marines provided for service on board the ships was established in the Congressional Act of 1 July 1797. This Act provided for 5 lieutenants, 8 sergeants, 8 corporals, 3 drummers, 3 fifers, and 140 privates; a total of 167 Marines. The Marines who served on board ships at this time were considered a part of the ships' crews and as such a part of the Navy since there was no formally organized Marine Corps.

Secretary of War James McHenry was the first to recommend to Congressman Samuel Sewall, in a letter dated 9 April 1798, that an organization of Marines be formally established. Although Congress deferred immediate action on Secretary McHenry's suggestion, the Con-

gressional Act of 30 April divided the War Department into a Navy Department and a War Department. President John Adams approved a bill initiated by Congress which formally established the United States Marine Corps on 11 July 1798. Initially, the Marine Corps was placed under the direct orders of the President, and thus became the "Presidential Troops." They were to be a part of either the Army or Navy "according to the nature of the service in which they shall be employed." This part of the law created an "ambiguous jurisdiction" as to whether the Marines were under the Army or Navy when operating ashore. This continued until 1834, when Congress settled the matter by establishing that the Marine Corps belonged to the Navy unless the President ordered part of it to be temporarily under control of the Army.

President John Adams appointed William Ward Burrows to be the first Commandant of the United States Marine Corps on 12 July 1798. Major Burrows initially established his headquarters in Philadelphia, then the nation's capital. Two years later, in July of 1800, the newly promoted Lieutenant Colonel Burrows moved Marine Headquarters to Washington, D.C., where the capital had been relocated, and by 1806, Marine Barracks Washington (8th and I Streets, S.E.) was completed. It is at that same address that the Marine Corps Commandant makes his home today.

On the same day the Corps was established, 11 July 1798, the Marine Band also came into existence. The Congress provided for a drum major, a fife major, and 32 drummers and fifers, to be a part of the Corps. In January 1799, William Farr was appointed as the first drum major, and within a short time this group of musicians became extremely popular in the Washington area. The Marine Band played at

so many official receptions and functions that it became known as the "President's Own."

Small Wars

President Adams was aware that America could not call herself a Nation unless she could protect her commerce against French privateers who were attempting to block shipping trade with Great Britain. French seizure of American ships and failure to recognize the rights of American neutrality initiated a situation which led to the "undeclared" Naval War with France on 28 May 1798. During this war, Marines served on board the many federal vessels placed in commission and thus participated in all engagements afloat. Marines also engaged in land action on foreign soil and were charged with the responsibility of guarding French prisoners being held at Philadelphia.

Marines on board the USS *Constellation*, under the command of Lieutenant Bartholomew Clinch, played a prominent role in the capture of the French frigate *Insurgente* during 1799. In the following year, the same ship participated in the five-hour night battle which led to the destruction of the French ship *Vengeance*. Marines participated in other naval operations during the war. On 31 October 1799, an attack of the Haitian picaroons (pirates) commanded by the mulatto chieftain Rigaud on an armed barge was repulsed by the musketry fire of the *Norfolk's* Marines; on 1 January 1800, the Marines of the *Experiment* participated in the defense of their ship lying near St. Marc, Haiti, against a heavy attack of about 500 of Rigaud's picaroons; early in March of the same year, the *Boston* engaged and destroyed a large number of Rigaud's barges, with Marines rendering assistance in the operation.

One of the most noteworthy actions occurred on 11 May 1800, when a group of sailors from the *Constitution*, and its Marine detachment, commanded by Captain Daniel Carmick, seized the captured British ship *Sandwich* which was held by the French in Puerto Plata, on the north coast of Santo Domingo. Captain Carmick's Marines and a number of sailors transferred to the sloop *Sally*, and in a maneuver calling to mind the wooden horse of Troy, took over the *Sandwich*, captured the local fort, spiked all the cannon, and sailed away with the *Sandwich*, accompanied by the *Sally*.

On 23 September 1800, the Marines of the *Patapsco*, reinforced with 20 Marines of First Lieutenant David Stickney's guard of the *Mer-*

rimac, took part in a battle with the French who had partially occupied the Dutch Island of Curacao. The next day, the Marines from the *Patapsco* landed and assisted the Dutch in defending Willemstad. The USS *Enterprise*, which carried a detachment of 16 Marines, was one of the Navy's most successful ships during the Naval War with France. During the year 1800, she defeated or captured 10 enemy vessels and recaptured 11 American ships. In these battles, the Marines were instrumental in assuring victory by their delivery of deadly small arms fire from the fighting tops.

During May 1801, Marines escorted French prisoners taken from captured ships from Frederick, Maryland to Washington. The Commandant of the Marine Corps made arrangements to transport the 69 French prisoners of war from Washington to New York on the merchant-sloop *Hilliard*. When the vessel sailed on 18 May, a Marine Guard detachment was assigned as a guard for the prisoners. With this duty completed and the Naval War ending in 1801, the Marine Corps had compiled a successful record in defense of the Nation against an intruding foreign power. One year later, 1802, President Thomas Jefferson, who advocated a policy of economy and reduction of the national debt, ordered the selling of naval vessels, stopped new construction of ships, discharged every naval constructor, and had most of the retained frigates dismantled to save expense. President Jefferson also directed that the Secretary of the Navy, Robert Smith, reduce the enlisted strength of the Marine Corps to about 450 men. Due to this economy measure, the Marine Corps entered the Tripolitan War in the Mediterranean with a much reduced force.

O'Bannon At Tripoli

By the time Thomas Jefferson became President (March 1801), nearly two million dollars, one-fifth of the annual revenue, had been paid to the Moslem states of Morocco, Tunis, Algiers, and Tripoli. This money had been extorted either as ransom for prisoners or in return for permitting American merchant ships to sail the Mediterranean. President Jefferson, having reduced the Navy considerably, began looking around for profitable employment of the warships remaining afloat. He was assisted in his quest by the Bashaw of Tripoli, who, feeling that he was not receiving enough tribute money, declared war on the United States in May 1801. In June 1801, Commodore Richard Dale's

squadron of four ships sailed from Hampton Roads for Tripoli, carrying about 180 Marines in the guards of the ships. The Mediterranean Squadron arrived on station to protect American merchant ships in the area, but Commodore Dale's force proved too weak to deal effectively with the Barbary Corsairs. During the next two years, Tripolitan pirates captured several merchant ships and harassed others throughout the area. On 31 October 1803, the frigate *Philadelphia* grounded on a reef off Tripoli, from which the enemy floated her free. The Bashaw imprisoned Captain Bainbridge and his crew, which included 44 Marines, and would have equipped the frigate for his own navy had it not been for the daring exploit of Lieutenant Stephan Decatur, USN. On the night of 16 February 1804, Lieutenant Decatur with a complement of men, eight of whom were Marines under the command of Sergeant Solomon Wren, sailed in the captured ketch *Intrepid* into the harbor at Tripoli. In a bold move, the raiding party boarded the captured *Philadelphia*, overpowered the pirate crew, and burned the ship to the water line. By the time the noise and flames of battle aroused the waterfront inhabitants, the raiding party had returned to its own craft and made a safe departure.

Of the many exploits of the Tripolitan War, one of the most extraordinary and courageous was carried out by a former Army officer named William Eaton, American Consul at Tunis, with the assistance of Marine Lieutenant Presley N. O'Bannon. Eaton had acquired a deep disgust for the pirate prince of Tripoli, Yusuf Karamali, who had succeeded to that position by treacherous dealings prior to the outbreak of the war. Yusuf, the youngest of three sons, had murdered his older brother and taken control in the absence of Hamet, the next in line. Hamet had fled from his younger brother's wrath and taken refuge first in Tunis and then in Egypt. It was Eaton's plan to find Hamet and persuade him to return home and take over his rightful place on the throne. In order to accomplish this feat, Eaton, at Alexandria, collected a force composed of 9 members of the U. S. Navy and Marine Corps, 40 Greeks, a squadron of Arab cavalry, 100 Turks and other mercenaries, and a caravan of camels. During February 1805, Eaton, Hamet, and O'Bannon left Egypt with their motley expeditionary force on a 600-mile march across the Libyan desert to Derne.

After seven weeks of strife-torn marching, the



In a contemporary woodcut, American Consul Cyrus Eaton is shown leading the march on Derne, Tripoli, in 1805, with the Marines of Lieutenant Presley O'Bannon's detachment in the background. (USMC Photo #514633).

force finally reached its objective. The plan of attack was for Hamet and his Arabs to assault the governor's castle; the Marines, Greeks, and Turks would take the harbor fort; the Navy would provide offshore bombardment. As in many combined operations, things got off to a bad start. Artillery and naval gunfire were to pound the garrison into submission, but failed to do so. Hamet and his Arabs held back in the initial attack. When the guns of the fort were silenced, defenders within the city continued firing. The situation was desperate, as enemy reinforcements were known to be approaching. Eaton knew that he had to capture the town before they arrived. Upon Eaton's orders, O'Bannon's troops withdrew slightly and together with Eaton's small force formed for a charge against the town. With boldness they assaulted their objective and drove the defenders back. O'Bannon and his Marines seized the har-

bor fort and raised the Stars and Stripes for the first time in that part of the world. The Marines then turned the unspiked guns of the fort on the governor's castle. This act demoralized the defenders of the town, and they promptly began to retreat. Hamet then advanced and captured the castle. In spite of the several reversals, Derne was completely in the hands of Eaton's forces within two hours from the beginning of the attack, with the result that most of the inhabitants promptly declared their allegiance to Hamet. The attacking force had lost thirteen, including two Marines: Private John Whitten was killed and Private Edward Steward later died of his wounds. The success of Eaton's military venture ultimately led to a favorable treaty with Tripoli.

As a result of Lieutenant O'Bannon's heroism in the battle for Derne, it is said that Hamet presented O'Bannon with a sword which he had carried while living with the Mamelukes in Egypt. Traditionally, this same sword served as the pattern for the later "Mameluke sword" which is presently carried by Marine Officers.

In the year 1811, Marines commanded by Captain John Williams operated with the Navy, Army, and Georgia volunteers in East Florida, participating in the so-called Patriots' War. Although Florida was at the time a Spanish possession, the United States Government feared that Great Britain was about to take possession of East Florida. The situation was complicated by the fact that our non-importation laws had resulted in a considerable smuggling trade of British goods from East Florida into Georgia. Amelia Island, off the coast of Florida, was being used as the major haven for the smugglers.

When Congress authorized steps to be taken regarding the possible seizure of East Florida, the Navy sent a number of gunboats to the vicinity—ostensibly to break up the smuggling trade. A detachment of 2 officers and 47 Marines went on the ship *Enterprise* to assist in the operations. On 4 May during the same year, Marines established a regular garrison at Cumberland Island, just off the coast of southeastern Georgia. Later, on 17 March 1812, American gunboats under Commodore Hugh Campbell, along with Marine and Army personnel, assisted local patriots, who had been organized and armed in Georgia and induced to fight by promises of land grants, in the capture of Fernandina on Amelia Island. As soon as the patriots had taken the garrison, held by 10 Spanish soldiers, Army and

Marine personnel occupied the island. The patriots, followed by the Army troops, then advanced by marching and in boats furnished by the Navy on St. Augustine, leaving the Marines to hold Amelia.

Shortly thereafter, the Army and the patriots found themselves involved with maintaining a difficult line of communications through hostile Indian country and called upon Captain Williams' Marines to escort wagon trains and other convoys en route to their advanced position near St. Augustine. On 12 September 1812, while conveying a wagon train and some volunteer troops, Captain Williams and his men were ambushed by a large band of Indians. This action resulted in one member of the detachment being killed and scalped by the Indians and the wounding of seven others. Captain Williams was wounded eight times during the fight and later died on 29 September. As a result of Williams' death, Lieutenant Alexander Sevier assumed command of the Marines and continued to fight the Indians in other engagements during the remainder of the year. By this time, the War of 1812 had begun, but Lieutenant Sevier and his men stayed on in East Florida until 13 May 1813, at which time they withdrew by sea and returned to Washington in time to take part in the effort to save the capital.

The War Of 1812

When war was declared against Great Britain on 18 June 1812, the United States military services were ill-equipped and undermanned for such an encounter. As of 30 June 1812, the total of all U.S. military personnel stood at 12,631, with the Marine Corps having 10 officers and 483 enlisted men. Since the U.S. Navy included only three first-class warships (the *President*, the *United States*, and the *Constitution*), along with a few other serviceable vessels, it was decided to scatter and to harass the British by raiding their ships of commerce and whenever possible to engage single war vessels.

The first year of the war was fought mostly along the Canadian frontier and resulted in numerous disasters for the American forces. During the same year, 1812, an army was organized in the West under General William H. Harrison, but failed to win any significant victories. Eventually it became evident to the Administration that the military defeats being suffered were due largely to the British domination of the Great Lakes. President James Madison saw



Marines of the USS *Wasp* are shown in action against HMS *Reindeer* in 1814. Painting by Sergeant John Clymer. (USMC Photo #515040).

that control would have to be gained over Lakes Erie and Ontario or the situation would become progressively worse. As a result of this urgent need, the Navy, in the summer and fall of 1812, began accumulating materials for the construction of vessels to be used on both lakes and in other areas. Commodore Isaac Chauncey was placed in command of the naval forces on the lakes and established a base at Sacketts Harbor on the eastern end of Lake Ontario. The Navy also established a base on Lake Erie, where Commodore Oliver H. Perry rapidly began building a squadron, which he later used effectively against British shipping in the area.

The Marines' participation in the War of 1812 was both on land and on board vessels serving on the lakes and on the high seas. Many of the ships' detachments of the lake squadrons, however, were augmented with volunteers from the Army due to the shortage of Marine personnel. On 10 September 1813, Marines were on board Commodore Perry's ships that successfully defeated the British in the Battle of Lake Erie. In this first fleet engagement of the war, Perry's squadron sought out British ships operating in the area, took them under fire, and completely

destroyed the British capability of controlling Lake Erie. With the support of Perry's squadron, General William H. Harrison's army later crossed over into Canada near Detroit and defeated the British and Indians in the Battle of the Thames and soon afterwards regained control of Michigan Territory.

On the high seas, United States vessels scored decisive victories in many of their battles with British ships. During the first year of the war, the *Constitution* destroyed the *Guerriere* off Nova Scotia on 19 August; the *United States* captured the *Macedonian* off the Madeira Islands on 25 October; and on 28 December 1812, the *Constitution* destroyed the *Java* off Brazil and received the name of "Old Ironsides." In all of these battles, Marines performed their duties in a creditable manner. They led and supported boarding parties during the engagements and delivered deadly musket fire on the enemy which contributed to overall success.

One of the most unusual and heroic adventures of a Marine during the war was that of Lieutenant John Marshall Gamble. Lieutenant Gamble, with 31 Marines, sailed with Captain David Porter on board the *Essex* on 22 October

1812, and his eventual odyssey prevented his return to the United States until August 1815. The *Essex*, after a successful encounter and capture of a British vessel, arrived in the Pacific at the Galapagos Islands in April 1813. There Captain Porter found and captured three British whaling ships. Having brought along extra crew, Porter refitted the captured ships and manned them for combat. One of the captured vessels, the *Greenwich*, was put under the command of Lieutenant Gamble with a crew of 14 men. During July 1813, while cruising near the Galapagos Group, Gamble engaged a British armed whaler and won a decisive victory. In spite of the fact that he was a Marine officer, Gamble maneuvered the *Greenwich* according to the best principles of naval tactics, frustrated all of the enemy's efforts to escape, and, after delivering a few effective broadsides, forced his adversary to strike his colors. Gamble's prize proved to be the *Seringapatam*—the terror of all American whalers in the Pacific.

During the following year, 1813, the Navy was not so successful in her engagements on the high seas. Although the *Hornet* and *Enterprise* were able to win victories over British ships, this was not accomplished without considerable loss of men and damage to the American ships. One of the most disastrous encounters occurred on 1 June when the *Chesapeake* engaged the British ship *Shannon* off Boston. Although the American ships previously commanded by Captain James Lawrence had been successful in several engagements with the British, his newly acquired and inexperienced crew aboard the *Chesapeake* was no match for the *Shannon*. Shortly after the battle began, the British were able to board the *Chesapeake* and subdue her crew. In this engagement, Captain Lawrence was mortally wounded and while dying uttered his famous expression: "Don't give up the ship!"

During October of the same year, Porter established a base from which to operate at Nukuhiva in the Marquesa Islands. After repairing his ships and resting his men, Porter set sail for other conquests, leaving Gamble with a number of men, supplies, and three vessels to maintain the fortification during his absence. Captain Porter and his crew never returned to Nukuhiva, because, during the early months of 1814, he and his men were defeated in battle near Valparaiso and were taken prisoner by the British. Soon after Porter had left on his voyage, Lieutenant Gamble was beset with difficulty.

Hostile natives and mutinous personnel forced him, along with the few Marines he had and some trusted sailors, to give up the garrison and flee for his life.

After 15 days at sea on board the *Sir Andrew Hammond*, Gamble and his small crew reached the Sandwich (Hawaiian) Islands. Landing on one of the islands, he was received by friendly natives and traders who helped him and his crew refit the ship. At the request of the local chiefs, Gamble agreed to take a number of the leading natives with their tribute to a neighboring island where the king resided. While en route to carry out this friendly mission, they encountered the *Cherub*, one of the British vessels that had defeated Porter at Valparaiso. Escape was impossible, and having no means of resistance, Gamble surrendered. Lieutenant Gamble and his men thereafter remained prisoners of the British until the end of the war. When released, Gamble finally made his way back to the United States and reached New York in August 1815. He was promoted to major and later lieutenant colonel for his heroic services, and he remained in the Corps until his retirement in 1834.

Two of the most notable land actions in which the Marines took part during the war were the Battle of Bladensburg and the Battle of New Orleans. In a vain attempt to block the British advance on Washington, Marines under the command of Captain Sam Miller and sailors under the command of Commodore Joshua Barney fought alongside Army units, predominately militia, at Bladensburg on 24 August 1814. Although most of the militia performed poorly during the engagement, the Marines and sailors fought a gallant fight until completely overwhelmed by a superior British force. After the British had completely crushed all resistance along the Bladensburg road, they eventually took possession of the national capital, burned a number of public buildings, and then retired to their vessels in the Chesapeake Bay.

Ironically, one of the worst defeats suffered by the British ashore happened after the Peace of Ghent had been signed, which ended the War of 1812. On 8 August 1814, peace discussions began at Ghent, Belgium, with John Quincy Adams, Henry Clay, James A. Bayard, Jonathan Russell, and Albert Gallatin representing the United States. After long and deliberate discussions, the peace treaty was signed on 14 December of the same year. While the Treaty of

Ghent was being slowly borne homeward by the stormy winds of the Atlantic, General Andrew Jackson prepared for the Battle of New Orleans. When the fighting began on 1 January 1815, Marines under the command of Major Daniel Carmick and Lieutenant Francis B. de Bellevue were serving in Jackson's Army, which was made up of almost every kind of hastily thrown-together military unit. Even Jean Lafitte's pirates held a sector in Jackson's line of defense. When the British soldiers, in heavy columns, wearing their full equipment and carrying scaling ladders, attacked Jackson's defensive position, their resounding defeat became only a matter of time. The battle was over by the following day, and the British had lost approximately 2,000 men. American losses were less than 100. Although the total number of Marines that took part in the defense of New Orleans was not large, they fought gallantly while under fire and were highly commended for their services by Jackson and by Congress.

Postwar Activities Of The Corps

After the War of 1812, approximately three decades of peace followed. The general unpopularity of that war had made the American people more determined than ever to mind their own affairs and to have no more wars such as the one they had just passed through. This attitude, along with other considerations, was responsible for a reduction of American military forces following the war. In 1817, there were only 14 officers and 652 enlisted men on the rolls of the Marine Corps, but this small complement was quite active.

The Marine Corps was continually called upon to perform a variety of duties in widely dispersed locations. The Marines participated, as a part of the Mediterranean squadron, in the war with the Algerian pirates (March-June 1815). Other Marines served as members of joint Army-Navy operations fighting the pirates and Indians in Florida. In 1818, Marines landed in Oregon and conducted a flag-raising ceremony which furthered United States claims to that western territory. At different times from 1817 to 1821 Marines ships' detachments protected American lives and interests in Haiti.

During the period from 1815 to 1825, piracy in the Caribbean area assumed major proportions. Many American ships were lost to these predators, and a number of American sailors were murdered or forced into service with the

pirates. Throughout that decade, the suppression of pirates in the Caribbean area was a major function of the U. S. Navy and Marine Corps. In the spring and summer of 1822, the Marines made landings from several Navy ships on the coast of Cuba in pursuit of pirates who had been preying on United States shipping. Two years later, in 1824, other Marines landed in Puerto Rico to avenge an insult by local officials to the American flag. In 1825, Marines from the *Grampus* went ashore on a mercy mission in the Virgin Islands to help fight a fire which was threatening to destroy St. Thomas.

The year 1832 opened with the Marines landing in the Falkland Islands to protect American lives and property. During the next month, February, an expedition of Marines and sailors successfully attacked Quallah Battoo in Sumatra to punish native harassment of American shipping. The Sumatrans did not learn their lesson well, and several repeat visits were necessary. Within the next few years, parties of Marines and sailors landed in Argentina, Peru, and several islands of the South Seas, each time to protect American lives and property.

On the home front, Marines from the Boston Navy Yard provided considerable assistance during the Boston fire of 1824. A few years later, in 1833, they quelled a riot in Charlestown, Massachusetts, when about 300 inmates of the state prison became uncontrollable. The warden requested assistance from the Marines and a small detachment was sent to the prison. Shortly after the Marines appeared on the scene, the riot ended without a shot having been fired. As a result of this prompt aid, the Marines were praised for their courage and resourcefulness. Other domestic assistance was provided on 19 July 1835, when a detachment of Marines from the New York Barracks assisted in fighting a large fire in New York City.

In 1820, the Marine Corps came under the direction of one of its most forceful Commandants, Archibald Henderson. Henderson, a native of Virginia, was appointed the 5th Commandant of the Marine Corps at the age of 38 and began a tenure in office which was to span a period of 39 years (1829-1859), the longest of any Commandant. He had been in the Marine Corps since 1806 and had acquired a variety of experience. Henderson introduced higher standards throughout the Corps in personal appearance, training, and discipline and carried out rigid inspections to ensure the prompt execution of

his orders. He rose to the rank of Brigadier General (brevet rank) and served under 10 Presidents while Commandant of the Corps. As a re-

sult of his positive contributions, Henderson is often referred to as the "grand old man of the Corps."

PART III

FROM THE INDIAN WARS TO HARPER'S FERRY 1835-1860

An "Act for the Better Organization of the Marine Corps" was passed by Congress on 30 June 1834. This Act firmly established that the Marine Corps would be a part of the Naval Establishment, ashore or afloat, except when detached for service with the Army by order of the President. Such an order was issued by President Andrew Jackson during the Indian Wars (1835-1842).

Shortly after the transfer of Florida to the United States (Transcontinental Treaty with Spain in 1819), land-hungry emigrants from the near-by states began to move into that new territory and encroach upon the domains claimed by the Seminole Indians. With this development, the Seminoles soon began to retaliate by attacks on the settlers. Arrangements had previously been made to transfer all Indian tribes from the southeastern states to reservations west of the Mississippi River, and the Seminoles in Florida finally agreed in 1832 to move. Attempts to carry out this emigration scheme embittered the Indians. After two years' delay, General Wiley Thompson went to Florida with a force of troops to ensure removal of the Seminoles. During the negotiations with Osceola, the Seminole leader, General Thompson imprisoned him and put him in irons for a day. Osceola, enraged by this act and seeking revenge, incited the Seminoles to such an extent that they started a war which lasted for nearly seven years.

The actual fighting between the military forces and the Seminoles broke out in December 1835. At that time, the West India Squadron, under Commodore Alexander J. Dallas, was ordered to cooperate with all available men and ships and help suppress the Seminole uprising. The Marines of the ships of the squadron soon became engaged in many phases of the war. A detachment of Marines and sailors from the *Constellation* and *St. Louis* were put under the command of Lieutenant Nathaniel S. Waldron

and sent to garrison Fort Brooke, which was located at the head of Tampa Bay, Florida, until additional Army forces arrived. Lieutenant Waldron and his men arrived at the fort just in time to help ward off a serious Indian attack (22 January 1836). During the early months of 1836, General Winfield Scott arrived in Florida and assumed command of the military forces. In one of Scott's operations along the Withlacoochie River during March 1836, the Marines under Lieutenant Waldron took part in several fights with the Indians. During the same year, other Marines on board vessels of the West India Squadron were called upon many times to support the Army and to protect settlements along the coast of Florida.

The Creek Indians, with whom arrangements had also been made for transfer to the west, went on the warpath in southern Georgia and Alabama in an effort to avoid moving and to help the Seminoles in Florida. With this outbreak, General Scott was ordered from Florida to conduct the war against the Creeks. This necessitated the Army shifting its main effort from the Seminole to the Creek country around Columbus, Georgia. With the Army being hard pressed for men to fight Indians in both areas, Colonel Commandant Archibald Henderson volunteered the services of a regiment of Marines for duty with the Army in the operations against the Creeks. This offer was immediately accepted, and on 23 May 1836, President Jackson issued orders for all available Marines to report to the Army. Although Colonel Henderson was Commandant, he did not hesitate to personally lead his Marines in action against the Indians, and did so quite successfully.

With the assistance of the Marines and other volunteer forces from the States, the Army was able to bring the Creek Indian War to a successful termination during the summer of 1836. Shortly after the close of the Creek War, Hen-



Marines and sailors search for the enemy during the Seminole War, 1835-1842. Painting by Sergeant John Clymer. (USMC Photo #306073).

erson and his Marines made their way into Florida to help the Army fight the Seminoles. Upon their arrival in Florida, the Marines continued to serve with the Army until the close of the Seminole War. The vessels of the West India Squadron also continued to support the Army throughout the closing phase of the war. Finally, after long years of battle with the Indians, the Florida naval expedition was gradually disbanded between May and August 1842, and the Marines returned to their respective ships' detachments and other commands.

During these operations against the Indians, the Marine Corps and the Army gained valuable field experience which would later prove useful in the far-flung operations of the Mexican War.

The Mexican War

During the war with Mexico, which began in

May 1846, there were several geographically distinct campaigns. General Scott's conquest at Mexico City ended the war, but the campaigns against California and the west coast of Mexico gave the United States one of its last major domestic territorial acquisitions—California and the Southwestern States. Along with these engagements, the Navy waged a campaign against the Mexican Gulf Coast. During all of these campaigns, Marines saw service both ashore and afloat.

Prior to the outbreak of hostilities with Mexico, President James K. Polk, late in 1845, sent Marine First Lieutenant Archibald H. Gillespie on a secret mission to the west coast of Mexico. Upon arrival, Gillespie reported to Commodore John D. Sloat, who commanded the Pacific squadron, and gave him the President's



In 1847, during the Mexican War, Marines and sailors under Commodore Perry storm ashore on the Tabasco River to capture the town of San Juan Bautista. Lithograph of a contemporary painting by Navy Lieutenant W. Walke. (Photo courtesy Marine Corps Museum).

instructions should war break out. He then proceeded to find and deliver similar instructions to two of the President's trusted agents in the far west, Consul Thomas Larkin at Monterey and Captain John C. Fremont, USA, who was heading a mapping expedition in California. Gillespie's mission was undertaken because President Polk was concerned about the possibility of British designs for furthering territorial claims along the western coast of North America. With a war brewing with Mexico, it was felt that the British would try to capitalize on the situation by strengthening their claim over Oregon and establishing a claim on California.

The invasion of Mexico began on 18 May 1846, and Marines were among the first to set foot on the soil of Mexico proper. This occurred when Marines serving on board vessels commanded by Captain John H. Aulick, USN, fought a minor skirmish at Burríta, some 15

miles up river from the mouth of the Rio Grande. This action was soon overshadowed, as Marines from the Gulf Coast Squadron, under the command of Commodore David Conner, began operations to establish a blockade to support General Zachary Taylor's march south from the Rio Grande. Captain Alvin Edson, the senior Marine officer of the squadron, organized a Marine battalion of about 200 men by combining all of the ships' detachments. During October 1846, the battalion, augmented by sailors and supported by guns of the squadron, conducted successful raids against Frontera and San Juan Bautista. On 14 November of the same year the squadron's landing party, including Edson's Marines, secured Tampico. Although these raids were temporarily interrupted with a major landing at Vera Cruz, they were resumed when Commodore Matthew C. Perry took command of the Gulf Squadron in March 1847. Perry organized a large landing force and with assist-

ance from the Army secured Alvarado on 1 April and captured Tuxpan on 18 April 1847.

Shortly after the Tuxpan operations, Commodore Perry set out to close the one important port remaining open at Frontera and to occupy San Juan Bautista on the Tabasco River, through which Mexicans were receiving supplies from Central America. Employing his landing force with skill, Commodore Perry was able to accomplish his objective by early June. Having defeated the Mexicans at San Juan Bautista, Perry's force hoisted the colors over the plaza and occupied the town. A shore detachment of 115 Marines and 60 sailors, supported by 3 gunboats, held the town until 22 July 1847. On that date, as a result of the yellow fever season approaching, the colors were hauled down and the detachment returned to the squadron. The capture of San Juan Bautista represented the last important amphibious operation of the Gulf Coast Squadron since it closed the last port of entry remaining to the Mexicans.

General Taylor, in his southward advance from Texas, was unable to reach the central part of Mexico due to terrain difficulties. This resulted in General Winfield Scott being put in charge of organizing an expedition to capture Mexico City. Throughout the entire operation, which ended with the capture of the city, Marines played an important role and were praised by General Scott for their gallant efforts.

On 9 March 1847, Marines under the command of Captain Edson assisted the Army in the capture of Vera Cruz. Later, Marines serving under Lieutenant Colonel (brevet rank) Samuel E. Watson were assigned to the Army's 4th Division, commanded by Brigadier General John A. Quitman, and participated in the assault and capture of Mexico City. During the assault on Chapultepec and Mexico City, many Marines performed heroic deeds. When General Quitman's advance was halted by heavy enemy fire, Marine Captain George H. Terrett, whose Company C formed the right flank of the support, moved forward without orders and sliced through enemy batteries, pursued the fleeing artillery men, and broke up a counterattack being mounted by Mexican lancers. With the fall of the stronghold at Chapultepec and one more day of fierce fighting by Marines and soldiers, Mexico City was taken by General Scott's forces on 14 September 1847. With the city secured, Marine Lieutenant Augustus S. Nicholson cut down the Mexican colors and ran

up the Stars and Stripes. As a result of the Marines' participation in the Mexican War, the citizens of Washington, D. C. presented Commandant Henderson with a blue and gold standard which bore the motto, "From Tripoli to the Halls of the Montezumas." Later, Marine service during the war was memorialized in the opening line of the *Marines' Hymn*—"From the Halls of Montezuma. . . ."

While Marines were fighting with General Scott's army other Marines were committed on the west coast of Mexico and in California. Between the ports of Mazatlan, Mexico and Yerba Buena (later to become San Francisco), California, Marines from the Pacific Squadron made several landings and helped to take control of such settlements as Los Angeles, San Pedro, and San Diego. With these areas in hand, Commodore Robert F. Stockton appointed Gillespie, who had stayed on in California and was by then a captain, as Military Commandant of the Department of Southern California. Another Marine officer, Lieutenant William A. T. Maddox, was made Commandant of the Middle Department with headquarters at Monterey. Other Marines in the area saw action under the leadership of Marine Lieutenant Jacob Zeilin who later became the 7th Commandant of the Marine Corps. Although lack of rapid communications with the United States Government in Washington caused numerous difficulties during the western operations, an estimated 400 Marines who saw service on the Pacific Coast performed courageously and successfully fulfilled their assigned missions.

Marines Throughout The World

During the period between the close of the Mexican War and the outbreak of the Civil War, Marines served on board vessels of the Navy and participated in many diverse and world-wide activities. American involvement in foreign commerce expanded rapidly during this period as the nation rapidly built up its merchant marine and became a sizeable maritime power. With the growth of merchant shipping, the Navy was called upon to support the expanding commerce and to protect the lives of Americans and their property in those areas of the world which were torn by internal dissension or political revolution. In protecting American interests, Marines performed duties ranging from landings in Nicaragua to diplomatic ceremonies with Perry in Japan, and from suppressing the African slave

trade to storming the Barrier Forts at Canton, China.

In order to suppress the African slave trade more effectively, the United States and Great Britain agreed to the Webster-Ashburton Treaty in 1842. This treaty provided that the United States would keep ships along the western coast of Africa to operate with British vessels against the slave traders. From 1843 until the outbreak of the Civil War, the United States provided an African Squadron for such duty as well as other vessels off the waters of Brazil and Cuba for the same purpose. In November 1843, Commodore Perry, then in charge of the African Squadron, landed in Liberia with a force of Marines and sailors to check into the reported murders of Americans. During the investigation, Perry was physically attacked by one of the local chieftains. A Marine sergeant shot the chieftain, and a fight started between the natives of the village and Perry's force. The fight ended with the natives fleeing and the village being put to the torch. Other Marines, at different times, performed similar duties on board vessels of the African Squadron in an attempt to break the slave trade. The last landing from the squadron took place in 1860, when Marines and sailors from the sloop *Marion* went ashore to guard American lives and property on the west coast of Africa.

During the 1850s, Marines of ships' detachments made several landings in diverse areas of the world. Marines on board the *Congress* and the *Jamestown* went ashore in 1852 at Buenos Aires to protect American lives and property against rioting Argentineans. A few days later, Marines of the *Albany* were dispatched on a mission of mercy to help put out a fire which was sweeping San Juan del Sur (Greytown), Nicaragua. During the following year (1853), Marines made two more landings in Nicaragua to protect American lives.

In 1852, Commodore Matthew C. Perry was selected to command the East Indian Squadron. Perry was given some of the new steam vessels which had been commissioned and was ordered to organize an expedition for the purpose of establishing trade relations with Japan. All of Perry's ships had Marine detachments on board when the expedition began. Now-Major Jacob Zeilin was the senior Marine officer of the squadron and was on board the *Mississippi* with Perry. After arriving and spending a brief period at Hong Kong and in the Luchu Islands, Perry set out for Japan. On 2 July 1853, the steamers

Susquehanna (flagship) and *Mississippi*, and the sloops of war *Saratoga* and *Plymouth*, sailed for Yedo (Tokyo) Bay. Although Perry's squadron did not receive an immediate welcome from the Japanese when it arrived at Yedo Bay on 8 July, pageantry and ceremony soon followed as Marines and sailors landed. After presenting President Millard Fillmore's request to Japanese officials, and telling them that he would return early the following year for their decision, Perry sailed from Japan on 17 July.

During March 1854, Perry returned to Yedo Bay with his squadron. After elaborate ceremonies and negotiations, Perry and Japanese officials signed the Treaty of Kanagawa which opened trade relations with Japan. During both of Perry's visits to Japan, Marines played a major role in all of the ceremonies performed by the squadron and were commended for their military bearing.

Hong Kong, Shanghai, the Fiji Islands, and Uruguay were the sites of Marine landings in the year 1855. In all of these areas, American property and lives became endangered and required protection from rioting and rebellious inhabitants. Marines and sailors of the *St. Louis* had landed in Canton, China during 1844, at the request of the American consul, to protect Americans from a Chinese mob. During 1856, a more serious situation in Canton required the Marines to land again.

On 22 October 1856, the sloop *Portsmouth*, under the command of Andrew H. Foote, was lying off Whampoa (in the Canton area) when it received a message from the American consul at Canton that American interests were in imminent danger. Commander Foote responded to the message and sent a landing force, including Lieutenant William W. Kirkland with 18 Marines, to assist the consul. On 27 October, Marines and sailors from the *Levant* were sent to reinforce the *Portsmouth's* landing force. Later, on 12 November, Commodore James Armstrong arrived in the area on board his flagship, the *San Jacinto*, and sent additional reinforcements to the detachment in Canton, under the command of Captain (brevet rank) John D. Simms. Shortly after Simms arrived at his destination and assumed command of the entire Marine force, Armstrong withdrew his flagship and left Foote in command at Canton.

With warlike acts on the part of the Chinese increasing and negotiations deteriorating, Foote was given authority to proceed with punitive



While American sailors and natives watch, a column of Marines from Commodore Perry's Squadron returns from a formal visit to Shui (Shuri), capital of the Luchu (Ryukyu) Islands in June 1853. Lithograph of a painting by W. Heine. (Photo courtesy Marine Corps Museum).

operations against the hostile forces. During the engagement, which began in the early morning on 20 November 1856, a force of approximately 287 officers, sailors, and Marines met more than 4,000 Chinese troops and defeated them in every action. After three days of hard fighting, the Marines and sailors under Foote's command had captured 4 strongly defended forts, killed an estimated 500 Chinese, and routed an army of thousands. American losses were recorded at 7 killed and 32 wounded or injured. As a result of the gallant and courageous engagement against a numerically superior Chinese force, the Secretary of the Navy in his *Annual Report* for 1857, gave praise to all of those who had fought the "Battle of the Barrier Forts."

In the latter part of the 1850s Marines serving at home were called upon to suppress domestic disturbances. In June of 1857, the President ordered out two companies of Marines to restore civil order during election riots in Washington, D. C. In 1858, a detachment of 65 Marines from the barracks at the New York Navy Yard

and from the *Sabine* was sent to occupy and protect government buildings on Staten Island. During the same year, Marines of the *St. Lawrence* landed in Uruguay to protect American property and other Marines landed in the Fiji Islands to punish natives for the murder of American seamen.

In the fall of 1859, John Brown, the militant leader of the abolitionist movement, established himself at Harper's Ferry, Virginia, and attempted to incite armed revolt among the Negro slaves. With some of his followers, Brown occupied the United States Arsenal at Harper's Ferry and obtained arms and ammunition for his band. The situation being too serious for local civil officials to handle, federal assistance was requested. The Navy Department ordered all available Marines in Washington to the scene of the disturbance to quell the reported insurrection.

Under the command of Lieutenant Israel Greene, 86 Marines proceeded to Harper's Ferry by rail on 17 October 1859, and reported to

Colonel Robert E. Lee, USA. Brown had established a fortification in the engine house by the time Marines occupied the arsenal grounds. The next morning, Greene was ordered to prepare a storming party which was to be used against Brown's fortress. At the appointed time, Lieutenant J. E. B. Stuart, USA, approached the engine house with a demand for Brown to surrender. Brown refused and Greene and his Marines attacked the position. Upon gaining entrance to the fortress, Greene confronted Brown, but not before he had fired a shot which killed one of the Marines. Greene struck Brown with his sword and knocked him to the ground, which ended further resistance. When Brown had

sufficiently recovered from his wounds, Greene and his detachment escorted him to Charles Town. Brown was later tried and hanged by the State of Virginia for treason.

On 6 January 1859, Brigadier General Archibald Henderson, who had been Commandant since 17 October 1820, died while still in office. Death came to Henderson at the mature age of 76. Henderson had always given his best for the Marine Corps and was well recognized for his leadership and foresight. With his passing, the Marine Corps lost one of its greatest Commandants. Henderson was succeeded in office by Lieutenant Colonel John Harris, who, was given the rank of Colonel Commandant.

PART IV

THE CIVIL WAR AND AFTER

1861-1898

When shore batteries from Charleston, South Carolina fired on Fort Sumter on 12 April 1861, the American Civil War began. During the war, which lasted until May 1865 and took thousands of American lives, service by the Marine Corps was rendered primarily as detachments on board ships of the Navy. Only on a few occasions did Marines fight ashore, and then only in limited numbers. Those Marines who did serve ashore were either part of a ship's landing force or directly assigned to assist the Union Army. The Marines who served on board naval vessels repeatedly distinguished themselves in battle while manning the guns.

Upon entering the Civil War, the Marine Corps was handicapped by a lack of leadership and adequate personnel. The senior officers of the Corps were too old for field duty and none of them left their home stations during the conflict. On 1 January 1861, the total strength of the Corps, both in officers and enlisted men, was only 1,892.

During the period of national disintegration which followed the John Brown incident at Harper's Ferry, the nation became progressively split by conflicts of interest. With the election of Abraham Lincoln as President on 6 November 1860, the South responded decisively to the Republican victory and soon called conventions to vote on secession. With war between the states imminent, officers in all branches of the service of the United States, who were from the South or whose sympathies were strongly in favor of the South, began to resign and offer their services to the southern states. President James Buchanan's administration, which was sympathetic to the southern cause, readily accepted these resignations with little apparent concern.

As a result of these resignations, the Marine Corps lost several of its outstanding officers. About half of its captains resigned, including

such officers as George H. Terrett, who had fought gallantly during the Mexican War. Nearly two-thirds of the first lieutenants and about half of the second lieutenants also left the Service. These included Marines such as John D. Simms, who had been breveted for his service in the Mexican War and had fought courageously at the Barrier Forts at Canton, China, and Israel Greene, who had struck down John Brown at Harper's Ferry. The field officers of the Corps, with the exception of Major Henry B. Tyler, remained faithful to the Union. When President Lincoln took office on 4 March 1861, the policy of accepting resignations from the regular service in order to support the South was abruptly ended.

In order to compensate for its losses, the Marine Corps appointed 38 new officers early in 1861. Most of the officers who were appointed had little or no previous military experience. In July 1861, Congress authorized an increase of 28 officers and 750 enlisted men for the Marine Corps. This raised the allowed aggregate strength of the Corps to slightly over 3,000. The President, under the authority of an Act of Congress of 1849, authorized two increases of 500 men each in 1861. At no time during the war, however, did the total strength of the Marine Corps exceed 3,900 men. Young unseasoned combat officers and a low level manpower aggregate adversely affected the Marine Corps' ability to serve at its best during one of the Nation's greatest hours of need.

On 20 December 1860, the South Carolina Convention voted unanimously for secession and formally severed the bonds which had joined that state to the Union. Following the lead of South Carolina, Mississippi, Florida, and Alabama voted for secession. Other states soon followed, and when the voting had ended 11 states made up the Confederacy. On 9 February 1861,

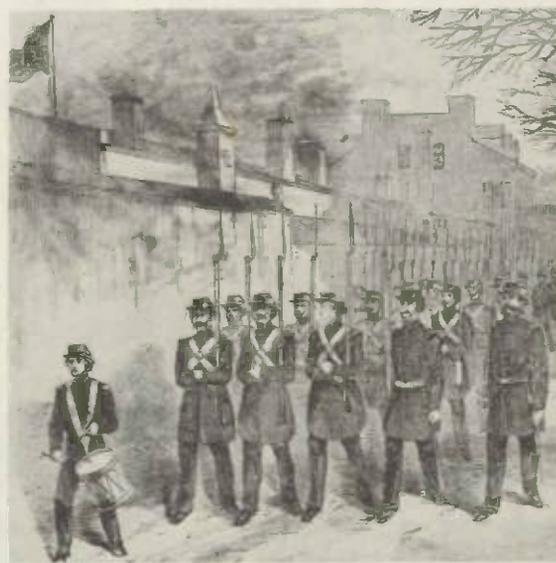
the Confederate Congress selected Jefferson Davis as provisional President (formally elected 6 November 1861). When the *Star of the West* was unable to land reinforcements and supplies at Fort Sumter to support the federal troops, the fort surrendered to South Carolina on 13 April. Two days later, President Lincoln called for 75,000 volunteer soldiers and on the 17th, when Virginia voted for secession, Colonel Robert E. Lee, who had been offered command of the Union Forces, resigned his commission in the United States Army.

During the early part of 1861, the Navy lost most of its shore establishments in the southern states. On 16 January, Marine Captain Josiah Watson signed a pledge never to bear arms against the State of Florida after a number of Alabama militia, led by Florida authorities, took over the Pensacola Navy Yard. Later, Florida troops were able to gain control of Pensacola's defending forts with the exception of Fort Pickens. This fort was saved during April 1861, when a force of 110 Marines under the command of Lieutenant John C. Cash, together with Union soldiers, landed and occupied it until a larger garrison of soldiers was provided. Fort Pickens was held by Union forces throughout the war. On 20 April, Marines of the Norfolk barracks, along with Marines from the ships *Cumberland*, *Pennsylvania*, and *Pawnee*, were forced to destroy the Norfolk naval installation as a result of Virginia's secession. Other Marines temporarily garrisoned at Fort McHenry (Baltimore) and Fort Washington (Maryland) were alerted to defend the Washington Navy Yard.

The war strategy of the North was basically aimed at forcing the South to surrender by establishing a naval blockade along the coast, seizing Richmond (the Confederate capital), and dividing the South through the control of the Mississippi and Tennessee Rivers. The Confederacy's basic plan was to defend its territorial integrity against invasion, capture Washington, gain control of central Pennsylvania, and force the United States to recognize its independence.

Major General Winfield Scott, commander of the Federal armies, assigned Major General Irvin McDowell the task of taking Richmond. On 16 July 1861, McDowell, with a force of about 35,000 troops, left Washington to accomplish his mission. Included in that force was a battalion of Marines numbering 12 officers and 336 enlisted men under the command of Major John G. Reynolds. By 21 July, McDowell's force

reached Manassas Junction, Virginia, where it was confronted by Confederate troops numbering about 32,000 men; the First Battle of Bull Run was underway. General McDowell's troops attacked and almost won the battle, but General Thomas J. Jackson's courageous stand (which earned him the nickname "Stonewall") broke the Federal forces and sent them fleeing in panic. With this resounding defeat, Union hopes of an early and decisive end to the war faded. When Major Reynolds and his surviving Marines reached Washington with the rest of the retreating army, they went to the Marine Barracks to be refitted.



Column of Marines parades outside the Washington, D. C. Barracks in a drawing from *Harper's Weekly* of 14 September 1861. (USMC Photo #1993).

In August 1861, about 200 Marines were assigned to the Potomac Flotilla which covered the Southern Maryland countryside in search of Confederate arms. During the same month, other Marines from the ships *Minnesota*, *Cumberland*, *Susquehanna*, and *Wabash* participated in the capture of Fort Clark and Fort Hatteras in the North Carolina area. During September 1861, Marines and sailors from the *Colorado* boarded the schooner *Judah* in Pensacola harbor and destroyed it. In October and November of the same year, Marines under the command of Major Reynolds were a part of the amphibious expedition which was sent against Port Royal, South Carolina. Although the Marines of the expeditionary force were not needed for an

amphibious assault against the Confederate position, a detachment of Marines from the *Wabash* landed and occupied Fort Walker. In November, Marines from the *Santee* were a part of the raiding party that boarded and destroyed the schooner *Royal Yacht* in the harbor of Galveston, Texas. Marines on board the American steamer *San Jacinto*, operating in the Atlantic, boarded the British ship *Trent* and took off the Confederate diplomats John Slidell and James Mason who were on board. During December 1861, Marines from the *Dale* landed and destroyed a Confederate headquarters in the Charleston area after it had been bombarded by naval guns. Later that month, *Dale's* Marines tangled with Southerners in a brief skirmish on the South Edisto River in South Carolina.

Marines saw action during the first month of 1862, when a raiding party from the ship *Hatteras* landed and burned Confederate stores at Cedar Keys, Florida. On 8 March, Marines were on board the vessels in the waters off Hampton Roads which were attacked by the mighty *Virginia* (the refitted *Merrimac*). The *Virginia* delivered devastating blows against the Union ships *Congress* and *Cumberland* which caused the death of several sailors and Marines. Marine Lieutenant Charles Heywood (later the 9th Commandant of the Marine Corps) of the *Cumberland* rallied his men and kept them at their guns even though the ship was taking a severe beating. After the Federal defeat, the *Virginia* retired until the following day when she returned to do battle with the inferior *Minnesota*. By that time the Union's ironclad *Monitor*, with a revolving gun turret, had arrived on the scene. A five-hour battle raged between the two ships, ending in a tactical draw. Deprived of its base by the Confederate Army's evacuation of Norfolk and with too much draft to retreat up the James River, the *Virginia* was run aground and blown up on the morning of 11 May. On 23 May, Marine Captain Charles McCawley (later the 8th Commandant of the Marine Corps) was ordered to take his Marines and reoccupy the Gosport Yard at Norfolk.

Four days after the destruction of the *Virginia* had opened the James River, Union warships approached Drewry's Bluff on the James about eight miles below Richmond. Here they came under the fire of the Confederate shore batteries mounted on the bluff. The *Galena* was returning their fire when she received a hit that caused an explosion. Marine Corporal John Mackie

rallied the survivors, carried off the dead and wounded, and got three of the *Galena's* guns back in action. As a result of Mackie's heroic action, he became the first Marine to win the Medal of Honor. By the time the war had ended, 17 Marines had won such an honor.

In other actions during 1862, Marines were on board vessels of the flotilla commanded by Captain David G. Farragut that took New Orleans. Once Farragut's flotilla had run the batteries along the Mississippi which afforded protection for the city, he dropped anchor and ordered Marine Captain John L. Broome to take a detachment ashore. On the following day Broome and his Marines landed, marched through a crowd of threatening people, and occupied the United States mint. They then lowered the Confederate flag, and replaced it with that of the Union. On 29 April, all the Marines of the flotilla were landed and formed into a battalion of four companies under Captain Broome. The battalion then marched to the customs house and took possession of it. Shortly thereafter, they took over the city hall. By 1 May, General Benjamin F. Butler's army occupied the city and the last of the Marines were withdrawn to their vessels. With the fall of New Orleans, Union activities along the Mississippi River increased. Late in 1862, a detachment of Marines under Captain Matthew R. Kintzing was ordered to Cairo, Illinois, which had become the home of the river gunboats. When the base was moved to Mound City, Illinois, in May of 1864, the Marines went with it.

During August 1863, Marines under the command of Major Jacob Zeilin were called upon to assist Union forces in an attack on Fort Wagner, South Carolina. Before the end of the month, the plan of battle was changed and the Marines were not employed. In September, Marines under the command of Captain E. McDonald Reynolds were a part of the expeditionary force organized by Rear Admiral John A. Dahlgren to assault Fort Sumter. The assault was made, but proved unsuccessful.

Throughout the year of 1864, Marines continued to remain active in battle while serving on board ships. They landed at Murrell's Inlet near Charleston and destroyed a Confederate schooner and were on the *Kearsarge* when it destroyed the commerce raider *Alabama*. During July Marines assisted in the defense of Washington against General Jubal Early's forces, while other Marines from the Philadelphia Barracks were

protecting the railroad bridge over the Susquehanna River at Havre de Grace which linked Baltimore with Wilmington and Philadelphia. In August, Marines on the ships of Captain Farragut distinguished themselves in battle at Mobile Bay. On board the *Lackawanna* and flagship *Hartford*, Marines manned guns that delivered deadly fire against the *Tennessee* and helped bring the Confederate vessel to defeat. In land action during November and December 1864, 182 Marines from Dahlgren's squadron under Lieutenant George G. Stoddard joined Army troops in an attempt to sever the Charleston and Savannah rail line. After several futile stabs at the railroad, the Army abandoned its efforts and the Marine battalion was disbanded and returned to its regular ships of the squadron.

With the Union forces in Savannah, Mobile, Charleston, and New Orleans, there was only one major port remaining open to the Confed-

erates by December 1864. This port was at Wilmington, North Carolina, guarded by Fort Fisher. During January 1865, an attack was launched against Fort Fisher in a combined operation of soldiers, sailors, and Marines. After much confusion and hard fighting the fort was finally taken by an Army assault. During the attack on the fort, the sailors and Marines displayed great courage and their diversionary attack was an important factor in the ultimate success of the operation. With the fall of Fort Fisher, the Union naval blockade sealed off the Confederacy, and its ultimate defeat became only a matter of time. On 9 April 1865, General Lee surrendered to General Grant at Appomattox, Virginia and on 10 May Union forces captured Jefferson Davis in Georgia. Thus ended one of the bloodiest wars ever fought by Americans.

During the Civil War, the Marine Corps came under the leadership of a new Commandant. With the death of Colonel Commandant John



Guns of the USS *Hartford*, a Marine gun crew in the background, at the Battle of Mobile Bay, 5 August 1864. Lithograph by W. H. Overend. (USMC Photo #525085).

Harris on 12 May 1864, the Secretary of the Navy, Gideon Welles, was faced with the task of selecting his successor. Colonel John G. Reynolds would have been a possible choice had it not been that Harris had ordered him tried by court martial on a rather minor charge. On making his decision, Secretary Welles invoked the Act which had been passed by Congress in 1862 which permitted the Secretary of the Navy, with the consent of the President, to retire those veteran naval officers whom he judged unfit. On 10 June 1864, Major Jacob Zeilin was promoted to Colonel Commandant of the Marine Corps. Secretary Welles had, on the previous day, retired all Marine officers who ranked as senior to Zeilin.

The officers and men who served with the Confederate Marine Corps, which was organized in 1861, also performed commendably. The Corps reached a maximum strength of about 600 men and was principally stationed at Drewry's Bluff, Virginia, Savannah, and Mobile, with detachments serving on board various Confederate ships and cruisers. The Confederate Corps received commendations for its service in numerous land and naval engagements from Ship Island, Mississippi, in July 1861, to the Appomattox Campaign, 2-9 April 1865.

Foreign Duty After The War

With the war over and the nation attempting to regain its stability, the Marine Corps settled down to peacetime service. While some Marines performed routine duty at home, others were assigned to a large number of naval vessels that returned to their foreign stations. Although the traditional Marine role changed with the advent of steam-powered ships, it being no longer necessary to station sharpshooters in the ships' rigging, service at sea remained a primary function of the Corps. These Marines who saw foreign sea duty after the war became once again involved in protecting American lives and property and supporting American shipping in many areas of the world.

On board naval vessels Marines served in such places as Egypt, Mexico, Cuba, Uruguay, Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Panama, Haiti, China, Formosa, Korea, Alaska, the Arctic, and the waters off Greenland. Landings were made in many of these areas, but in most instances the mere presence of Marines and warships was sufficient to protect any American lives or interests which might be threatened, and a fight was

unnecessary. This, however, was not the case in Korea during the summer of 1871.

Prior to that year, the American vessel *General Sherman* became stranded in the Han River in Korea. Shortly thereafter, the Koreans burned the ship by the use of a fire raft and when the ship's crew reached shore, they were massacred. Other foreigners, including French missionaries, had suffered the same fate at different times. In an effort to obtain some assurance for the protection of American lives and open up the country to trade, Frederick Low, the American Minister to China, was sent on a mission to Korea. Mr. Low arrived on the west coast of Korea during the latter part of May 1871 on board the flagship *Colorado*, along with four other ships of the Asiatic Fleet under the command of Rear Admiral John Rodgers. Having anchored off the mouth of the Han River, and desiring to examine approaches to Seoul, Rodgers sent out a Navy surveying party on 1 June. The survey party, while working its way up the channel (Salee River), was fired upon by one of the five forts which protected the approach to the Han River. After waiting 10 days to give the Korean officials time to apologize, Rodgers and Low decided to carry out punitive measures in response to the hostile action.

On 10 June, Marine Captain McLane Tilton with 3 officers and 105 Marines, who comprised part of the landing force, led the assault against the Korean forts. After taking two of the forts without much difficulty, Tilton then led his Marines against the heavily fortified "Citadel." During the ensuing battle, which required hand-to-hand combat, Marine Corporal Charles Brown and Private Hugh Purvis made their way to the flagstaff and tore down the enemy flag. As a result of this heroic act, both Marines were subsequently awarded the Medal of Honor. With the battle for the "Citadel" ended, over 200 Koreans lay dead and a total of 6 Marines were recommended for and ultimately received the Medal of Honor for their gallant efforts. Although no successful treaty was immediately negotiated, hostile activity towards the Americans ceased.

On 11 July 1882, the British fleet bombarded Alexandria, Egypt as a result of a local uprising against foreign influence in the area. With the city on fire and a state of chaos existing, Marines from the European Squadron landed to assist in restoring order and to prevent the further spreading of fires. Their primary concern, how

ever, was to protect the American Consulate and other American interests. With order restored, the Marines returned to their ships. The British soon sent an army into the area to prevent further rebellion.



Marines land from ships of the Asiatic Fleet to storm the Korean forts on the Salee River in June 1871. Painting by Sergeant John Clymer. (USMC Photo #306075).

During 1888, it once again became necessary to show a force of strength in Haiti. An American ship had been seized by a Haitian war vessel and taken to Port au Prince. Rear Admiral Stephen B. Luce was sent to the area with the *Galena* and *Yantic* carrying detachments of Marines. Admiral Luce was ordered to retake the captured vessel by the most expedient method. The ship was returned without firing a shot when Luce, through the American Minister, notified the Haitian authorities of his mission. The force shown was sufficient to accomplish the task.

Throughout the Caribbean, as well as in other areas, landings were made to accomplish a variety of missions, mainly concerned with the protection of American lives and property. During these operations the Marines had to fight on

only a few occasions, but when required to do so they were uniformly successful.

Duty At Home

Although peacetime duty for Marines at home was probably less exciting than it was for those on board ships, there were occasions when the boredom and routine of garrison duty was interrupted for more lively pursuits. In New York between 1867 and 1871, Marines were ordered to assist authorities in destroying illicit distilleries and enforcing revenue laws. In Portland, Maine during 1866 and again in Boston during 1872, a large force of Marines assisted the civil authorities in maintaining law and order and preserving public safety when the cities were swept by fire. In the summer of 1877, Marines assisted the Army in suppressing labor riots which occurred during a serious railroad strike which tied up rail transportation in nine states. A battalion of Marines under Lieutenant Colonel Charles Heywood protected railroad property between Baltimore and Philadelphia. Another battalion was assigned to guard the Washington Arsenal and assist the railroad in maintaining its lines between Baltimore and Washington. During the same period, other Marines guarded the United States Arsenal at Watervliet, New York. Several years later, in 1894, a railroad strike occurred in California and a detachment of Marines from the Mare Island Navy Yard was ordered to assist Army troops in guarding the United States mail, a duty Marines would perform again in later years.

During the period from 1876 to 1891, Charles G. McCawley served as the 8th Commandant of the Marine Corps. Although promotions were slow and manpower was reduced during the post-Civil War period, McCawley was able to initiate several programs which improved the status of the Corps. In 1880, he appointed John Philip Sousa as leader of the Marine Band. Under Sousa's leadership (1880-1892) the Marine Band developed into one of the world's finest musical groups. Sousa's own compositions and his extensive tours played a large role in gaining nationwide recognition for the Corps. In 1882, McCawley was able to initiate a program of having new Marine officers appointed from graduates of the Naval Academy. From 1883 until the beginning of the Spanish-American War, the entire intake of Marine officers (50 in all) came from the Naval Academy. McCawley also established more up-to-date training programs for enlisted men and made several recom-

mendations for remedial legislation in an effort to attract men of ability for a career in the Corps.

When Commandant McCawley retired in 1891, Colonel Charles Heywood became the 9th Commandant of the Marine Corps. Colonel Heywood, being a capable man, was also able to initiate changes which further contributed to the professionalization of the Corps. During his tour as Commandant, the Marine Corps grew in both officers and enlisted men. He established a regular system of examinations of officers for promotion and set up a system of officers' schools. Other accomplishments under his leadership included: Marine Corps posts increasing from 12 to 21; an officer being detailed for duty as instructor at the Naval War College; greater emphasis being placed on target practice and marksmanship; the good conduct medal being adopted; and providing for at least the rank of brigadier general for the Commandant. With the Navy completing its transition from sail to steam power for its ships, a controversy arose over whether Marine detachments should continue to serve on board naval vessels. During this early disagreement, Heywood was helpful in forestalling immediate attempts to effect such removal. One of the Marine Barracks established during this period was located at Port Royal, South Carolina. Later known as Parris Island, it was to become one of the most important training areas for Marines on the east coast.

Under the leadership of Commandants Zeilin, McCawley, and Heywood, the Marine Corps had undergone numerous changes and had many improvements since the close of the War between the States. When war broke out between the United States and Spain during April 1898, the Marines were not only willing to fight, but they were well prepared.

The Spanish-American War — 1898

Spurred on by political, economic, and imperialistic interests, along with the sensational journalism of William R. Hearst in his *New York Journal*, American national opinion had been aroused as the year 1898 began. With the Cuban people in full revolt against their Spanish oppressors, and with 50 million dollars worth of American investments threatened on the island, the stage was set for the events that followed.

During February 1898, while Marines from the *Alert* were landing to protect American lives and property in Nicaragua, the battleship

Maine lay peacefully at anchor in Havana harbor. With the loyalist rebellion having grown worse in Cuba, the *Maine* had been dispatched to the island to provide some protection for the Americans living there. On 9 February, the fever of war was increased in the United States when Hearst released in his *Journal* the contents of a letter, stolen from the mail, written by Dupuy de Lome, the Spanish Minister in Washington. The letter depicted President William McKinley as a spineless and would-be politician "who tries to leave a door open behind himself while keeping on good terms with the jingoes of his party."

On the night of 15 February, with the crew settling down in their hammocks for a night's sleep, the *Maine* was rocked by a tremendous explosion from below. The battleship sank in the harbor carrying with her 260 members of the crew, 28 of whom were Marines. With the sinking of the *Maine* and sabre-rattling in Congress, the cry of the American people soon became "Remember the Maine!—To Hell with Spain!"

On 25 February, Assistant Secretary of the Navy Theodore Roosevelt sent a dispatch to Commodore George Dewey, who was in charge of the Asiatic Squadron, and ordered him to attack the Spanish-held Philippines if a war developed with Spain. On 11 April, President McKinley asked Congress for the power to employ armed forces in Cuba. Congress replied on 19 April, by passing a joint resolution which recognized the independence of Cuba and authorized the President to use armed troops to force the Spanish from the island. Following this action, on 24 April, Spain declared war on the United States and on the following day the government reciprocated by declaring war on Spain. In a swift and daring move, Commodore Dewey slipped into Manila Bay on 1 May and in a spirited fight completely annihilated a Spanish flotilla located there. On 3 May, Commodore Dewey landed Marines from the USS *Baltimore*, under the command of Lieutenant Dion Williams, to occupy the naval station at Cavite. These Marines were the first to land on Spanish territory and raise an American flag. Shortly thereafter, other Marines from the *Charleston* landed unopposed at Guam and the Pacific phase of the war ended.

While Marines and seamen were taking care of the Spanish in the Pacific, Marines at home were preparing for a landing in Cuba. On 16 April, Commandant Heywood had been given

verbal orders to organize a Marine battalion to serve in Cuba. Within a few weeks, the Marine battalion was organized and encamped at Key West, Florida awaiting further orders.

The Marines Land

In an attempt to isolate the Island of Cuba and hinder the movement of Spanish warships, the cruiser *Marblehead* was advised to cut the transoceanic cable off the shore of Cienfuegos. On 11 May, a party of Marines and sailors left the cruiser in small boats to perform the task. In the process of finding and attempting to cut the cable, the party came under fire by Spaniards stationed along the shoreline. Unable to complete their task and with seven casualties, the party returned to the ship. Not to be dissuaded from the mission, the *Marblehead* steamed into Guantanamo Bay on 7 June, and together with the *Yankee* and *St. Louis* drove the Spanish gun boat *Sandoval* into the waters of the inner harbor. With this accomplished, a reconnaissance force made up of Marines from several of Admiral William T. Sampson's ships then landed on 7 June to destroy the cable station at Playa del Este.

While this action was going on, the Marine battalion at Key West was embarking on board the *Panther*. Three days later (10 June), and a month before Roosevelt's Rough Riders saw action at San Juan Hill, Lieutenant Colonel Robert W. Huntington landed his battalion at Guantanamo Bay and became the first American troops to establish a beachhead on Cuban soil.

The landing was carried out under a hot sun in the afternoon and was unopposed. Once ashore, the Marines crossed the beach, climbed a hill, and pitched camp for the night. The first night passed quietly and uneventfully, but on the afternoon of 11 June the enemy struck an outpost, killed two Marines, and withdrew. After three days of intermittent fighting, Huntington decided to cut off the Spaniard's water supply at a well located in the village of Cuzco.

On the morning of 15 June, Companies C and D, led by Captains George F. Elliott (later the 10th Commandant of the Marine Corps) and William F. Spicer, and about 50 Cubans started their move toward Cuzco, about six miles to the southeast of the Marine camp. Captain Elliott, who commanded the main body of the attacking force, ordered Lieutenant Louis J. Magill and



Marines of Lieutenant Colonel Huntington's battalion engage the Spaniards at Guantanamo Bay in 1898. Painting by F. C. John. (USMC Photo #515603)

his men to bypass the objective and cut off any enemy retreat. As Magill led his men to the crest of a hill overlooking the well at Cuzco, the USS *Dolphin* opened fire from the bay. As the shells began falling, Magill realized that he and his men were in the ship's line of fire. Without hesitation, Sergeant John H. Quick stood up in plain sight of the enemy and began waving an improvised flag in a cease-fire signal to the ship. With enemy bullets and American naval shells whistling through the air around him, Quick calmly remained exposed and continued to signal until the firing stopped. As a result of Quick's heroic act, the *Dolphin* lifted her barrage. During the confusion, the enemy was able to effect a retreat but in doing so abandoned his water supply. After destroying the well, Elliott's forces marched back to the camp at Guantanamo Bay late that night. Sergeant Quick emerged unscathed from the operation and later was awarded the Medal of Honor for his heroic deed. During the short war with Spain, a total of 15 Marines won this honor.

In August, Lieutenant Colonel Huntington reembarked his battalion on board the *Resolute* and prepared to make an assault landing against the Cuban town of Manzanillo. Upon arrival at the objective, one American vessel hoisted a flag of truce and steamed into the harbor to investigate what was believed to be a white flag

flying over the town. When the ship came within range of the enemy shore line, she was fired upon. On the next day, 13 August, while warships bombarded the enemy shore batteries, the Marines made final preparations to land. The landing never materialized, however, for on the following morning with white flags flying, the town surrendered. Shortly thereafter, the Americans were informed by a Spanish official that a peace protocol had been signed between the warring nations. Since operations in the Caribbean were suspended with this agreement, the Marine battalion soon sailed for the United States.

The most important factor of Marine Corps participation in the War with Spain was the speed with which its expeditionary force had been organized and dispatched to the area of conflict and its ability to do the job once on the field of battle. Although the Cuban operation lacked the daring of Dewey's decisive victory in the Philippines, the landing at Guantanamo demonstrated the need for Marines as assault troops to be employed with the fleet. The victory at Guantanamo, which was won by a Marine unit commanded by a Marine officer, gave added strength to those who later would advise that the capture and defense of advanced bases should become a primary mission of the Marine Corps.

PART V

MARINE EXPEDITIONS IN SUPPORT OF AMERICAN FOREIGN POLICY 1899-1920

In the fall of 1898, trouble began to develop in China. Marines of the Asiatic Fleet, on board the *Baltimore*, *Boston*, and *Raleigh*, landed at Taku Bar in November and established a consulate guard in Tientsin and Peking. In February 1899, Marines landed in Nicaragua, and in March, at Samoa. During the Samoan engagement, which lasted from 14 March to 18 May, three Marines were awarded the Medal of Honor for their heroic achievements. Both of those landings were made to protect American lives and property which were being endangered by rebellious groups. In June 1899, Marines under the command of Major Allen C. Kelton sailed on the USS *Yosemite*, by way of the Suez Canal, Singapore, and Manila, and arrived on Guam on 7 August. The island had been previously taken by Marines, and the mission of Kelton's battalion was to garrison a naval station to be established there. After arriving and establishing friendly relations with the natives, the Marines began building fortifications and improving the overall living conditions of the island.

During the early months of 1899, trouble with rebellious Filipinos began to intensify. On 9 March, Admiral Dewey cabled a request for Marines to be sent to support the naval base at Cavite, Manila Bay. The 1st Battalion, consisting of 16 officers and 260 enlisted men, was organized and placed under the command of Colonel P. C. Pope. About a month later, the battalion sailed from San Francisco and arrived at Cavite on 23 May. In July, additional Marines were requested, and by late September the 2d Battalion, consisting of 15 officers and 350 men, arrived at Manila Bay. This battalion was led by Major George F. Elliott. Throughout the remainder of the year, other Marines were sent to the Philippines and by December, a regiment had been formed to fight the Insurrectos.

In the 1900s, additional Marines were trans-

ferred to the Philippines and before the year ended the 1st Marine Brigade had been formed, consisting of 4 Marine battalions organized into 2 regiments and 2 artillery companies. With this increase in strength, numbers of Marines were located in several areas of the Philippine Islands. The Navy took over the governing of the area around the Cavite Peninsula and Subic Bay and much of the responsibility for governing these areas was passed to the Marines. Marine detachments were placed in several of the towns within Cavite Province and others guarded the military prison for Filipinos which was established at Olongapo. Throughout the year, most of the Marines' activities were centered upon guarding naval installations and administering the military government in several of the districts.

In the fall of 1901, the Army was having difficulty controlling the Moros of Samar. An Army company had been hard hit and almost wiped out, and Marines were sent to the area to help put down the insurrection. Marines under the command of Major Littleton W. T. Waller left Cavite on board the USS *New York* and landed at Basey, Samar on 24 October. During the month of November, the Marines and soldiers conducted a vigorous campaign against the Moros and restored peace to the island. Although the action was short and decisive, it was bloody, and two Marine officers, Captains David D. Porter and Hiram I. Bearss, were subsequently awarded the Medal of Honor for gallant action during the fighting.

With peace restored on Samar, Army General Jacob M. Smith ordered Major Waller to organize a party and reconnoiter a telegraph route from Lanang to Basey on the west coast of the island—a distance of approximately 52 miles. From the beginning, the ill-fated march was beset by disaster. Boats foundered in treacherous rivers, provisions were lost, and bearers mutin-

ied. Before the march had ended, several Marines died of fever and exhaustion and one man became insane. When the ordeal ended in mid-January 1902, with all survivors out of the bush, 10 Marines had lost their lives and others were in a poor state of health. On 2 March, after being relieved by a detachment of soldiers, Waller's battalion was withdrawn from Samar and returned to Cavite. It later became a custom to toast the surviving officers of the Samar battalion, whenever one of them was present in the messes of the brigade, with the tribute: "Stand gentlemen, he served on Samar."

After the Samar Campaign, the bulk of the Marine brigade was shifted to Olongapo during 1903, and small detachments of Marines continued to serve throughout the archipelago. The brigade was essentially maintained as a ready expeditionary force for use of the naval commander or to support the Army. By 1906, the Marine strength had been considerably reduced in the Philippines, and all but a few of the Marines were located at Cavite and Olongapo. The brigade was gradually reduced during the succeeding years and in 1914, when trouble began brewing in the Caribbean, it was disbanded and the duties were taken over by Marine Barracks, Olongapo.

Trouble In China

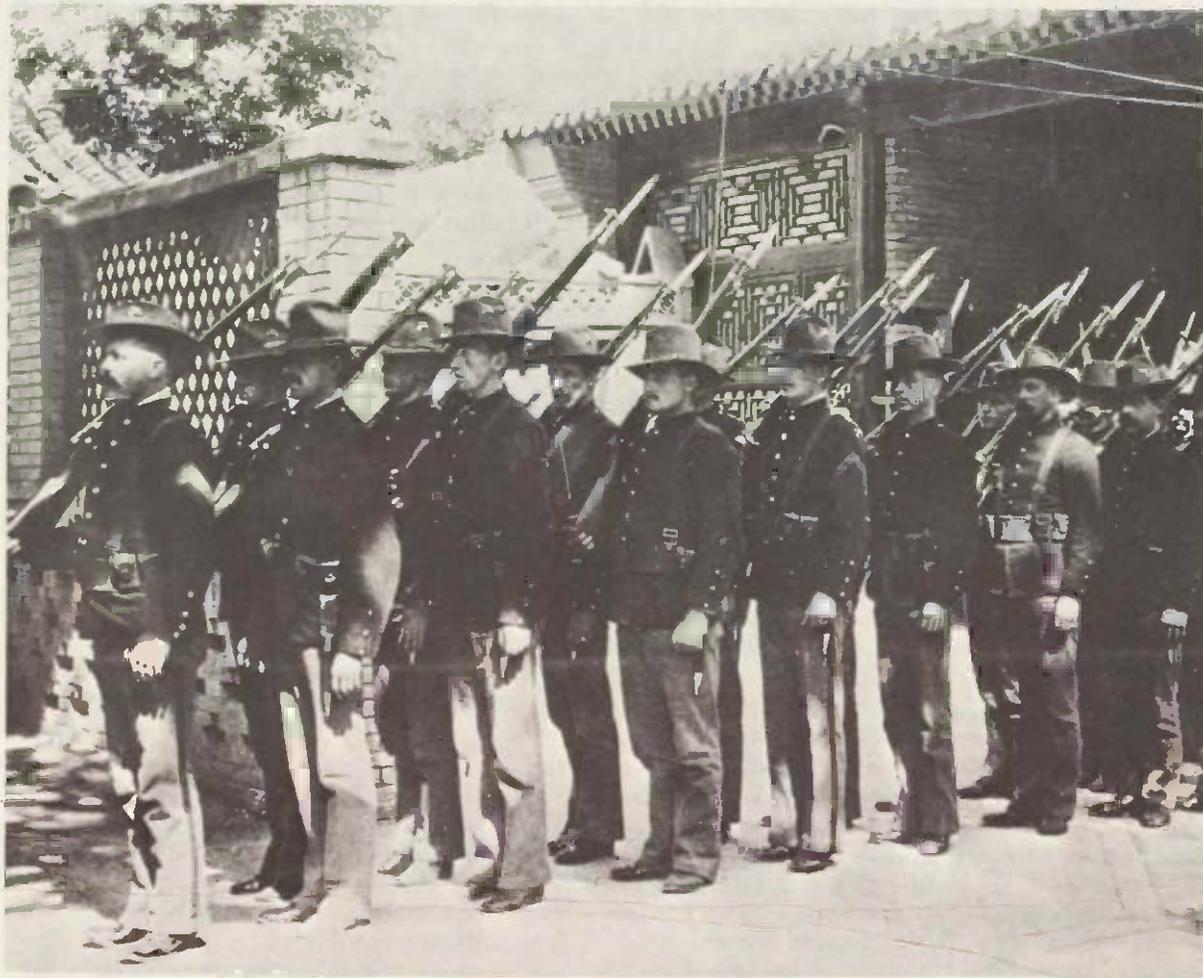
In the summer of 1900, prior to the extensive Marine buildup in the Philippines, the Boxer Rebellion broke out in China. On 28 May the Boxers went on a rampage and burned several railroad stations on the Belgian-built line between Peking and Paotingfu. On the following day, they destroyed the Imperial Railway shops at Fengtai, just below Peking. With violent mobs screaming for the death of all Westerners, an alarm had been sent out for military assistance to protect the legations in Peking.

On 29 May, a detachment made up of Marines and sailors from the USS *Newark* and *Oregon*, made their way to Tientsin, arriving there late at night. Shortly thereafter, British, Austrian, German, French, Italian, Japanese, and Russian landing forces arrived in the same location. On 31 May, a Marine force led by Captains John T. Myers and Newt H. Hall made up a part of the international expedition which set out by train from Tientsin for Peking. Upon arrival at its destination, during the evening of the same day, the force was met by representatives of the legation and by thousands of silent, staring Chinese.

On 5 June, the rail transportation between Tientsin and Peking was cut off by the Boxers and the legations needed more help to defend themselves. On 10 June, an international relief force, commanded by British Admiral Sir Edward Seymour, left Tientsin to repair the rail line and reach Peking. By mid-June the relief force had encountered stiff resistance from the Boxers and had taken heavy casualties. It attempted to retreat back to Tientsin. Unable to reach the city, because it, too, had come under attack, the surviving force took refuge in a fortified arsenal about six miles north of Tientsin. Near the end of the month other relief forces arrived, including Marines from the Philippines led by Major Waller. They drove back the enemy, entered the city, and rescued Seymour's forces. Although strong enemy resistance continued in the area until more reinforcements arrived, the Boxer force at Tientsin was completely crushed by mid-July.

While fighting raged around the area of Tientsin, the siege of the legations in Peking began. On 20 June, a German diplomat was killed during a Chinese riot and from that point on the international community was under attack until later relieved by friendly forces. By 3 August, other reinforcements had arrived at Tientsin, which included U. S. Army and Marine personnel from the Philippines. An international force of approximately 18,600 began its approach to Peking. Within nine days, the force had made substantial progress on its advance, while eliminating hostile Chinese along the way. On the 13th, the force reached the outskirts of Peking and began its attack against strong Chinese resistance. Late in the afternoon, the legations were reached by the relief force and the siege was raised. On the following day, the Imperial City was attacked by the Allies who gradually drove the Chinese from the city, and before the month was over all organized resistance had ended.

The Marines remained in Peking until 28 September, when they went on board ship and later sailed to the Philippines. A guard for the American Legation was established by the Army, much to the displeasure of Commandant Heywood. (Heywood protested to the Secretary of the Navy that guards for foreign legations had always been a part of the Marine Corps responsibility and therefore a Marine guard should be maintained at Peking instead of an Army guard.) For acts of heroism during the Boxer



During the Boxer Rebellion of 1900, Marines who served in the Relief Expedition are pictured at Peking. (USMC Photo #315634).

Rebellion, 33 Marines received the Medal of Honor.

Marine Activities At Home

On 3 October 1903, after the retirement of General Heywood, George F. Elliott became Commandant of the Marine Corps. During Elliott's tour, which lasted until 30 November 1910, he was confronted with the problem of maintaining Marines on board ships, because of a controversy with political antagonists and the opposition of some Navy officers. Throughout Elliott's term as Commandant, he worked hard at improving the efficiency and combat capability of the Corps. Listed among his accomplishments are: a greater emphasis on rifle shooting with the development of competitive marksmanship for national competition; permanently establishing the rank of major general for the

office of Commandant; increasing the manpower level of the Corps; and the skillful and diplomatic handling of Marine Corps matters with Congress and other governmental officials.

During the early part of 1900, the Secretary of the Navy, John D. Long, established the General Board of the Navy to act in an advisory capacity for determining naval policy. Admiral George Dewey was appointed as President of the Board, a position he was to hold until his death in 1914. Membership of the board was made up of high ranking officers of the Navy with the exception of Marine Colonel George C. Reid, who at the time was Adjutant and Inspector of the Marine Corps.

The concept of amphibious operations, which had played a prominent role in the defeat of Spain, immediately became a major considera-

tion of the board. At its first meeting, the board recommended that the assault mission, that of seizing advanced bases and the systematic development of advanced base personnel and equipment, be assigned to the Marine Corps since it would be "best adapted and most available for immediate and sudden call" for use in defending any advanced base. The board requested the Secretary of the Navy to direct the Commandant of the Marine Corps to organize immediately a force to be used for such employment. This request by the board for the Marine Corps to prepare to accomplish a specific task was the first of its kind. Shortly thereafter, a Marine battalion was organized for the mission indicated and by 1902 special training in the capture and defense of advanced bases had begun.

Throughout the decade (1900-1910) the Marine Corps continued to build and perfect its capability for the mission it had been assigned. Aside from the demands of quelling hostile elements in different parts of the world, and other activity, the Corps participated in extensive advanced base exercises. During this same period, all of the war plans developed by the General Board considered the question of possible and probable advanced base sites. These considerations were in addition to the permanent base at Guantanamo and the advanced base, Grande Island, in the Philippines. The subject of advanced bases rapidly became a popular one, and several officers from the different services wrote papers concerning the necessary means for acquiring and holding such bases.

In July 1910, an advanced base school, which was established in New London, Connecticut (in 1911 the school was moved to Philadelphia) began instruction for its first class. Although primarily established as an officers' school, the first class consisted of 40 enlisted men. During the same year, other Marine officers were assigned to specialist schools of the Army to learn skills which would be helpful to an advanced base force. Much of the improved education and training of Marine personnel to be used as an advanced base force grew out of decisions made between 1907-1910. During this period, Marine Corps strength had been increased by more than 16 percent by Congress, and the Secretary of the Navy had approved the Board's recommendations that a consolidation of advanced base materiel be made. The Commandant was given the responsibility for the custody and care

of all advanced base materiel and was charged with the responsibility of taking the necessary steps to instruct Marine Corps personnel in the use of such materiel.

After the turn of the 20th Century, as well as before, the Marine Corps had demonstrated its ability as a disciplined and capable fighting force. Although not highly publicized at the time for its achievements, the Corps had acquired a certain amount of respect within the military establishment as a result of its combat successes. This, however, did not forestall efforts made to remove Marines from vessels of the Navy or those which would abolish the Corps and make it a part of the Army. As early as 1801, Thomas Truxton had made such overtures and during 1894-1895, a group of naval officers led by Lieutenant William P. Fullam, USN, attempted to have Marines removed from naval vessels. These early efforts were rejected by the Secretary of the Navy, but in 1908, such demands fell on the sympathetic ears of President Theodore Roosevelt. During that year, the President issued Executive Order 969 which defined the duties of the Marine Corps and specifically left out duty on board naval vessels. Shortly thereafter, and adding insult to injury, it was rumored that the President had also decided to transfer the Marine Corps into the Army and make it part of the infantry. The Navy Department countered this rumor, but the controversy continued.

Those who read the newspapers between November 1908 and March 1909, and followed the fervent arguments, became aware that a military organization called the Marine Corps did exist and, in fact, had fought many battles in defense of the Nation. The matter of restoring Marines to naval vessels was finally resolved during March 1909. On 3 March, President Roosevelt, after the Senate had adopted a Naval Appropriations Bill which required that at least eight percent of the enlisted men on board battleships be Marines, issued orders restoring the Marines to ships. The edict provided, however, that the Marines would be placed under the orders of the captains of the vessels on which they were to serve. This provision made it possible for the ship's captain to assign the Marines on board to any sort of duty.

The General Board of the Navy recognized possible difficulties arising from such a situation and consequently recommended to the new Secretary of the Navy, George von L. Meyer, and

the new President, William Howard Taft, who took office on 4 March 1909, that it be changed. On 26 March 1909, President Taft issued a memorandum from the White House to the effect that "the amendments to the regulations adopted on March 3 in regard to the Marines should be revoked and the old regulations should be restored." Thus, the Marine Corps had survived another attempt to reduce its sea-land combat capability, but other survival battles were to come later.

The decade prior to World War I continued to be a progressive one for the Marine Corps. By 1913, the General Board had recommended to the Secretary of the Navy, who agreed, that there be a fixed defense regiment of 1,250 men assembled on each coast. The Board further recommended that "two mobile defense regiments of about 1,250 men each may be required in war to reinforce the fixed defense regiments. . . ." Marine Corps education and training continued to advance and as new weapons and equipment came into the hands of Marines, new tactics based on the use of these weapons were developed. The gasoline-powered truck facilitated transportation and supply, and the radio provided rapid long-distance communication. Improved artillery, more reliable machine guns, and automatic rifles gave Marine units greatly increased firepower. The development of the airplane gave promise of unlimited possibilities. Aside from the operations in Latin America during this period which required Marine Corps attention, the development of advanced base forces, forerunner of the present-day Fleet Marine Force, moved rapidly forward.

Operations In Latin America.

The areas of Latin America and the Caribbean were not unknown to the Marines by 1900, but during the following three decades they would become even more familiar. In order to support the United States policy as stated in the Monroe Doctrine (1823) and the corollaries thereto (Roosevelt corollary 1904 and Lodge corollary 1912), the Marines were ordered to land and restore order in several of the smaller countries of Latin America. The strategic position of such islands as Cuba and Hispaniola (politically divided into Haiti and the Dominican Republic) would provide a direct gateway to the Panama Canal, and the United States was vitally concerned about protecting its interests in the area.

During 1901 and 1902, on several occasions it was necessary to land ships' detachments of Marines in Panama to protect Americans and their property. In the spring of 1903, Marines were required to land in Honduras and the Dominican Republic, again to protect American interests. When Panama revolted against Colombia (of which Panama was a part) in 1903, President Theodore Roosevelt ordered Marines into Panama to prevent any other force from landing within 50 miles of the new state (the United States recognized Panamanian independence four days after the revolt). Shortly after the first Marines landed, three additional battalions were sent to Panama under the personal command of Commandant George F. Elliott. The Colombian soldiers were no match for the Marines, and the situation was quickly stabilized. The new government signed a treaty with the United States which gave it the sovereign right to a canal zone 10 miles wide and the right to keep order within Panama. The United States then built the Panama Canal (construction 1904-1914).

During the Cuban revolt of 1906, President Roosevelt ordered two battalions of Marines to Cuba to assist the government in maintaining order. Additional Marines were sent, and within a few weeks an entire brigade, totaling 97 officers and 2,795 enlisted men, had landed and peace was restored. The Army of Cuban Pacification was organized shortly thereafter and Marines served under the U. S. Army's jurisdiction, remaining there until 1909. In 1912, explosive revolts by Cuban blacks shook the country and on 22 May the 1st Provisional Regiment of Marines was organized and sent to the island. Reinforced by a second regiment, which arrived at Guantanamo on 5 June, a provisional brigade was formed under the command of Colonel Lincoln Karmany. Marines were required to restore order in 26 towns, all near Santiago and Guantanamo, and all trains east of Camaguey carried Marine guards until the situation was stabilized in July. As soon as the Cuban authorities were able to relieve them, Marine garrisons were pulled back to Guantanamo Bay and thereafter returned to the United States.

Nicaragua, for a long time, had been a trouble spot in Central America. The Marines had been required to land there on seven occasions prior to 1910 to protect American citizens and diplomats from violence during civil wars and revolutions. In 1909, a revolution to overthrow the existing Nicaraguan government erupted, and

for three months, until March 1910, a regiment of Marines was standing by on board ship at Corinto, Nicaragua's west coast seaport. The Marines were not landed and were returned to their duty stations. Two months later, two companies of Marines were sent from the Canal Zone to Bluefields, on Nicaragua's east coast, and occupied the area for several months. During this time there was much political unrest, and riots and vandalism were taking place throughout the country. The Marines protected American and foreign interests while remaining ashore until September.

Rebellious elements continued to stir up trouble, and in 1912 all of Nicaragua was swept by civil war. The American Legation at Managua was attacked and American lives and property were endangered. At the request of the Nicaraguan government, which was supported by the United States, more Marines were landed in 1912. On 15 August, Marines under the command of Major Smedley D. Butler reached Managua and set about restoring order. Other Marines arrived to help fight the rebel forces: they also guarded the railroad, occupied several towns, and patrolled extensively. The revolutionary activities had seriously interfered with foreign fruit, lumber, and mining interests, and

under the guidance of the State Department, Marines exerted their efforts toward peace. By 1913, a certain amount of order had been achieved, and the majority of the Marines were withdrawn. Only a legation guard of 101 Marines was left in Nicaragua, but in later years more were sent when civil war once again erupted.

The Dominican Republic also required a stabilizing influence. When political strife and unrest shook the governmental structure in 1912, a Marine regiment was sent to Santo Domingo City to protect American interests and restore order. By remaining on board ship in the harbor, the regiment's presence provided the necessary show of force for the governmental officials, and a landing was unnecessary. In May 1914, a company of Marines was sent to the area, but when conditions immediately improved, it left. Three months later, the 5th Regiment of Marines arrived and spent two months quelling areas of unrest. With this job completed, these Marines were also withdrawn. In May of 1916, the American Minister requested military assistance due to an increase in rebel activity and soon an entire brigade of Marines was occupied in Dominican affairs. The Marines supported the American State Department policies, organ-



A skirmish line of Marines of the 8th Company in action near Santiago, Dominican Republic in 1916. (USMC Photo #517356).



Mule-drawn field artillery was part of the Marine brigade that served at Vera Cruz, Mexico in 1914. (USMC Photo #517188).

ized and trained a native constabulary, and continually combatted rebel and bandit activity. They remained in this role until 1924, when the American Military Governor turned control of the government over to newly elected Dominican officials, and the Marines departed.

In 1914, tensions with Mexico came to a head, and the Advanced Base Force commanded by Colonel John A. Lejeune was poised to land in Mexico. On 21 April, President Woodrow Wilson ordered naval forces to land and seize the custom house at Vera Cruz. Throughout that day and the next large numbers of Marines and sailors landed, and by 24 April Vera Cruz was pacified. Four days later, with peace restored, Army troops arrived and took over the area. The United States Fleet left the area shortly thereafter, but a Marine brigade, composed of over 3,000 officers and men, remained behind under Army command and stayed at Vera Cruz until November 1914, when it was withdrawn. This expedition provided important field training for the Marines, because it required working with larger formations than the Corps had ever assembled in one place before.

In Haiti, during 1914, strife-torn internal conditions of the government required a detachment of Marines to land for the purpose of restoring order and protecting the property of Americans and Europeans alike. In the following year, 1915, Haitian revolutionaries increased the tempo of their activities. The Cacos, a feared group of lawless Haitian guerrillas, had stirred up trouble for many years, and open revolt broke out. On 28 July, a detachment of Marines and sailors from the USS *Washington* went ashore at Port au Prince, and a company of Marines which had been rushed from Cuba landed on the following day. By 15 August, the Marines from Cuba and the 1st and 2d Regiments of Marines, which had recently arrived, were formed into a brigade to restore order in the country.

Under guidance of the United States Government, Navy and Marine officers trained Haitian officials in governmental functions. Vital services such as road building, communications, education, and other public activities were directed by Marine officers. The gendarmerie was staffed and trained by Marines and was gradually transformed into an all-native Haitian force.

Throughout the period, the Americans had a stabilizing influence in the troubled country, and as reforms were made, conditions began to improve.

In 1915, while fighting against the Cacos, Major Smedley Butler won his second Medal of Honor; his first had been awarded for heroic action the previous year in Mexico. Gunnery Sergeant Dan Daly also won his second Medal of Honor doing battle against the Cacos. Daly had won his first such award for courageous action while serving with the China Relief Expedition.

In 1918, unrest in Haiti once again began to develop. Resistance to enforced labor initiated a large-scale revolt, and Marines campaigned periodically against the revolutionaries during the next few years. During all of the years the Marines spent in Haiti, they gained valuable experience while doing battle with Cacos which served them well in future operations. By 1922, the situation in the country had calmed down and Haitian banditry diminished, but before the decade had ended the Marines there and in other Latin American areas were called upon again to restore order and keep the peace.

Beginning Of Marine Aviation

Marine Corps aviation had its beginning on 22 May 1912, when Lieutenant Alfred A. Cunningham arrived at the Naval Aviation Camp, Annapolis, Maryland. The following July, Cunningham was ordered from Annapolis to the Burgess Company plant at Marblehead, Massachusetts, and began his actual flight training. On 1 August 1912, after receiving 2 hours and 40 minutes of instruction, he made his first solo flight. Thus Lieutenant Cunningham, who was designated Naval Aviator Number 5, became a member of the Chambers Board, composed of six Navy officers and himself, which convened to draw up "a comprehensive plan for the organization of a naval aeronautical service." With membership on this board, the Marine Corps had representation in naval aviation almost from the beginning.

Naval aviation's early development owed much to its Marine members who took part in a number of the early experiments which were conducted. Some of those were: bombing from a naval plane (Bernard L. Smith); taking off by catapult from a battleship underway (Alfred A. Cunningham); and looping a seaplane (Francis T. Evans).

On 6 April 1917, the United States entered the First World War. At that time, Marine aviation had only 6 Marine officers designated as naval aviators, 1 warrant officer, and 45 enlisted men. Six months later, the First Marine Aeronautic Company was organized. In January 1918, the company of 12 officers and 133 enlisted men was transferred to Ponta Delgada on the Island of Sao Miguel in the Azores. There the pilots flew seaplanes on antisubmarine patrol for the remainder of the war. This unit was the first American flying group to go overseas completely trained and equipped.

In the United States, Marine aviation continued to develop at a rapid pace. After utilizing Army and Navy fields at Mineola, New York, Cape May, New Jersey, Coconut Grove, Florida, and Lake Charles, Louisiana, the Marines finally acquired their own field. During April 1918, the Curtiss Flying Field at Miami, Florida, was renamed the Marine Flying Field. After the move to Miami, the 1st Marine Aviation Force was organized. This unit was composed of four landplane squadrons—A, B, C, D, and a Headquarters Company. The unit was soon ordered



The first Marine aviator, 1st Lieutenant Alfred A. Cunningham, at the controls of an early Curtiss seaplane in 1912. (USMC Photo #514945).

to sail for France. By 30 July 1918, three of the squadrons, composed of 101 officers and 657 enlisted men, had reached France; the fourth followed in October. Upon their arrival, the squadrons became the Day Wing of the Northern Bombing Group in northern France. Two Navy squadrons made up the Night Wing. That was the first instance of a wing and group organization in naval aviation.

The Marine pilots, like most American airmen in France, faced the problem of having no aircraft to fly. While waiting for their DeHavilland DH-4s to arrive, the Marine pilots were assigned to British squadrons where they got their first taste of air combat flying British DH-4s. It was not until 23 September that the Marines received the first of their bombers in France. The Marine pilots operated in the Dunkirk area against German submarines and their bases at Ostend, Zeebrugge, and Bruges in Belgium. While their service was commendable, the Armistice came soon after Marine aviation arrived. Even though the period of action and shortage of planes hampered their participation in the war, Marine pilots shot down at least 4 and possibly as many as 12 German planes. They performed the first recorded aerial resupply mission when they dropped food to beleaguered French troops isolated for several days in the front lines on the Western Front. For that accomplishment, three pilots were awarded the Distinguished Service Medal, their observers received the Navy Cross (at that time a lower rated decoration). In other air action, Medals of Honor were awarded to Second Lieutenant Ralph Talbot and his observer, Gunnery Sergeant Robert Guy Robinson, for shooting down two enemy planes against overwhelming odds.

During World War I, all aviation played a minor role when compared to the clashes of the large land-mass armies, supported by artillery and later by tanks. Although Marine aviation was in its infancy and had to wait for other times and places to prove its total worth, 282 officers and 2,180 enlisted men served in the aviation branch of the Marine Corps during the war. While Marine aviators did not fly in support of any Marine ground forces during the war, it was Major Cunningham who commented that "the only excuse for aviation in any service is its usefulness in assisting the troops on the ground to successfully carry out their operations." Such thinking was later basic to the Marine

Corps' development of the air-ground team concept.

After the war, Marine air began to demobilize. In February 1919, the 1st Marine Aviation Force was disbanded at Miami and during the following month the First Marine Aeronautic Company, which had returned from the Azores, was also dissolved. Remaining personnel at Miami were subsequently transferred to Parris Island and Quantico in the summer of 1919. The Marine Flying Field at Miami was abandoned on 25 September of the same year. In the following year, Marine aviation had but 67 pilots and, after further reductions in 1921, its pilot strength dropped to 43. This, however, did not prevent the Marine Corps from pressing onward in developing an air capability.

The Marine Corps In World War I

In addition to performing various duties in the Latin American republics, the Marine Corps participation in the First World War was an important one. When the Naval Appropriations Bill became law on 26 August 1916, it included the Marine Corps personnel bill and immediately had a dramatic effect on the growth of the Corps. The bill authorized the increase of enlisted men by 5,000 and the number of commissioned officers from 343 to 600. It also allowed the Marine Corps to promote Colonels Littleton W. T. Waller, Joseph H. Pendleton, Eli K. Cole, and John A. Lejeune to brigadier generals. Thereafter, an active recruitment campaign got under way to bring the Marine Corps up to its authorized strength (the actual strength of the Corps in 1916 was just 354 officers and 10,727 men). Three Marine Corps bases were activated and began extensive training programs. The West Coast base was located in San Diego, California and the East Coast bases at Quantico, Virginia, and Parris Island, South Carolina.

By the time a state of war was declared to exist on 6 April 1917, the Marine Corps strength had risen to 462 officers, 49 warrant officers, and 13,213 enlisted men on active duty. As a result of the wartime buildup, Marine Corps strength reached its peak in December 1918, with a total of 75,101 officers and men. This figure included those who were members of the newly formed Marine Corps Reserve. During this time, a Marine women's auxiliary was also organized and performed several services in support of the war

effort. Despite this rapid buildup, the Marine Corps' high standards were never lowered.

When war came, Marines were serving in many areas both at home and throughout the world. There were 187 officers and 4,456 enlisted men on duty beyond the continental limits of the United States, and 49 officers and 2,187 enlisted men serving on board cruising vessels of the Navy. In addition, Marines were serving at 25 posts and stations in the United States. On 14 June 1917, the 5th Regiment of Marines, composed of 70 officers and 2,689 enlisted men, completely organized and ready for active service, sailed on the *Henderson*, *De Kalb*, and *Hancock* from the United States. This regiment formed one-fifth of the first force of American troops dispatched for service in France. The Americans arrived in France in July, and French soldiers were immediately assigned to instruct the Marines in the methods of trench warfare.



Close-quarter fighting in Belleau Wood in 1918 between Germans and Marines of the 4th Brigade. Painting by Sergeant Tom Lovell. (USMC Photo #515237).

By February 1918, the 6th Regiment and the 6th Machine Gun Battalion had arrived in France and the 4th Brigade of Marines was organized. This brigade fought as a part of the Army's 2d Infantry Division and engaged in eight distinct operations, four of which were major operations. Due to illness, Brigadier General Charles A. Doyen, who had first commanded the brigade, was temporarily replaced by Army Brigadier General James G. Harbord; on 14

July 1918, Marine Brigadier General Wendell C. Neville took command of the 4th Brigade of Marines and a few days later (29 July) Marine Brigadier General John A. Lejeune was assigned to command the 2d Infantry Division. Thus, General Lejeune became the first Marine officer on record to command an Army division in combat.

The Marine Corps had placed in France, within one year after the war had started, about as many enlisted men as there were in the Corps when war was declared. About 30,000 Marines served overseas with the American Expeditionary Force (AEF) along with 1,600 for naval shore duty. In addition to maintaining the 4th Brigade, composed of 258 officers and 8,211 enlisted men, the Corps placed the 5th Brigade of Marines in France, which consisted of the same strength. Many Marine officers served on Army staffs, commanded Army units in the 2d and other divisions, and served in a variety of other detached capacities throughout the AEF. The Marines, also, during this period of the war, successfully performed other duties as required by the Navy. These included, maintaining two Marine brigades of prewar strength, standing by for operations as needed and as an advanced base force in Philadelphia, Cuba, Santo Domingo, and Haiti. Marines also administered and officered the Haitian Gendarmerie and the Guardia Nacional Dominicana, served on many vessels of the Navy, and maintained garrisons at numerous Navy yards and naval stations in the United States and other areas. Still other Marines, both officer and enlisted, were called on for special and detached duty at home and abroad.

Belleau Wood And Other Battles

In its first offensive action of the war, the 4th Brigade was sent in to help block an aggressive German drive which was directed toward Paris. Fighting tenaciously, the Marines attacked well-entrenched Germans at Belleau Wood and finally cleared them out by 26 June 1918. In 20 days of courageous and gallant fighting, the Marine brigade met and defeated part of two of Germany's experienced regular divisions. For heroic conduct by the brigade during this engagement, the French Army commander changed the name of the forest to "Bois de la Brigade de Marine" or "Marine Brigade Woods" and awarded the Croix de Guerre to this hard fighting American unit.

During the following month, the Marines

spearheaded the American attack at Soissons and were credited with having given the impetus which cracked the enemy force, causing it to retreat. In August, after receiving replacements to reinforce its depleted ranks, the brigade participated in the attack on the next objective, St. Mihiel. During this battle, the German defenders could not withstand the relentless American attack, and St. Mihiel was taken. Shortly thereafter, at the request of French Marshal Foch, General Lejeune's division joined the French Fourth Army. An attempt was made to split up the division for use as shock troops with various French units, but General Lejeune vigorously objected to this French plan. Lejeune won his point, and the division was made a part of the spearhead in the attack of Blanc Mont Ridge.

Blanc Mont was a primary position in the German defense chain, and the French units had been attacking this bastion for several weeks without any success. After the engagement began, the Marine brigade, in a coordinated attack with an Army brigade of the 2d Infantry Division, overran and completely cleared Blanc Mont within two days. Attacking initially

against two German divisions, the Americans overwhelmed the enemy force and successfully resisted counterattacks by other German units.

Meuse-Argonne And The Armistice

During November 1918, the Marine brigade, along with other American units, was in the final phase of the great Meuse-Argonne offensive, the last major battle of the war. The 2d Infantry Division, led by Marines, was assigned the mission of driving a wedge-shaped salient through the enemy's strongpoint. The attack was completely successful and the soldiers and Marines exploited their success. The 4th Brigade was continuing to advance forward and to clear out enemy resistance when the news of the Armistice was announced.

With the Armistice declared, the Marine brigade remained in Europe as a part of the Army of Occupation. It subsequently moved into Germany and for seven months occupied positions along the Rhine. Later, during August 1919, the Marines returned to the United States. Throughout the remainder of the year, rapid demobilization occurred in all of the military services, and the Marine Corps was hard hit by such reductions. After having reached a war-



Marines of the 4th Brigade seizing a bridgehead on the Meuse River on the night of 10/11 November 1918. Painting by F. C. Yohn. (Photo courtesy Marine Corps Museum).

time peak of over 75,000 men, the Marine Corps was reduced to 17,165 officers and men on active duty by 30 June 1920.

As a result of the Marines' participation in World War I, the French recognized the outstanding service they had performed. The 5th and 6th Regiments of Marines were cited three times in French Army orders for their courageous accomplishments in the Chateau-Thierry sector, the Aisne-Marne (Soissons) offensive, and the Meuse-Argonne campaign. The 6th Machine Gun Battalion was cited for its work in the Chateau-Thierry sector and Aisne-Marne (Soissons) offensive, and the 4th Brigade received a similar citation for its achievements in the Chateau-Thierry sector. Since it took three French Army citations to make an organization eligible for the award of the French fourragère the high standard of Marine Corps combat ability was obvious. In January 1920, the War Department accepted the award of the French

fourragère in the colors of the ribbon of the Croix de Guerre for several Army organizations and three units of the 4th Brigade. In addition to these awards for service above and beyond the call of duty, 8 Marines won 13 Medals of Honor (6 Army and 7 Navy). Five enlisted men received both the Army and the Navy Medal of Honor for the same act of heroism, one enlisted man received the Army Medal of Honor, and two received Navy Medals.

The Marine Corps had come a long way since the turn of the century. Marines had been catapulted into the public eye and had shown the world their combat effectiveness. During the next two decades, while the United States pondered isolationism and was struck by the great economic depression, the Marine Corps was continually called upon to serve in the troubled areas of Latin America, the Caribbean, and China.

PART VI

MARINE CORPS ACTIVITIES BETWEEN WORLD WARS I AND II 1920-1940

During the two decades preceding World War II the Marine Corps remained intermittently involved in areas of Latin America; enlarged programs for military education; and continued to perfect advanced base capability along with supporting amphibious doctrine. In addition, Marines performed such other duties as required by the naval establishment, at home and abroad, and found time to develop an active baseball and football program of national scope.

On 1 July 1920, John A. Lejeune, an outstanding leader in World War I, became Commandant of the Marine Corps. During his tour as Commandant, which lasted until 4 March 1929, the Corps initiated and began to develop many of the programs which later proved to be vital for achieving victory during the Pacific engagements of World War II. It was no easy task for the Commandant to fulfill the responsibilities placed upon him during the post-war period of the 1920s. At the beginning of the decade, there was a national feeling that the "war to end all wars" had been won and that peace and prosperity would forever prevail. Big business and revelry were the order of the day, and the general public had little interest, if any, in building or maintaining a well-trained and well-equipped military force. The Nation entered a period of military disarmament and a retreat to isolationism with the election of Warren G. Harding to the presidency in 1920.

By the end of 1921, the Five Power Naval Treaty, (United States, Britain, Japan, France, and Italy) had been agreed upon. Under this treaty the five nations agreed to limit their naval tonnage in future ship construction and not to fortify certain of their possessions in the Pacific. Specifically, under the nonfortification clause, the United States agreed not to fortify any of her Pacific Islands west of Hawaii. Great Britain made the same agreement regarding Hong

Kong, Borneo, the Solomons, and the Gilbert Islands. Japan, a doubtful ally at the time in the thinking of many American military leaders, agreed not to fortify Formosa or the former German possessions in the Pacific north of the equator which had been mandated to her. This area included the Marianas, less Guam, and the Caroline Islands. Reaction within the naval establishment to the treaty, especially the nonfortification clause, was extremely negative. The possibility of a war with Japan had been considered earlier by the General Board of the Navy while developing contingency plans for possible future engagements. The general feeling was that such a treaty would allow Japanese naval strength to grow unchecked in the Far East—a feeling that was largely substantiated in December 1941.

The prevailing mood of the Nation had its effect on all branches of the military services. Personnel strengths were reduced and money for equipment was curtailed. It became, therefore, a time in the services for a period of study and experimentation for those hardy souls who had chosen the military as a career.

It was also a time of awareness and development for the Marine Corps. It was realized by many of its leaders that in the event of future war the Corps could not duplicate the mission of the Army and hope to survive as an organization. It was, therefore, necessary to develop a mission that was uniquely its own—and this it did.

Development Of A Staff System

The Marine Corps had no organized staff system comparable to the Army's prior to World War I. Staff experience had been gained by several Marine officers while serving in Latin American countries and while working with the Advanced Base Force concept. Valuable staff

experience had also been gained by Marine officers while serving with the Army during the World War. In the years immediately following the war, a staff system was introduced into the Marine Corps which basically is still in effect today. At Headquarters, new techniques were introduced to rectify the inadequacies in staff organization which had been apparent during the war. By the end of 1918, the Commandant had established a Planning Section with a mission which included "all matters pertaining to plans for operations and training, intelligence, ordnance, ordnance supplies and equipment." This section was composed of three officers who were placed under the direct supervision of the Assistant to the Commandant.

In 1920, Congress provided for a Marine Corps of 27,400 officers and men, but the House of Representatives only allowed appropriations for 20,000. Recruiting efforts were successful, and the Corps was able to maintain a strength of about 20,000 throughout the decade. In order to administer and coordinate the activities of the post-war Corps, Commandant Lejeune ordered, in 1920, the reorganization of the Headquarters staff. The Planning Section was expanded into the Division of Operations and Training and given a general of its own, Logan M. Feland. The new division was composed of Operations, Training, Military Education, Military Intelligence, and Aviation Sections. Although not exactly the same, the Division performed functions "similar to those of the General Staff of the Army and . . . Office of the Chief of Naval Operations."

Among the functions which were later assigned to the Division of Operations and Training was that of preparing Marine Corps war plans. One of the Marine officers who was concerned with such planning during the early 1920s was Major (later Lieutenant Colonel) Earl H. Ellis. Like many other military officers, Ellis was cognizant of the Japanese threat in the Pacific. In 1920, the Office of Naval Intelligence prepared a study concerning the possibility of a transpacific war against Japan, and various agencies within the Navy Department were directed to implement the study with plans of their own. The Marine Corps contributed to what ultimately became known as the "Orange Plan," and Ellis made a major contribution to that portion of the plan which dealt with advanced base operations. The document he wrote, Operation Plan 712 (Advanced

Base Operations in Micronesia), was approved by the Commandant on 23 July 1921.

In his writing Ellis pointed out:

. . . it will be necessary for us to project our fleet and landing forces across the Pacific and wage war in Japanese waters. To effect this requires that we have sufficient bases to support the fleet, both during its projection and afterwards.

To effect [an amphibious landing] in the face of enemy resistance requires careful training and preparation to say the least; and this along Marine lines. It is not enough that the troops be skilled infantrymen or artillerymen of high morale; they must be skilled watermen and jungle-men who know it can be done—Marines with Marine training.

Although Ellis never lived to see the fruits of his projections, having died a mysterious death during 1923 while paying a "tourist" visit to Japan's Palau Islands, when war came in the Pacific Operation Plan 712 had contributed much to Marine Corps readiness.

Despite individual contributions by Marines to war plans, Headquarters Marine Corps was not adequately staffed to carry out a war planning function. Marine officers were aware that without adequate internal war planning the Corps would be left out in the joint plans being developed by the Army and the Navy. With this in mind, General Lejeune had the War Plans Committee organized in November 1924 to operate directly under the Commandant. This Committee later became the War Plans Section of the Division of Operations and Training. Throughout the remainder of that decade and the next the Marine Corps continued to refine and perfect its total staff capability. Personnel, Recruiting, and Educational Sections were eventually added along with other special sections to keep pace with the growing demands of the Corps.

Development Of An Amphibious Warfare Mission

While Ellis's prolific thinking and writing may have given impetus to the developing amphibious mission of the Corps in the 1920s, others were also fully aware of that important role. In February 1922, Commandant Lejeune recommended to the General Board that the strength of the Marine Corps be determined by its peacetime duties and wartime missions. He also set forth those missions, which included the primary war mission of the Marine Corps as a mobile force to accompany the Fleet for operations on shore in support of the Fleet. In considering the possibility of a war in the Pacific, he pointed out that between Hawaii and Manila the United

States had no developed naval base and that in a war such a base would be vital. The Commandant further pointed out the importance of the Marine Corps as an organization for any naval expedition requiring a mobile land force.

In 1923, while addressing the Naval War College, the Commandant once again drove home the importance for the Marine Corps to be a force-in-readiness. He stated:

... on both flanks of a fleet crossing the Pacific are numerous islands suitable for utilization by an enemy for radio stations, aviation, submarine, or destroyer bases. All should be mopped up as progress is made. . . The presence of an expeditionary force with the fleet would add greatly to the striking power of the Commander-in-Chief of the fleet. . . The maintenance, equipping, and training of its expeditionary force so that it will be in instant readiness to support the Fleet in the event of war, I deem to be the most important Marine Corps duty in time of peace.

Additional efforts had to be made before such an amphibious mission for the Corps was fully realized, but the evolution of a Fleet Marine Force had begun.

In 1927 the offensive mission for the Marine Corps in amphibious operations was elaborated on in *Joint Action of the Army and Navy*. This document, prepared by the Joint Board, was

the first attempt by the services to define and delimit their respective responsibilities in joint operations. The general role assigned to the Marine Corps in landing operations gave approval to the responsibilities which had already been implied by the approval of the Orange Plan (1926). According to the Joint Action document, the Marine Corps was to be prepared for "land operations in support of the Fleet for the initial seizure and defense of advanced bases and for such limited auxiliary land operations as are essential to the prosecution of the naval campaign."

A broader mission in landing operations was assigned the Marine Corps under the section of the document which defined Army functions in a "landing attack against shore objectives." This broadly stated mission of the Corps in amphibious operations, however, did not survive the first revision of the Joint Action document. This revision was made in 1935, and all references to a separate Marine Corps function were dropped. Only the following passage under "General Function of the Navy" appears to indicate a Marine role in landing operations: "To seize, establish, and defend, until relieved by Army forces, advanced naval bases; and to conduct



Marines of the Expeditionary Force wade ashore from a landing boat at Culebra, Puerto Rico, during fleet maneuvers in 1924. (USMC Photo #515096).

such limited auxiliary land operations as are essential to the prosecution of the naval campaign." Later, Marine Corps amphibious operations in the Pacific during World War II expanded far beyond this limited concept.

In order to prepare itself for the amphibious mission it was destined to perform, the Marine Corps conducted several landing exercises with the Fleet during the two decades preceding World War II. The first such exercise took place from January to April 1922 when Marines under the command of Lieutenant Colonel Richard M. Cutts participated in landings at Guantanamo Bay and Culebra. During these exercises heavy equipment was tested for its feasibility for ship-to-shore operations, the training of artillery gun crews was emphasized, and all other equipment which accompanied the expeditionary detachment was also tested. In March, another exercise was conducted at Culebra in which heavy equipment was once again moved by small boats from ship to shore and three problems of attack and defense were worked out with the Control Force, U.S. Atlantic Fleet. During these exercises valuable experience was gained, but the emphasis was placed primarily on defense rather than offense. The Commandant, in commenting on the 1922 landing exercises, pointed out that "while the exercises of 1922 were defensive in their nature, they brought out the difficulties of attack landing operations against hostile opposition and the further presumption that the Marine Corps should be preparing for offensive landing operations in addition to the defensive advanced base works."

In 1923 the term Advanced Base Force was dropped and the general term Marine Corps Expeditionary Forces came into use to designate those permanently or provisionally organized units of the Marine Corps which were available for overseas service with the Fleet. From December 1923 through February 1924, a Marine Corps Expeditionary Force of over 3,300 officers and men, under the command of Brigadier General Eli K. Cole, participated in Fleet Exercise No. IV. These exercises were once again conducted at Culebra and around the Canal Zone. Both defensive and offensive training was carried out, and more valuable experience was gained while conducting ship-to-shore operations. Of special importance was the experience gained in loading and unloading the USS *Sirius* during the operation. A detachment of 25 Marines and 1 officer was assigned to the freighter

and made combat cargo unloading feasible by properly loading the ship with Marine equipment. This was the forerunner of duty later assigned to Marines on board ships and to combat cargo officers. In addition, the exercises produced the beginning of serious experimentation with landing craft more suitable than the standard ships' boats.

Joint Army and Navy exercises were held in April 1925 off the coast of the Hawaiian Islands. About 1,500 Marines took part in the operation which was a complete success from the Marine Corps point of view. Successful landings were made against the opposing forces, more equipment was tested, and landing tactics improved. For the remainder of the decade, Marine participation in fleet exercises was interrupted due to expeditionary commitments in certain Latin American areas and China.

During the decade preceding World War II, the Marine Corps continued to develop and perfect its amphibious warfare capability. Along with research and writing on the subject, Marines again participated in landing exercises. In 1931 Marines conducted landings in the Caribbean, and during the second month of 1932 participated in joint Army-Navy exercises on Oahu, Hawaii. In late 1933 the Marine Corps Equipment Board was established at Quantico, Virginia, and Marines began to devote long hours to testing and developing materiel for landing operations and expeditionary service. Before the end of the decade, the Equipment Board had decided to initiate military trials of a swamp-craft, the Roebling "Alligator," which, under its military title of amphibian tractor (LVT), was destined to revolutionize the concept of beach assault.

The Secretary of the Navy issued General Order 241 in December 1933 which formally establish the "command and administrative relations" between the Fleet and the Fleet Marine Force. By mid-January 1934 the last Marine unit designated as a Marine Corps Expeditionary Force was incorporated into the new Fleet Marine Force (FMF). By this time major strides had also been made in the development of Marine Corps Schools and the writing of manuals to cover landing operations.

In February 1934, a battalion landing team from San Diego, California was the first FMF unit to engage in Fleet maneuvers, and from that point on the Fleet Marine Force took part in each annual Fleet problem. West Coast Ma-

rines made landings at San Clemente (an island southwest of San Pedro, California), in the Hawaiian Islands, and at Midway Atoll. Marines on the East Coast, beginning with Fleet Landing Exercise-1 in March 1935, conducted annual landing exercises at Culebra and Vieques. From 1935 until the beginning of the war in the Pacific, the Marines continually worked at perfecting their specialty—amphibious operations.

Development Of Marine Corps Schools

Formal education of Marine officers had its beginning in 1891, when Commandant Heywood ordered the School of Application to be established at Marine Barracks, Washington, D. C. The school was subsequently moved to Annapolis, Port Royal, Norfolk, and finally to Quantico, Virginia in April 1917. In 1920, the school, having gone through several name changes, was called the Marine Officers' School. By July 1922 three separate courses had been established at the Officers' School—the Basic Course, the Company Officers' Course, and the Field Officers' Course. At this time, all formal military schools for Marine officers were located at Quantico (the Basic School moved to Philadelphia in 1923, but was returned to Quantico during World War II) and the curriculum was basically Army-oriented.

This orientation was by design, having resulted from Marines' experience with the Army during World War I. All of the books used by Marine Corps Schools (MCS), a term commonly used during the 1920s, were written by the Army, with the exception of Advanced Base writings by Marines. In addition, a number of senior Marine officers had attended the Army War College or the Command and Staff College of the Army. This experience could only serve as a point of departure for organization, training, and planning, since education to fulfill an Army mission was ill fitted for that of the Marine Corps. This situation was changed when the Joint Board of the Army and Navy developed war plans which gave impetus to the developing mission of the Corps. With a specific mission in mind, the Marine Corps Schools began to develop a course of study of fulfill the role they were designated to perform.

While the Marine Corps was developing its military education program, it also provided an avenue for general education for those who were serving within the ranks. In November 1920, the Marine Corps Institute was established; it

was designed to cover the entire Corps and provide continuing education for all those who desired to enroll in the program. The institute organized its own staff of instructors and by using material furnished by the International Correspondence Schools and following the same general system, the Marine Corps correspondence program got under way. Marines rapidly began to enroll for courses and, within three years from its inception, nearly one-third of the Corps was studying different subjects under the institute's guidance. In subsequent years, the institute emphasis was changed from general education to military education and it became one of the major means of providing enlisted Marines with the opportunity to improve their professional competence.

Throughout the 1920s, the resident schools at Quantico continued to grow and reevaluate their course offerings. Changes and improvements were made in the curriculum as deemed necessary to keep pace with the needs of the Corps. Major Samuel M. Harrington, while a student in the Field Officers' Course during 1922, undertook a detailed study of small wars. Harrington's treatise entitled, "The Strategy and Tactics of Small Wars," was published in shortened form in the *Marine Corps Gazette*, the professional journal of the Corps. Later, Colonel Ben H. Fuller, Commanding Officer of MCS, asked Harrington to send him copies of his work on small wars to be used in building a course of instruction concerning the same subject. At that time, Harrington's work constituted the first consolidated analysis of small wars available for study. This work was later expanded by others, and was published in 1940 as the *Small Wars Manual*.

As a result of a report concerning the Fleet Exercises of 1925, the Commandant ordered that the subject of overseas expeditions and ship-to-shore operations be developed and incorporated in the tactical course of study in both the Field and Company Officers' Schools. This was done, and by 1926 landing operations totalled 49 hours in the course of instruction as compared to 5 hours in 1925.

On 28 February 1925, Congress passed the Marine Corps Reserve Act which established an active reserve and provided for two classes of reserves—the Fleet Marine Corps Reserve and the Volunteer Marine Corps Reserve. On 1 July 1925, the Act was made effective, and units were established in various places throughout the

United States. This Act gave the Marine Corps an opportunity to organize a reserve that could reinforce the regular Corps during times of emergency. The problem of training the reserve officers needed to be solved immediately, since it was obviously impossible to train all of them at the resident schools in Quantico. Although valuable training was possible during the weeks allowed in summer camps, it was not sufficient. Recognizing this fact, Marine Corps Schools organized a correspondence branch to provide reserve personnel with a means of acquiring a military education. The first courses were offered in the fall of 1926, and Army correspondence courses were adopted as the basis for instruction with certain modifications as needed to meet Marine Corps needs. By the end of the first year of operation, 334 students had enrolled for one or more of the 20 different courses which were being offered.

As the correspondence school grew and developed, additional courses were added to the curriculum and the old ones were revised to meet the changes occurring within the Corps. Throughout the remainder of the decade and into the next, Army courses were gradually phased out and original courses were written by Marines to replace them. The correspondence courses fulfilled the existing need in providing professional education to reserve officers and selected enlisted personnel, and they served as a means for supplementing the education of those belonging to the regular establishment.

While the correspondence school was moving forward, so was the resident school. Tactics instruction, during the 1926-27 school year, was increased in the areas of Marine operations with the fleet, overseas operations, and small wars. Early in 1927, an expedition to Nicaragua was ordered and resulted in many of the students as well as a number of the instructors from MCS being sent to that area. From that time until the turn of the new decade, MCS operated with few instructors and a very reduced student load. MCS received its first general as director in August 1930 when Brigadier General Randolph C. Berkeley was appointed Commandant of the Schools. By this time the schools were returning to normal operations, and a time for further re-evaluation was at hand.

The next five years brought the greatest changes in the schools up to that date. The schools' methods and missions were revitalized, and a new and more progressive institution

emerged in the middle thirties. A special board was appointed in 1931 for the express purpose of critically examining the entire curriculum of the schools. As a result of the board's investigation and recommendations, many revisions were made in the schools' schedules. More emphasis was placed on landing force operations and on the use of Marine Corps organization and materiel. In addition, emphasis was directed toward improving the techniques of instruction and the training of instructors. The establishment of the FMF also had a strong influence on the curriculum and content of courses at the MCS. The FMF, probably more than any other single factor, crystalized the schools' objectives and brought about a definite and logical pattern in the education of Marine officers. It soon became apparent that the educational system would have to focus its emphasis primarily on preparing officers for duty with the FMF in one capacity or another. This new emphasis was readily apparent during the 1934-35 school year. At the same time, Headquarters Marine Corps adopted the policy of assigning graduates of MCS directly to the newly established FMF so they could exercise their recently acquired skills.

One of the major projects undertaken by MCS was the preparation of a manual for landing operations. The Acting Commandant of the Marine Corps instructed the Commandant of MCS to complete a Manual on Landing Operations as expeditiously as possible, "commencing no later than November 15, 1933." This resulted in classes being discontinued on 14 November 1933, and the staff, assisted by the resident students, began the task of assembling the manual. After many weeks of hard work, the last chapters of the manual were submitted to the Commandant of the Marine Corps on 13 June 1934. Initially published in mimeographed form, the manual was later printed, bound, and given the title of *Tentative Manual for Landing Operations*. This manual represented one of the most important single contributions the Marine Corps had made toward the art of warfare. Shortly thereafter, the document was redesignated the *Manual for Naval Operations Overseas*, and the task of revising and updating the material was an immediate and constant one. The entire document was republished with revisions in 1938 and designated as FTP-167. Thereafter, this manual was the basic doctrine for carrying on the war in the Pacific, and the major guide



Men of the 1st Battalion, 5th Marines, part of the Fleet Marine Force, roll over the side of a ship's launch in a practice landing at Culebra in 1936. (USMC Photo #529463).

followed in all American amphibious landings in Africa and Europe.

From 1935 through 1940, innovations and changes continued to improve the quality of Marine officer education. New buildings were constructed and other facilities developed to meet the growing needs of the schools at Quantico. A Platoon Leaders' Class (PLC) was established in 1935 to enroll and train new lieutenants. The Basic School was greatly expanded and, by this time, was drawing students from four different sources—the Naval Academy, the ranks, Platoon Leaders' Classes (Reserve), and colleges and universities. In the summer of 1939, the decision was made to offer advanced training for reserve officers in a resident program and during October the First Reserve Officers' Course, composed of first and second lieutenants, convened at Quantico.

When President Franklin D. Roosevelt declared a state of limited national emergency on 27 June 1940, immediate expansion of the Marine Corps began. On 15 October 1940, Commandant Thomas Holcomb (December 1936–December 1943) issued a Mobilization Order

calling all Marine Corps Reserve units to active duty. Thereafter, all training facilities operated at break-neck speed to keep pace with the increasing demands. A Reserve Officers' Course was established by the Basic School in Philadelphia to parallel and augment the work being done by the Quantico Reserve Officers' Course. To further meet the demands for new Marine officers, the Commandant, on 8 October 1940, ordered the director of MCS to "organize a class of not more than four hundred candidates for appointment for commissions." Brigadier General Philip H. Torrey, Commandant of the Schools, organized a special detachment on 21 October to carry out the "conduct of Candidates for Commission Class."

Many problems were encountered, but were sufficiently overcome during this period of rapid build-up. Increased numbers of Officer Candidates were eventually brought into the educational programs from every source available, and the entire scope of all Marine Corps training facilities was taxed to the limits. Although more officers and men would continually be needed to prosecute the war against Japan, by

1941 the Marine Corps had developed a viable doctrine for amphibious warfare and a material development agency for the same purpose; and had a field force capable of using the hardware and applying the doctrine which had been developed.

Other Marine Activities At Home

While the Marine Corps was engaging in the important activities of developing schools, doctrine, and the FMF, other activities were also being carried on which occupied the time and taxed the energies of Marines. During the first half of the 1920s, several land maneuvers were conducted, reenacting battles of the Civil War (Battle of the Wilderness, Pickett's charge in the Battle of Gettysburg, Battle of New Market, and the Battle of Antietam). Some of the maneuvers were viewed by governmental officials and dignitaries and in all probability enhanced the image of the Marine Corps with the American public. Commandant Lejeune felt that the maneuvers were important because they "offered excellent opportunities in respect to troop and staff training and the testing of equipment and other materiel." In addition to these activities, the Corps was also involved with winning national rifle and pistol team competitions, building a football stadium at Quantico (Butler Stadium), and fielding nationally known baseball and football teams. Marine marksmen had won several awards while participating in the National Rifle Matches and, prior to 1938, they had won first place in five consecutive national matches. The football team competed against such major powers as the University of Michigan in 1923 and although beaten 26 to 6, established the reputation of being a tough competitor. Due to heavy commitments, the enthusiasm over maintaining athletic teams of national reputation slackened, and the Marine Corps football team was discontinued in 1930. In the following year the baseball team was also discontinued.

Twice during the 1920s, the United States was struck by a crime wave which manifested itself extensively in mail, bank, and other robberies. The Post Office Department, being unable to cope with the rapid rise of mail robberies, called upon President Harding for protection. On 7 November 1921, the President directed the Secretary of the Navy "to detail as guards for the United States mails a sufficient number of officers and men of the United States Marine

Corps." Over 50 officers and approximately 2,200 enlisted men were sent to the principal mail distributing centers throughout the country. During their tour, the Marines not only guarded the mail in those areas but also protected many mail trains and formed what was tantamount to a nation-wide system of mail protection. Given strict orders about how they should carry out their duties, the Marines were told to shoot to kill, or otherwise disable, "any person engaged in the theft or robbery, or the attempted theft or robbery of the mails entrusted to" their care. Operating in small groups of two or three, the Marines maintained an outstanding record while performing their duties. Mail robberies ceased almost immediately after the protective system had been completely established, and by the following March conditions had so improved that it was no longer necessary for them to continue the guard.

During the autumn of 1926, there was a recurrence of mail robberies, and Marines were called back to duty to guard the mail. Approximately 2,500 Marines went out on 20 October and again formed a nationwide system of mail protection, organized almost identically with that of 1921. Once again, mail robberies ceased upon the Marines taking over the security of the mails. With the Marines withdrawn from duty, the Post Office Department established its own effective means for protecting the mails from subsequent attempts at robberies.

Marines In Latin America And China

The troubled areas of Latin America during the 1920s and early 1930s continued to provide an opportunity for Marine ground units to gain valuable experience and develop new tactics. The Marines had been effective in establishing a certain amount of peace and stability in several of the areas of Latin America and the Caribbean prior to 1920, but the Dominican Republic, Haiti, and Nicaragua remained a source of trouble for some time thereafter.

In the Dominican Republic, Marines of the 2d Brigade continued the support of the military government and its attempts to rid the country of bandits until September 1924. They participated in extensive patrolling and assisted the Guardia in their efforts to disarm the population to prevent weapons from falling into the hands of the hostile element. Marines had fought a number of engagements with the bandits, but by September 1921 the number of such

contacts had been considerably reduced. In October of that year, a new system was initiated in an attempt to rid the eastern part of the country of the robbers. Marines under the command of Colonel W. C. Harlee conducted a series of nine cordon operations and by March 1922 had broken the rebellious element in that area. During these operations practically every male inhabitant within the area suspected of banditry was collected and held for identification. These identifications resulted in the trials and convictions of over 600 people for banditry or some form of implication therein.

Shortly thereafter, the cordon system was discontinued because of the unfavorable reactions of the local people, and the patrol system was re-established. Marine patrols made several contacts which resulted in heavy casualties to the bandits. They also formed five groups of Dominicans, gave them a special course of training in shooting and the tactics of patrolling and these groups took to the field against hostile elements. As a result of a stabilizing political situation, along with aggressive patrolling, bandit activity throughout the country was completely brought under control by the end of May 1922. By this time, arrangements for the re-establishment of a provisional government were well under way, and plans were made for the withdrawal of the Marines. A major effort was made to raise the efficiency of the Guardia (renamed the "Policia Nacional Dominicana") to enable it to control the country after the withdrawal was made. Marines assisted in this effort, and by the time the provisional government took control of the country, on 21 October 1922, important progress had been made. By the end of the year, the strength of the Policia was over 1,200 and it was continuing to make progress under its last Marine commander, Colonel Richard M. Cutts.

During the remainder of the occupation, the 2d Brigade functioned basically as a reserve in support of the Policia and never returned to the field or exercised any control over the Dominican Government. A constitutional government was inaugurated on 12 July 1924, and with this achievement the 2d Marine Brigade began its withdrawal from the Dominican Republic. The last of the Marines, a company left behind to assist in closing out supply and administrative affairs, withdrew on 16 September 1924.

In Haiti, Marines were also kept busy fighting groups of bandits. In January 1920, Marine units along with the Haitian Gendarmes started

a campaign against the Cacos which they relentlessly kept up for six months. During that time they had nearly 200 encounters with hostile groups of varying size. These engagements resulted in practically all the remaining bandits in the area being killed or captured, or surrendering. By the end of June, organized banditry had been all but eliminated throughout Haiti. Only a few small scattered groups remained, and these were ineffectual due to lack of organization and leadership. Patrolling continued, and by the end of 1921 the few remaining bandits in the mountain regions of central Haiti had been run down. With the return of more peaceful conditions and the knowledge that an early withdrawal from the country was not being considered, the 1st Marine Brigade settled down to a semblance of a peacetime routine.

The period from 1922 until 1929 was one of almost uninterrupted peace and progress. In February 1922, Brigadier General John H. Russell was appointed High Commissioner to the country with the rank of Ambassador. He functioned as the diplomatic representative of the United States, supervised and directed the work of the treaty officials, and as senior officer exercised authority over the Marine brigade as well as the Gendarmerie. Throughout this period, public work and roadbuilding projects continued and many reforms were made which improved the living conditions of the people. The Gendarmerie was reorganized and enlarged several times, reaching a strength of over 2,700 men. As this force grew and assumed more control, the Marine brigade was reduced to slightly more than 500, and these men served only as a reserve to support the Gendarmerie in case of an emergency.

During 1929, political unrest broke out in the country, partially as a result of the world-wide depression. Rioting and strikes spread throughout the countryside, and Marine reinforcements were diverted to Guantanamo Bay, Cuba but soon returned home. After the disturbances of 1929, the Marine brigade took no further part in Haitian affairs. Its strength was maintained at approximately 800 men and it was located in Port au Prince, with a small detachment in Cap Haitien. During the remainder of their stay in Haiti the Marines performed garrison duty, carried on a program of troop training, and held themselves in readiness for any emergency. With the government stabilized and other conditions relatively normal, the 1st Marine Brigade de-



A Marine patrol gets ready to move out against Sandino's rebels in Nicaragua in 1929. (USMC Photo #515283).

parted Haiti at the conclusion of impressive ceremonies and friendly gestures on 15 August 1934.

Marines had served in Nicaragua through several periods of political unrest and rebellious activity. In 1925, the last Marines left the country when the Legation Guard was withdrawn. Soon after the guard departed, the worst civil war in the history of Nicaragua swept the countryside. With government and rebel forces fighting each other in several areas of the country and endangering American lives and property, Marines were sent back to the country and remained there until 1933. Throughout 1926 Marines and sailors from the Special Service Squadron landed and established neutral zones in several areas of the country. Overtaxed and under strength to provide the necessary protection, the squadron commander requested the assistance of a battalion of Marines. The 2d Battalion, 5th Marines, commanded by Lieutenant Colonel James J. Meade, which was located at Guantanamo Bay, was immediately sent to Bluefields and arrived on 10 January 1927. More Marines were needed, and the remainder of the 5th Regiment and an aviation squadron were ordered to the country, and Brigadier General Logan Feland was sent to take command of all forces ashore in western Nicaragua.

Political haggling continued to split the country and additional Marines were sent to reinforce those already ashore. By the end of March

1927, the occupying forces were designated as the 2d Marine Brigade. A political agreement (the Tipitapa Agreement) was reached in May by opposing Conservative and Liberal elements, with the mediation assistance of President Coolidge's personal representative to the country—Henry L. Stimson. Throughout the remainder of the year, Marines attempted to disarm hostile elements within the country; they organized and trained the Guardia Nacional de Nicaragua; and they spent many long months fighting Augusto C. Sandino's rebel bandits. By November 1928, aggressive Marine patrolling and ambushing along with Marine air support had put Sandino and his men on the defensive. During the same month, presidential elections were supervised by the United States Electoral Mission and resulted in the election of the Liberal candidate, Jose Maria Moncada, to the Presidency.

With a certain amount of political stability existing, renewed efforts were directed at ridding the country of bandits. Again, Marines and the Guardia conducted extensive patrolling and ambushing and made numerous contacts with bandit groups. In June 1929, Sandino had been driven into the northern jungles of the country. In fear of being captured, he fled across the border to Honduras and later to Mexico. In his absence banditry was reduced to a level of lawlessness which was more manageable. With the Guardia developing into a competent mili-

tary organization, under the guidance of Marine leadership, the strength of Marines in the country was reduced.

In 1930 an increase in rebel banditry occurred and renewed efforts were directed at bringing it under control. Sandino had returned to the country and political unrest was again on the rise. In order to combat the bandits a plan was developed which provided for the guarding of the most vital points with a part of the available forces while conducting offensive operations with the remainder. The plan proved effective and many rebels were killed. One of the most effective units at delivering decisive blows against the bandits was led by Captain Lewis B. "Chesty" Puller and his lieutenant, Bill Lee. Puller's force, which averaged about 32 men, became famous for its ability to make contact with rebel groups while scouring the jungles in a wide area to the Honduran border. For his many exploits and successes against the bandits, Puller became known as the "Tiger of the Mountains."

From 1931 until the Marines were withdrawn from Nicaragua in January 1933, pressure continued to be exerted against Sandino and his hostile forces. During this time, Marines were also effective in keeping open the seaports and the railroad from Corinto to Granada, and in securing the collection and exportation of the coffee and banana crops. All of these activities were accomplished with the able assistance of the Guardia which by then had become a decisive force throughout the country.

The Marines' service in Nicaragua was an important one in many ways. They succeeded in gaining the respect, cooperation, and loyalty of most of the law-abiding inhabitants who appreciated what the Marines were attempting to do for them. In addition, many officers such as Merritt A. Edson, Lewis B. Puller, Evans F. Carlson, Ross E. Rowell, and Christian F. Schilt gained combat experience in the mountains and jungles of Nicaragua that ultimately contributed to the combat effectiveness of the units they led in World War II.

While Marines were landing to restore peace in different areas of Latin America, others were required for similar duty in Asia. Between 1922 and 1925, Marines of the Asiatic Fleet were called upon to make several landings in China. Their mission was to protect American citizens who were endangered by riotous elements. In 1927, civil war swept throughout China and a

large force of Marines was dispatched to the area from the United States. Brigadier General Smedley D. Butler was designated to command all the Marines in China who were organized into a reinforced brigade. With the arrival of all of Butler's troops at Shanghai, the 3d Brigade of Marines numbered 238 officers, 18 warrant officers, and 4,170 enlisted men. The mission of the 3d Brigade was solely the protection of American lives and property. The general rule adhered to was that conflict with the Chinese, when not absolutely necessary for fulfilling the primary mission, was to be avoided carefully.



Colorful symbol of the "China Marines," the Mounted Detachment, Peiping Embassy Guard, parades in the mid-1930s. (USMC Photo #515654).

No engagements took place, and the general situation of maintaining a ready force for emergencies continued throughout 1927 and early 1928. On 1 March of that year duty with the brigade was made "permanent," indicating little anticipation of early withdrawal. Throughout the spring and summer of 1928 the Chinese Nationalist forces, under the leadership of Chiang Kai-shek, continued to push their cause forward. Soon Chiang's forces had gained control over practically all of China, and on 10 October he was chosen President of the country. General political conditions greatly improved during the year, and in January 1929 all units of the 3d Brigade in Tientsin were withdrawn. Marines not used for replacements in China, the Philippines, Guam, or the Asiatic Fleet were returned to the United States. The Legation

Guard at Peiping was increased to 500 enlisted men, and the 4th Marines, which stayed in Shanghai, was increased to 1,150.

From 1929 until the outbreak of the war with Japan, Marines stayed on in China to protect American interests. Additional Marines were sent to the area during the late 1930s when war broke out between China and Japan. The Marines did not become involved in the fighting and continued to perform their duties of keeping a watchful eye on the situation and of protecting American citizens and property. Just before the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor, Marines in Shanghai were withdrawn to the Philippines.

Marine Corps Aviation And Expeditions

Between the World Wars, the only American ground and aviation units actually engaged in combat were Marines. Aviation organizations served in the Dominican Republic from February 1919 until July 1924; in Haiti from March 1919 until August 1934; and in Nicaragua from 1927 to 1933. During those years, a number of Marine pilots were not only experiencing combat but were also developing new tactics which would later revolutionize both ground and air warfare. In reality, the development of the Marine air-ground team had begun.

One of the first to experiment with dive-bombing was Lieutenant Lawson H.M. Sanderson. It was in the Dominican Republic, during 1919, that Sanderson discovered that he could strike a target with more accuracy by pointing his plane at the target and releasing his bomb from a makeshift rack after diving to a low level (about 250 feet) at an angle of about 45° (Attacks at this angle became known as glide-bombing during World War II.)

In Nicaragua during 1927, Major Ross E. Rowell, who commanded a group of Marine pilots, further experimented with dive-bombing and required it as a part of the training for all of his pilots. Dive-bombing became a standard operating procedure in Rowell's unit, and his pilots were the first to employ such a technique against an organized enemy unit (Sandino's rebels). It was also in Nicaragua that Rowell's pilots were the first to employ air-to-ground communication in combat. A Marine patrol under Captain Gilbert D. Hatfield, pinned down by bandits, spotted several Marine planes overhead. They laid out panels of cloth indicating the direction and range of the enemy and asked

for an air attack. The subsequent action of the Marine pilots resulted in the first known instance of an air attack being directed by ground troops. Again in Nicaragua during the late 1920s, Major Edwin H. Brainard delivered the first plane the Marines ever had which was built to transport cargo, the Fokker trimotor transport. Thereafter, with the arrival of two other Fokkers, Marine cargo operations in Nicaragua set "firsts" in the transporting of troops and supplies by air.

Marine pilots had evacuated wounded in Haiti and the Dominican Republic during the early 1920s while flying two modified DHs designed by a Marine aviator, but the best known of such evacuations occurred in Nicaragua during 1928. In January of that year, First Lieutenant (later General) Christian F. Schilt made a series of remarkable rescue flights when Marines were critically wounded by bandits near Quilali. This daring pilot made a number of landings and take-offs from a makeshift airstrip while under fire, and flying a heavily loaded plane. On each of these flights, he hauled out the wounded and then returned with more ammunition and supplies. For his extraordinary heroism and "almost superhuman skill," Schilt was awarded the Medal of Honor.

In the Pacific area, Marine aviators saw service on Guam during the 1920s and in China (1927) when civil war threatened American interests there. Although not engaging in combat, Marine pilots flew 3,818 reconnaissance sorties around Tientsin over a period of 18 months to keep an eye on the Chinese antagonists. After the threat to all foreigners had abated, personnel from Guam returned to the island, and other aviation personnel who had been sent to China returned to the States.

While Marine pilots were serving out of the country, other pilots were pushing forward Marine aviation at home. Many pilots spent long hours to increase their knowledge and proficiency in aeronautics. They engaged in such activities as making record-breaking flights, establishing speed records, winning safety awards, and dispatching medicine and supplies to areas stricken by earthquakes and hurricanes. In addition, Marine pilots experimented in blind flying, aerial cartography, and photography. As naval tactics changed, it became necessary for Marine aviation to adapt to these changes. Flying planes off ships was one such change, and from 1931 to 1934 VS-14M and VS-15M, the first Marine squadrons to become part of the



Lined up for inspection at San Diego in 1933, Marine SU-2s (2-seat scout planes) and F-1B3s (single-seat fighters) with a trimotor transport in the background. (USMC Photo #528119).

fleet air organization, saw service on board the carriers *Saratoga* and *Lexington*.

With the establishment of the FMF and the increased emphasis placed on the seizure of advanced naval bases in the event of war, Marine aviation was required to adjust to these changing concepts. In 1935, the aviation section at Headquarters Marine Corps was taken out of the Division of Operations and Training and made an independent section under the Commandant. In 1936, it was made a division under a Director of Aviation, and the director served as an advisor to the Commandant on all aviation matters. The director also served as a liaison officer between the Marine Corps and the Navy's Bureau of Aeronautics. This was necessary because Marine aviation depended solely on the Navy for its aircraft and all other aviation gear.

Throughout the remainder of the decade,

Marine aviation continued to grow and improve the training of its pilots, aerial observers, and ground support personnel. On 30 June 1939, there were 210 officers and 1,142 enlisted men on active duty serving with the Marine aviation branch. A year later, the number had grown to 1,860. During June of the same year, Congress authorized the Navy's 10,000-plane program out of which Marine aviation was allotted 1,167. Plans were then drawn up for establishing 4 groups of 11 squadrons each. After landing exercises in early 1941, it was projected that a single division making an amphibious landing would require at least 12 fighter, 8 dive-bomber, 2 observation, and 4 utility squadrons for support. Organizing and developing these squadrons, however, was a slow process. The 1st and 2d Marine Aircraft Wings were established in July 1941, but when war came five months later there was still only one group in each wing.

Marine Aircraft Group 11 was at Quantico and Marine Aircraft Group 21 had units at Ewa on Oahu and at Wake Island.

On The Eve Of War

By the summer of 1941, Marine forces were spread thin throughout many areas of the world. A brigade, built around the 6th Marines (Reinforced), had been sent to Iceland in July to relieve a British garrison and pave the way for the influx of U.S. Army troops. In addition, Marines were serving at numerous posts and stations in the United States and on board various ships of the Navy. They were also on duty in China, the Philippines, the Hawaiian Islands, Guam, Wake, Midway, American Samoa, Pan-

ama, and several British islands in the Caribbean.

On 30 June 1941, the total active duty strength of the Marine Corps was 54,359, but within a year that number would more than double. The Marine Corps Schools were operating at full capacity to keep pace with the officer demands and other Marine training facilities were doing likewise. Commandant Thomas Holcomb was acutely aware of the requirements that a major war would pose for the Corps and intense efforts were being made to build a balanced force of all arms. In December 1941, the time had arrived for the supreme test of this Marine force.

PART VII

WORLD WAR II TO KOREA

1941-1950

On the morning of 7 December 1941, Japan launched a devastating attack on the American Pacific Fleet anchored at Pearl Harbor on Oahu, Hawaii. The Fleet was taken by surprise and virtually all of the battleships were destroyed. All military airfields and other installations were under attack at the same time. The Pearl Harbor raid liquidated all but one of the 48 Marine aircraft at Ewa, but the personnel of Marine Aircraft Group 21 were able to organize and direct the defense of the airfield, thereby keeping it open throughout the attack for Army and Navy aircraft unable to reach their own stations for servicing. Other defenders also fought back as best they could, but the Japanese, in this one lightning thrust, had initially gained control of the Pacific. Within a few hours after the Pearl Harbor attack, Marines at Guam, Midway, and Wake Island were also receiving punishing blows from Japanese ships and planes.

In addition to naval personnel and local militia, Guam had only 153 Marines who were armed with nothing larger than .30 caliber machine guns. For two days, Guam came under heavy Japanese bombardment, and then approximately 6,000 enemy troops landed to take the island. The island defenders fought a hard and bitter battle for several hours against overwhelming numerical odds, but finally the island commander was forced to surrender. Thus, the first American outpost fell to the Japanese on 10 December 1941.

On 8 December at 1150, Japanese planes began bombing Wake Island. After three days of heavy bombardment, the Japanese Fleet moved in to debark a landing force to take the island. Major James P. S. Devereux's Wake Detachment of the 1st Defense Battalion and Major Paul A. Putnam's fighter squadron, VMF-211, drove off the initial attack, while inflicting numerous casualties on the enemy force. Approx-

imately 700 Japanese troops were killed. Marine aircraft sank two destroyers, damaged seven more, and before Wake fell to the enemy, had shot down at least seven Japanese planes. (There were only 12 Marine aircraft at Wake and 7 were destroyed during the initial attack. The remaining aircraft continued to be serviceable until destroyed on 22 December.) After the first attack the enemy withdrew, but continued to bombard the island for several days. The enemy then returned with a landing force of about 1,500 men and took the island. After a courageous attempt to defend the island, it was surrendered on 23 December 1941.

While Wake was being attacked, one of the largest and most powerful invasion forces which Japan had ever formed was in the process of overrunning the Philippines. The 4th Marines, which had previously arrived from Shanghai, was transferred to General Douglas MacArthur's (the American commander in the Philippines) command and directed to take over Corregidor's beach defenses. On Bataan, Marines were also preparing defenses and manning anti-aircraft batteries. On 10 December, a massive Japanese army drove against General MacArthur's force of Americans and Filipinos. Under savage air attacks, shellings, and continuous pressure, the gallant defenders held out as long as they possibly could, with no relief force available to assist them. Bataan fell on 9 April, and Corregidor on 6 May 1942. Thus, five months after the attack on Pearl Harbor, the American defenders had been overrun, and the Philippines were occupied by the Japanese.

On 7 May 1942, there were Marines on board cruisers, battleships, and aircraft carriers of Task Force 17 when it was cruising on a northwesterly course south of the Louisiades, which form an extension of the New Guinea tail, in search of a Japanese invasion force which was headed for

New Guinea and the Solomons. Discovery was made, and carrier aircraft of the opposing forces clashed in the Battle of the Coral Sea. Both sides received heavy damage and losses were about equal. This sea battle was an important one because a Japanese invasion force was turned back and prevented from carrying out the plan of capturing Port Moresby, New Guinea. The Japanese wanted Port Moresby in order to safeguard Rabaul and their positions in New Guinea, to provide a base for neutralizing airfields in northern Australia, and to secure the flank of their projected advance toward New Caledonia, Fiji, and Samoa. In addition, they wanted Tulagi, across the sound from Guadalcanal in the lower Solomons, for a seaplane base both to cover the flank of the Port Moresby operation and to support the subsequent advance to the southeast. To the Allies the holding of Port Moresby was essential for the security of Australia and as a springboard for future offensives. After the disaster at Pearl Harbor, the Battle of the Coral Sea fully demonstrated that the Pacific Fleet was back in the fight.

With the fall of other outposts, Midway Island was America's most advanced base by the end of May 1942. Previously (mid-December 1941) 17 Marine SB2Us (Vindicators) of VMSB (Marine Scout-Bomber Squadron) 231 reached Midway after a 10-hour flight from Pearl Harbor. On Christmas day, Midway received its first fighters when 14 Marine F2A-3s (Brewster Buffaloes) of Marine Fighter Squadron 221 joined the dive bombers. Thereafter, naval intelligence discovered that an enemy attack was scheduled for Midway, and Marines of the 6th Defense Battalion and Marine Aircraft Group 22 (MAG-22) worked diligently to prepare for the expected Japanese assault. With antiaircraft weapons manned and limited numbers of fighters, bombers, and patrol planes ready, the personnel on Midway waited for the Japanese move. Early in the morning of 4 June 1942, word was received at Midway that Japanese planes were approaching the island. The defending island aircraft, along with carrier aircraft of the *Enterprise* and *Hornet*, rushed into the enemy formations. Midway antiaircraft opened up as the Japanese planes came within range, and at 0630, the first bombs began to fall.

Within the next half hour nearly everything above ground was damaged; the fuel tanks were set afire, a hangar destroyed, and the powerhouse hit. Only the runways escaped injury. The

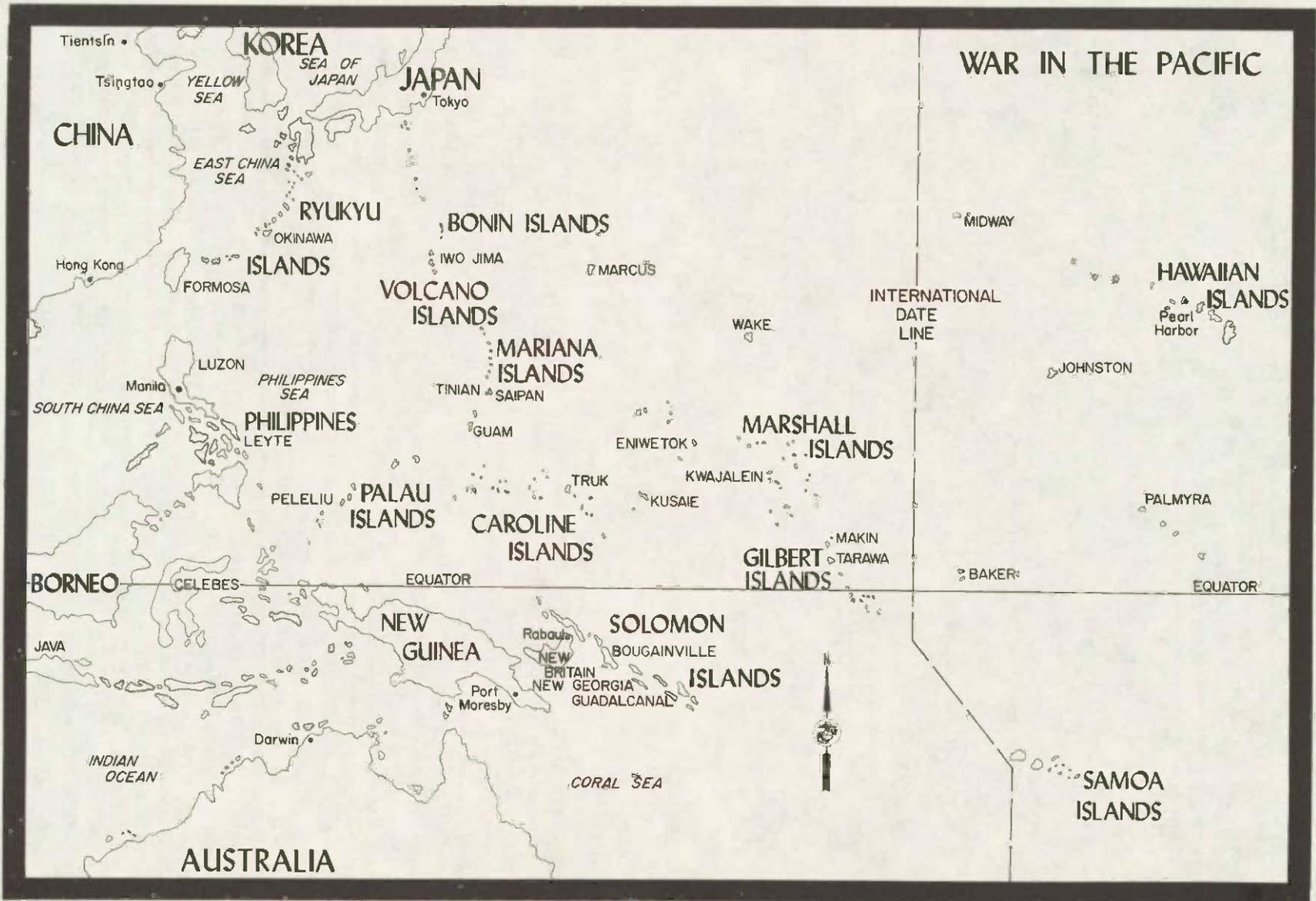
air battle lasted only about 20 minutes, and Marine pilots performed courageously. Outnumbered and outclassed by the Japanese Zeros, the Marine flyers put up a savage fight while downing a few enemy aircraft. When the melee was over, only 10 of the 25 Marine fighter planes had survived the first brief encounter. Other Marine losses on 4 June included 11 of Midway's 27 dive bombers. Although they too suffered severely, it was primarily the carrier pilots who won the two-day battle. One American Navy carrier, the *Yorktown*, was lost, but four Japanese carriers were sunk and hundreds of the enemy's finest pilots perished. In addition, Marine Captain Richard E. Fleming, who was awarded the Medal of Honor for diving his flaming bomber into the Japanese cruiser *Mikuma*, set fires which so badly crippled her that Navy planes easily finished her off. The carrier pilots also heavily damaged the cruiser *Mogami*. Thus, Midway fought off its first and last air attack of the war.

The early holding actions in the Pacific provided the United States with the opportunity to gird for a long struggle. The Corps, expanding for war at the time of the Pearl Harbor attack, numbered approximately 65,000 officers and men. It continued to expand until it reached its maximum strength of 485,833 in August of 1945. At the Marine Corps Schools, between Pearl Harbor and V-J Day, 15,000 second lieutenants were commissioned and during the same period an estimated 20,000 additional Marine officers received specialized and advanced training in the various branches of the Schools. Before the war ended, the Marine Corps numbered six divisions and five aircraft wings.

Marines At Guadalcanal

The amphibious nature of the war in the Pacific imposed on the Marine Corps greater tasks than any it had ever before been called upon to perform. The expansion of the Corps and equipping it with the weapons and support facilities necessary for modern amphibious undertakings was an administrative achievement of the first magnitude. This was overshadowed by the willingness of the Fleet Marine Force to undertake the Guadalcanal operation at a critical time early in the war when other ground forces were still undergoing training.

Between 7 and 9 August 1942, Marines landed on the beaches of Guadalcanal and Tulagi in the Solomon Islands. These landings marked the



WAR IN THE PACIFIC

WORLD WAR II TO KOREA: 1941-1950



Marines seek out the Japanese in the jungles of Guadalcanal. Eye-witness pencil sketch by Captain Donald L. Dickson, (USMC Photo #414533).

first Allied land offensive in the Pacific and were the first amphibious assaults against the enemy forces by the 1st Marine Division (Reinforced). In the face of stubborn counterattacks, the courageous division held on to its beachhead. Units of the 2d Marine Division, and the Army Americal Division began to arrive during October, and the American forces soon took the offensive. After several months of desperate fighting in the steaming tropical jungles, the Japanese were beaten and driven from the island by 9 February 1943.

The importance of aviation to Marine tactics was graphically demonstrated at Guadalcanal where one of the first objectives of the assault was a partially completed Japanese airfield, later renamed Henderson Field. After the airfield had been taken, Marine aviation based on Henderson Field devastated overwhelming numbers of the highly vaunted Japanese air force and exploded the myth that the Japanese pilots and Zeros were invincible.

The capture of Guadalcanal marked the turn-

ing point of the war in the Pacific. Japanese losses during the campaign were listed as approximately 14,800 killed or missing in action while another 9,000 died of wounds and disease. About 1,000 enemy troops were taken prisoner and more than 600 enemy planes and pilots were destroyed. In addition, 7 of 11 Japanese transports carrying two reinforced divisions were sunk while attempting to reinforce the island, costing the lives of numerous enemy troops. Marine and Army casualties within the ground forces amounted to 1,598 officers and men killed and 4,709 wounded. Of this total, Marine ground forces killed or dead from wounds were 1,152 along with 2,799 wounded and 55 listed as missing. Marine aviation losses were 55 dead with 127 wounded and 85 missing.

The importance of the victory at Guadalcanal was later summed up by General Alexander A. Vandegrift (18th Commandant of the Marine Corps January 1944–December 1947), who commanded the 1st Marine Division during the engagement:

We struck at Guadalcanal to halt the advance of the Japanese. We did not know how strong he was, nor did we know his plans. We knew only that he was moving down the island chain and that he had to be stopped.

We were as well trained and as well armed as time and our peacetime experience allowed us to be. We needed combat to tell us how effective our training, our doctrines, and our weapons had been.

We tested them against the enemy, and we found that they worked. From that moment in 1942, the tide turned, and the Japanese never again advanced.

The Solomons Campaigns

With the end of the Guadalcanal operation, American forces in the Southwest Pacific prepared to carry out additional JCS-imposed tasks — (1) the seizure and occupation of the rest of the Solomons and the northeast coast of New Guinea, and (2) the seizure and occupation of Rabaul and surrounding areas. Because of the vast distances involved and the limitations imposed by a combination of short-range land aircraft then being employed, a lack of Allied airfields within range of the new objectives, and an overall shortage of troops and support shipping in the area, it was necessary to conduct offensive operations in stages.

Opening the advance up the Solomons chain, on 21 February 1943, Army troops reinforced by the Marine 3d Raider Battalion seized and occupied the Russell Islands without opposition. Five months later, in June, the New Georgia Occupation Force, comprised of Army units reinforced by the 1st Marine Raider Regiment (1st and 4th Raider Battalions), invaded and, after a vicious battle under extremely trying conditions, captured New Georgia and its excellent airfield at Munda. The primary benefit derived from occupation of the New Georgia Group was the advancement of Allied air power some 200 miles closer to Rabaul, the major Japanese air and naval base in the Southwest Pacific.

Close on the heels of the New Georgia operation, plans were completed for the seizure of a beachhead in the Northern Solomons on Bougainville in the Empress Augusta Bay region. Once D-Day—1 November 1943—for Bougainville had been established, senior planners decided to employ the Marine 2d Parachute Battalion in a diversionary raid on Choiseul, southeast of the major target area, and New Zealand troops in attacks on Mono and Stirling Islands in the Treasuries southwest of Bougainville, prior to the landing.

On 1 November, Major General Allen H. Turnage's 3d Marine Division, under the operational control of I Marine Amphibious Corps—the senior Marine echelon in the Southwest Pacific—landed on Bougainville against heavy opposition. Lessons learned in the Guadalcanal and New Georgia operations, especially in the areas of combat loading and logistics, immeasurably added to the success of the assault operation. Within three weeks, the beachhead had been pushed inland 5,000 yards, Army troops were fighting side-by-side with the Marines, and the Americans had been involved in a number of bloody engagements with the Japanese defenders.



War dogs with their Marine handlers move along a jungle trail on Bougainville. (USMC Photo #68407).

New infantry tactics were developed and others improved during the push towards the center of the island, and one of the highlights of this campaign was the evolution of air support of Marine ground forces by Marine pilots and planes rising from fields which had been quickly built on Bougainville by Seabees and Marine engineers. It was from these fields, also, that American aircraft were able to carry the battle to Rabaul itself and the Japanese soon found themselves on the defensive and within a short time isolated from Imperial forces else-

where in the Pacific and even Japan. In the fighting for Bougainville, Marines sustained 423 men killed and 1,418 wounded, while the enemy suffered even heavier casualties. Army troops began relieving the Marines in December, and by the end of 1943, most of the 3d Division and its reinforcing elements had left the island to begin training and staging for subsequent landings. Once Allied supremacy had been achieved in the Southwest Pacific, the focus of offensive operations was placed on another theater, the Central Pacific.

The Gilbert Islands — Avenue To The Marshalls

While the I Marine Amphibious Corps, under the command of then Lieutenant General Vandegrift, was continuing to fight in the steaming jungles of Bougainville, other Marines were moving into the Central Pacific. The Gilbert Islands, which dominated the approaches to the Japanese strongholds in the Marshalls and at Truk, had to be captured. Tarawa Atoll in the Gilberts was the prime objective, and Marine Major General Holland M. Smith, commander of the V Amphibious Corps, assigned this mission to the 2d Marine Division.

The mightiest task force to be formed at that time in the Pacific was assembled for the operation, and the Marines were ordered to take the heavily fortified Betio Island before landing elsewhere in the atoll. Betio was defended by almost 5,000 Japanese naval troops and Korean

laborers who manned hundreds of guns which ranged in size from 7.7mm machine guns to 8-inch coastal defense guns. In addition to the heavy fortifications that awaited any invasion force was the problem of crossing the reef that completely surrounded the island.

Early in the morning of 20 November 1943, the invasion force arrived off Tarawa, and shortly after 0500 Japanese shore batteries on Betio opened fire on the task force. The American warships replied with their own bombardment, and aircraft began strafing the beaches. Despite the terrific shelling of Betio, only a fraction of the anticipated results was achieved. When the first three waves of Marines began landing shortly after 0900, utilizing amphibian tractors (LVTs), the Japanese suddenly emerged from their underground blockhouses and began delivering murderous fire against the assaulting force. Only a few of the LVTs failed to make it ashore, and the initial casualties were relatively light, but it was a totally different situation for the Marines in the follow-up landings. The following waves were loaded primarily in LCVPs (Landing Craft Vehicle Personnel) which drew about 3½ feet of water. The LCVPs, because of the reef, were forced to unload the Marines hundreds of yards away from the beaches, resulting in numerous losses from enemy fire. In addition, other Marines were drowned while attempting to wade across the reef to reach the beach.



Landing under fire at Tarawa, Marines leave a ship's boat to wade ashore. Painting by Sergeant Tom Lovell. (USMC Photo #303666).

By late in the afternoon, the 2d Marines, which was the assault force under the command of Colonel David M. Shoup, had established a toehold on the island. Other Marines landed on the following day, and all units began to push forward against strong enemy resistance. Late in the afternoon of the second day the outcome of the battle appeared more certain. Colonel Shoup radioed Major General Julian C. Smith, commander of the 2d Marine Division, whose headquarters was on board the battleship *Maryland*, the message: "Casualties: many. Percentage dead: unknown. Combat efficiency: we are winning." Finally, at 1330 on the 23d, the island was declared secured although mopping up operations continued throughout the next day. Following the battle on Betio, the rest of the islands in the Tarawa atoll were quickly secured.

Betio Island had been so well fortified that Rear Admiral Keiji Shibasaki, the garrison commander, had proclaimed that it would take a million Americans one hundred years to conquer it—the Marines had secured it within 76 hours, but not without a price. Marine dead numbered over 1,100 along with almost 2,300 wounded. The Japanese lost approximately 4,500 including many who refused to surrender and chose either to fight to the death or commit suicide. The courage demonstrated by the Marines during the battle was indicated by the fact that Medals of Honor were won by First Lieutenant Alexander Bonnyman, Staff Sergeant William J. Bordelon, First Lieutenant William D. Hawkins (all posthumously), and Colonel Shoup, who later became the 22d Commandant of the Marine Corps.

The battle of Tarawa was unique because for the first time in history a seaborne assault had been launched against a heavily defended coral atoll, and amphibian tractors had been used to make the assault landing. The operation demonstrated the soundness of the existing Marine Corps doctrines, but also brought to light other areas requiring improvement for future operations. For this reason, Tarawa was probably of greater importance than the later operations for which it paved the way.

Two-Pronged Attack

Allied strategists in 1943 had decided that the effort directed at the Japanese homeland should be divided, one force to go up through New Guinea and the Philippines, and the other to

leap through the Central Pacific by way of the Marshalls and the Marianas. While the 3d Marine Division was fighting on Bougainville, the 1st Marine Division, under Major General William H. Rupertus, was preparing to secure General MacArthur's flank by seizing the western end of New Britain. This move was calculated to cut off the Japanese in New Guinea from their supply base at Rabaul and ease considerably the task of Allied troops advancing north up the New Guinea coast.

On the morning of 26 December 1943, the 1st Marine Division landed at Cape Gloucester, New Britain, on the end of the island opposite Rabaul. The Marines went ashore unopposed, but the Japanese soon appeared on the scene and fought with their characteristic determination. The Marines did likewise, and within less than one week of fighting, the Cape Gloucester airfield had been taken. It took nearly four months of continual combat for the Marines to secure one third of New Britain, including additional landings on the northern coast at Karai-ai, Iboki, and Talasea, but by then the Allied flank in New Guinea was secure for operations toward the Philippines. Thus, the campaign had been a success. The remainder of New Britain was to be bypassed, and the Marines were relieved from their positions by Army units in April 1944.

The Marshalls

The capture of Tarawa had been the key to securing the Gilberts, and the Gilberts were the key to the Marshalls. After the Gilbert Islands campaign, Major General Smith's V Amphibious Corps turned its attention to securing the Marshalls. Kwajalein Atoll was the next objective, with D-Day scheduled for 31 January 1944. The southernmost island of the atoll, Kwajalein, was an Army operation, while the twin islands of Roi and Namur were assigned to the newly created 4th Marine Division. Within four days after both landings, there remained nothing left to do but mop up a few pockets of enemy holdouts.

Another atoll, Eniwetok, became the next objective. The mission of taking the island was assigned to an Army regiment and the 22d Marines under the overall command of Marine Brigadier General Thomas E. Watson. D-Day was set for 17 February 1944. The 22d Marines attacked Engebi, the only island possessing an airstrip, and captured it within one day. Eniwetok was attacked on the following day by the Army's

106th Infantry Regiment (less the 2d Battalion). There the Army regiment found more Japanese than had been expected, and it was necessary on the afternoon of the first day to send in a Marine battalion as reinforcements. The Marines assaulted and overran the most strongly defended sector, and within two days this island was secured. The 22d Marines then landed on Parry, the last island of the atoll to be taken. Two days later, the entire Eniwetok Atoll was in American hands.

With the capture of Kwajalein and Eniwetok, the seizure of other islands in the Marshall Group was not too difficult. Numerous atolls, sparsely defended, were taken, but islands not essential for bases were bypassed and assigned to Marine aviation units for neutralization.

The Marianas

For the Marianas invasion, Holland M. Smith (now a lieutenant general) led combined invasion forces which consisted of the 2d, 3d, and 4th Marine Divisions, the 1st Provisional Marine Brigade which had been formed from the 4th and 22d Marines, and two Army divisions. The total number of troops was over 136,000, the greatest number up to that time to operate in the field under Marine command.

The III Amphibious Corps, under the command of Marine Major General Roy S. Geiger and composed of the 3d Marine Division, the 1st Provisional Marine Brigade, and the Army's 77th Infantry Division, was assigned the responsibility for seizing Guam. General Smith was to seize Saipan and Tinian with the V Amphibious Corps which then consisted of the 2d and 4th Marine Divisions, plus the 27th Infantry Division.

Saipan was subjected to intensive air and naval bombardment beginning on 11 June 1944. This preparation, however, failed to neutralize the enemy in the landing areas. Shortly after 0800 on 15 June, the 2d and 4th Marine Divisions, commanded by Major General Thomas E. Watson and Major General Harry Schmidt, embarked on landing craft and started for the southwest coast of the island. As the LVTs neared the beaches, the enemy began firing a heavy fusillade from automatic and antiboat weapons mixed with devastating shelling from artillery and mortars. A number of the LVTs were either sunk or disabled, but within 20 minutes approximately 8,000 men were ashore. After about three days of fierce fighting the



Marines attack Japanese positions with hand grenades at Saipan. (USMC Photo #83366).

beachhead was secured and the American forces began moving inland.

On 19 June, Task Force 58 met a powerful Japanese flotilla, including a large armada of aircraft carriers, which had been dispatched to the Marianas to destroy the attacking force at Saipan. During the engagement, known as the Battle of the Philippine Sea, the Japanese lost three aircraft carriers and hundreds of aircraft. This victory guaranteed for the United States uncontested control of the seas adjacent to Saipan while frustrating any counterlandings by the enemy.

Finally, after 25 days of bitter fighting, the 2d and 4th Marine Divisions along with the Army's 27th Division were able to tear the island fortress from the grasp of the enemy. The cost of this campaign was great for both the Americans and Japanese. American casualties were over 16,500 which included almost 3,500 dead. The Marine units alone suffered nearly 13,000 casualties. Measured against this toll, however, was an enemy loss of 24,000 known dead and 1,810 military prisoners. Although the price for victory was high, the seizure of Saipan was a

highly significant step forward in the advance on the Japanese home islands, for it became the first B-29 bomber base in the Pacific.

Next on the Marianas schedule was the strategically important island of Guam, 225 square miles of rugged volcanic terrain fringed with coral. Plans were made, and the landing date was set for 21 July. Two simultaneous assaults were called for in the plans. The 3d Marine Division, commanded by Major General Allen H. Turnage, would land to the north of Apra Harbor, and the 1st Provisional Brigade, commanded by Brigadier General Lemuel C. Shepherd, Jr., would land several miles to the south, below Orote Peninsula. The 77th Infantry Division, commanded by Major General Andrew D. Bruce, USA, was to be the floating reserve, and Marine Brigadier General Pedro A. del Valle was to command the artillery of the III Amphibious Corps. Naval Task Force 53, commanded by Rear Admiral Richard L. Conolly, was given the mission of landing and protecting the troops.

Because of the severe casualties taken on Saipan, Guam was subjected to the heaviest preparatory bombardment yet delivered by the Navy in the Pacific. In June, the frequency of aerial bombardment of the island was stepped-up, and then in July Admiral Conolly's ships moved in to attack Japanese positions. For 13 days prior to the 21 July landings, Guam was pounded regularly from the air by carrier-based aircraft and from the sea by battleships, cruisers, and destroyers. As a result of the prolonged bombardment of Guam, the enemy's defenses were considerably weakened, and the Japanese ability to strike back at the Marines as they hit the beaches was greatly reduced.

Although the enemy had been hurt, he was still capable of massive resistance. The Japanese were so well entrenched that it took five days of bitter fighting before the 3d Division Marines were able to gain control of the high ground overlooking their beaches. In the south, after bloody fighting on D-Day, General Shepherd's brigade won its foothold, and the Army division followed it ashore and took over the final beach-head line on 25 July. Both elements of III Corps were heavily counterattacked on 26 July, and after bitter fighting General Turnage's 3d Division Marines counted over 3,500 enemy dead in their sector. Hundreds more of the enemy lay dead in front of the brigade positions on Orote. The Japanese defensive capability on Guam had been smashed beyond repair, yet much bitter

fighting still followed in cleaning up isolated pockets of resistance.

Meanwhile, the Tinian campaign, which has often been referred to as a model shore-to-shore operation, had begun. The landing on 24 July was preceded by a feint toward the obvious beaches at Tinian Town, which were heavily mined and strongly defended. While available defenders were awaiting the Americans at Tinian Town, the 4th Marine Division landed against comparatively light resistance at two small northern beaches. The 2d Division followed and joined in the fight. Tinian was taken in just nine days. Not only was the operation completed within minimum time and with relatively moderate Marine casualties, but the entire battle plan was conducted with outstanding efficiency. The artillery, naval gunfire, and aircraft units worked in close harmony with the assault troops, which demonstrated the refinement of support techniques.



Crew of a 75mm pack howitzer lashed to a cliff top fires at Japanese holdouts on Tinian. (USMC Photo #91660).

Soon after Tinian fell the III Amphibious Corps on Guam captured its military objectives.

With the Marine and the Army divisions in the assault, and the Marine brigade mopping up the rear areas, the combined forces drove to the northern tip of the island. On the 21st day of the operation, the last Japanese units were driven over the northern cliffs. After three solid weeks of almost continuous fighting, the battle for Guam thus ended with the declaration on 10 August 1944 that the island was secured. It was gratifying to recapture former United States territory, but even more important, the securing of Guam completed the conquest of the Marianas.

The cost of the Guam operation to the American side was less than pre-invasion estimates of planners. American casualties were approximately 1,350 killed and about 6,450 wounded—a total of 7,800, of which 6,964 were Marines. The rapid seizure of Guam has been attributed to a number of factors. Among these were the unprecedented effectiveness of pre-invasion bombardment by the Navy, the inability of the Japanese to effect a systematized plan of opposition, and the high degree of inter-service cooperation that was demonstrated by all participants.

The experience gained and the techniques perfected signified increased effectiveness of future amphibious operations. At Guam, for example, a system was developed that allowed naval gunfire and air support to be delivered against the same target areas at one time. This was accomplished by limiting the minimum pullout levels of supporting aircraft. The result was a devastating combination of flat trajectory and plunging fires. In addition, aircraft carriers were assigned specifically for troop support. Later, these carriers were to embark Marine aircraft squadrons to be used in the support of Marine divisions when the situation permitted. This marked a major step toward the full development of the Marine air-ground team.

Marines In Europe

Although the majority of Marines served in the Pacific during World War II, a few did duty in the European Theater. Individual Marines were assigned special missions with under-ground units ashore, and other Marines served in detachments on board ships operating in the European area. As such, the Marines took part in the actions which were supported by the Navy.

In the D-Day invasion of Normandy, Marines

in their capacity as expert riflemen played an important role reminiscent of the days of the sailing Navy when Marines in the "fighting tops" were a significant part of the ship's offensive firepower. Stationed in the superstructures of the invasion fleet, Marine sharpshooters exploded floating mines in the ships' paths. Other Marines handled the secondary batteries of 5-inch guns during the landings. At times, as during the North African landings, Marine detachments also manned the smaller caliber anti-aircraft guns on board ships.

An additional influence of the Marine Corps on the European and Mediterranean Theaters was the staff of Army, Navy, and Marine Corps officers developed by Major General Holland M. Smith for the purposes of joint amphibious training. This staff evolved into the Atlantic Amphibious Corps and later into the Amphibious Training Staff. Through the efforts of the Amphibious Training Staff, the 1st, 3d, 7th, and 9th Army Infantry Divisions were given amphibious training in time for the North African landings.

On 29 August 1944, during the invasion of Southern France, a landing party from the Marine detachments of the USS *Augusta* and *Philadelphia* went ashore on the islands of Ratonneau and If near Marseille. There the Marines accepted the surrender of the garrison and disarmed over 700 Germans.

Palau Islands

The Palau Islands were a vital part of Japan's inner defense line which flanked the American thrust towards the Philippines. Plans for the capture and occupation of the Palaus were made in March 1944 to be executed in September.

The 1st Marine Division, which took no part in the Marianas campaign, was to play a major role in the continuing Pacific campaign. Just as at New Britain, it was again to be the division's mission to secure the right flank of General MacArthur's advance from the Southwest Pacific. Allied forces had reached the western end of New Guinea, and the prevailing thought was that before the reconquest of the Philippines could be accomplished, supply lines had to be shortened and the flank secured. In order to do this, the Palau Islands had to be seized.

The major objective, Peleliu, was dominated by a long precipitous ridge called the "Umurbrogol" which was honeycombed with caves and masked by dense jungle growth. A coral reef, intermittently backed by mangrove swamps,

ringed the entire island. These features were very effectively utilized by the Japanese in constructing defensive positions which made the island a formidable fortress. The island defenders numbered about 10,700 Army and Navy personnel.

On the morning of 15 September 1944, the 1st Marine Division landed amidst intense Japanese automatic weapons and antiboat fire. After establishing a beachhead, five days of rugged fighting resulted in all of the southern part of Peleliu being in Marine hands. On 20 September, Major General William H. Rupertus decided to bypass the heavy resistance in the central island ridges, and instead, capture the northern tip of Peleliu and its adjoining island. By this tactic, the main enemy force was choked off without support or reinforcements. When the

northern part of Peleliu was captured a week later, and reinforcing Army units had come ashore, concentrated force was applied to the remaining Japanese pocket in the center of the island.

On 16 October, one month after the initial assault, the Marines were relieved and the final reduction of Peleliu was assigned to the Army's 81st Infantry Division. This division had previously secured the smaller island, Angaur, south of Peleliu. In the meantime, Marine air had arrived on the island and was utilizing the airfield, not only in support of operations on Peleliu but as the base for the air defense of the massive new fleet anchorage at nearby Ulithi. Finally on 25 November, the 81st Division overcame the last enemy resistance in the "Umur-brogol," and Peleliu was completely secured.



Tanks and Marine infantry advance into the rugged Japanese-infested ridges of Peleliu. (USMC Photo #97433).

Casualties for the 1st Marine Division during the campaign were about 1,250 killed and 5,270 wounded (8 Marines were awarded the Medal of Honor), while the Army losses were around 540 killed and 2,730 wounded. Almost the entire Japanese force was wiped out. Only 302 of the defending Japanese force were taken prisoner. The capture of Peleliu eliminated any further threat from that area to America's planned recapture of the Philippines.

The first Marines to enter the fight were those of the V Amphibious Corps Artillery under the command of Brigadier General Thomas E. Bourke. This force (about 1,500 Marines) went ashore at Leyte on 21 October with the mission of furnishing support with its 155mm guns and howitzers for the Army's drive to seize the island. After almost two months of fighting, the V Amphibious Corps Artillery was relieved on 11 December, ending the Marine Corps ground



On D plus 4, Marines of replacement drafts and the shore party are dug in all over the shell-pocked beaches of Iwo Jima. (USMC Photo #111438).

Retaking Of The Philippines

In mid-October 1944, General MacArthur's long-heralded return to the Philippines began. The first landings of Army troops occurred on Leyte's east coast. The campaign for retaking the islands was primarily an Army-Navy operation, but both Marine ground and aviation units supported MacArthur's operation with Marine aviation playing the more important role.

involvement in the campaign. (During the landing, and for a short period thereafter, General Bourke coordinated all artillery, naval gunfire, and supporting aircraft on Leyte.)

Marine aviation began operating in the Philippines on the morning of 3 December 1944, when Marine Night Fighter Squadron (VMF (N) 541 landed on Tacloban Field, Leyte. Seven hours later, elements of Marine Aircraft Group 12 arrived on the same field. The initial

task of the aviators was to provide air cover for American shipping. In the days following, the Marines rapidly broadened the scope of their operations to include the attacking of enemy troop convoys and the supporting of Army landings at Ormoc (7 December) and at Mindoro (14 December). In January 1945, Marine air units, including newly-arrived dive-bombing squadrons from the 1st Marine Aircraft Wing, began shifting their emphasis to one of preparation for the Army's planned invasion of Luzon. The Sixth Army landed on the island on 9 January, and two weeks later units of Marine Aircraft Group 24 arrived and began flying combat operations.

Marine pilots continued to provide air support for the Luzon operation until 14 April when the last mission was flown. In the meantime, plans had been developed for the recapture of the southern Philippines. Marine air, beginning in early March, began operations in support of the campaign. Cebu, Mindanao, and Jolo received most of the attention of Marine flyers in the southern Philippines. The missions flown were primarily in support of ground troops, but also included air support to guerrilla units, especially on Mindanao. The Marine units continued to fly combat missions in support of Army mopping-up operations until the end of the war. One of the most important aspects of Marine aviation in the Philippines was the continued development and perfection of close air support for combat troops.

Iwo Jima

After the Philippine campaign was underway, and its outcome was promising, the Allies felt that it was time to move another step toward the Japanese homeland. Two islands of critical importance stood between Allied territory and Japan—Iwo Jima and Okinawa. These islands would have to be taken because their capture, in addition to moving American air power 600 miles closer to Japan, would permit friendly fighters to escort our bombers over the target. Another important gain would be the elimination of Japanese bomber attacks staged through Iwo Jima against the Marianas.

The V Amphibious Corps, consisting of the 3d, 4th, and 5th Marine Divisions along with a myriad of supporting units, commanded by Major General Harry Schmidt, received the assignment of taking Iwo Jima. (Lieutenant General Holland M. Smith, assigned the post of

Commanding General, Expeditionary Troops, had overall responsibility for the conduct of the fighting ashore.) General Schmidt's plan was to land on 19 February 1945 over the southeastern beaches with two divisions in the attack and the 3d Marine Division in floating reserve. One regiment would take Mount Suribachi, to the south, and the rest of the two divisions would fight their way to the north. The Marines expected the battle for Iwo Jima to be one of the toughest yet fought in the Pacific, and this expectation was fulfilled.

On the morning of 19 February, the Marines hit the beach and met only negligible opposition. After the assault barrage had lifted, the Japanese came out of their underground shelters, and the battle for the island began to rage in full force. On the morning of D plus 4, hard-fighting assault elements of the 28th Marines took Mount Suribachi. While a brief fire fight for possession of the summit was in progress, a group of Marines located a length of iron pipe and attached a small American flag and raised the Stars and Stripes on Iwo Jima. Shortly there-



Certainly the most famous American battle photo, the flag-raising on Mount Suribachi on Iwo Jima taken by Associated Press photographer Joe Rosenthal. (USMC Photo #113062).

after, a larger flag was obtained from a ship and with its raising, Joe Rosenthal, Associated Press photographer, took the inspiring picture that has been used as a symbol of freedom and American fortitude throughout the world.

Early on the morning of D plus 3, the battle-tested 3d Marine Division moved into the line to relieve elements of the battered 4th. Casualties continued to mount as the campaign entered the fourth week, but by D plus 25 the last pockets of resistance had been bottled up in the northwestern end of the island. On that date, 16 March 1945, the island was officially declared secured. The savage struggle at Iwo had proven that, given control of the surrounding skies and seas, the amphibious forces of the U.S. Navy and Marine Corps could seize any objective, regardless of the power or the stubborn resistance of the defenders. With the island taken, Marine losses were numbered at 17,372 wounded and 5,931 killed. Probably the most fitting tribute to the men who fought on Iwo was expressed by Admiral Chester W. Nimitz when he said, "Among the Americans who served on Iwo Island uncommon valor was a common virtue."

Okinawa — The Final Stepping Stone

In contrast with many of the other Central Pacific island operations, which were the responsibility of Marines, the mission of seizing Okinawa was assigned to the United States Tenth Army, commanded by Lieutenant General Simon B. Buckner, Jr., USA. The assault forces were composed of the XXIV Corps (Army) and the III Amphibious Corps, consisting of the 1st and 6th Marine Divisions. The 2d Marine Division was kept afloat in the Tenth Army reserve. This division made a landing feint on the southeastern beaches, on the side of the island opposite from the actual landing beaches. Later, the 8th Marines of the 2d Division captured a group of small islands offshore and was then attached to and participated with the 1st Division in the last week of the fighting.

Early on the morning of 1 April 1945, leading waves of the assault troops debarked from landing craft onto Okinawa soil. Unlike the hostile receptions on other beaches, there was no curtain of deadly fire. As the troops continued the advance inland, they were met with only minimum resistance. By the end of D-Day, the Ma-



Marine Corsair attacking Japanese positions in northern Okinawa, lets loose a salvo of eight 5-inch rockets. (USMC Photo #129356A).



As the Marines move into the attack on southern Okinawa, an automatic rifleman and a machine gunner provide covering fire against Japanese positions. (USMC Photo #119813).

rines had established a beachhead more than four miles wide and two miles deep. By 3 April, they had traversed the island and reached the opposite coast. Enemy resistance increased as the 6th Division moved into the northern portion of the island, and there were several savage fire fights. Within three weeks, however, organized resistance in the northern two-thirds of Okinawa had ceased.

By the end of the first week, the soldiers of the XXIV Corps had run into the enemy's main battle position in the south, and the plan for the island defense was made clear. The enemy had concentrated the majority of his force in the rugged southern end of the island, leaving only harassing and delaying forces in the north. By the end of April, the 1st Marine Division had entered the fight in the south. The 6th Division also moved south, and the III Amphibious Corps fought side by side with the XXIV Corps. The battle for Okinawa was then joined in earnest.

On the 18th of June, as General Buckner was

observing a Marine unit assault an objective, he was killed by enemy fire. The next senior troop commander, Marine Major General Roy S. Geiger, who was a naval aviator, assumed command of the Tenth Army, becoming the only Marine officer ever to have commanded a field army. Three days later, on 21 June, the last pockets of Japanese resistance were eliminated, and General Geiger announced the end of organized resistance. Mopping up operations began, and by the end of June, that task had been accomplished.

The nightmare battle that had lasted 82 days was ended, and the price for the island in American blood had been high. Okinawa had cost the Marine Corps, including ships' detachments and aviation, 3,430 killed and 15,723 wounded. An additional 560 Navy doctors and hospital corpsmen accompanying the Marines were killed or wounded. Overall American losses in the land battle amounted to 7,374 killed, 31,807 wounded, and 239 missing in action. At sea and in the air, the Navy reported 36 U. S. ships sunk,

368 damaged, 763 aircraft lost from all causes, and 4,907 seamen killed or missing in action along with 4,824 wounded.

The Japanese suffered more losses at Okinawa than they had during any previous Pacific battle. They lost 7,830 planes and 16 warships. In addition, Japanese soldiers and seamen on the island paid the grim price of 107,539 counted dead, 23,764 sealed off in caves, and 10,755 taken prisoner. Many of the dead were civilians, innocent victims of the bitter fighting.

The Atomic Bomb And Surrender

While Okinawa and the Marianas were rapidly being developed into staging bases from which to attack the enemy's homeland, Japan refused an American demand for unconditional surrender. Then, on 6 August over the city of Hiroshima, the first atomic bomb to be used against mankind was detonated. Three days later, another atomic explosion destroyed Nagasaki, and Japan fell beneath these devastating blows. On 14 August 1945, the Japanese Emperor surrendered his country unconditionally to the Allies.

The task of disbanding the great American military machine which had grown so rapidly from 1941 to the end of the hostilities came after the war. The peak Marine strength when the war ceased was over 485,000 and the majority of these officers (about 37,660) and enlisted men and women (about 447,440) were anxious to return to their previous peacetime pursuits. Thus, demobilization proceeded rapidly. Of the Marines who had fought in the Pacific during the long and bitter war, 80 were awarded the Medal of Honor (50 posthumously-30 to living recipients).

The Aftermath — 1945-1950

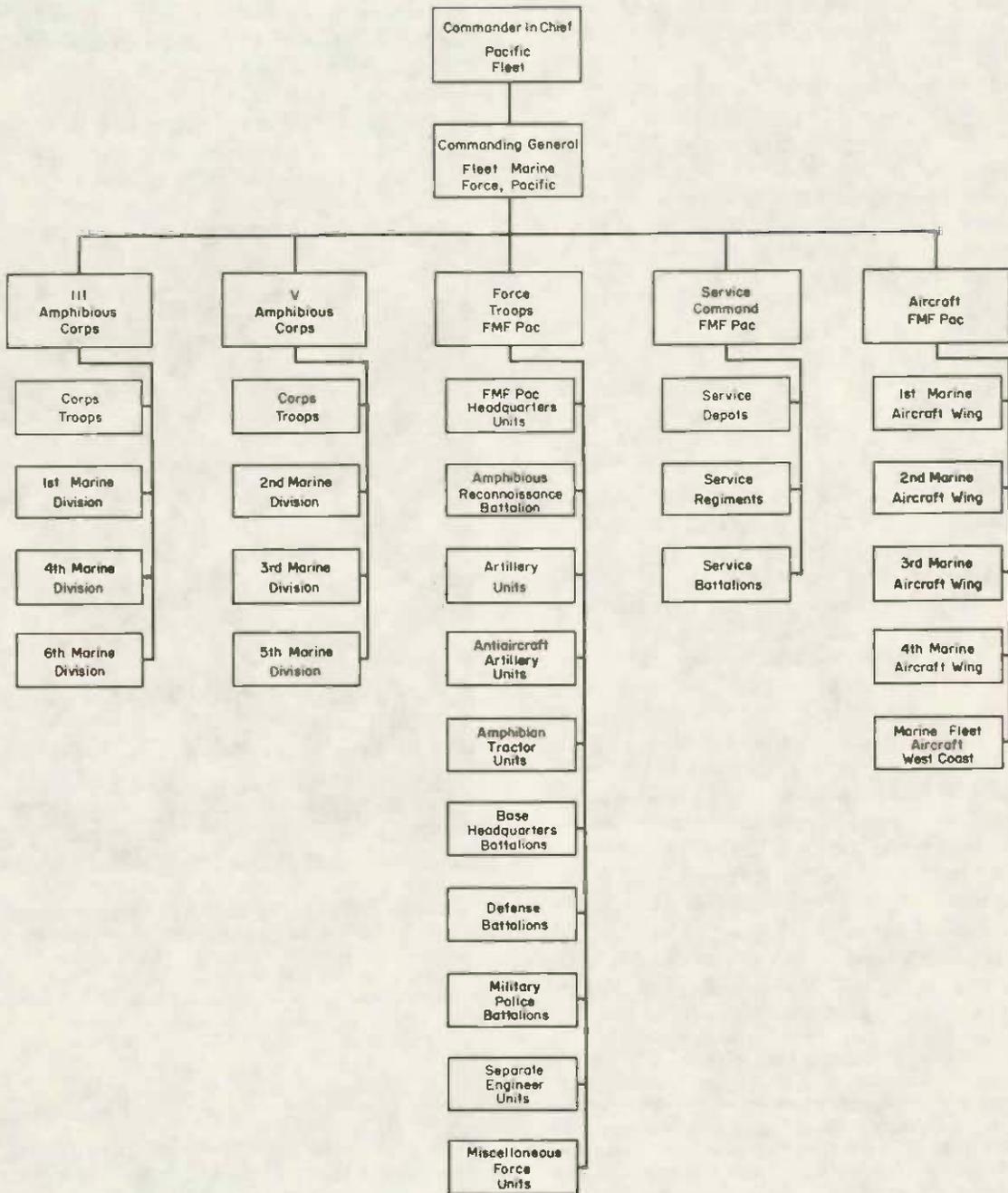
As a symbolic gesture, the 4th Marines, the famous fighting regiment that had been captured at Corregidor, was the first major American unit to enter Japan—the first foreign troops ever to occupy Japanese soil. The V Amphibious Corps, composed of the 2d and 5th Marine Divisions, was also sent to Japan for the occupation. The III Amphibious Corps, consisting of the 1st and 6th Marine Divisions, was sent to occupy the North China area. The 3d Marine Division occupied various Pacific islands, such as Truk and Chichi Jima, and the 4th Marine Division returned to the United States for demobilization.

The 1st Marine Aircraft Wing accompanied the ground forces to China for occupation duty, while the 2d Marine Aircraft Wing returned stateside. Two aircraft groups, MAG-31 and MAG-22, supported occupation forces in Japan. Marine air had played a vital role throughout the war. Marine pilots shot down their first enemy plane at Wake Island and their last at Okinawa. In February 1945, for the first time in history, Marine carrier aircraft supported Marine ground troops at Iwo Jima. From Wake to Okinawa, Marine aviators scored 2,355 "kills." Marine squadron VMF-121 recorded the highest number of enemy aircraft shot down with a total of 208. VMF-215 pilots downed 137 enemy in a single overseas tour, the fourth highest score for any Marine Corps squadron. There were 120 Marine air aces, 5 of whom shot down 20 or more enemy aircraft—Gregory Boyington (28), Joseph J. Foss ((26), Robert M. Hanson (25), Kenneth A. Walsh (21), and Donald N. Aldrich (20). During the war, the Marine Corps had as its peak number of units, 145 aircraft squadrons organized into 31 aircraft groups and these, in turn, into 5 air wings. The largest number of personnel assigned at one time to Marine aviation was 125,162. On 7 September 1945, the airfield at Yokosuka, Japan was occupied by Marine Aircraft Group 31, the first Marine aviation unit to operate on Japanese soil.

In response to the pressure of public opinion, the armed forces began to shrink at an alarming rate, and the Corps received its share of such reductions. In November 1945, the 4th Marine Division was disbanded and the following month the 3d Division followed suit, while the 5th Division lasted a month longer. By the end of 1946, all Marine occupation forces were removed from Japan. Although the units in China were drastically reduced (during April 1946, the 6th Division was reduced in size and redesignated the 3d Marine Brigade), some were retained until 1949. Between 31 August 1945 and 1 July 1946, the Marine Corps was cut from its peak strength of over 485,000 to about 156,000 officers and men. Within another year, the Corps was down to approximately 92,000 and continued to decline in numbers.

Peacetime Activities

In the United States, conditions were settling down to a peacetime routine. The Marine Corps strength had been reduced to less than 90,000 by the end of 1947, and once again the Corps



ORGANIZATION OF FLEET MARINE FORCE, PACIFIC
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relied on volunteer recruiting for personnel, a condition temporarily abandoned during the war due to the Selective Service Law. Traditional ceremonies and customs, put aside during the turmoil of war, were revived; dress blues and swords again appeared, and veterans of World War II told new recruits how tough it was "in the old Corps."

The amphibious tactics which had been developed by the Marines and Navy during the war had proved to be successful in the Pacific campaigns, but with the advent of the atomic bomb, it was necessary to reevaluate concepts and procedures. Tactics, techniques, and equipment came under careful study at the Landing Force Development Center at Quantico. By December 1947, a special squadron, Marine Helicopter Experimental Squadron One (HMX-1), had been organized for the development and study of helicopter tactics—the basic concept of the vertical assault was in the making. In addition, the Development Center explored every aspect of nuclear warfare to effect new organizational structures, develop new equipment, and refine doctrine in preparation for future emergencies.

The National Security Act Of 1947

As initially introduced, the National Security Act of 1947 contained only the broadest statement of what mission each Service was to perform. It was intended that an executive order would be promulgated following enactment of the legislation, spelling out the functions of each of the Services. At the suggestion of General Vandegrift, however, the part of this order dealing with the Navy and Marine Corps was inserted, in modified form, in the law.

Elaborating on the basic law, the Department of Defense published a directive called the "Functions Paper." First issued in 1948 as the "Key West Agreement," it was revised in 1953 and 1958, to adjust to changes in the National Security Act of 1947. Concerning the Marine Corps, the Act as amended, states in part:

The Marine Corps, within the Department of the Navy, shall be so organized as to include not less than three combat divisions and three air wings, and such other land combat, aviation, and other services as may be organic therein. The Marine Corps shall be organized, trained, and equipped to provide fleet marine forces of combined arms, together with supporting air components, for service with the fleet in the seizure or defense of advanced naval bases and for the conduct of such land operations as may be essential to the prosecution of a naval campaign. In addition, the Marine Corps shall provide detachments and organizations for service on armed vessels

of the Navy, shall provide security detachments for the protection of naval property at naval stations and bases, and shall perform such other duties as the President may direct.

The Marine Corps was further directed to coordinate with the other Services in the development of tactics, techniques, and equipment used by landing forces. The basic manpower ceiling set for the Marine Corps was 400,000 except in time of war or national emergency as declared by Congress. Unfortunately, all of these provisions were not in existence in the summer of 1950 when hostilities began in Korea.



In World War II, Women Marines replaced men in many jobs, freeing a division's strength for combat. Here two mechanics replace a bus engine at Camp Lejeune. (USMC Photo #6265).

Women Marines

Like their sister reservists who had so ably served their country and the Corps during World War I, Women Reserves also participated in World War II. More than 23,000 women entered active duty, relieving as many males for assignment to combat and other duties. A few of these patriotic women remained in uniform after the war ended and were still serving in 1948 when the Women Marines became a permanent part

of the Marine Corps. Training facilities were established at Parris Island for enlisted women, and classes were conducted at Quantico for the training and indoctrination of women officers. Although peacetime duties for the Women Marines were generally clerical in nature, the war had found many women assigned as aviation mechanics and truck drivers, as well as performing other tasks normally accomplished by males. The importance of Women Marines and their high esteem was aptly expressed by General Thomas Holcomb, the early wartime Commandant:

There's hardly any work at our Marine stations that women can't do as well as men. They do some work far better than men . . . What is more, they're real *Marines*. They don't have a nickname, and they don't need one. They get their basic training in a Marine atmosphere, at a Marine Post. They inherit the traditions of the Marines. They are Marines.

Today, as in the past, the Women Marines continue to perform an important function in maintaining the overall readiness of the Corps.

Standing By For Trouble

The advent of 1948 saw the Marines assigned to the United States Sixth Fleet operating in the Mediterranean area. Every five months a new reinforced infantry battalion and one or two fighter squadrons would relieve the Marine units on board ships of the fleet on station along the European and African shores. Fleet duties included vigorous amphibious training. Many practice landings were made on the beaches of friendly Allied Mediterranean countries, and Marine air was employed to assist in furthering a state of overall readiness. Probably the most pleasant of these duties were the visits made to North Africa, Spain, France, Italy, and Malta, where Marines made many friends and served as ambassadors of good will. In addition, they represented an everpresent example of the strength of the United States.

When the United States Consul General in Jerusalem was killed by a sniper, his immediate successor requested protection. Marines from the Sixth Fleet were sent to his assistance without delay. A few months later a detachment of Marines was sent to Haifa, Palestine, to provide protection for a military observer group.

In 1949, Marines from the 1st Marine Division began cold weather training. Alaska and the snow-capped mountains of California became their training grounds. This training was based on the realization that Marines would not

always be fighting in the tropics as had been the case during the expeditionary campaigns in Latin America and the island fighting in the Pacific. This training contributed to the wealth of knowledge required for worldwide employment. The importance of this training was soon realized in the often sub-zero weather of Korea.

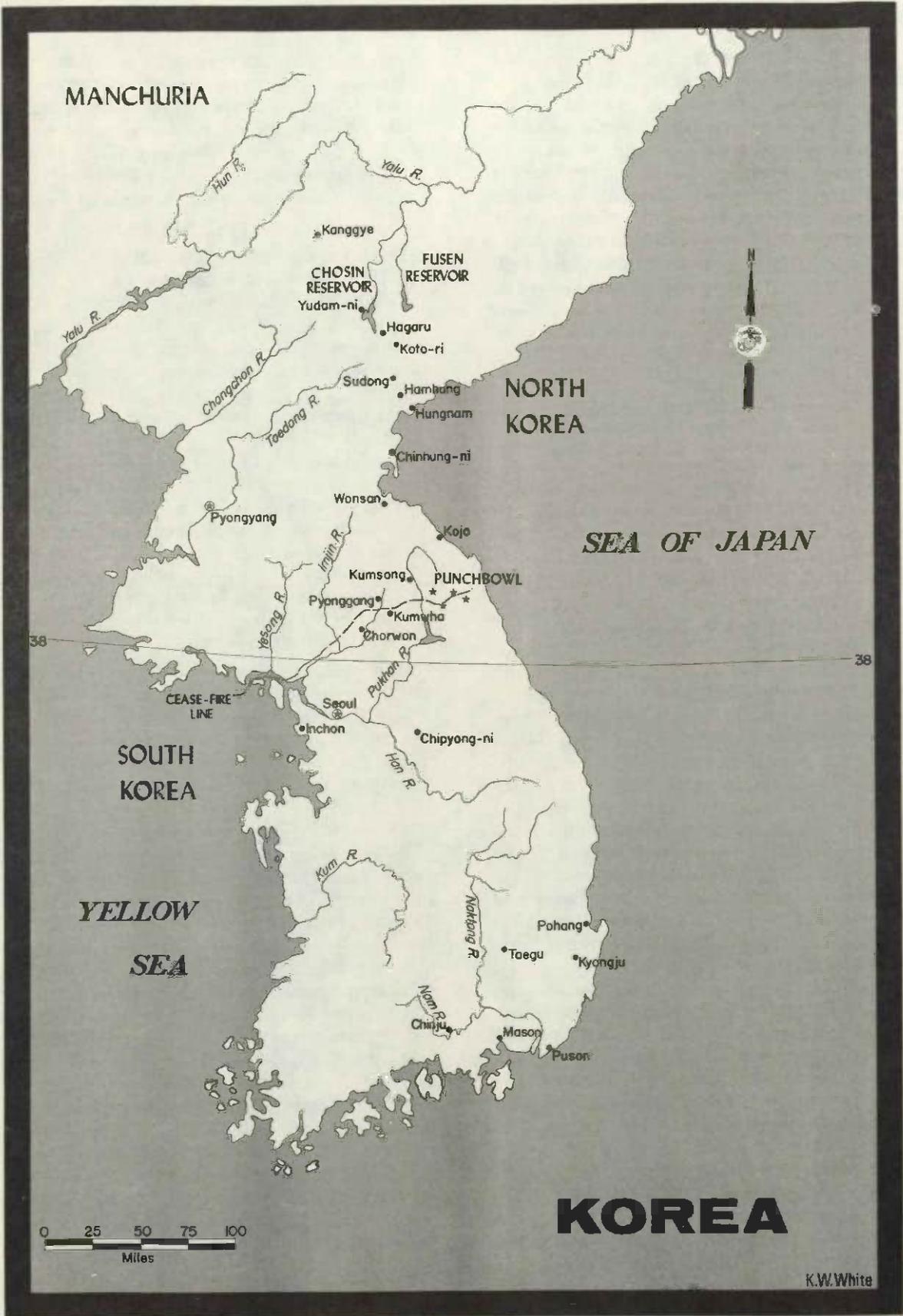
Only A Few May Serve

On 1 January 1948, Clifton B. Cates became the 19th Commandant of the Marine Corps. General Cates' administration, which lasted until 31 December 1951, was destined to be an eventful one. He took office while the Marine Corps was still in the process of post-war readjustment. The regular establishment was being scaled down to peacetime proportions, while an effort was being made to build up the Reserve. General Cates not only directed the Corps during the early phase of rapid buildup made necessary due to the hostilities in Korea, but also spent many hours giving forthright testimony before the House Armed Services Committee. His testimony is credited with contributing to subsequent amendments of the National Security Act of 1947 which enabled the Marine Corps to become a force-in-readiness.

As a result of the continued cuts in appropriations, the strength of the Marine Corps in June 1950 had dropped to a little less than 75,000. Of this number, approximately 28,000 were serving in the Fleet Marine Force. Other Marines were serving at posts and stations, naval bases, on board ships, in supply and administrative billets, and in a variety of special assignments.

With combat units of the regular Marine Corps considerably understrength, it was absolutely necessary to depend on the Marine Corps Reserve to fill in the gaps in the event of war. Fortunately, there were 90,000 reservists available, the majority of whom were experienced combat veterans of World War II.

Although the Marine Corps possessed one well trained division and one aircraft wing on each coast, all units therein were greatly undermanned. As a matter of fact, most regiments were hardly more than understrength battalions. Service and support units were also reduced or eliminated. The Corps was little more than a skeleton of its former World War II power, but as events were to prove later, it was still capable of expanding swiftly to accomplish its assigned missions.



MANCHURIA

NORTH
KOREA

SEA OF JAPAN

SOUTH
KOREA

YELLOW
SEA

KOREA



K.W.White

PART VIII

THE MARINES IN KOREA AND OTHER ACTIVITIES 1950-1960

Early on the morning of 25 June 1950, approximately 10 divisions of the North Korean People's Army (NKPA) advanced across the 38th Parallel and roared southward. The Republic of Korea's Army (ROKA) was unable to stop the advancing invaders and within three days the South Korean capital city of Seoul had fallen to the attackers. The NKPA continued to move southward, unhampered by the ineffectual defensive efforts of the shattered forces of the Korean Republic. Thousands of refugees filled the roads as they attempted to flee south ahead of the advancing forces.

The Security Council of the United Nations met in New York on 27 June, and declared the North Korean's attack a breach of world peace and requested member nations to aid the Republic of Korea in driving back the hostile force. The United States formally announced it was giving military aid to South Korea, and two days later (29 June), President Harry S. Truman authorized the sending of U.S. forces to the area. American troops nearest to the battle zone were the 7th, 24th, and 25th Infantry Divisions and the 1st Cavalry Division, which made up the U.S. Eighth Army's occupation forces in Japan. All of these Army units were understrength, poorly equipped, and suffering from the common occupation problem of poor training.

A request for Marines came from General Douglas MacArthur on 2 July. The same day advance elements of the Army's 24th Division flew out of Japan for Korea. General MacArthur's dispatch was addressed to the Joint Chiefs of Staff—"Request immediate assignment Marine Regimental Combat Team and supporting Air Group for duty this command. . . ." As they had been for 171 years, the Marines were ready—what there were of them due to peacetime economy measures.

Within five days of General MacArthur's 2 July request, the 1st Provisional Brigade, with its major elements built around the 5th Marines and Marine Aircraft Group 33 (MAG-33), had been formed at Camp Pendleton, California. In another five short days, the 6,534-man brigade had mounted out from San Diego (12 July) to answer the request for Marines to help turn the Communist tide engulfing Korea. The parting words of the Commandant, General Cates, to the brigade were: "You boys clean this up in a couple of months, or I'll be over to see you!" The job, however, took longer than a "couple of months."

The Marines arrived in Pusan on 2 August, and were met by the brigade commander, Brigadier General Edward A. Craig. General Craig, who had flown to Korea in advance of the brigade to familiarize himself with the situation, called his unit commanders together and outlined the tactical situation. He pointed out that, "The Pusan Perimeter is like a weakened dike, and we will be used to plug holes in it as they open. It will be costly fighting against a numerically superior enemy." Craig then stated to his officers, "Marines have never lost a battle. This Brigade will not be the first to establish such a precedent."

The first engagement occurred at Chindongni, 50 miles west of Pusan, where the Marines had relieved the Army's 27th Regiment. In the early morning of 7 August, the North Koreans launched a pre-dawn attack against positions held by a battalion of the 5th Marines. Hurling back the enemy assault, the Marines immediately counterattacked and captured an enemy-held hill mass. To exploit the initial success, the brigade, two days later, began a counter-offensive against the enemy. Driving through the North Korean 6th Division, the aggressive Marines advanced toward Chinju, enemy headquar-

ters for the southwestern sector. By nightfall of the third day, they were dug in on hills above Changchon, 26 miles deep in enemy territory. Shortly thereafter, the Marines were ordered to withdraw and were sent to plug another puncture which had occurred in the perimeter in the Naktong area. While the ground troops were accomplishing their mission, MAG-33 had arrived in Japan, and by 3 August, two fighter bomber squadrons were flying close air support missions from the decks of carriers. A night fighter squadron (VMF(N)-513) flew missions from Japan, and an observation squadron (VMO-6), with its helicopters and light planes, joined ground elements in Korea to provide direct support.

After the withdrawal, the Marines were in-

itially sent to the town of Miryang, just east of Yongsan, where the enemy threat was the greatest. Pausing for a hot meal and a peaceful night's sleep, the Marines were visited, among others, by a British military observer. On the following day, the British officer sent his daily report to the British command in Tokyo, which expressed his feelings about the situation at Miryang:

The situation is critical and Miryang may be lost. The enemy have driven a division-sized salient across the Naktong. More will cross the river tonight. If Miryang is lost Taegu becomes untenable and we will be faced with a withdrawal from Korea. I am heartened that the Marine Brigade will move against the Naktong salient tomorrow. They are faced with impossible odds, and I have no valid reason to substantiate it, but I have a feeling they will halt the enemy.

I realize my expression of hope is unsound, but these



Men of the 1st Provisional Marine Brigade move past a knocked-out North Korean tank in the Second Battle of the Naktong, 4 September 1950. (USMC Photo #A2246).

Marines have the swagger, confidence, and hardness that must have been in Stonewall Jackson's Army of the Shenandoah. They remind me of the Coldstreams at Dunkerque. Upon this thin line of reasoning, I cling to the hope of victory.

The Marine attack jumped off on the morning of 17 August with the objective being a piece of terrain called "No Name Ridge." Advancing against the enemy, the Marines were met by a withering hail of machine gun and mortar fire. With Marine air giving support and brigade artillery firing hundreds of rounds into the enemy's positions, the ground troops continued to advance. By nightfall, after fierce fighting and many casualties, the northern end of the ridge had been torn from the enemy. The battle continued throughout the night as the enemy hurled counterattacks against the small sector held by the Marines. On the following day, the Marines renewed their determined attack, smashing one enemy position after another. Later in the afternoon, the Marines occupied "No Name Ridge."

Having lost the dominating terrain, the North Koreans began a hasty withdrawal toward the Naktong River. With this, the Marines continued the attack and turned the retreat into a panic-stricken rout. As scores of North Koreans scrambled to cross the river in an attempt to reach safety on the opposite shore, Marine air and artillery turned the rout into a slaughter. "When the booming guns finally fell silent the Naktong had become a river of blood, and the 4th North Korean Division was no more."

With the Pusan Perimeter once more secure along the Naktong, the Marines were ordered to return to the southern sector. After serving as the reserve for the 25th Infantry Division, which allowed it to rest and replenish its equipment, the brigade gave a repeat performance at the Second Battle of the Naktong during the first week of September. During this battle, it was the 9th North Korean Division that fell before the Marines' savage attack. The Marines drove the enemy back after three days of hard fighting, recaptured numerous pieces of American ordnance, and left the countryside "littered with enough North Korean arms, tanks, and vehicles to equip a small army."

On 5 September, the brigade received word to draw back to a staging area at Pusan "for further operations against the enemy." Pulled out of the Pusan line by 12 September, the brigade was absorbed by the newly arrived 1st Marine Division for the coming Inchon invasion. Organized as a unit less than three months,

the brigade left behind it a reputation for mobility, effectiveness, and rapid deployment in the face of national emergency. Significantly, when the brigade landed in the Korean area of operations on 2 August, it was the first tactically combined air-ground team in Marine Corps history. Although Marine air and ground forces had worked and operated together since 1927, formation of the 1st Provisional Marine Brigade "marked the first time that the air and ground elements, task organized under a single commander, had engaged in combat."

The Inchon Landing

While the brigade was fighting in Korea, the Marine Corps was making an all-out effort to bring its 1st Division up to wartime strength. General MacArthur had requested that a Marine division be sent to Korea, but the Joint Chiefs of Staff had informed him that such a division could not be sent before November or December. Incredibly swift action within the Marine Corps exceeded that expectation.

In view of the Corps' numerous commitments, the only means of fielding a Marine division called for mobilization of the entire Organized Reserve. The President obtained authorization for this move from Congress, and the first directives to effect it were issued on 20 July 1950. Shortly thereafter, 138 separate reserve units from 126 cities had reported to designated mobilization bases for consolidation into the regular Marine Corps. In addition to the reserves, the 1st Marine Division, between 31 July and 10 August, received 6,800 troops from the 2d Marine Division on the east coast, and 4,500 other regulars from posts and stations all over the world. Thus, the 1st Marine Division (Reinforced) and the 1st Marine Aircraft Wing were available within 53 days for the amphibious assault on Inchon.

The Inchon invasion was set for 15 September 1950, and Major General Oliver P. Smith's 1st Division Marines were designated to lead the X Corps attack in the first major counterstroke by United Nations forces on Communist-held territory. When the Marines made their landing at Inchon, as the spearhead of the U.S. X Corps which included the Army's 7th Infantry Division, the 1st Division was two-thirds of its actual strength. The 7th Marines was still six days sailing time away when D-Day arrived. When the regiment, with its supporting units, arrived at Inchon on September, the 1st Marine Division reached its full complement.

For five days preceding D-Day, the carrier-based planes and warships of the U.S. Seventh Fleet blasted the harbor and Inchon waterfront. At first light on the 15th, the 3d Battalion, 5th Marines, went ashore on the island of Wolmi-do which is joined to Inchon by a causeway. By noon the battalion had completed mopping up the island, eliminating the enemy position which flanked the approaches to the main landing area at Inchon. By late afternoon, other Marine units, using scaling ladders, had made it over the sea wall at Inchon and were receiving moderately light resistance. Further units came ashore, and by the afternoon of D plus 1, the force beachhead line had been secured. Thus, the amphibious assault phase of the landing, launched under extremely unfavorable hydrographic conditions, was successfully completed.



Using scaling ladders, Marines climb out of their landing craft to cross the sea wall at Inchon. (USMC Photo #A3191).

The Marines encountered stiff enemy resistance as they began to advance, but by 25 September they had reached the outskirts of Seoul. The battle for the city lasted nearly two days

and was the scene of some of the bitterest fighting yet in Korea. On the afternoon of the 27th, the North Korean resistance collapsed, and the battle for Seoul was over. The liberation ceremonies were held in the Government Palace on the 29th, three months and four days after the NKPA had launched its invasion against South Korea.

With the successful conclusion of the Inchon-Seoul operation, the major elements of the North Korean Army had been broken. Caught between the rapidly advancing Eighth Army pushing northward out of the Pusan Perimeter and the X Corps moving eastward from Seoul, the enemy's battle-weary forces fled toward North Korea. General MacArthur had obtained permission to conduct military operations north of the 38th Parallel, and his plan called for the Eighth Army in the west to make the main effort against Pyongyang, the capital of North Korea. In conjunction with this drive, the X Corps was to make an amphibious envelopment on the east coast and advance westward toward Pyongyang to effect a link-up with the Eighth Army. This move was designed to trap the North Korean forces which were withdrawing from the south.

The 1st Marine Division sailed out of Inchon on 12 October, bound for an amphibious assault on Wonsan. Prior to its arrival, it was learned that the 1st Republic of Korea Corps had overrun Wonsan and was continuing to push northward. With this success, the X Corps operation plan underwent considerable revamping. The reduced North Korean resistance, to both the Eighth Army advance in western Korea and that of the ROK I Corps in the east, had produced much optimism in the high command. (There were widely circulated reports that the troops would be "home by Christmas.") The new X Corps plan called for a three-pronged advance up to the Yalu River which forms the border between North Korea and Manchuria. The ROK I Corps was assigned to the right flank, the 7th U.S. Infantry Division to the center, and the 1st Marine Division to the left flank. The 3d U.S. Infantry Division formed the corps reserve. The campaign which the Marines were destined to face was to be one of the most demanding in the entire history of the Corps.

The Chosin Reservoir Campaign

The Marines began their "advance to the Yalu" at Hamhung, 70 miles north of Wonsan. The division had been assigned a sector of re-

sponsibility approximately 200 miles long and some 40 miles wide, an area which would require at least a corps to cover. One of the Marines' greatest concerns was the 80-mile gap which separated the division's left flank from the U.S. Eighth Army to the west. On 2 November, this concern was reinforced when a reconnaissance patrol brought in a Chinese prisoner who confirmed the rumors that great numbers of Chinese Communist Forces were moving into North Korea from Manchuria. The prisoner indicated that three Chinese divisions were already operating within the Chosin Reservoir area. Shortly thereafter, the 7th Marines engaged and became the first United States unit to defeat the Chinese Communist Forces (CCF) in battle. After four days of fierce fighting, the Marines so severely crippled major elements of the 124th

CCF Division that it was never again effective as an organic unit. By 27 November, other Allied units had received the full force of a CCF counterattack and had begun to retreat south of the 38th Parallel.

Thanksgiving found the 5th and 7th Marines on the western side of the Chosin Reservoir, preparing to advance out of the mountain valley on Yudam-ni. To the southeast, the forward element of the division command post and a battalion of the 1st Marines held Hagaru-ri at the southern tip of the reservoir. Between these units lay 14 miles of frozen treacherous terrain. Farther south, the other two battalions of the 1st Marines were dug in on the icy slopes of Koto-ri. Below them lay Funchilin Pass, gateway to the high plateau of the Tobaksan Mountain range which cradles the Chosin Reservoir.



Trudging slowly through the snow and bitter cold, Marines march south from Koto-ri in the epic withdrawal from the Chosin Reservoir. (USMC Photo #A5372).

To their rear stretched the winding 78-mile Main Supply Route (MSR) to the port of Hamhung. That night, in 20 degrees below zero weather, the assault battalions of the CCF Ninth Army Group, a ten-division force sent to Korea specifically to annihilate the 1st Marine Division, began to attack.

The enemy's main effort was made against the 5th and 7th Marines' positions at Yudam-ni. While two divisions smashed against the perimeter, another CCF division to the south cut the 1st Marines MSR. The 1st Marine Division was completely encircled by Communist forces, and many experts considered it as lost. Others thought the only way to save it was to airlift it out, leaving its equipment behind. On 29 November, the U.S. X Army Corps issued to the Marine division an oral warning order for redeployment of Marine units in the Yudam-ni area to Hagaru. General Smith ordered his assault regiments to fight their way back to Hagaru. On the afternoon of 4 December, 79 hours and 14 miles after the division commenced its attack, the last elements of the 5th and 7th Marines reached the base camp.

While the two regiments plus supporting troops were fighting their way down to Hagaru, the 1st Marines and attached elements repulsed the repeated assaults of CCF divisions coming up from the south to cut off the Marine logistical support. Once the Marines were inside the Hagaru perimeter, General Smith ordered the division to move out for the Hamhung area, 56 miles away to the southeast. Since the Marines were completely surrounded by elements of eight Chinese divisions, press correspondents asked the commanding general if he intended to retreat. They quoted him as giving an immediate reply: "Retreat hell! We're just attacking in another direction."

With the assistance of Marine close air support, the ground forces came out fighting, gathering their scattered entrapped units as they came. Smashing through the encircling enemy troops time and time again, they fought their way over the ice-bound ridges and along the deep winding valleys that lay below. Within two days, the units at Hagaru had moved south across the bitter, wind-whipped plateau to Kotori. They continued the attack to the south, through the Funchilin Pass, on toward the harbor at Hungnam, where shipping awaited. It took them 13 torturous days to reach the waiting ships, and behind them, in uncounted thou-

sands, lay the frozen bodies of those who had come to destroy them. This indeed had been a "march to glory." *Time* magazine reported: "A battle unparalleled in U.S. military history. It had some of the aspects of Bataan, some of Anzio, some of Dunkirk, some of Valley Forge. . . ." From the military point of view, the major tactical result of the retrograde movement was that the division had "come through with all operable equipment, with wounded properly evacuated, and with tactical integrity."

Not only had the Chinese (with a force of approximately 60,000 men in assault or reserve) failed to accomplish their mission, annihilation of the division, but the Marine defenders had dealt a devastating blow to the enemy in return. Prisoner of war debriefings later revealed that units of the CCF Ninth Army Group had been rendered so militarily ineffective that nearly three months were required for its replacement of personnel, reequipment, and reorganization.

The undeclared war of Communist China against the United Nations resulted in some policy changes in the high levels of government. The decision was made that U.N. forces would not strike against enemy bases in Chinese territory. It was believed by many that this was the only way to avoid World War III. From the



Gun crew from the 11th Marines fires its 105mm howitzer in support of a 1st Division attack in June 1951. (USMC Photo #A9766).

military standpoint, it also precluded any possibility of winning the Korean War. From that point on, the basic strategy involved inflicting maximum losses on the enemy, while attempting to minimize the losses of U.N. forces. Consequently, the fighting seesawed back and forth across the 38th Parallel.

A Land Army

For the Marines, amphibious operations in Korea were a thing of the past. During the two and a half years that followed the Chosin Reservoir engagement, the Marines spent the war in the alien occupation of land mass warfare as a part of the Eighth Army. The Marines were assigned missions similar to Army divisions, and the aviation elements were placed under the overall control of the U.S. Air Force. The Marines, however, continued to prove their combat ability and courage.

The 1st Division moved out of Eighth Army reserve on 10 January, where it had been sent to re-equip and receive replacements after the Chosin Reservoir battle, and began operations in the Pohangdong-Andong sector of Southeastern Korea. The Marines' mission was the destruction of a North Korean guerrilla division which was operating in a wide area. Forming "Rice Paddy Patrols," the Marines began tracking down the enemy. By early February, the Marines had effectively eliminated about 60 percent of the enemy, with remaining units having pulled out of the area. In the latter part of February 1951, the Marines were on the move into central Korea where they came under the operational control of IX Corps. Spearheading "Operations Ripper," the Marines led the U.N. advance on the east central front. By 4 April, they were among the first United Nations forces to recross the 38th Parallel. Two weeks later, the Chinese Communist Forces started a major counter-offensive. After heavy fighting and many casualties on both sides, the enemy was stopped.

Armistice Meetings

The fighting continued, and counterattack followed attack. In late June, the lines were again north of the 38th Parallel, and the enemy began to propose that some sort of truce might be in order, suggesting a conference to discuss this possibility. In July, the Communist and United Nations negotiators met to discuss an armistice. It soon became obvious that the peace talks were giving the enemy a much needed



Transport helicopter of the 1st Marine Aircraft Wing unloads troops at a hillside fuel dump in the "Punchbowl" area of east-central Korea. (USMC Photo #A159962).

breathing spell and an opportunity to regroup his forces. The truce talks continued periodically, while the fighting intermittently grew cold and flared hot. The enemy broke off the peace negotiations in August on the pretext that U.N. aircraft had attacked the neutral conference area at Kaesong. A month later the 1st Marine Division made tactical history in the "Punchbowl" area of east central Korea.

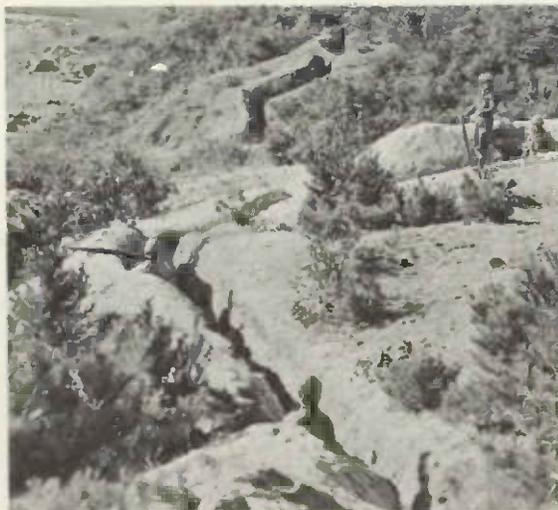
The 1st Brigade had used helicopters in combat for the first time in the Pusan Perimeter, but these were small aircraft and were used mainly for aerial reconnaissance, casualty evacuation, and rescue work. The arrival of a helicopter transport squadron in September 1951 provided the means of making a real test of the new concept which had been growing in Marine aviation. In an isolated area of "the Punchbowl," Marine (10-place) helicopters landed 224 fully equipped combat troops and 17,772 pounds of cargo on the objective in four hours. In addition, one of the helicopters laid 8 miles of telephone wire to the regimental command post in 14 minutes. Thus, the first helicopter-borne landing of a combat unit in history had been an outstanding success. Similar operations soon followed, and from that time on Marine helicopters became a familiar sight shuttling across the Korean battlefields.

The winter of 1951–1952 saw little major combat, with action on both sides confined mainly to raids and patrol skirmishes. During March 1952, after seven months in the “Punch-bowl” area, the Marines moved west to take over the left flank of the Eighth Army. Now a part of I Corps, the division occupied a blocking position across the invasion route to Seoul. During this time, both sides engaged in limited offensives across the entire front, mainly for the purpose of securing more territory, either for bargaining purposes or for better defensive positions. Extensive trench systems were dug, and log and earthen bunkers were built. This activity was reminiscent of the trench warfare of World War I. The big difference was that the job of the Marines was to defend instead of to attack. At times, during the static war, both sides awaited the results of the drawn-out truce negotiations, and at other times the fighting reached ferocious intensity. While the talks continued at Panmunjom, the casualties slowly mounted along the outpost line. It was a war of contrast—some troops fought while others, one valley to the rear, practiced close-order drill and received classroom instruction.

The Cease Fire

In the spring of 1953, military objectives such as Outposts Reno, Vegas, and Carson saw the Marines in some of the bitterest hand-to-hand fighting of the entire war. Other fierce fighting occurred at Bunker Hill, Dagmar, Outpost Berlin, and among the jutting rocky crags of the ridge known as the Hook. Finally, after two years of frustrating and often fruitless meetings with the Communist negotiators, an armistice was signed at Panmunjom, and the fighting ended on 27 July 1953. After the signing of an armistice, the Marines were relieved of any further combat responsibility, but the division remained in Korea until April 1955. When they were relieved from their defensive positions along the Demilitarized Zone that separated North and South Korea, ground Marines returned to Camp Pendleton, California. The 1st Marine Aircraft Wing remained in the Far East, and a few Marines continued on duty in Korea as military advisors to various ROK units.

The war in Korea had been a costly one. Total U.S. casualties during the war numbered approximately 136,000 men killed, missing, or wounded. Of this number, Marine casualties were listed as 28,011. There were 3,845 killed,



Typical of the Marine defense lines occupied in depth in western Korea are these Kansas Line positions shown in December 1952. (USMC Photo #A168908).

422 declared missing and presumed dead, and 23,744 wounded. During the last year of the war alone, the record showed a total of 13,049 Marine casualties, plus an additional 2,529 for the attached 1st Korean Marine Corps Regimental Combat Team. “Astonishingly: 1,306 Marines or 34 percent of all those killed in the entire war were victims of the ‘static,’ outpost warfare. Another 11,344 were listed WIA [wounded in action] during this period—representing 40.5 percent of the total number of Marines wounded during the three years of conflict.” The number of enemy losses, however, was considerably higher.

During the Korean War, the ground operations of the Marines can be divided into seven periods. These are the Pusan Perimeter defense (August–September 1950), Inchon-Seoul assault (September–October 1950), Chosin Reservoir campaign (October–December 1950), Eastern Korea (January 1951–March 1952), Western Korea (March 1952–July 1953), and the Post-Armistice period (July 1953–February 1955—when first units were withdrawn). Marine aviation activities in Korea were first in support of the 1st Provisional Brigade in the Pusan Perimeter, and next with the Inchon landing by the 1st Marine Division when squadrons of the 1st Marine Aircraft Wing gave effective close air support from carriers and later from Kimpo Airfield.

Following the collapse of North Korean resistance in early October 1950, air-lifted elements of the 1st Marine Aircraft Wing occupied the seaport town of Wonsan. During the latter part of November and early part of December 1950, Navy, Air Force, and Marine Corps planes supplied the division in its breakout from the Chosin Reservoir. During these operations repeated airdrops were made and more than 5,000 casualties were evacuated. In addition, Marine and Navy aircraft provided outstanding close air support which was vital for the withdrawal out of the reservoir. Between August 1950 and 27 July 1953, units of the 1st Marine Aircraft Wing flew more than 118,000 sorties of which more than 39,500 were close air support missions. Marine helicopter squadrons, during the same period, evacuated almost 10,000 personnel.

When the war had ended, 42 Marines had won the Medal of Honor for heroic achievements. Of these awards, 26 were posthumous and 16 were received by living Marines.

Other Marine Corps Activities

The Marine Corps emerged from the Korean War with the highest peacetime strength in its history. The suddenness of the war, and MacArthur's immediate request for Marines, had emphasized the importance of maintaining the Corps as a ready striking force. This important need in the Nation's defense had been reflected in Public Law 416 (sometimes called the *Marine Corps Bill*), which was passed by Congress in 1952 as one of the amendments to the National Security Act of 1947.

During June 1951, in anticipation of congressional action to increase the strength of the Marine Corps, the 3d Marine Brigade was formed at Camp Pendleton. By January 1952, the brigade's units became the nucleus of the 3d Marine Division which had been disbanded at the end of World War II. In August 1953, the division was sent to Japan to reinforce United Nations forces in the Far East. With the armistice signed, the division, with its support-



Division and regimental colors of the 1st Marine Division are paraded behind the front lines on 25 March 1953 for the award of the Korean Presidential Unit Citation. (USMC Photo #A170364).

ing aircraft, remained in Japan and conducted a vigorous training program, stressing amphibious operations and maintaining a constant state of preparedness for combat. In 1955, when the 1st Marine Division redeployed from Korea to the United States, the 3d Division began moving to Okinawa. Prior to its move, one of its regiments, the 4th Marines, was sent to Hawaii to become the major Marine ground element of what is now called the 1st Marine Brigade. These redeployments of Marine Corps combat troops to strategic locations were made in order to fulfill the Corps' role of the nation's amphibious force-in-readiness.

While the 1st Division was engaged in Korea, the 2d Marine Division at Camp Lejeune, North Carolina, was furnishing stand-by units for deployment as needed. A reinforced infantry battalion with supporting air units remained on board ships of the powerful U.S. Sixth Fleet in the Mediterranean. In August 1953, when an earthquake struck the Ionian Isles of Greece, a battalion of Marines was ordered to assist in the relief activities. Support was furnished in April 1954 by elements of the 1st Marine Aircraft Wing to the embattled French troops fighting in Indo-China. Fighter aircraft were ferried from the carrier *Saipan* by the pilots of MAG-12. A maintenance crew remained ashore and instructed the French crews in repair and aircraft maintenance procedures.

While engaging in 2d Marine Division maneuvers in the Caribbean in July 1954, a Marine unit was ordered to stand by off Central America. United States nationals and American property were in danger when anti-Communist rebels seized control of the Guatemalan government amidst unrest and violence. The Marines were prepared to land security forces if necessary. In January 1955, Marines came to the aid of the Chinese Nationalists. The Communists forced Nationalist troops and civilians to abandon the Tachen Islands off the mainland of China, and a shore party battalion of the 3d Marine Division based in Japan assisted U.S. Navy crews in the evacuation by ship. In all, 26,000 Chinese were evacuated from the islands to Formosa. During October of the same year, aviation elements assisted in rescue work at flood-ravaged Tampico, Mexico. Marine pilots flew in emergency supplies, water purification equipment, cooks, and engineers to the beleaguered Mexicans.

In October 1956, the Mediterranean area was

again the scene of crisis. Reinforcements were flown in to increase the garrison at Port Lyautey, Morocco, when fighting between French and Moroccans posed a threat to the security of the U.S. naval base. Marines also evacuated members of a United Nations truce team during the war between Israel and Egypt. At the same time, the Marines of the Sixth Fleet established an evacuation center at Alexandria, through which over 1,500 persons were evacuated during the Anglo-French invasion of Egypt. Other Marine battalions were also alerted for deployment during this Suez crisis, but once the tensions slackened, the troops were diverted on a good-will tour of the Far East.



Typifying the constant round of amphibious training of the Fleet Marine Force in the 1950s and 60s is this often-repeated scene of Marines landing across Onslow Beach at Camp Lejeune, while overhead helicopters ferry in other assault troops. (USMC Photo #A19392).

The pattern of events requiring deployment of Marines after the Korean War remained familiar throughout the decade. Time and again they would move from the Far East to the Middle East, and to other troubled areas throughout the world, seldom interfering, yet always standing ready if needed. The 3d

Marines and supporting aircraft, after completing an extensive landing exercise in the Philippines during December 1956, cruised the lower reaches of the South China Sea. Taking up station west of Borneo, the Marines were ready for immediate deployment, if necessary, during the Indonesian revolt of February 1957. Later during that year, on 20 December 1957, the aircraft carrier *Princeton*, stationed in the Philippine area, rushed to Ceylon as soon as word of a disastrous flood was received. Twenty Marine helicopters, originally slated for possible deployment in Indonesia, immediately flew to assist the flood victims, earning the gratitude of thousands of homeless Ceylonese.

Twice during the spring of 1958, Marines stood ready for action in South America and were prepared to land if the situation warranted it. In January, during the overthrow of Dictator Perez Jimenez, mobs ran wild throughout Caracas, Venezuela, threatening the safety of Americans residing there. A provisional company of Marines boarded the USS *Des Moines* and cruised off the Venezuelan coast. The crisis finally subsided, and it was unnecessary for the Marines to land. When Vice President Richard M. Nixon visited Caracas during a good will tour in May, he became the prime target of rocks and missiles thrown by unruly elements. A Marine battalion was flown to the Caribbean, where it boarded the USS *Boston* and sailed to the Venezuelan shore. Once again, the Caracas governmental authorities quieted the rioters, and order was restored. It was unnecessary for the Marines to land, and they were flown back to Camp Lejeune, North Carolina.

The Lebanon Incident

Although Marine battalions were continuously on board ships of the Sixth Fleet in the Mediterranean, their presence escaped notice of most of the American public until the summer of 1958. Then, in July, United States Marines landed in the vicinity of Beirut, Lebanon and provided an important example of the sound strategic philosophy of having ready forces available for deployment in areas of potential trouble and unrest.

When the government of nearby Iraq was forcibly overthrown on 14 July, Lebanese President Camille Chamoun reacted immediately and requested United States troops to support his own army. Marines landed at 1504 on the following day. A total of three Marine battalion

landing teams (BLTs) went ashore under the command of Brigadier General Sidney S. Wade. In a situation where a single careless act could have touched off a small war, the discipline of the Marines was exemplary. Air transportable elements of an additional infantry battalion were subsequently flown to Lebanon as reinforcements, and Army airborne troops were deployed from Europe to augment the U.S. force.

After the arrival of U.S. Army troops on 19 July, the question of command of the American land forces arose. This problem was resolved on 23 July, when the Department of the Army named Major General Paul D. Adams, Commander in Chief, American Land Forces, Lebanon. When General Adams assumed command on 26 July, General Wade was named Commander, U.S. Marine Corps Troops Assigned, Lebanon. During the next two months, the Americans worked in close cooperation with the Lebanese government officials and Army units, and the internal strife was controlled. In addition to Marine and Army units, Navy and Air Force commands also participated in the operation. With the situation stabilized, all Marines were withdrawn from Lebanon by 4 October. Army and Air Force units withdrew a short time later.

In the Lebanon operation, an American force had landed on foreign soil to support the legal government at its own request. In spite of the intense pressure of rebel bands, fifth columnists, and visible military threats in neighboring countries, there were no combat casualties, and an atmosphere of friendly assistance prevailed. At the time of the landing, no one was certain of the type or amount of opposition that would be encountered. The Marines were prepared for the worst, but planned to use only the minimum force necessary. This they did, and their performance was highly commended.

In other areas, the late months of 1958 saw the arrival of Marine Aircraft Group 11 (MAG-11) in Taiwan. The Chinese Nationalist Government had requested the United States to strengthen the Formosan air defenses, and MAG-11, with its experienced air combat units, was sent to reinforce the air power of the Seventh Fleet cruising in the China Sea. Meanwhile, BLTs were afloat, ready to meet any crisis that might develop.

During the year of 1959, Marines were continuing to travel throughout the world, standing ready for immediate deployment whenever

needed. From Mediterranean countries such as Turkey, Greece, Italy, and Libya, to Far Eastern countries like Japan, and Borneo, Marine battalions conducted training exercises. Homeless flood victims in Ceylon and Taiwan also received Marine aid during relief operations before the year had ended.

Commandants And Developments

On 1 January 1952, Lemuel C. Shepherd, Jr. became the 20th Commandant of the Marine Corps. He succeeded General Cates who remained on active duty, moving to Quantico as Commandant of MCS. During General Shepherd's administration (January 1952–December 1955), several advances were made which improved the overall efficiency of the Corps. The first major policy change effected was the reorganization of Marine Corps Headquarters along general staff lines. This move more clearly defined the areas of responsibility, streamlined administrative procedures, and helped to eliminate wasted personnel effort. Shepherd later separated fiscal functions from the Supply Department and established a separate Fiscal Division.

With the passage of Public Law 416, the Commandant acted as a member of the Joint Chiefs of Staff when items concerning the Marine Corps were discussed. The task of implementing this new responsibility became one of the major concerns of the Commandant. The skill and tact with which he handled a potentially delicate situation resulted in the firm establishment of the Marine Corps within the Department of Defense, both in administrative matters and command relationships. "As the first Marine ever to meet officially with the Joint Chiefs of Staff, he established the Corps' position on a solid foundation." Throughout General Shepherd's term, his administration was characterized by a high degree of personal leadership. A strong believer in the importance of military fundamentals, he brought about what might be described as a military "renaissance" within the Marine Corps.

Following General Shepherd as Commandant was General Randolph McCall Pate (January 1956–December 1959). Prior to becoming Commandant, General Pate had served in various staff and command billets. In May 1953, he was ordered to Korea to command the 1st Marine Division (Reinforced). For his capable leadership during this tour of duty, he received the

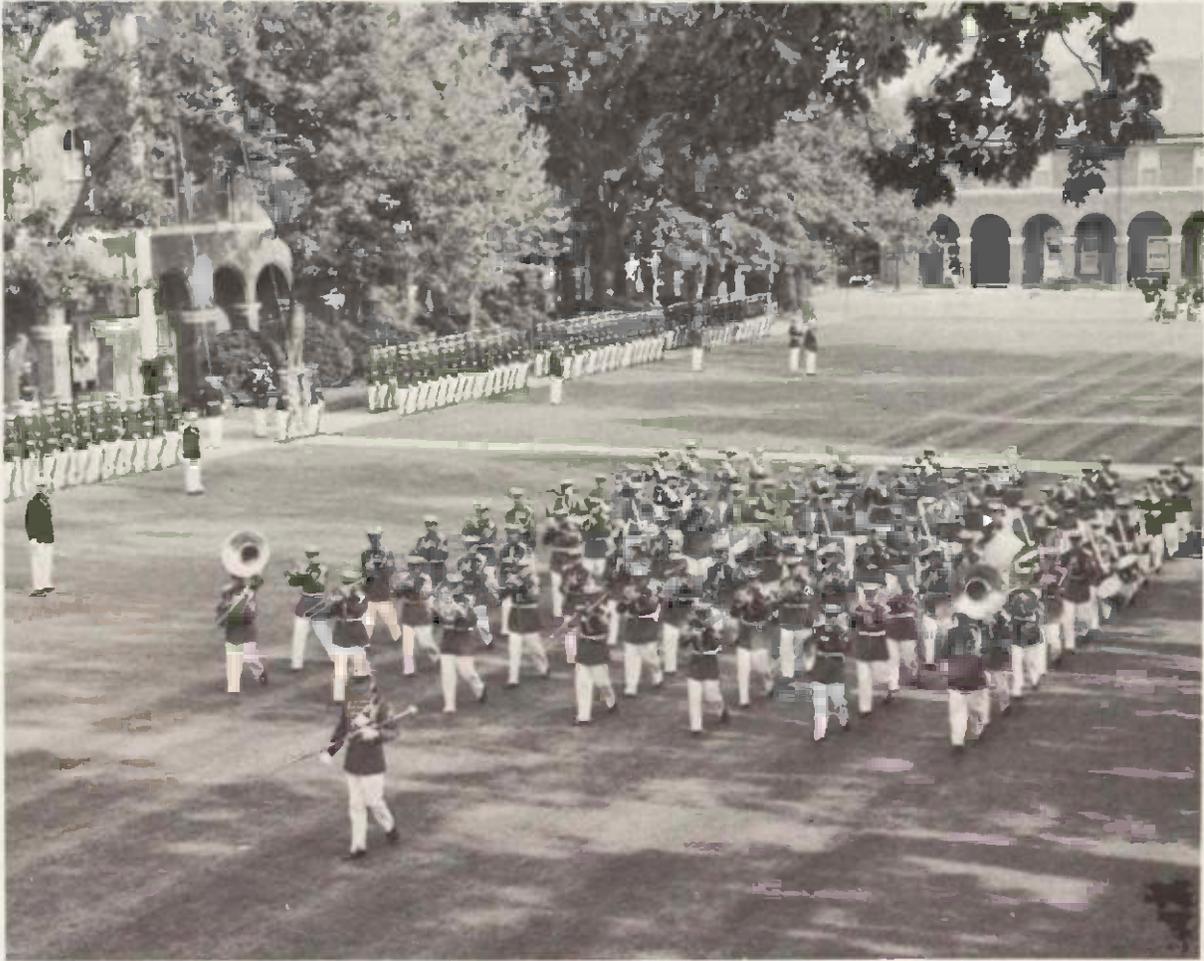
Distinguished Service Medal. Shortly after General Pate became Commandant, the Marine Corps received nationwide attention in what became known as the "Ribbon Creek Incident." The night of 8 April 1956, six recruits were drowned in Ribbon Creek at Parris Island, South Carolina. The unauthorized night march, which resulted in the drownings, led to much unfavorable publicity for the Corps. After an intensive investigation, General Pate appeared before the House Armed Services Committee, presented all the facts, and promised appropriate remedial action. As a result of this, Representative Carl Vinson, Chairman of the Committee, congratulated the Commandant in these words:

General Pate, you have reported this morning not only to this Committee, but to the nation. During my 42 years in Congress, this is the first time within my memory that the senior officer of any Armed Service has had the courage to state in public session that his service could be deficient in some respect.

Although the unfavorable publicity did not die quickly, immediate changes were made in the recruit training program, and the Marine Corps continued to turn out capable and efficient combat troops while winning back the confidence of the general public.

In the area of research and development, many innovations and improvements were made during the decade of 1950–1960. The war in Korea had highlighted the importance of the helicopter for many uses, and the armored vest (flak jackets) became standard equipment for combat troops.

Although the Marine Corps Schools had developed the tactics of vertical envelopment as an extension of the assault during operations in Korea, the real aim of the vertical envelopment planners had not been reached by the summer of 1953. The goal these officers were working for was an integrated amphibious and air (both vertical and conventional) assault force organized and trained as a team and deployable in the assault directly from offshore "bases." This concept required an assault vessel much like the Navy's aircraft carriers of World War II. This need gave birth to the Navy's Landing Platform Helicopter Carrier (LPH) as a combat vessel capable of carrying an assault-ready integrated team of air and ground Marines. The first LPHs were converted Navy aircraft carriers such as the USS *Boxer*, USS *Princeton*, USS *Valley Forge*, and the USS *Thetis Bay*. (The first LPH designed and built for the purpose of the afore-



The U. S. Marine Band and Drum and Bugle Corps troop the line at the Marine Barracks, Washington, D. C., in an afternoon retreat parade, the forerunner of the popular summer evening parades of the 1960s. (Photo courtesy Division of Information, HQMC).

mentioned concept was the "battle" class USS *Iwo Jima* which was commissioned in 1961. Several sister ships have since joined the fleet.)

Another technical/tactical contribution to the doctrine and practice of air-amphibious warfare was the development of the Short Airfield for Tactical Support (SATS). The demand for aircraft and/or airfields suitable for use in areas normally too small or unsuitable for aircraft operations was not new. The basic idea goes back to the formative years of naval aviation when Eugene Ely was flying from improvised platforms built on warships, when the aircraft catapult was designed for battleships and cruisers, and when the aircraft carrier itself was devised. In 1942, at Camp Kearny, California, MAG-12 had demonstrated the land-based em-

ployment of a Navy-provided catapult and arresting device with the Grumman Wildcat (F4F). Finally in 1956, the Commandant of the Marine Corps redirected interest to the problem of tactical support airfields for use under less than optimum conditions. This move was based on the conviction that such facilities were a necessity for future Marine aviation operations in support of the Fleet Marine Force.

In May 1958, the expeditionary airfield concept was approved and designated as "Short Airfield for Tactical Support." In September 1961, approval was obtained for the establishment of three SATS test sites. They were to be located at Marine Corps Air Station, Quantico, Virginia; Marine Corps Base, 29 Palms, California; and Bogue Field, North Carolina. The equip-

ment and concept of the SATS was tested for nearly five years. Then, in May-June 1965, the ultimate test of a SATS operation was conducted at Chu Lai, Vietnam with its installation and operation under combat conditions by a Marine task organization.

Developments in organization, tactics and/or techniques, and new aircraft types were not the only areas of Marine aviation to demand attention in the years following the end of the active hostilities in Korea. A continuing problem was the provision of adequate numbers of personnel trained in aviation and aviation-related skills. A major area of concern, due to a shortage of personnel, was that of pilots and airborne radar intercept operators.

One solution to the continuing shortage of pilots was the reintroduction during 1959 of the Marine Aviation Cadet Program. This program had been in effect during the 1930s, but was dropped prior to World War II. When the program once again was dropped, nearly six years later, graduates of the Marine Aviation Cadet program had greatly added to the strength of Marine aviation. Concerning the shortage of airborne radar intercept operators, efforts were also made to correct this situation. From the beginning of airborne radar during World War II until the late 1950s, the Marine Corps had employed non-commissioned officers as operator/technicians. With the advent of the highly sophisticated "Phantom" aircraft and related weapons systems, it was determined that the second man of the flight crew should also be a commissioned officer. To meet this demand, a program was introduced whereby selected regular and reserve officers were given about 46 weeks of Marine and Navy instruction and airborne training before being assigned to a tactical squadron of the 2d or 3d Marine Aircraft Wings. In addition to these developments, Marine aviation planners continued to experiment with new aircraft designs and capabilities,

which have improved the overall readiness of the Corps.

While Marine air was planning and developing new techniques and equipment, so were the planners for the ground forces. Continued efforts were made to improve the amphibious capability of the Corps, along with the new techniques of vertical assault. Better and lighter equipment to be used by ground troops came under careful scrutiny at the Landing Force Development Center at Quantico. Every effort was being made throughout the Marine Corps to maintain and improve a constant state of readiness.

With all of the training and development going on, the Marine Corps also found time to involve itself in community relations. Much of this work was done by the Marine Corps Reserve. The Marine Corps initiated the "Devil Pup" program at Camp Pendleton which enabled many young boys to spend a short period at camp each summer undergoing a rigorous physical program. Marine non-commissioned officers supervised the drills, ceremonies, hikes, and physical training program. In addition, a Marine Corps physical testing program was made available to high schools in the New York-New Jersey area in 1959. More than 140,000 high school students participated in the tests in a two-year period. In 1961 the Commandant directed that the program be made available to high schools throughout the nation upon request. Both the Devil Pups and the Physical Testing Program, as community services, have enhanced the image of the Marine Corps. These programs have demonstrated to the general public that the Corps is not only a dependable military fighting force, but also is a Service which is vitally concerned with the welfare of the nation's youth. During the decade of the 1960s, the Corps continued to demonstrate its worth, both as a fighting force and in the area of civic concern.

PART IX

MARINES IN VIETNAM AND OTHER DUTY 1960-1969

Duty And Developments

From 1960 through 1969, the Marine Corps pattern of activity has remained basically the same—constant worldwide readiness. Although the war in Vietnam has been the major concern of the Corps during the decade, other activities have also demonstrated the Marine Corps alert status.

Following the Communist invasion of Laos at the end of 1960, a strong Marine force, ready for possible deployment, moved in Seventh Fleet ships to the South China Sea. A few months later, in 1961, a Marine helicopter squadron moved into Thailand to provide logistic support for the Laotian government. During the following year, in May, the 3d Marine Expeditionary Unit, composed of a battalion landing team, a helicopter squadron, and an attack squadron, landed in Thailand to support the government against external Communist pressure. In the spring of 1962, Marine Medium Helicopter Squadron 362 of the 1st Marine Aircraft Wing was also committed to South Vietnam. This squadron and supporting elements landed at Soc Trang in the Mekong Delta to provide support for Vietnamese troops fighting the Viet Cong. At that time, the Marine Corps commitment in Vietnam was approximately 600 men, some of whom were acting as advisors to Vietnamese ground units in the field.

Although Southeast Asia continued to be one of the world's trouble spots during this early period of the decade, as well as later, it had no monopoly of calls upon Marine ready forces. The Caribbean, and specifically Cuba, demanded as much if not more attention at this time. In October 1962, the Communist government in Cuba had so reinforced its armed forces with Soviet weapons, advisors, and technicians that their presence became a distinct threat to the United States. When President John F.

Kennedy issued to the Soviet and Cuban governments an ultimatum demanding the removal of offensive missile weapons from the island, he ordered a mobilization of American regular forces.

In the forefront of this mobilization were Marine Corps ground and air units. The Marine garrison at Guantanamo was quickly reinforced by air- and sea-lifted BLTs. In addition, an expeditionary brigade moved from Camp Pendleton to standby positions off the Cuban shore. The majority of the combat units of the 2d Marine Division and the 2d Marine Aircraft Wing were also deployed to positions where they could be utilized immediately. The show of American strength and obvious readiness to protect the vital interests of the United States, along with delicate negotiations with the Soviet Union, resulted in the withdrawal of the Soviet missiles from Cuba. By the time the deployed troops had returned to their home stations in November and December, they had amply demonstrated the value of the force-in-readiness concept that permeates every facet of Marine Corps life.

During 1963, elements of the Marine Corps stood ready for action in 11 major critical or near critical situations around the world. These situations existed in: Germany, Taiwan, Laos, Vietnam, Cuba, Zanzibar, Panama Canal Zone, Cambodia, Cyprus, Haiti, and South America. The Corps operations ranged from preserving the peace with a show of force off the coast of Zanzibar to the shooting war in South Vietnam. Other Marine forces were on station, both ashore and afloat, in other parts of the world, and were prepared for action—from putting out a brushfire war to an all-out nuclear conflict. This type of readiness was the result of training, planning, and developments which had continually taken place throughout the Marine Corps.

While 1963 brought a renewed emphasis in

the Corps to the concept of limited warfare and the use of conventional weapons, the realities of the nuclear age remained ever present. By this time, several weapons systems within the Marine Corps were capable of using nuclear or conventional warheads. These included jet attack aircraft, 8-inch howitzers, and Honest John rockets. Major emphasis, however, continued to be placed on weapons, munitions, and tactics of a more conventional nature, because it was believed that limited warfare of the conventional type was far more likely. In this respect, the Corps pushed forward its concept of the vertical assault with the use of helicopters as a vital part of amphibious warfare.

In 1963, the Long-Range Study Panel, under Brigadier General Gordon D. Gayle, met in Quantico to determine what the Corps should be in 1985. (The Long-Range and Mid-Range Study Panels are part of a continuous program of evaluation of the Marine Corps at Quantico, Virginia.) The panel was not to consider the Corps in parochial terms, but rather in terms of the whole world environment at the time. Lieutenant General Wallace M. Greene, Jr., Chief of Staff at that time, gave the long-range planners this guideline:

We have numerous areas of grave concern, as a society and as a country. History will judge us on the effectiveness of the utilization of all institutions, both public and private, to determine the solutions to our problems. One lesson we should have learned well from ages past is that there is relatively little compassion for those nations that do not vigorously attempt to protect themselves. Rather, it has been demonstrated that survival is the prize earned by those who recognize courage, vigilance and perseverance. Those who recognize a challenge and overcome it, survive. Those who seek to avoid the gauntlet thrown, or deny its existence, or temporize, soon fade from the pages of history. Our choice is clear.

Objectivity was an important element in this Marine look into the future. Over 40 government, military, industrial, and academic organizations contributed to the project. Out of the study came a formidable forecast of what the political, economic, and sociological factors would be in the nation and the world in 20 years. Some of these considerations were, population growth; methods of securing men for the Armed Forces; needed size of the Marine Corps; weapon systems needed; the impact of automation, data processing, and cybernetics on the Corps; and the possible enemies of the United States by the middle of the 1980s. One of the im-

portant conclusions drawn by the study panel was:

... that the ready force of 1985 will be shaped by many factors—some have already developed; others are just evolving; still others are yet unidentifiable and are dependent on technological development. The basic conclusion is that the role of the Marine Corps should continue to be that of a versatile force-in-readiness, primarily identified with the maritime and littoral environments.

The primary mission of the Corps will continue to be to provide balanced Fleet Marine Forces for the projection of power ashore from the Fleets whenever the interest of the United States requires.

Before the close of the year, continued support of Vietnamese forces, development of the Short Airfield for Tactical Support, emphasis on physical fitness, and expanded technical and field training had increased the Marines' professional skills. The last day of 1963 saw the retirement of the Corps' 22d Commandant, General David M. Shoup. Following General Shoup as Commandant was General Greene. (1 January 1964–31 December 1967).

During 1964, intensive amphibious training was carried out by the Marine Corps. In the late fall, the U.S. Navy supported U.S. and Spanish Marines in Operation STEEL PIKE, which was the largest amphibious operation since World War II. The objective of the exercise was to land 28,000 troops and sufficient supplies for 30 days of combat operations. In partial fulfillment of this objective, 5,000 troops landed on the beaches of southern Spain before noon on D-Day. In addition to the primary objective, a principal purpose of STEEL PIKE was to demonstrate realistically the strategic mobility of the Navy-Marine striking force in cooperation with the forces of an allied nation. This exercise put to test full-scale embarkation and landing of major expeditionary forces. It also tested the involved command and control operations of the air-ground team. U. S. Marines who participated in the operation were from Fleet Marine Force, Atlantic, including the 2d Marine Air Wing, the 2d Marine Division, and Force Troops. Marine air support included over 100 attack planes and fighters, photo-reconnaissance aircraft, 100 helicopters, and giant KC-130 flying tankers for in-flight refueling of the jet planes.

In the shadow of the STEEL PIKE operation, Marines on the West Coast of the United States were engaging in a tough training exercise at Camp Pendleton, California. This was Operation HARDNOSE in which 11,000 Marines and



Reading a print-out from a computer, two Women Marines learn about the capabilities of data processing machines, an integral part of the modern Marine Corps. (USMC Photo #A113691).

8,000 sailors, 39 Navy vessels, and numerous aircraft took part. The exercise represented the largest counter-insurgency/guerrilla operation ever held on the West Coast. During the operation, Marines served both as defenders and invaders of 10 "native" villages set up in the maneuver area. The brigade-size expeditionary force which participated in the exercise included elements of the 1st Marine Division, the 3d Marine Aircraft Wing, and selected units of the Navy's First and Seventh Fleets. Unlike the Spanish operation in which no ammunition was used, HARDNOSE was a live exercise in many respects. Attack planes of the air wing and destroyers of the fleet fired shells, rockets, and dropped bombs to soften up the landing area for the attacking Marine forces. Pre-set demolition charges along with machine gun and mortar fire added to the realism of the situation. It was pointed out by Undersecretary of the Navy Paul B. Faye, Jr. that such an exercise was "about as close as you could come to the real thing." The Marine Corps' emphasis on this kind of training

continually prepares the individual Marine for the realities of actual combat.

By 1965, many innovations and developments had taken place in the Marine Corps which kept it abreast of modern times as well as improved its combat efficiency. The use of computers and other sophisticated digital systems necessitated a wide range of specialized technical training for many of the modern Marines. The continued development and use of such complex systems received favorable consideration by many of the top leaders of the Corps.

One of the systems which was in operation and undergoing extensive tests was the Marine Tactical Data System (MTDS). This was developed in response to the need for an air defense system capable of providing the tactical air commander with timely, accurate information on the basis of which he could carry out air and counterair operations in an amphibious assault. MTDS consists of electronic facilities situated at the wing's tactical air control center and at the tactical air operations center. Combined, these facilities provide for continuous, effective, and positive control of aircraft on intercept missions and those en route to close air support, illumination, airdrop, reconnaissance, and other missions. The system automatically detects and tracks aerial target positions, and computes and transmits firing data to antiaircraft missile batteries. In addition, the entire system is helicopter-transportable and can be delivered intact for use in the early stages of the assault phase. MTDS is only one of several systems which have been developed for use in a tactical situation.

In order to meet the challenge of the future, the Marine Corps has undertaken a comprehensive systems development effort. In addition to tactical systems such as MTDS, it has done extensive work on information and functional systems. The functional systems are those designed primarily to facilitate the administration, command, and control of the basic resources (money, materiel, or personnel) within a general area of mission responsibility. Secondly, the systems accumulate data and generate information used to support decisions and actions in their respective areas. The tactical systems are those designed to execute the tactical command and control of forces (to include weapons) in hostile, or potentially hostile, environments. Tactical systems can have elements which are exclusively their own, but they also embrace or interface with many elements of functional systems using

hardware (computers and communication devices) specially intended to withstand the trials of the combat environment.

Information systems are those which are designed to complement their own data base by selecting data from the various functional and tactical systems for the purpose of generating and displaying integrated information. The information that is generated is primarily for the purpose of assisting commanders in the acquisition of resources. One of the important components of an information system is an organizational status (readiness) evaluation, both current and projected. An important function of the system is the passing of data or information between or among the functional and tactical systems. Thus, the Marine Corps systems development has been cognizant of an interrelationship of all systems, management and command, tactical and non-tactical. The development of each system has been to some degree interwoven with all of the others. Through this network of systems, the command, control, management, and administration of the Marine Corps can be modeled by interconnecting senior and subordinate commands with a pipeline which permits flow not only up and down, but also laterally. The development and use of systems to improve the overall efficiency of the Corps will undoubtedly continue to receive prime attention as the "computer age" develops further.

Another area where the Marine Corps' combat effectiveness continues to be reinforced is its Organized Marine Corps Reserve. This force of more than 45,000 citizen-Marines will constitute the 4th Division, 4th Marine Aircraft Wing, and reinforce other Fleet Marine Force units, should the President of the United States decide that they are needed for a critical national emergency. The Marine Reservists, while training to be combat ready, also provide community services. The humanitarian service programs of the reservists are many and varied. They range from rescue operations during natural disasters to the donation of blood during community blood drives.

One of the best known programs is called "Toys for Tots." This annual Christmas drive to collect toys for needy children began in Los Angeles during 1948, and has steadily grown throughout the years. The toys collected in each community are turned over to welfare agencies which distribute them to underprivileged families and to orphanages. The most recent of the

nation wide Marine Reserve programs is the drive to collect funds to provide aid to needy Vietnamese people. In August 1965, an agreement was worked out with the Cooperative for American Relief Everywhere (CARE) which provided for that organization to purchase needed supplies and deliver them to the III Marine Amphibious Force in Vietnam. Money to be used for such purchases would be supplied by the Marine Corps Reserve Civic Action Fund. The Commandant of the Marine Corps launched the program officially on 13 September 1965, and emphasized that the conduct of a joint Marine Corps Reserve/CARE program was a task short of mobilization for which the Reserve was singularly well-qualified. Since that time, the Civic Action Fund has continually provided important financial resources for the Marines' pacification efforts in the Republic of Vietnam.

While the Marine Corps continues to carry on research and development, training programs, and numerous other functions, it is also deeply committed to the war effort in South Vietnam. There, the Marines are gaining valuable combat experience, developing new tactics, and demonstrating their ability to develop and carry out effective programs of pacification.

First Marines In Vietnam

United States military assistance to South Vietnam dates back to 1954, but the major U. S. buildup in the country did not begin until the 1960s. President Kennedy authorized additional assistance with supplies, transportation, communications, and economic aid in 1961 to help the South Vietnamese government combat the growing threat of Communist aggression from the north. In the spring of 1962, Marine helicopters began operating in the Mekong Delta to increase the troop mobility of the Vietnamese forces, and moved north to Danang in September. The Communist threat continued to grow, however, and by 1963, the Viet Cong movement had made crucial gains in many areas of South Vietnam.

A political crisis developed in the south in November 1963 when a military coup overthrew the regime of President Ngo Dinh Diem. The success of the Viet Cong and the agitation of the Buddhists against the Diem government had forced a change by the armed forces. The revolutionary leaders centralized power in a Revolutionary Military Council which announced its intentions to reinstall civilian leadership as soon

as possible. During the following year, however, conditions further deteriorated. In August 1964, North Vietnamese torpedo boats twice attacked U.S. naval forces operating off the coast in the Gulf of Tonkin. On orders of the President, U.S. planes retaliated against enemy installations in the North. The government of South Vietnam remained unstable and was shaken by a series of coups during the fall and winter of 1964 which coincided with increased Viet Cong terrorist activities.

In February 1965, shortly after the celebration of Tet (an important Vietnamese holiday), the Viet Cong attacked two U.S. military installations, injuring and killing a large number of U.S. Army advisors and maintenance personnel. As a result of these attacks and other considerations, President Lyndon B. Johnson ordered that military targets in North Vietnam be bombed. In the south, the continuing instability of government and the concomitant Viet Cong gains forced the intervention of ground combat forces of the United States in March 1965.

On 6 March, the Pentagon announced that two battalions of Marines, numbering 3,500 men, were being sent to South Vietnam at the request of the government in Saigon. The initial mission of the Marines was to put a tight security ring around the Danang airbase, thus freeing South Vietnamese forces for combat. On the morning of 8 March, the 9th Marine Expeditionary Brigade, commanded by Brigadier General Frederick C. Karch, began landing at Danang. Battalion Landing Team 3/9, which had been the Special Landing Force (SLF) of the Seventh Fleet, was the first unit ashore. BLT 1/3 was airlifted to Danang from Okinawa in Marine KC-130s, and began arriving at 1100 local time on the same day. (Marines operating at Danang, prior to the landing, were in a reinforced helicopter squadron and two Hawk batteries of the 1st Light Anti-Aircraft Missile Battalion.) When 60 percent of the airlifted troops and 25 percent of their vehicles and equipment had arrived, a 48-hour hold was put on the rest of the BLTs. The airlift began again on 10 March, and was completed by the afternoon of 12 March.

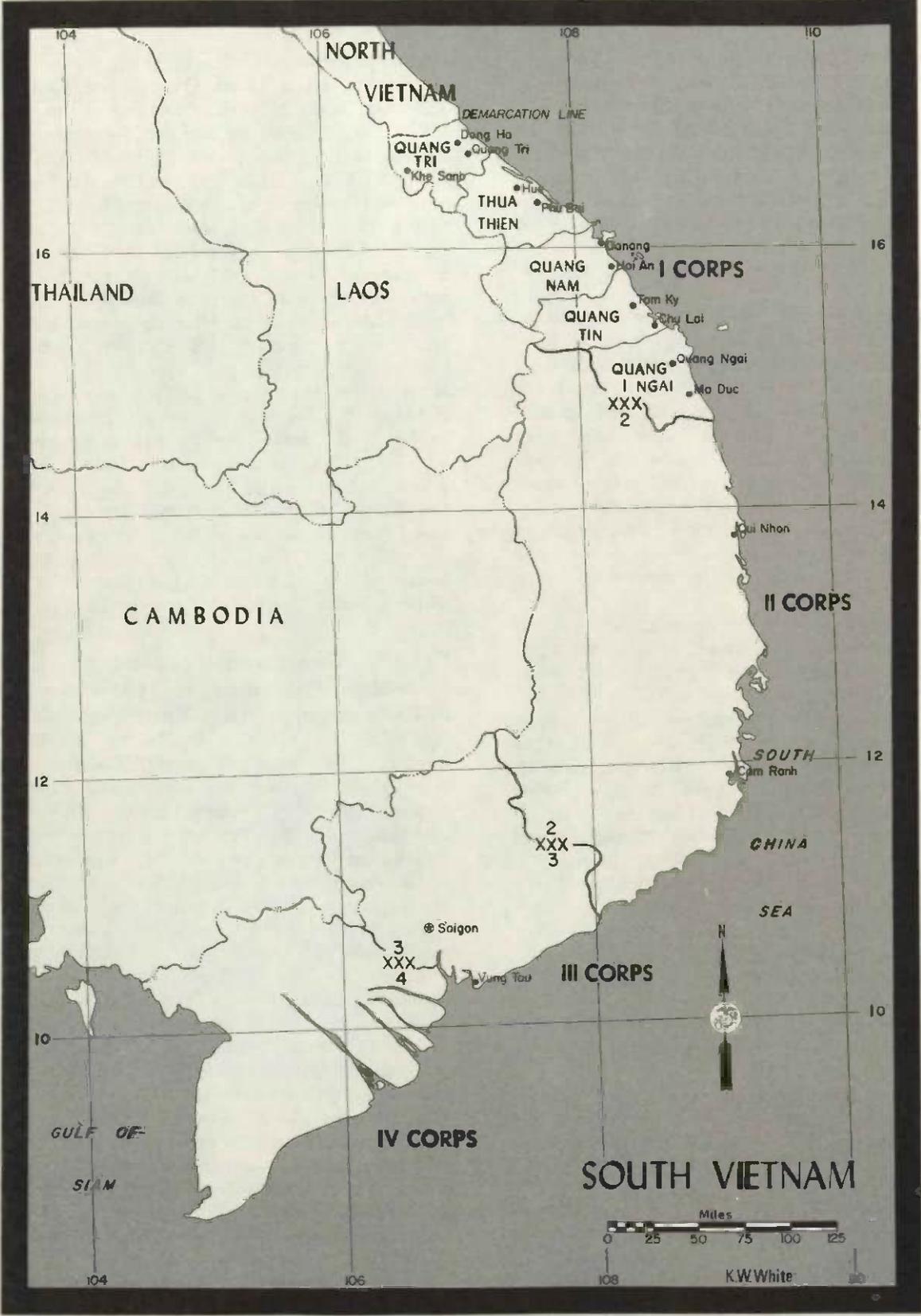
With these Marines ashore, others were soon to follow and expand operations within the I Corps Tactical Zone (ICTZ), a Vietnamese designation for both a military zone and a political region. It comprises the northernmost of the four Vietna-

mese corps areas and includes five provinces: Quang Tri, Thua Thien, Quang Nam, Quang Tin, and Quang Ngai. The landing of the 9th MEB brought the strength of the Marines in the Danang area up to approximately 5,000. On 11 April, BLT 2/3, which had been conducting a combined counterinsurgency exercise in Thailand landed across Red Beach Two at Danang. On the following day, a reinforced company from the 2d Battalion, 3d Marines, was sent by helicopter 42 miles north to Phu Bai, where, seven miles southeast of Hue, there was an airport and an important U.S. Army communications facility. On 14 April, after BLT 3/4 had arrived from Hawaii, the Marines moved into the Hue/Phu Bai area in strength. Meanwhile, on 10 April, Marine Fighter Attack Squadron (VMFA) 531 began arriving at Danang airfield. The squadron's F-4Bs (Phantom IIs) were the first fixed-wing Marine tactical aircraft to be based in Vietnam. While the build-up was taking place in I Corps during April, halfway around the world other Marines were required to land in the Dominican Republic to help restore order.

Dominican Republic

Caribbean Task Group (TG 44.9 commanded by Captain James A. Dare, USN) had six ships—the USS *Boxer*, *Raleigh*, *Rankin*, *Ruchamkin*, *Fort Snelling*, and *Wood County*. On board these ships was the 6th Marine Expeditionary Unit (MEU) which included BLT 3/6 and HMM-264. The first word of trouble in the Dominican Republic reached Captain Dare late on 24 April. The embassy cables he received reported that a coup attempt was underway against Donald Reid Cabral, president of the triumvirate then running the Dominican government. On the following day, Dare was ordered to move his ships from Vieques, Puerto Rico, to a position off the southwest coast of the Dominican Republic and to be prepared to evacuate U.S. citizens on order. The task group with its 1,800 Marines and their helicopters had steamed some 250 miles by 0200 (EST) on 26 April and was on station off Haina, a sugar port and naval base just west of Santo Domingo, the capital city. In Santo Domingo, the rebels appeared to be in control of the streets and, before the day was over, Reid Cabral had resigned as president and had gone into hiding.

The evacuation of U.S. citizens and other foreign nationals who wished to leave the area



began on 27 April. The *Ruchamkin* and *Wood County* came in and docked at the piers at Haina, and private vehicles transported the evacuees from the collection point at the Embajador Hotel to the ships. By nightfall, 620 persons had gone on board the two ships at Haina and an additional 556 had been lifted from the port area by HMM-264's helicopters to the *Boxer* and *Raleigh*. On the following morning, there were more Americans and foreign nationals at the Embajador awaiting evacuation. The Dominican police informed American officials that they no longer could guarantee the safety of the evacuees. Accordingly, Ambassador W. Tapley Bennett, Jr. asked for some Marines to assist in evacuation operations at the hotel, and a small contingent was flown in by helicopter. During the day of 28 April, Colonel Pedro Bartolome Benoit, who headed the newly formed military junta at San Isidro Airbase east of the capital, asked that 1,200 Marines be landed to restore order. Marines were also requested by the American Ambassador to help protect the Embassy which was being fired on by rebel snipers.

After due deliberation, word came from Washington at 1853 on the 28th to land 500 Marines to protect the lives of Americans and friendly foreign nationals. Within two hours after the order was given, 526 Marines in full battle gear had landed at the Embajador. The returning flights took out more evacuees to the *Boxer*, while others kept arriving at the hotel all the time. The situation grew worse on the following day, and the U.S. Embassy came under heavy fire early in the afternoon. Ambassador Bennett was in continual contact with Washington, and when asked if the situation required direct intervention, he said, "yes." By late afternoon on the 29th, over 1,500 Marines were ashore at Santo Domingo. On the next day, units of the U.S. Army's 82d Airborne Division arrived to help establish an International Safety Zone, and to separate the contending forces. More Army and Marine units arrived on 1 May, and the 6th MEU was dissolved and made a part of the 4th Marine Expeditionary Brigade under the command of Brigadier General John G. Bouker.

The Organization of American States (OAS) voted favorably on 6 May on the U.S. proposal to create an Inter-American Peace Force (IAPF) to restore peace and constitutional government to the Dominican Republic. (Eventually there

would be small units from Paraguay, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica, and more than 1,000 troops from Brazil.) General Hugo Panasco Alvim of Brazil was named commander of the IAPF, and Lieutenant General Bruce Palmer, USA, Commanding General, XVIII Airborne Corps, was made his deputy. Marine and Army units continued to engage rebel bands in sporadic firefights until peace was restored and the units withdrawn.

The first contingent of Brazilians landed on 25 May, and on the following day withdrawal of two Marine BLTs began. The rest of the Marines left in two echelons, one on 3 June, the other and last, with General Bouker, on 6 June. The Dominican intervention, so far as the Marines were concerned, was over. The peak strength of Marines in the Dominican area, both ashore and afloat, reached 8,000 during May. Marine casualties during the operation were 9 killed and 30 wounded. Army casualties during this period were about the same.

For a moment, the Marine deployment to Santo Domingo had been larger and livelier than the participation in Vietnam operations. The Marine involvement in Vietnam, however, was just in its beginnings.

Vietnam Build-up

Major General William R. Collins, Commanding General, 3d Marine Division, arrived at Danang with a small advance party on 3 May 1965. Three days after his arrival, the 9th MEB was deactivated, and the III Marine Expeditionary Force was established along with the 3d Marine Division (Forward). Ground elements were under the 3d Marines, and aviation elements were under Marine Aircraft Group 16. The designation III Marine Expeditionary Force was changed to III Marine Amphibious Force (III MAF) on 7 May and remained so throughout the war.

The 3d Marine Amphibious Brigade made an unopposed landing on 7 May at Chu Lai, a bare stretch of beach some 55 miles southeast of Danang. The initial landing was made by BLTs 1/4 and 2/4 and HMM-161. Other air support was provided by MAG-16 based at Danang. A third BLT, built around the 3d Battalion, 3d Marines, came ashore on 12 May. This ended the amphibious operation, and the 3d Marine Amphibious Brigade was dissolved. The immediate purpose of the landing was to secure the ground needed for an expeditionary airfield which could relieve some of the congestion at

Danang. With this objective in mind, Seabees and Marine engineers went to work on the airfield site on 9 May. By 1 June, the SATS field had been completed and received eight A-4 "Skyhawks" which arrived from Cubi Point in the Philippines. On the same day, the first combat strike was flown when four A-4s were launched in support of South Vietnamese Army (ARVN) troops against targets seven miles southwest of Chu Lai. Shortly thereafter, other Marine aircraft arrived and began flying combat support missions.

Meanwhile, General William C. Westmoreland, Commander, United States Military Assistance Command, Vietnam (ComUSMACV), had visited III MAF and given his concept of future operations to General Collins. Essentially, the Marines were to continue with their defensive mission, consolidating their base areas at Danang, Hue/Phu Bai, and Chu Lai, and when authorized, undertake limited offensive operations directly related to the defense of their bases. It also could be expected that a stage would be reached when III MAF would engage in more extensive offensive operations, if the Vietnamese Commander of I Corps requested it to do so. Throughout May, the Marines worked at developing their defenses while engaging in light action against the Viet Cong. Headquarters of the 1st Marine Aircraft Wing (Advanced) was established during this month at Danang, and the Marines began a civic action program with the clearing of Viet Cong from Le My hamlet complex, eight miles northwest of Danang air base. The civic action program has since proven to be one of the Marines' major concerns in I Corps.

Major General Lewis W. Walt arrived in Vietnam to become the new Commanding General of III MAF and the 3d Marine Division on 5 June 1965. Except for a brief return to the United States, at which time he was promoted to lieutenant general, he commanded III MAF until 31 May 1967. Under General Walt's leadership, the Marines aggressively engaged the enemy and carried on extensive programs of pacification in support of the South Vietnamese government.

The Viet Cong launched their first attack against the Danang airbase just before dawn on 1 July. An enemy demolitions squad got through the barbed wire and onto the flight line on the east side of the runway, and the south end of the field was hit with mortar fire. Explo-

sives and 57mm recoilless rifle fire destroyed two C-130s and one F-102, and damaged one C-130 and two F-102s. One U.S. Air Force airman was killed, and three Marines were wounded. The raiders had made their approach through the thickly populated area south and east of the field where security was maintained by the ARVN. As a result of this attack, and with the agreement of the Vietnamese Commander of I Corps, the Marines' area of responsibility was expanded southward and eastward. The Marines immediately began civic action efforts to win the support of the people within the newly acquired area. Part of these efforts was directed at providing medical assistance and improving sanitation conditions for the populace.

General Westmoreland paid General Walt a visit on 30 July and informed him that he was to have operational control of all U.S. ground elements in the I Corps Tactical Zone (ICTZ) and operational control of the I Corps Advisory Group. This would provide an effective bridge between U.S. combat forces and the advisory effort. General Walt was also informed that he had a "free hand" in the conduct of operations in the ICTZ, and that the Marines, in coordination with the Vietnamese, would be expected to undertake larger offensive operations at greater distance from the base areas. General Westmoreland invited Walt to rewrite the prevailing instructions which governed Marine activity, working into them the authority he thought necessary for the conduct of such activity. General Walt informed General Westmoreland on 3 August that III MAF was prepared to undertake offensive operations. ComUSMACV granted authority for such undertakings on 6 August and designated General Walt as Senior Advisor, I Corps.

The Marine build-up continued in Vietnam, when on 14 August the headquarters of the 7th Marines and BLT 1/7 came ashore at Chu Lai. The 7th Marines, a 1st Marine Division regiment which had departed Camp Pendleton on 24 May, was soon fully committed to the war effort. Other 1st Marine Division units were on the way and would later be committed to Vietnam.

Operation STARLITE

For a period of time there had been reports of an enemy concentration south of Chu Lai. III MAF developed reliable intelligence on 15 August which indicated that the 1st Viet Cong Reg-



Padding across the Nong River, a patrol from the 3d Reconnaissance Battalion participates in a sweep against the Viet Cong in the summer of 1965. (USMC Photo #A184814).

iment, a force of about 2,000, had moved into prepared positions on the Van Tuong Peninsula, 15 miles south of the Chu Lai airstrip. This information along with the fortuitous circumstance that Regimental Landing Team (RLT) 7 with its 1st Battalion had just arrived at Chu Lai, and the Special Landing Force (BLT 3/7) was nearby, made Operation STARLITE possible. (STARLITE was the first regimental-size U.S. battle since the Korean War.) The 2d Battalion, 4th Marines and the 3d Battalion, 3d Marines were assigned to RLT-7 on 17 August. On the following day, Operation STARLITE was launched.

The operation was a covering movement, using a river crossing in LVTs from the north, a helicopter-borne assault on the west or inland side, and an amphibious landing with lift provided by Task Force 76 on the southeast beach of the Van Tuong Peninsula. After hard fighting, about 700 VC had been killed by 24 August, and an attack against Chu Lai had been frus-

trated. The 1st Viet Cong Regiment had been severely mauled. The VC were made aware by this operation that it would be a difficult task to defeat the Marines in a stand-up battle. Moreover, this and later amphibious operations by the Marines forced the VC away from the coastal peninsulas where they had previously found sanctuary.

Following close on the heels of STARLITE was Operation PIRANHA. This operation began on 7 September, with the target being the Batangan Peninsula, eight miles southeast of Van Tuong. It was reported that an enemy build-up, possibly by the remnants of the 1st VC Regiment, was taking place and that the area was a place of entry for the seaborne infiltration of supplies for the Viet Cong. The operation was coordinated with sizable elements of the 2d ARVN Division and some Vietnamese Marines. PIRANHA took longer to plan than STARLITE, the intelligence was not as good, and the results were not as spectacular. In the three-day

fight, however, the Marines (RLT-7) counted 183 VC killed in action, 66 of them in a single cave. The South Vietnamese scored an additional 66 VC kills.

From August to the end of the year, events took place in I Corps which improved the overall capability of the Marines for carrying on civic action. To improve coordination with other U.S. agencies supporting pacification in I Corps, the Joint Coordinating Council was formed on 30 August. This council proved to be a vital force in I Corps for moving forward efforts, both American and Vietnamese, in support of the Vietnamese people.

At Phu Bai a Joint Action Company was established. (The name was later changed to Combined Action Company or CAC.) The concept of its employment was that provisional squads of hand-picked Marine volunteers would be assigned to Vietnamese Popular Force platoons in the villages. These Marines would enter into the life of the village where they were assigned and become an integral part of its defenses. They could offer training in weaponry and tactics to the Popular Force platoons, and effective communications—vital for supporting fires or reinforcements. To the communities involved, they offered a very real Marine-to-the-people civic action program, including medical aid. Since its inception at Phu Bai, the Combined Action program has grown and developed into one of the most effective means for protecting the people and eliminating Viet Cong influence.

In addition to these innovations, III MAF created a new general staff section, G-5, to coordinate all Marine civic action programs except medical assistance which remained the province of the Force Surgeon. The 3d Marine Division followed suit and established a Division G-5, and the regiments and battalions, whose civil affairs and psychological warfare functions had been assigned to officers as additional duties, moved toward having full-time S-5s. Marines also engaged in what was termed GOLDEN FLEECE operations, where they protected the rice harvest from the Viet Cong. These operations have become standard procedures for Marines during the rice harvest season and have denied a vital food supply to the enemy.

Before 1965 ended, land-based Marines in I Corps had carried out several battalion-size operations against the enemy, and Marines of

the SLF, operating from ships in the South China Sea, had made amphibious assaults in support of some of these undertakings. The SLF also conducted independent operations against the enemy. Most of these operations achieved the desired results, but the Viet Cong remained capable of launching major attacks against Marine installations.

On the night of 27 October, a Viet Cong raiding force attacked Marble Mountain Air Facility near Danang. The enemy force had quietly assembled in a village northwest of MAG-16 and adjacent to a Seabee camp. Under cover of 60mm mortar fire which engaged the Seabees heavily, at least four demolition teams moved out to attack the airfield and a hospital. Some of the VC, armed with bangalore torpedoes and bundles of grenades, got onto the MAG-16 parking mat and destroyed 24 helicopters and damaged 23. The raiders also got into the nearly completed hospital across the road and did con-



Marine Crusader jet flies past the smoke and dust of a bomb explosion as it attacks Viet Cong positions delivering mortar fire on a helicopter landing zone in January 1966. (USMC Photo #A421419).

siderable damage. When the action ended, 41 VC had been killed. On the same night, about 15 VC slipped through the lines onto the Chu Lai airstrip. Most of them were killed or captured before they reached MAG-12's flight line, but two raiders did get to the A-4s with satchel charges, destroying two aircraft and damaging six before they were cut down.

It was a bad night at Marble Mountain and Chu Lai, but when morning came it appeared that a larger attack against Danang itself had been averted. During the night, a Viet Cong battalion several miles west of Danang was brought under artillery fire and dispersed. About the same time, eight miles south of Danang, a VC company stumbled into a Marine squad-size ambush. The Marines opened fire, and the VC withdrew, leaving 15 dead on the trail.

The Marines and Vietnamese conducted a joint operation in December called HARVEST MOON which accounted for over 400 enemy dead and the capture of numerous supplies and pieces of equipment. Again, the SLF and the use of helicopters contributed to the success of the operation. After the fighting had ended, the SLF at this time (2d Battalion, 1st Marines and Medium Helicopter Squadron-261) reembarked and sailed to Phu Bai where the battalion relieved the 3d Battalion, 4th Marines, which rotated back to Okinawa. As 1965 ended, there were 180,000 U.S. troops in South Vietnam, and 38,000 of them were Marines. Additional troops arrived during the following year, and combat operations were expanded.

In January 1966, the deployment of the 1st Marine Division to Vietnam was approved. The 7th Marines was already in country, as were the 1st and 2d Battalions, 1st Marines. The remainder of the 1st Marines and the 5th Marines were scheduled to arrive at the rate of about one BLT per month through June. Headquarters of the 1st Marine Division was established at Chu Lai on 29 March, and the division was initially assigned the southern two provinces of I Corps, Quang Tin and Quang Ngai, as a zone of action. Before the year had ended, the 1st Division headquarters was moved to Danang, and the 3d Division headquarters was moved to Phu Bai.

In order to combat the VC in the populated areas, a cordon and search effort dubbed COUNTY FAIR which combined U.S. and Vietnamese military and government elements, was initiated. The objective of these operations was to break down the VC infrastructure (small

political cells) which was operating in many of the Vietnamese villages. During these operations, in addition to searching for VC, civic action and psychological orientation was carried out in an effort to win the confidence of the people living in the target area. Like other Marine innovations, COUNTY FAIR operations added another means for supporting pacification.

During March, a political crisis developed in South Vietnam, which was centered primarily in I Corps. The unrest initially resulted from the dismissal of Lieutenant General Nguyen Chanh Thi as the Vietnamese commander in I Corps by the National Leadership Committee which was headed by Premier Nguyen Cao Ky. As tensions mounted, other factious elements became involved in the unrest which led to many confrontations between the Saigon government and dissidents. The crisis continued until the end of June, at which time a state of political normalcy returned to the country. Marines were caught in a potentially explosive situation during the crisis, but were able to avert any major clash with the Vietnamese elements involved. The pacification effort probably suffered most from the political unrest in I Corps. The Viet Cong were able to reinfiltate many of the village and hamlet areas as a result of the upheaval and were able to renew their impact on the populace by a wave of terrorist acts.

The Marines were committed in the vicinity of the Demilitarized Zone (DMZ) during Operation HASTINGS in July 1966. Intelligence sources had indicated that a large force of the North Vietnamese Army (NVA) had crossed the 17th Parallel and was preparing to move south. The battle which followed involved some 8,000 Marines and 3,000 South Vietnamese against the NVA and produced the most savage fighting of the war, up to that point. During the operation Air Force B-52s bombed the DMZ for the first time. When HASTINGS ended on 3 August, three battalions stayed north to guard against a reentry by the North Vietnamese. Thereafter, the Marine build-up continued in the DMZ area as the NVA made repeated attempted crossings into the south.

The Marines conducted several operations throughout 1966 which inflicted heavy losses on the enemy. Names such as NEW YORK, UTAH, TEXAS, and PRAIRIE were given to some of the operations. The SLF also conducted several amphibious landings (DOUBLE EAGLE I & II, JACKSTAY, OSAGE, DECK-



Marines help evacuate Vietnamese civilians from a combat area south of Chu Lai during Operation Nevada in April 1966. (1st MAF Photo #6-103-66).

HOUSE I through IV), both independently and in support of operations conducted by other Marines and South Vietnamese. Before the end of the year, the 1st Battalion, 26th Marines, part of the 5th Marine Division which had been reactivated at Camp Pendleton, was committed to operations in I Corps.

By the end of 1966, overall strategy for conducting the war had come around to recognizing what the Marines had insisted upon from the beginning—the overriding importance of the pacification effort. It was also beyond argument that despite its special problems and setbacks during the political crisis and the NVA push across the DMZ, I Corps had made greater progress than the other corps areas in coordinating Vietnamese and American approaches to pacification. The Joint Coordinating Council, the GOLDEN FLEECE and COUNTY FAIR operations, and the Combined Action Companies could all be cited as Marine experiments in cooperation that had worked. The Marine area of

responsibility had grown tremendously since 1965. There were over 70,000 Marines in I Corps operating in a tactical area of responsibility (TAOR) some 1,690 miles square containing a civilian population of over 1,000,000. There was every indication that the expansion of territory and build-up of troops would continue in 1967.

The War Continues

The tempo of battle intensified during 1967, as more Marine units moved into the DMZ area. As the year began, however, the 18 infantry battalions of the III MAF were engaged in a series of combat operations and continuing obligations that ranged the length and breadth of the ICTZ. Marine units were stretched over 225 miles, from the DMZ south to the boundary with Binh Dinh Province and II Corps Tactical Zone. The 3d Marine Division was all north of the Hai Van Mountains, which divide the northern two provinces from the rest of the ICTZ. Four battalions were in Quang Tri Province, adjacent

to the DMZ, and three were in Thua Thien Province. The 3d Division command post had displaced from Danang to Phu Bai in October 1966, and a forward command post was set up at Dong Ha.

South of the Hai Van Mountains, the 1st Marine Division had shifted its headquarters north in October from Chu Lai to the area vacated by the 3d Marine Division in Danang. The 1st Division had seven battalions in Quang Nam Province. When it moved to Danang, it left behind at Chu Lai Task Force X-Ray, a brigade-size force with two battalions in Quang Tin Province and two in Quang Ngai. Korean Marines, the 2d KMC "Blue Dragon" Brigade with three infantry battalions, were also located in Quang Ngai Province. Units of the 1st Marine Aircraft Wing were located at five principal fields. Fixed-wing aircraft were at Danang and Chu Lai, with helicopters at Phu Bai, Marble Mountain near Danang, and Ky Ha at Chu Lai. From these locations, Marine pilots pro-

vided vital air support for the ground forces of III MAF.

As spring approached, Marines in Khe Sanh valley, near the Laotian border, fought off renewed attempts by the NVA to invade South Vietnam. Units of the 3d Marine Division at Con Thien, Gio Linh, Dong Ha, and Camp Carroll endured almost daily barrages of enemy mortar, rocket, and artillery fire. As a result of the Marine build-up and heavy fighting along the DMZ, U.S. Army units were sent to help reinforce I Corps. On 9 April, the four battalions of the 196th Light Infantry Brigade, flew in to Chu Lai from III Corps. A headquarters for all U.S. Army units operating out of Chu Lai, designated as Task Force Oregon, was activated on 20 April under the command of Major General William B. Rosson, USA. Two days later, two battalions of the 3d Brigade, 25th Infantry Division arrived by a combination of airlift and sealift to join Task Force Oregon. Supporting the two infantry brigades were four



Marines cross a rice paddy and clamber up a steep dike in pursuit of Việt Cộng in a village on the high ground. Painting by Captain John T. Dyer, Jr. (USMC Photo #A414860-B).

Army artillery battalions, an engineer battalion, and one medium and three light helicopter companies. On 26 April, Task Force Oregon, under operational control of III MAF, took over responsibility for the Chu Lai TAOR and the Chu Lai Defense Command.

Meanwhile, on 1 April, the Seventh Fleet had doubled its Special Landing Force capability by activating a second amphibious ready group and embarking a second battalion landing team and medium helicopter squadron from the 9th Marine Amphibious Brigade on Okinawa. The two SLFs were designated Alpha and Bravo and executed 40 amphibious landings in Vietnam by the end of the year. While the SLFs were operating, land-based Marines in I Corps continued to engage the enemy in many areas. In May and again in July, Marines crossed into the southern portion of the DMZ to root out strong enemy mortar and artillery positions north of Con Thien. Marines of the 1st Division fought several engagements in the Danang area during the summer and inflicted heavy losses on the enemy.

On 22 September 1967, the semi-permanent combination of elements comprising Task Force Oregon was given permanent cohesion as the 23d Infantry or Americal Division. The 3d Brigade, 1st Cavalry Division (Airmobile) arrived by air at Chu Lai on 4 October and relieved the 5th Marines of its responsibilities. The 5th Marines then moved north to Danang, making it possible for the 1st Marine Division to detach one regiment, the 1st Marines, which moved north to join the 3d Marine Division. Prior to this shifting of troops, Marines guarding the Con Thien outpost during September endured and survived some of the heaviest enemy bombardments of the war. They also inflicted shattering losses on the NVA. From Khe Sanh to the seacoast bordering the South China Sea, Marines and South Vietnamese forces blocked approximately 35,000 NVA soldiers from invading the Republic of Vietnam.

In 1967, a major command change took place in I Corps. Lieutenant General Lewis W. Walt, who had led III MAF for two years, was relieved by Lieutenant General Robert E. Cushman, Jr., on 1 June. General Walt returned home to become Deputy Chief of Staff (Manpower) at Headquarters Marine Corps.

Marine Progress At The End Of 1967

From January through December, from the Delta to the DMZ, Marines fought against reg-

ular and irregular communist forces. The Marine air-ground-sea team sought out and defeated the enemy in large-scale battles and in thousands of daily skirmishes, patrols, and small-unit actions.

The strength of Marine units in III MAF on 31 December 1967 was 81,115—77,679 U.S. Marines and 3,436 U.S. Navy. The year had started with 18 Marine infantry battalions in country and ended with 21. In addition to the Marines, there were 31 ARVN battalions, 15 U.S. Army battalions, and 4 Korean Marine battalions. Altogether, there were 71 Free World infantry battalions operating in the I Corps Tactical Zone. The 3d Marine Division had five infantry regiments in the northern two provinces. In Quang Tri Province, the 26th Marines held Khe Sanh. The 9th Marines was at Dong Ha, the 3d Marines west of Dong Ha, and the 1st Marines at Quang Tri City. In Thua Thien Province, the 4th Marines was north and west of Hue, and the 1st Marine Division had two regiments, 5th and 7th Marines, in Quang Nam Province. The Americal Division was operating to the south. The year had begun with the Marines spread out through all five provinces, but by the end of December they were concentrated in the northern three provinces with four of seven infantry regiments deployed essentially along Route 9, south of the DMZ in Quang Tri Province.

The year's statistics showed that over 110 major operations, battalion-size or larger, had been conducted, and each one of those which resulted in major contact with the enemy produced a victory for the Marines. More than 356,000 small unit operations—the company actions, the platoon and squad-size patrols and ambushes which go on day and night in order to deny freedom of movement to the guerrilla and sever his connections with the people—were also conducted. As a result of those two types of Marine operations, over 17,800 of the enemy were destroyed during the year. Marine air had also contributed its share to the war effort. In 1967, Marine fighter/attack pilots flew 63,000 sorties in direct support of III MAF ground forces, and 10,000 in support of other Free World forces. They also flew 11,000 strike missions over North Vietnam. Marine helicopters flew 490,000 sorties, lifted 732,000 troops, and performed other services in their support. Marine casualties for the year were listed as 3,452 killed and 25,994 wounded. Total casualties for

the Marine Corps, cumulative since the first Marine was wounded in 1962, had reached 5,479 dead and 37,784 wounded. In terms of casualties, this made Vietnam the Corps' second most costly war, exceeded only by World War II. The relatively low percentage of deaths in total casualties reflects the prompt, courageous, and efficient medical evacuation and treatment by the team of Navy corpsmen and doctors and Marine helicopter crews. For heroic action, six Marines received the Medal of Honor and 76 won the Navy Cross during the year. Numerous other Marines received lesser combat awards.



Amphibious assault ship Iwo Jima lies off the coast of northern I Corps as the base for Marines and helicopters of the Special Landing Force of the Seventh Fleet. (USMC Photo #A650016).

Although the Marines were heavily committed in combat, they were still able to make substantial gains in pacification. In I Corps, by the end of 1967, Marines had distributed about 5 million pounds of food, 270,000 pounds of clothing, and 200,000 pounds of soap. Over 2.5 million South Vietnamese had received medical or dental treatment from teams of Navy doctors, dentists, and corpsmen. The Marine Reserve Civic Action Fund contributed approximately 40 percent of its total funds to educational assistance for the Vietnamese. (From January 1966 to January 1967, the USMCR Civic Action Fund had contributed a total of \$399,677.48 to III MAF for support of its pacification projects.) Thousands of students were supported and given medical, vocational, and English training. Several schools were constructed, and supplies and equipment to support them were distributed. In all, approximately 2,300 large construction pro-

jects were undertaken by Marine engineers and Seabees to aid the people living in the villages and hamlets within I Corps.

One of the Marines' most successful efforts in support of the Vietnamese pacification program known as Revolutionary Development was the continuance and expansion of the Combined Action Program. At the beginning of the year, there were 57 Combined Action Platoons (CAP). When 1967 ended, there were 79 such platoons organized into 14 Combined Action Company headquarters, located at Danang, Chu Lai, and Phu Bai. (By this time, CAC Marines were operating as an organized unit, independent of what had been their parent commands.) Fifty-nine villages were being protected by CAPs, whose missions were to deny the enemy access to their assigned areas and encourage civic action projects. Their long-term objective was to develop self-sufficient local security forces, which would be able to protect the populace from VC terrorist activity. Throughout the year, the CAPs had conducted an average of 4,000 ambushes and patrols monthly, killed 456 of the enemy, and captured 256.

Another indicator of progress in I Corps was the number of Viet Cong who joined the Chieu Hoi (Open Arms) returnee program. This program had been established for a number of years by the South Vietnamese to encourage defection within the enemy ranks. Several of the returnees had become Kit Carson scouts, a program which had been started by the 1st Marine Division. These men provided invaluable services by pointing out the hiding places, supply points, and likely ambush sites of their former Viet Cong units.

The refugee population, which had been a source of concern since the war began, almost doubled in the course of the year. There had been an estimated 280,000 refugees in I Corps in January, but by December 1967, the number had grown to approximately 530,000. Of these, about a quarter of a million were in refugee camps. The growth in refugee population was largely a result of the heavy fighting south of the DMZ, southwest of Danang, and in southern Quang Ngai Province. Although the refugee growth presented many problems which had to be dealt with, the situation was not entirely negative. What might be viewed as a positive factor was that these persons, uprooted by the war, chose to place themselves under the control of the South Vietnamese government rather



Part of the Vietnamese pacification program of the Marines was the provision of medical treatment to civilians here given by Navy Corpsmen in a village near Danang. Painting by Douglas Rosa. (USMC Photo #A115986-B).

than withdraw to areas still under VC control.

An indication of increasing government control was the successful conduct of the 1967 elections. Elections were held for village officials during April, and 82.3 percent of those eligible to vote turned out in I Corps. This was followed in May by hamlet elections which also produced a sizable turnout of voters. The Presidential election, in accordance with the new Vietnamese Constitution, took place during September. In I Corps, despite an intensive VC terrorist campaign to disrupt the election, 86 percent of the eligible voters cast their ballots. This election named Lieutenant General Nguyen Van Thieu as President, and Air Vice-Marshal Nguyen Cao Ky, the former Premier, as Vice President. The 60-member Senate was also filled. In October, the election to fill the National Assembly, the government's lower house, was successful as large

numbers of Vietnamese were once again able to cast their ballots.

As the year ended, the situation in Vietnam was not entirely bright. Although there had been substantial gains in many areas and a stabilization of the government through national elections, a major invasion appeared to be in the making. Intelligence sources indicated that large numbers of NVA soldiers were massing along the DMZ and would probably attempt a major move into the south.

Hard Fighting Ahead

In January 1968, the Marine Corps came under new leadership. General Leonard F. Chapman, Jr., succeeded General Greene as Commandant of the Marine Corps, and Lieutenant General Walt was installed as Assistant Commandant. The Marine Corps continued to pursue a high standard of training and develop-

ment at home and aggressively engaged the enemy in South Vietnam throughout the year.

In South Vietnam, the enemy initiated widespread attacks on the nation's capital and many major population centers in all corps tactical zones on 30 January. This Tet (Vietnamese Lunar New Year holiday) offensive came during a period of stand-down in military operations which had been previously agreed upon by both sides. Hoping to achieve the maximum amount of surprise through this deception, the enemy blatantly violated the agreement by launching his greatest military effort of the Vietnam conflict.

Prior to the all-out Tet offensive, the enemy opened the year with a major thrust at Khe Sanh, a defensive base guarded by a chain of mountain outposts just south of the DMZ. There, on 20 January, the reinforced 26th Marines came under a siege that was to last for 71 days. More than 20,000 enemy massed against the regiment—the NVA troops that became one of the war's greatest targets for artillerymen and aviators. The Khe Sanh Combat Base received heavy attacks by enemy artillery and other indirect fire weapons, totalling thousands of rounds. Although intense enemy shellings by indirect fire continued through February and early March, the Marines continued to hold fast. A concentrated ground attack was never launched against the base because heavy casualties were inflicted on the NVA concentrations through the use of artillery and intensive air strikes. In early April the siege was lifted, and overland reinforcements were able to reach the area. If one statement could sum up the feelings of the Marines who went through the ordeal at Khe Sanh, it might be the one scribbled on a C-ration box by an anonymous Marine at that combat outpost: "For those who fight for it, life has a special flavor the protected never know."

Meanwhile, heavy fighting was going on throughout South Vietnam as the enemy carried forward coordinated attacks against numerous areas. In I Corps, beginning on 30 and 31 January, the enemy launched attacks by fire, coordinated with ground assaults, on military installations and population centers. Although quickly repulsed from Quang Tri City, Danang, Hoi An, Tam Ky, and Quang Ngai City, the enemy was able to hold out in the city of Hue until 25 February.

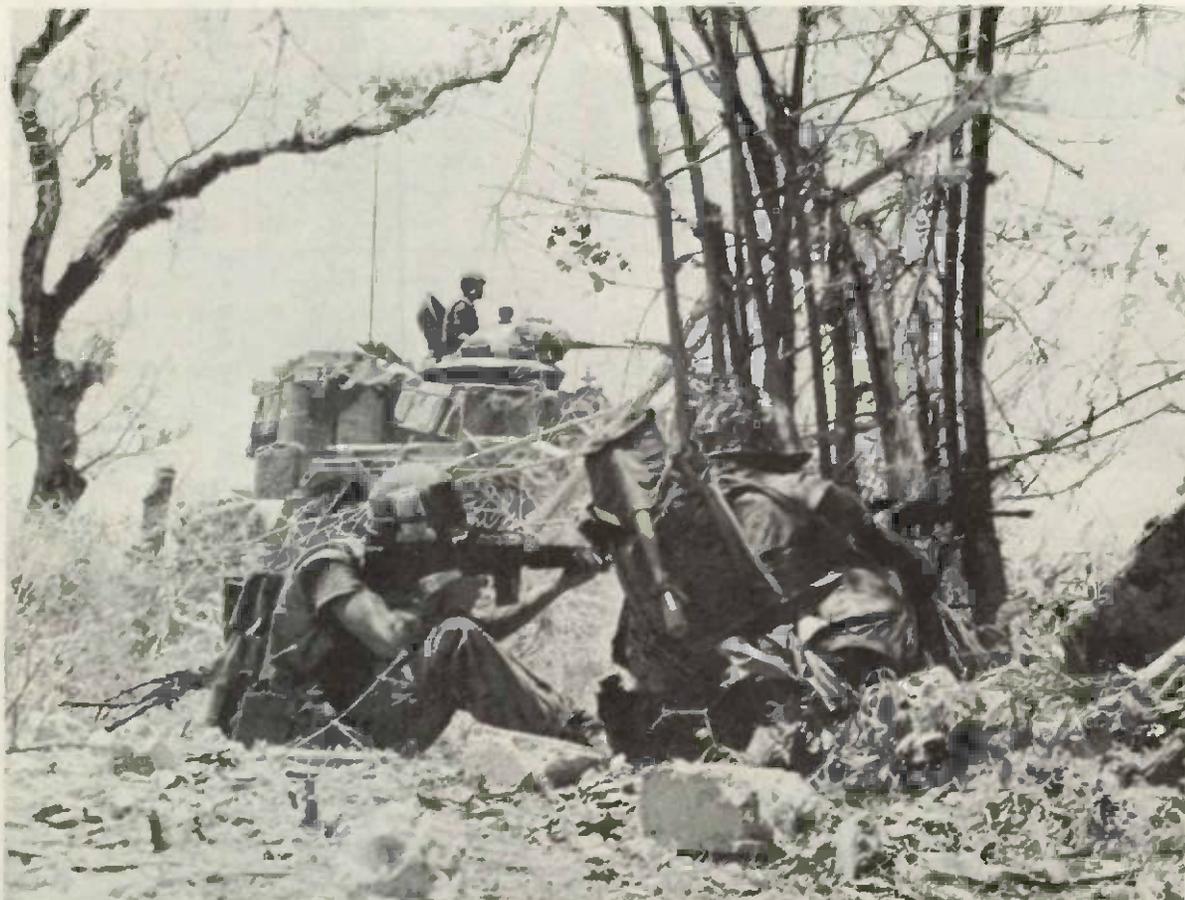
Hue, the ancient capital of Vietnam, is the

third largest city in the Republic of South Vietnam. The Citadel, or Imperial City, is a walled-in portion of Hue located on the north bank of the Perfume River. It was in the Citadel fortress that the enemy made his final stand. Unlike the Marines at Khe Sanh, battalions of the 1st and 5th Marine Regiments who fought in Hue could not use massive doses of bombs and shells. Thousands of innocent civilians were entangled in the heavy fighting, and the Marines and other Free World forces had to slug it out in house-to-house combat.

Enemy casualties rose to over 1,200 killed by the end of the first week, and an intelligence estimate placed two enemy battalions within the Citadel. The general picture during the next week indicated a well dug-in enemy offering stiff resistance, and little headway was made by friendly forces. Finally, on the 22d, Marines using tanks and Ontos vehicles, were able to fight their way to the southeast wall of the Citadel. On the next day, coordinated attacks were launched by U.S. Army, Marine, and South Vietnamese forces against the remaining enemy. At 0500 on 24 February, the Viet Cong flag, which had flown for 24 days over the Imperial fortress, was ripped down, and the flag of the Republic of South Vietnam raised in its place. The last enemy resistance ended on the following day, and the Citadel was declared completely secure. Although the Free World forces took numerous casualties during the 26 days of fighting, enemy losses were much higher. More than 5,000 enemy died in Hue's ruins.

The results of the Tet offensive were not what the enemy had anticipated. From interrogation of prisoners, it was learned that the enemy hoped to create the impression of great strength by coordinating attacks throughout the country with enough forces to seize and hold the initiative. By attacking Saigon and other key cities, he hoped to achieve the collapse of the South Vietnamese government and its armed forces and to make a favorable psychological impact through international news publicity. The enemy planned on heavy attrition of U.S. forces during the widespread attacks, and on a general uprising of the Vietnamese people in support of the attacking forces.

The general uprising did not occur, and the fact that the Vietnamese people did not greet the attackers with open arms was a terrible psychological blow, according to captured soldiers. In some areas, the enemy troops found



Riflemen and tanks engage North Vietnamese regulars in Operation KENTUCKY north of Dong Ha during May 1968. (USMC Photo #A191498).

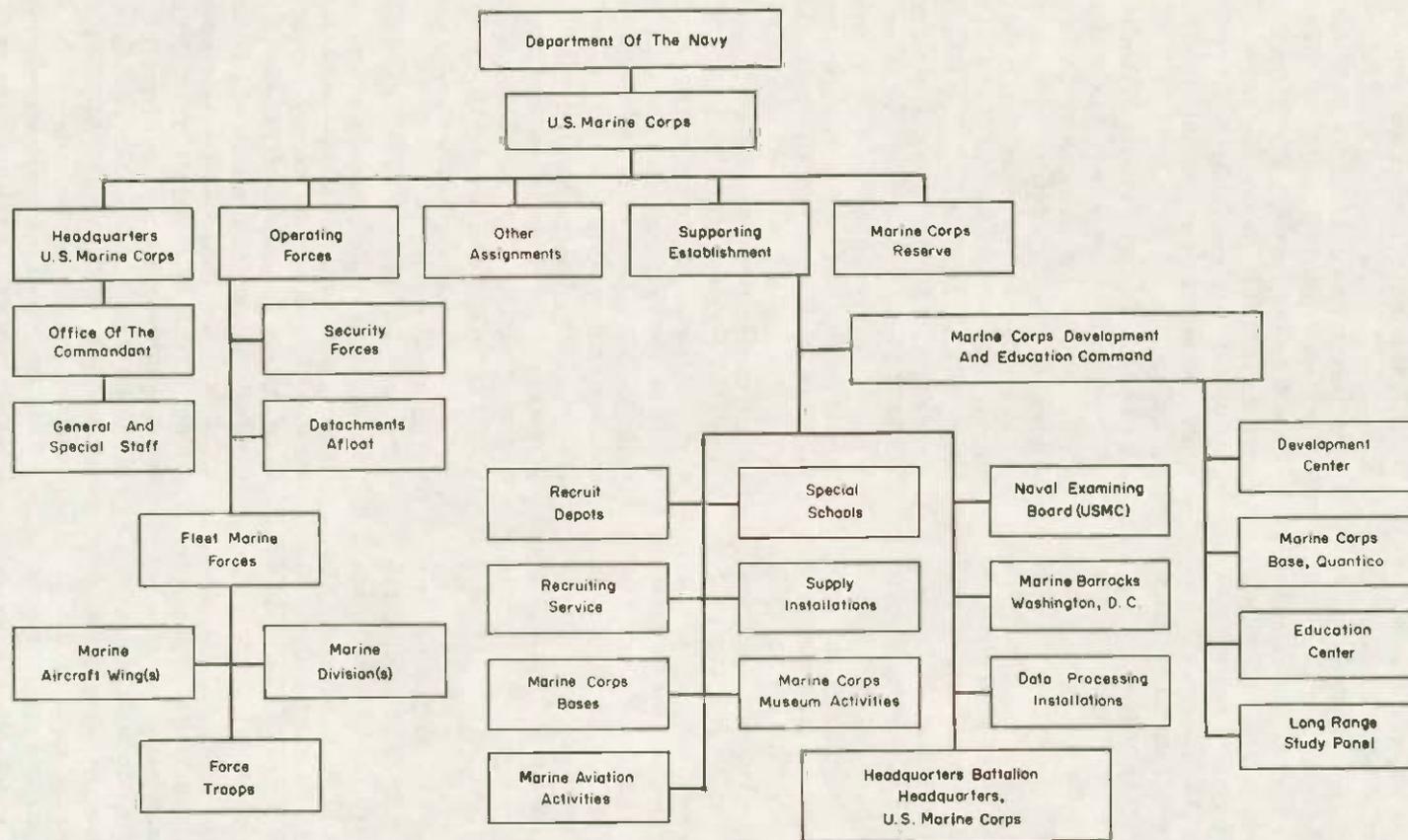
themselves in desperate need of withdrawal plans which had not been made because "there would be no need to withdraw." The government did not collapse, and the peoples' attitude generally solidified against the Communists because of the vicious and indiscriminate attacks against civilians and populated areas. (Some 9,000 civilians were killed and about 18,000 were wounded in the attacks.) Free World and Vietnamese forces fought side-by-side and delivered devastating blows against the VC and NVA.

In order to counter the enemy Tet offensive in I Corps, III MAF received further reinforcements. The 27th Marines arrived in Vietnam during February, directly from Camp Pendleton. By the end of March, General Cushman commanded some 163,000 Marines and soldiers—more men than any Marine general in history.

President Lyndon B. Johnson announced, in

a nationally televised address on 31 March, that he would neither seek nor accept another term as President of the United States. He also announced during the same TV appearance that he had ordered limitations on the bombing of North Vietnam. Other events were quick to follow. The U.S. identified, on 2 April, the 20th Parallel in North Vietnam as the line north of which all air and naval bombardment would be halted. On the same day, the U.S. and North Vietnam agreed to establish direct contact between their representatives as the first step toward ending the war. After much discussion about where the preliminary peace talks would be held, the U.S. and North Vietnam finally agreed on Paris, France. Negotiating teams, led by W. Averell Harriman for the U.S. and Xuan Thuy for North Vietnam, began substantive talks toward ending the war on 13 May 1968.

One of the most important combined opera-



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tions the Marines participated in during the latter part of the year was called MEADE RIVER. Beginning in late November and ending on 9 December, the operation succeeded in trapping sizeable elements of the North Vietnamese Army's 36th Regiment in an area southwest of Danang. In three weeks of hard fighting, men of the 1st Marine Division, reinforced by Vietnamese soldiers and Korean Marines, killed more than 1,000 enemy troops. The success of the cordon operation, which trapped the enemy force in a 12-square-mile circle, was largely due to the use of helicopters. The troop lift into the area of operation represented one of the largest helicopter assaults in Marine history.

Ships of the Seventh Fleet continued to provide important support for the Free World forces ashore during 1968. From the rocket-firing USS *White River* to the battleship *New Jersey* with her 16-inch guns, all areas along the coast of North and South Vietnam were covered. Up through 31 March (the end of the bombing above the 20th Parallel), all of North Vietnam was a target for the Navy's aircraft and off-shore guns. From April until the bombing halt on 1 November, naval firepower was concentrated in the Panhandle section of North Vietnam, along the DMZ, and South Vietnam. President Johnson announced a complete halt to all U.S. air, naval, and artillery bombardment of North Vietnam, on 31 October. He said that in return North Vietnam had agreed to include representatives of South Vietnam in the Paris peace talks, and the U.S. had agreed to let the National Liberation Front (the political arm of the Viet Cong) take part.

In addition to fire support provided by ships of the Seventh Fleet, the SLFs conducted 20 amphibious operations in I Corps. During these operations, the Marines of the SLFs continued to demonstrate that they were a combat-ready, fast reaction force. On several occasions, they terminated one operation, reembarked, and moved up to 100 miles in 48-72 hours, and launched a new assault, responsive to the rapidly changing situation. Both amphibious landing craft and helicopters were used during the ship-to-shore movements in these operations.

Marine pacification efforts throughout 1968 received some setbacks due to the shifting of troops, which was necessary to meet the increased combat commitments. Important progress was made, however, as the Marines continued to build more homes, schools, orphanages,

hospitals, and bridges than ever before. In addition to these accomplishments, the Marines increased their Combined Action units, conducted GOLDEN FLEECE and COUNTY FAIR operations, evacuated unprecedented numbers of refugees, and provided medical and dental care for millions.

As the year ended, Marines killed from hostile actions were listed at 4,618 for 1968. Total deaths from such actions, dating back to 1963, were above 10,000. In Paris the peace talks continued, and in Vietnam the Free World forces continued to fight the communists as the year turned to 1969.

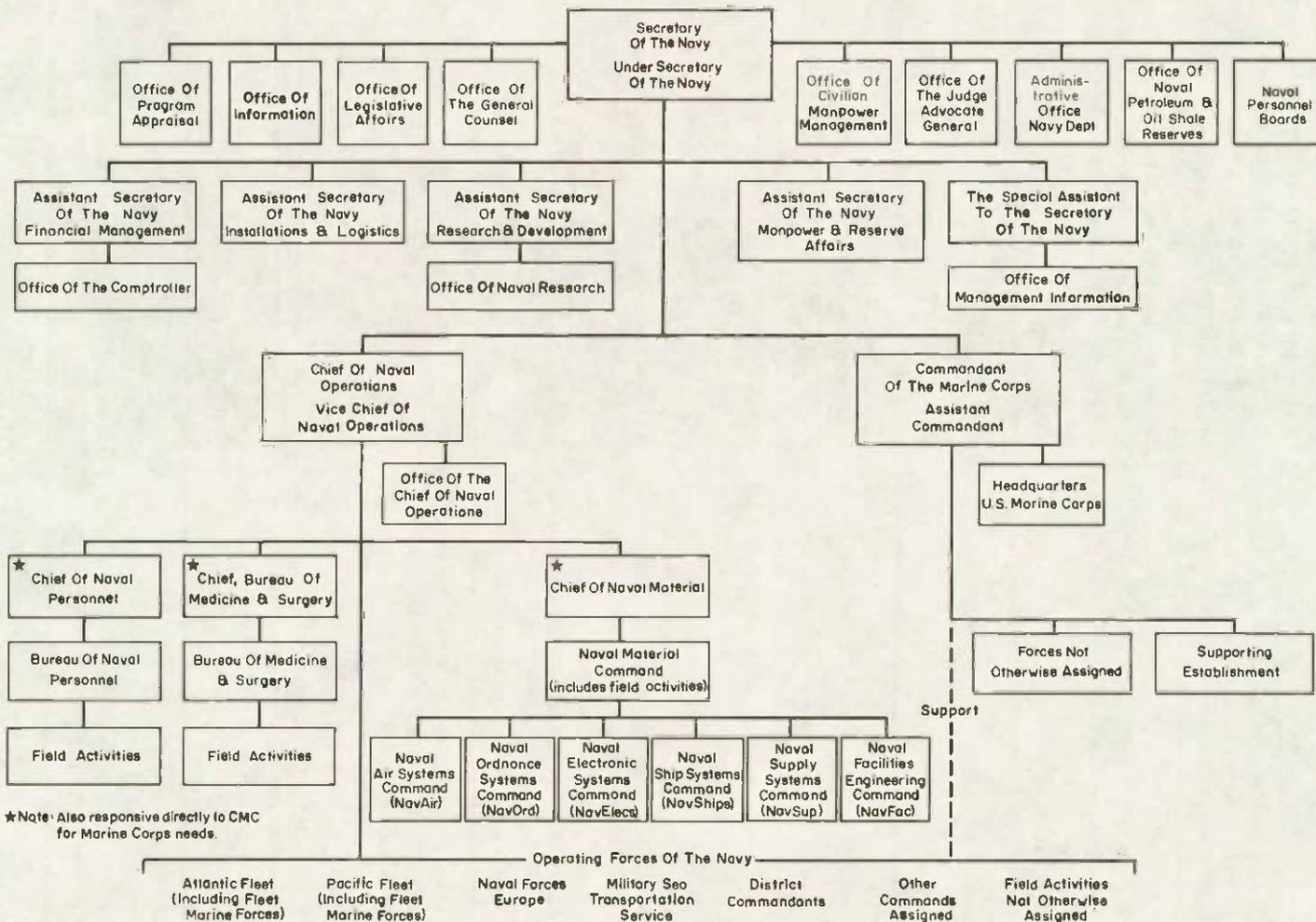
The First Major Troop Withdrawals

Richard M. Nixon was inaugurated as President of the United States on 20 January 1969. During the campaign year of 1968, the Republican candidate had indicated that if elected, he would make every effort to end the war in Vietnam with an honorable settlement, and bring the troops home as soon as possible.

From January to June, the combat activity in South Vietnam alternated between periods of intense fighting and lulls in enemy contact. The in-country build-up of U.S. forces was above the half-million mark, but efforts were being made to turn over more of the combat responsibilities to South Vietnamese forces. In I Corps, the Marines remained in a state of readiness and continued to conduct large operations, along with daily patrolling and nighttime ambushing. A command change took place in I Corps on 25 March, when Lieutenant General Herman Nickerson, Jr., relieved General Cushman in command of III MAF. General Cushman returned to the U.S. and became Deputy Director of the Central Intelligence Agency, a post held by military personnel.

In the area of pacification, III MAF continued to push forward all of the programs it had previously started and added new ones whenever possible. By the end of June, over 100 Combined Action Platoons were in operation protecting the villages and hamlets and demonstrating their sincere regard for the Vietnamese way of life as well as for their needs. Numerous building projects, medical assistance programs, and educational opportunities were being provided by III MAF personnel for the care and welfare of millions of Vietnamese.

President Nixon, in a summit meeting with South Vietnamese President Thieu at Midway Island on 8 June, announced plans for the first



★ Note: Also responsive directly to CMC for Marine Corps needs.

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major troop withdrawal from Vietnam. The plan called for 25,000 U.S. fighting men to redeploy from that country to the U.S. and other locations by the end of August 1969. On 8 July, USMACV Communique-189-69 from Saigon stated:

The 3d Battalion, 60th Infantry of the U.S. 9th Infantry Division's 2d Brigade redeployed from the Republic of Vietnam to the United States from Tan Son Nhut Air Base this morning. The battalion is the first unit of the 25,000 troops that will be redeployed from Vietnam by the end of August.

Six days later, 14 July, elements of the 9th Marine Regiment began redeployment from Vietnam to Okinawa. In a news report on 17 July, the *Washington Post* stated:

The 8,000-man Ninth Regimental Landing Team of the Third Marine Division is being transferred to Okinawa as a unit and a 400-man tactical fighter squadron from the First Marine Air Wing is being sent to Iwakuni airfield in Japan.

To maintain the combat readiness of both units in case of emergency, the Marines are keeping their personnel together and avoiding major transfers in or out of either organization, except for some men who have asked to stay in Vietnam and are going to other units.

In accordance with President Nixon's strategy of turning more of the conduct of the war over to the South Vietnamese, the reduction of American troop strength in RVN continued throughout the remainder of the year. On 16 September, President Nixon announced that 35,000 additional American troops would be withdrawn from RVN by the middle of December. This number included the remainder of the 3d Marine Division and elements of the 1st Wing—over 18,000 Marines in all. (The reduction of III MAF in Vietnam had repercussions on Marine forces closer to home. On 16 October, the 5th Marine Division, reborn in 1966 to meet the Vietnam crisis, was deactivated.) Two months later, on 15 December, the President declared in a television and radio broadcast to the American people that another 50,000 American troops would leave Vietnam by April 1970.

Although the American presence in Vietnam has been reduced and the Paris Peace talks continue, the final outcome of the war has yet to be decided. The Free World forces continue to engage the enemy on the fields of battle resulting in a loss of life to both sides. The number of Marines killed in Vietnam by the end of 1969 was over 12,000. The Marines who have given their lives in service to their country, along with those who continue to serve in all parts of the

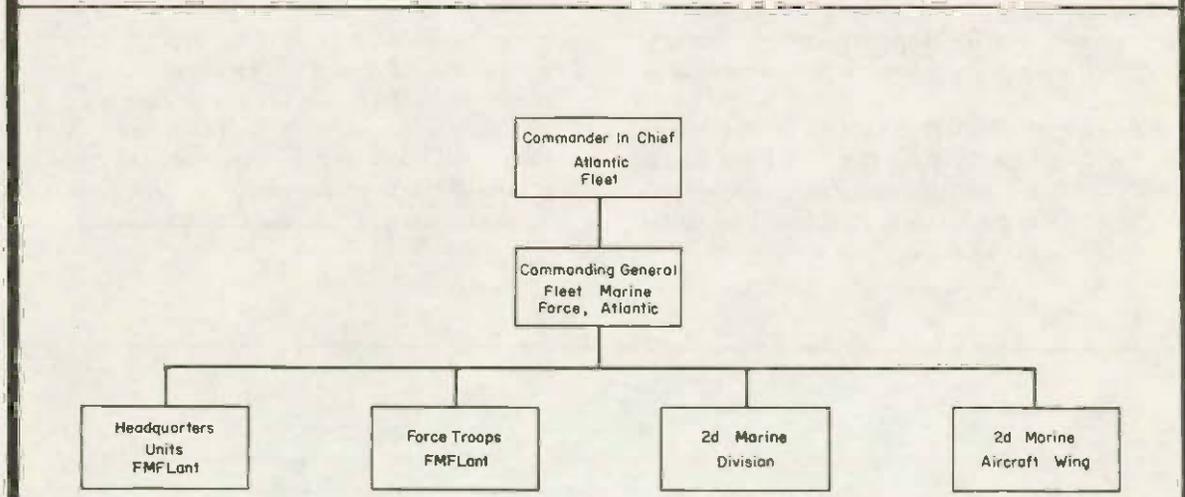
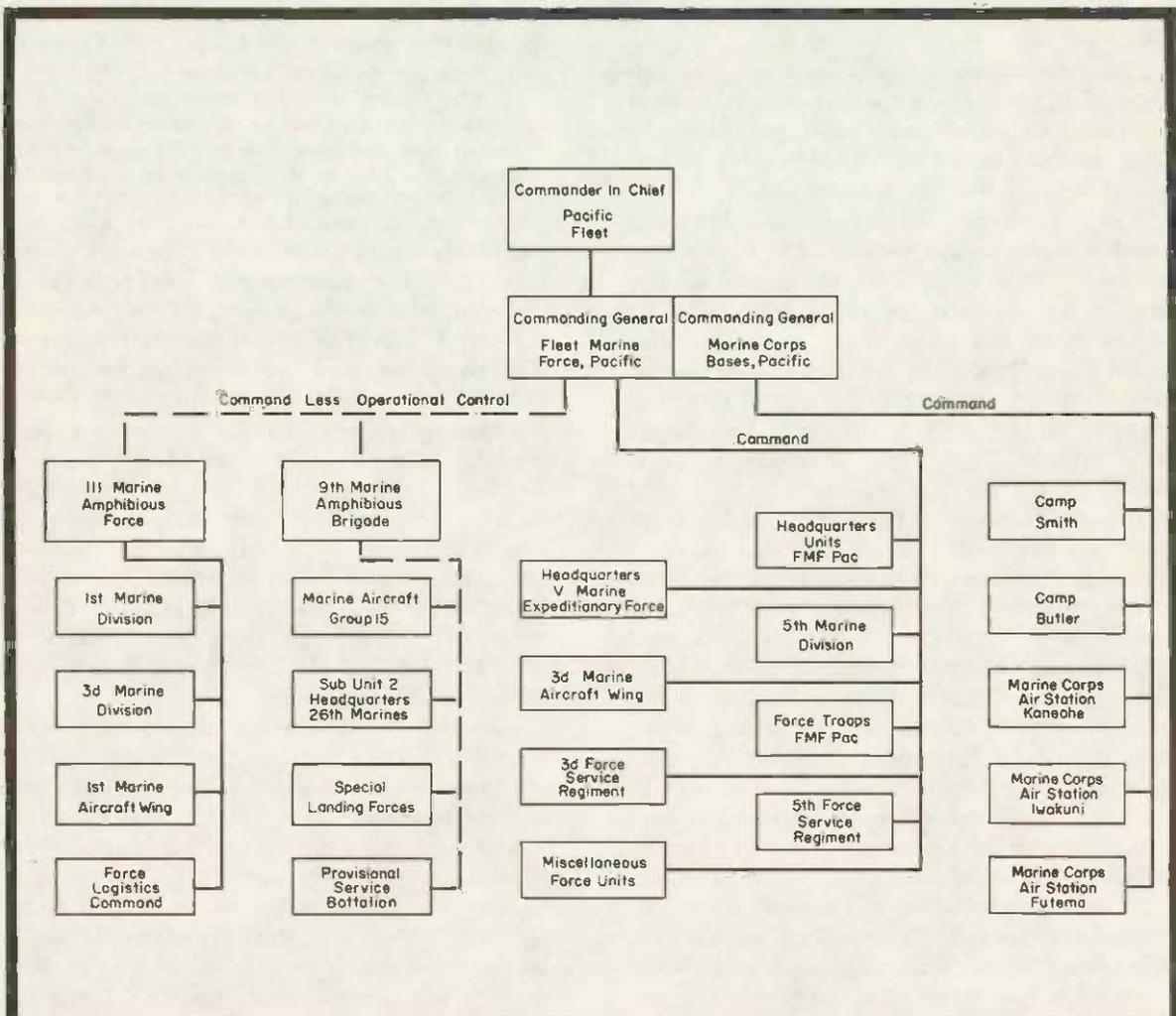
world, epitomize the motto of the Corps—*Semper Fidelis*—"Always Faithful."

Conclusion

On 10 November 1969, the United States Marine Corps celebrated its 194th birthday. Since its founding on 10 November 1775, and the enlistment of the first recruits at Tun Tavern in Philadelphia, Marines have devoted themselves to the defense of their country. Although the Marine Corps in the last two decades has been committed to extended land warfare (Korea and Vietnam), it has maintained its readiness for carrying out its basic role—amphibious operations. Experience has demonstrated that our Nation needs a "fire brigade" to put out small fires before they grow into big ones. To this end, the Corps maintains a battle-ready, well-trained, well-equipped, mobile force of varied arms, capable of quickly extinguishing any small outbreak of hostilities. This was aptly demonstrated in the Dominican Republic as late as 1965, as well as in numerous other places previously. The importance of an amphibious force strike capability



The color guard of the Marine Barracks, Washington, D.C., present the Battle Color of the Marine Corps which flies streamers for every campaign in which Marines have participated and for every award Marine units have won. (USMC Photo #A410520).



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has also been well demonstrated in South Vietnam.

The Fleet Marine Force concept gives unequalled flexibility of organization and tactical potential. Battalion and regimental landing teams, or brigade and larger landing forces, can be augmented with special equipment and by specialist organizations, which automatically function as a part of the force. Thus, whatever may be the unique requirements of a mission or geographical location, a well-trained, efficient Marine force can be instantly assembled and fielded to undertake the operation. The Marine Corps remains a separate service within the Department of the Navy, but it is the Navy's partner within the Naval Establishment. As such, the Navy-Marine Corps team is the United States' only balanced fighting force with closely integrated land, sea, and air components.

It became readily apparent within the 1960s decade, especially considering the advances in "push button" warfare, that the Marine Corps' policy of readiness for conventional and guerrilla warfare is sound. Like their brothers of the past who fought in the Latin American countries, Marines in Vietnam have shown a special aptitude for combating irregular as well as regular forces and in conducting pacification programs. Some of the Corps' greatest achievements in Vietnam have been accomplished by imaginative and innovative Marines who saw a need and fulfilled the demand. Furthermore, the Corps is fully prepared to deal with a nuclear war. Many conceivable problems that might arise in such a conflict war have been considered and studied, and Marine Corps planners, working closely with the Navy, have found workable solutions.

The role of the Marine Corps of the future, like the Corps of the past, lies to a large extent in the hands of Congress and the American people. If one asks what its objective will be in the

years ahead, the answer could be reflected through the words of the Corps' 19th Commandant, General Clifton B. Cates:

The Marine Corps has no ambition beyond the performance of its duty to its country. Its sole honor stems from that recognition which cannot be denied to a Corps of men who have sought for themselves little more than a life of hardship and the most hazardous assignments in battle.

The Marine of today (1970) is a sophisticated fighting man in many respects. Not only can he endure the hardships of extended combat in any clime and place, but he can operate highly complex computers and other equipment and fly the most complicated and advanced aircraft. This is largely due to the fact that when a young man volunteers for duty in the Marine Corps today, he is usually better educated and more aware of the national and international problems confronting his country than his predecessors. In order to improve upon these basic ingredients, the Corps has developed a wide range of military specialties and educational programs for training the Marine, whether he be enlisted or an officer.

In addition to training and maintaining its force in readiness, the Corps has had to consider the many social, economic, and political pressures of the modern era. The Marine Corps has not been exempt from the many problems which affect a highly mobile, complex, and heterogeneous society such as exists in the United States, nor has it sought to shirk its responsibility in facing these problems and attempting to solve them. The Commandant, General Chapman, has indicated that the Corps will marshal all forces available and explore every avenue possible to ensure that the high standards and discipline which have always been associated with Marines will continue to exist. The Marine Corps will allow only one type of activity within its ranks—purposeful pursuits for the good of the American people and the organization.

APPENDIX A

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APPENDIX B

Commandants Of The United States Marine Corps

<i>Name</i>	<i>Period</i>	<i>Initial Rank As CMC</i>	<i>Final Rank As CMC</i>
1st Samuel Nicholas	28 Nov 1775 c. Nov 1781	Captain	Major†
2d William Ward Burrows	12 Jul 1798 6 Mar 1804	Major	Lieutenant Colonel
3d Franklin Wharton	7 Mar 1804 ² 1 Sep 1818	Lieutenant Colonel	Lieutenant Colonel
4th Anthony Gale	3 Mar 1818 16 Oct 1820	Lieutenant Colonel	Lieutenant Colonel
5th Archibald Henderson	17 Oct 1820 6 Jan 1859	Lieutenant Colonel	Colonel (Brevet Brigadier General) Colonel
6th John Harris	7 Jan 1859 ³ 12 May 1864	Colonel	Colonel
7th Jacob Zeilin	10 Jun 1864 31 Oct 1876	Colonel	Brigadier General
8th Charles G. McCawley	1 Nov 1876 29 Jan 1891	Colonel	Colonel
9th Charles Heywood	30 Jan 1891 2 Oct 1903	Colonel	Major General
10th George Elliott	3 Oct 1903 ⁴ 30 Nov 1910	Brigadier General	Major General
11th William P. Biddle	2 Feb 1911 24 Feb 1914	Major General	Major General
12th George Barnett	25 Feb 1914 30 Jun 1920	Major General	Major General
13th John A. Lejeune	1 Jul 1920 4 Mar 1929	Major General	Major General
14th Wendell C. Neville	5 Mar 1929 8 Jul 1930	Major General	Major General
15th Ben H. Fuller	9 Jul 1930 28 Feb 1934	Major General	Major General
16th John H. Russell	1 Mar 1934 30 Nov 1936	Major General	Major General
17th Thomas Holcomb	1 Dec 1936 31 Dec 1943	Major General	Lieutenant General
18th Alexander A. Vandegrift	1 Jan 1944 31 Dec 1947	Lieutenant General	General
19th Clifton B. Cates	1 Jan 1948 31 Dec 1951	General	General
20th Lemuel C. Shepherd, Jr.	1 Jan 1952 31 Dec 1955	General	General
21st Randolph McCall Pate	1 Jan 1956 31 Dec 1959	General	General
22d David M. Shoup	1 Jan 1960 31 Dec 1963	General	General
23d Wallace M. Greene, Jr.	1 Jan 1964 31 Dec 1967	General	General
24th Leonard F. Chapman, Jr.	1 Jan 1968	General	

¹The resolution of the Continental Congress on 10 November 1775 provided for a colonel to command the two battalions of Marines authorized. Thus, Samuel Nicholas is traditionally considered to be the first Commandant. When William W. Burrows was appointed under authority of the Act of 11 July 1798, he was not known technically as "Major Commandant." It was not until 1 May 1800, when Burrows was promoted to "Lieutenant Colonel Commandant" under the Act of 22 April 1800 that there was an alliance of rank and position for the Marine Corps.

²Following the death of Commandant Wharton, orders were issued by the Adjutant and Inspector, Brevet Major Samuel Miller, 2-15 September 1818. Brevet Major Archibald Henderson served as Acting Commandant from 16 September 1818 through 2 March 1819.

³Colonel William Dulaney was the next senior officer in the Corps until he was retired on 6 June along with Lieutenant Colonels Ward Marston and John George Reynolds, leaving Major Jacob Zeilin the senior officer on active duty.

⁴During the period when the office of Commandant was vacant, Colonel Biddle served as administrator in Headquarters under the supervision of the Assistant Secretary of the Navy.

APPENDIX C

Marine Corps Medal Of Honor Recipients

Prior To World War II

<i>Name</i>	<i>Rank</i>	<i>Location</i>	<i>Date</i>
ADAMS, John M. (Born George L. Day)	Sergeant	China	1900
ADRIANCE, Harry C.	Corporal	China	1900
APPLETON, Edwin N.	Corporal	China	1900
BEARSS, Hiram I.	Captain	Samar, PI	1901
BERKELEY, Randolph C.	Major	Mexico	1914
BINDER, Richard	Sergeant	Civil War (USS <i>Ticonderoga</i>)	1864
BOYDSTON, Erwin J.	Private	China	1900
BROWN, Charles	Corporal	Korea	1871
BUCKLEY, Howard M.	Private	Philippines	1899
BURNES, James	Private	China	1900
BUTLER, Smedley D.	Major	Mexico	1914
	Major	Haiti (1st Award)	1915
		(2d Award)	
BUTTON, William R.	Corporal	Haiti	1919
CAMPBELL, Albert R.	Private	China	1900
CAMPBELL, Daniel	Private	Cuba	1898
CARR, William L.	Private	China	1900
CATLIN, Albertus W.	Major	Mexico	1914
COLEMAN, John	Private	Korea	1871
COONEY, James	Private	China	1900
CUKELA, Louis	Sergeant	France	1918
		(Duplicate Army-Navy Awards)	
DAHLGREN, John O.	Corporal	China	1900
DALY, Daniel J.	Private	China	1900
		(1st Award)	
	Gunnery Sergeant	Haiti	1915
		(2d Award)	
DAVIS, Henry W.—see MURRAY			
DENIG, J. Henry	Sergeant	Civil War (USS <i>Brooklyn</i>)	1864
DOUGHERTY, James	Private	Korea	1871
DYER, Jesse F.	Captain	Mexico	1914
FIELD, Oscar W.	Private	Cuba	1898
FISHER, Harry	Private	China	1900
FITZGERALD, John	Private	Cuba	1898
FOLEY, Alexander J.	Sergeant	China	1900
FORD, Patrick F., Jr.—see MEREDITH			
FORSTERER, Bruno A.	Sergeant	Samoa	1899
FRANCIS, Charles R.	Private	China	1900
FRANKLIN, Joseph J.	Private	Cuba	1898
FRY, Isaac N.	Sergeant	Civil War (USS <i>Ticonderoga</i>)	1865
FRYER, Eli T.	Captain	Mexico	1914
GAIENNIE, Louis R.	Private	China	1900

GAUGHAN, Philip	Sergeant	Cuba	1898
GLOWIN, Joseph A.	Corporal	Dominican Republic	1916
GROSS, Samuel (Born Samuel Marguiles)	Private	Haiti	1915
HANNEKEN, Herman H.	Second Lieutenant	Haiti	1919
HARVEY, Harry	Sergeant	Philippines	1900
HEISCH, Henry William	Private	China	1900
HELMS, John H.	Sergeant	Uruguay	1901
HILL, Frank	Private	Cuba	1898
HILL, Walter	Captain	Mexico	1914
HOFFMAN, Charles F.—see JANSON			
HORTON, William C.	Private	China	1900
HUDSON, Michael	Sergeant	Civil War (USS <i>Brooklyn</i>)	1864
HUGHES, John Arthur	Captain	Mexico	1914
HULBERT, Henry L.	Private	Samoa	1899
HUNT, Martin	Private	China	1900
IAMS, Ross L.	Sergeant	Haiti	1915
JANSON, Ernest A. (Served as Charles F. HOFFMAN)	Gunnery Sergeant	France	1918
KATES, Thomas W.	Private	(Duplicate Army-Navy Awards) China	1900
KEARNEY, Michael	Private	Cuba	1898
KELLY, John J.	Private	France	1918
KOCAK, Matej	Sergeant	(Duplicate Army-Navy Awards) France	1918
KUCHNEISTER, Hermann W.	Private	(Duplicate Army-Navy Awards) Cuba	1898
LEONARD, Joseph M.	Private	Philippines	1899
MACKIE, John F.	Corporal	Civil War (USS <i>Galena</i>)	1862
MACNEAL, Harry L.	Private	Cuba	1898
MARGUILES, Samuel—see GROSS			
MARTIN, James	Sergeant	Civil War (USS <i>Richmond</i>)	1864
MATHIAS, Clarence E.	Private	China	1900
MCNALLY, Michael J.	Sergeant	Samoa	1899
MCNAMARA, Michael	Private	Korea	1871
MEREDITH, James (Named changed to Patrick F. FORD, Jr.)	Private	Cuba	1898
MILLER, Andrew	Sergeant	Civil War (USS <i>Richmond</i>)	1864
MOORE, Albert	Private	China	1900
MORRIS, John	Corporal	France (Not War)	1881
MURPHY, John A.	Drummer	China	1900
MURRAY, William H. (Served as Henry W. DAVIS)	Private	China	1900
NEVILLE, Wendell C.	Lieutenant Colonel	Mexico	1914
NUGENT, Christopher	Orderly Sergeant	Civil War (USS <i>Fort Henry</i>)	1863
ORNDOFF, Harry W.	Private	China	1900
OSTERMANN, Edward A.	First Lieutenant	Haiti	1915
OVIATT, Miles M.	Corporal	Civil War (USS <i>Brooklyn</i>)	1864
OWENS, Michael	Private	Korea	1871
PARKER, Pomeroy	Private	Cuba	1898
PFEIFER, Louis F. (Served as Louis F. THEIS during first enlistment; re-enlisted under real name of Louis F. PFEIFER.)	Private	USS <i>Petrel</i>	1901
PHILLIPS, Reuben J.	Corporal	China	1900
PORTER, David D.	Captain	Samar, PI	1901
PRENDERGAST, Thomas F.	Corporal	Philippines	1899
PRESTON, Herbert I.	Private	China	1901
PRUITT, John H.	Corporal	France	1918
		(Duplicate Army-Navy Awards)	

PURVIS, Hugh	Private	Korea	1871
QUICK, John H.	Sergeant	Cuba	1898
RANNAHAN, John	Corporal	Civil War	1865
		(USS <i>Minnesota</i>)	
REID, George C.	Major	Mexico	1914
ROANTREE, James S.	Sergeant	Civil War	1864
		(USS <i>Oneida</i>)	
ROBINSON, Robert G.	Gunnery Sergeant	France	1918
SCANNELL, David J.	Private	China	1900
SCOTT, Joseph F.	Private	Cuba	1898
SCHILT, Christian F.	First Lieutenant	Nicaragua	1928
SHIVERS, John	Private	Civil War	1865
		(USS <i>Minnesota</i>)	
SILVA, France	Private	China	1900
SMITH, Albert J.	Private	Pensacola, Fla.	1921
		(Not War)	
SPROWLE, David	Orderly Sergeant	Civil War	1864
		(USS <i>Richmond</i>)	
STEWART, James A.	Corporal	France (Not War)	1872
STEWART, Peter	Gunnery Sergeant	China	1900
STOCKHAM, Fred W.	Gunnery Sergeant	France	1918
		(Army Medal of Honor)	
SULLIVAN, Edward	Private	Cuba	1898
SUTTON, Clarence E.	Sergeant	China	1900
TALBOT, Ralph	Second Lieutenant	France	1918
THEIS, Louis F.—see PFEIFER			
THOMPSON, Henry A.	Private	Civil War	1865
		(USS <i>Minnesota</i>)	
TOMLIN, Andrew J.	Corporal	Civil War	1865
		(USS <i>Wabash</i>)	
TRUESDALE, Donald L.	Corporal	Nicaragua	1932
(Name officially changed to TRUESDELL, 25 July 1942)			
UPHAM, Oscar J.	Private	China	1900
UPSHUR, William P.	Captain	Haiti	1915
VAUGHN, Pinkerton R.	Sergeant	Civil War	1863
		(USS <i>Mississippi</i>)	
WALKER, Edward A.	Sergeant	China	1900
WEST, Walter S.	Private	Cuba	1898
WILLIAMS, Ernest C.	First Lieutenant	Dominican Republic	1916
WINANS, Roswell	First Sergeant	Dominican Republic	1916
YOUNG, Frank A.	Private	China	1900
ZION, William	Private	China	1900

World War II 1941-1945

AGERHOLM, Harold C.	Private First Class	Saipan*
ANDERSON, Richard B.	Private First Class	Kwajalein Atoll*
BAILEY, Kenneth D.	Major	Guadalcanal*
BASILONE, John	Sergeant	Guadalcanal
BAUER, Harold W.	Lieutenant Colonel	Solomons*
BAUSELL, Lewis K.	Corporal	Peleliu*
BERRY, Charles J.	Corporal	Iwo Jima*
BONNYMAN, Alexander, Jr.	First Lieutenant	Tarawa*
BORDELON, William J.	Staff Sergeant	Tarawa*
BOYINGTON, Gregory	Major	Solomons
BUSH, Richard E.	Corporal	Okinawa
CADDY, William R.	Private First Class	Iwo Jima*
CANNON, George H.	First Lieutenant	Midway*
CHAMBERS, Justice M.	Lieutenant Colonel	Iwo Jima
COLE, Darrell S.	Sergeant	Iwo Jima*

COURTNEY, Henry A., Jr.	Major	Okinawa Shima*
DAMATO, Anthony P.	Corporal	Eniwetok Atoll*
DEBLANC, Jefferson J.	First Lieutenant	Solomons
DUNLAP, Robert H.	Captain	Iwo Jima
DYESS, Aquilla J.	Lieutenant Colonel	Kwajalein Atoll*
EDSON, Merritt A.	Colonel	Guadalcanal
ELROD, Henry T.	Captain	Wake Island*
EPPERSON, Harold G.	Private First Class	Saipan*
FARDY, John P.	Corporal	Okinawa*
FLEMING, Richard E.	Captain	Midway*
FOSS, Joseph J.	Captain	Solomons
FOSTER, William A.	Private First Class	Okinawa*
GALER, Robert E.	Major	Solomons
GONSALVES, Harold	Private First Class	Okinawa*
GRAY, Ross F.	Sergeant	Iwo Jima
GURKE, Henry	Private First Class	Bougainville*
HANSEN, Dale M.	Private	Okinawa*
HANSON, Robert M.	First Lieutenant	Bougainville
HARRELL, William G.	Sergeant	Iwo Jima
HAUGE, Louis J., Jr.	Corporal	Okinawa*
HAWKINS, William D.	First Lieutenant	Tarawa*
JACKSON, Arthur J.	Private First Class	Peleliu
JACOBSON, Douglas T.	Private First Class	Iwo Jima
JULIAN, Joseph R.	Sergeant	Iwo Jima*
KINSER, Elbert L.	Sergeant	Okinawa*
KRAUS, Richard E.	Private First Class	Peleliu*
LA BELLE, James D.	Private First Class	Iwo Jima*
LEIMS, John H.	Second Lieutenant	Iwo Jima
LUCAS, Jacklyn H.	Private First Class	Iwo Jima*
LUMMUS, Jack	First Lieutenant	Iwo Jima*
MARTIN, Harry L.	First Lieutenant	Iwo Jima*
MASON, Leonarl F.	Private First Class	Guam*
McCARD, Robert H.	Gunnery Sergeant	Saipan*
MC CARTHY, Joseph J.	Captain	Iwo Jima
MC TUREOUS, Robert M., Jr.	Private	Okinawa*
NEW, John D.	Private First Class	Peleliu*
OWENS, Robert A.	Sergeant	Bougainville*
OZBOURN, Joseph W.	Private	Tinian*
PAIGE, Mitchell	Sergeant	Guadalcanal
PHELPS, Wesley	Private First Class	Peleliu*
PHILLIPS, George	Private	Iwo Jima*
POPE, Everett P.	Captain	Peleliu
POWER, John V.	First Lieutenant	Kwajalein Atoll*
ROAN, Charles H.	Private First Class	Peleliu*
ROUH, Carlton R.	First Lieutenant	Peleliu
RUHL, Donald J.	Private First Class	Iwo Jima*
SCHWAB, Albert E.	Private First Class	Okinawa*
SHOUP, David M.	Colonel	Tarawa
SIGLER, Franklin E.	Private	Iwo Jima
SKAGGS, Luther Jr.	Private First Class	Guam
SMITH, John L.	Major	Solomons
SORENSEN, Richard K.	Private	Kwajalein Atoll
STEIN, Tony	Corporal	Iwo Jima*
SWETT, James E.	First Lieutenant	Solomons
THOMAS, Herbert J.	Sergeant	Bougainville*
THOMASON, Clyde	Sergeant	Makin*
TIMMERMAN, Grant F.	Sergeant	Saipan*
VANDEGRIFT, Alexander A.	Major General	Guadalcanal
WALSH, Kenneth A.	First Lieutenant	Solomons
WALSH, William G.	Gunnery Sergeant	Iwo Jima*
WATSON, Wilson D.	Private	Iwo Jima
WILLIAMS, Hershel W.	Corporal	Iwo Jima
WILSON, Louis H., Jr.	Captain	Guam
WILSON, Robert L.	Private First Class	Tinian*
WITEK, Frank P.	Private First Class	Guam*

Korean War 1950-1953

ABRELL, Charles	Corporal	Hangnyong*
BARBER, William E.	Captain	Chosin Reservoir
BAUGH, William B.	Private First Class	Koto-ri*
CAFFERATA, Hector A. Jr.	Private	Chosin Reservoir
CHAMPAGNE, David B.	Corporal	Korea*
CHRISTIANSON, Stanley R.	Private First Class	Seoul*
COMMISKEY, Henry A., Sr.	Second Lieutenant	Seoul
DAVENPORT, Jack A.	Corporal	Songnae-Dong*
DAVIS, Raymond G.	Lieutenant Colonel	Hagaru-ri
DEWEY, Duane E.	Corporal	Panmunjom
GARCIA, Fernando L.	Private First Class	Korea*
GOMEZ, Edward	Private First Class	Korea*
GULLEN, Ambrosio	Staff Sergeant	Songuchon*
JOHNSON, James E.	Sergeant	Yudam-ni*
KELLY, John D.	Private First Class	Korea*
KELSO, Jack W.	Private	Korea*
KENNEMORE, Robert S.	Staff Sergeant	Chosin Reservoir
LITTLETON, Herbert A.	Private First Class	Chungchon*
LOPEZ, Baldomero	First Lieutenant	Inchon*
MATTHEWS, Daniel P.	Sergeant	Vegas Hill*
MAUSER, Frederick W., III	Sergeant	Songnap-yong*
MCLAUGHLIN, Alford L.	Private First Class	Korea
MITCHELL, Frank N.	First Lieutenant	Hansan-ni*
MONEGAN, Walter C., Jr.	Private First Class	Seoul*
MORELAND, Whitt L.	Private First Class	Kwagch'i-Dong*
MURPHY, Raymond G.	Second Lieutenant	Korea
MYERS, Reginald R.	Major	Korea
OBREGON, Eugene A.	Private First Class	Seoul*
O'BRIEN, George H. Jr.	Second Lieutenant	Korea
PHILLIPS, Lee H.	Corporal	Korea*
POYNTER, James I.	Sergeant	Sudong*
RAMER, George H.	Second Lieutenant	Korea*
REEM, Robert D.	Second Lieutenant	Chinhung-ni*
SHUCK, William E., Jr.	Staff Sergeant	Korea*
SIMANEK, Robert E.	Private First Class	Korea
SITTER, Carl L.	Captain	Hagaru-ri
SKINNER, Sherrod E., Jr.	Second Lieutenant	Korea*
VAN WINKLE, Archie	Staff Sergeant	Sudong
VITTORI, Joseph	Corporal	Hill 749*
WATKINS, Lewis G.	Staff Sergeant	Korea*
WILSON, Harold E.	Technical Sergeant	Korea
WINDRICH, William G.	Staff Sergeant	Yudam-ni*

Vietnam War 1965-1969

ANDERSON, James, Jr.	Private First Class	I Corps*
BARKER, Jedh C.	Lance Corporal	I Corps*
BARNUM, Harvey C., Jr.	Captain	I Corps
BOBO, John P.	Second Lieutenant	I Corps*
CONNOR, Peter S.	Staff Sergeant	I Corps*
DAVIS, Rodney M.	Sergeant	I Corps*
DICKEY, Douglas E.	Private First Class	I Corps*
FOSTER, Paul H.	Sergeant	I Corps*
GONZALEZ, Alfredo	Sergeant	I Corps*
GRAHAM, James A.	Captain	I Corps*
GRAVES, Terrence C.	Second Lieutenant	I Corps*
HOWARD, Jimmie E.	Staff Sergeant	I Corps
LEE, Howard V.	Captain	I Corps
MCGINTY, John J., III	Staff Sergeant	I Corps
MARTINI, Gary W.	Private First Class	I Corps*

MODRZEWSKI, Robert J.	Captain	I Corps
NEWLIN, Melvin E.	Private First Class	I Corps*
O'MALLEY, Robert E.	Sergeant	I Corps
PAUL, Joe C.	Lance Corporal	I Corps*
PERKINS, William T., Jr.	Corporal	I Corps*
PITTMAN, Richard A.	Lance Corporal	I Corps
PLESS, Stephen W.	Captain	I Corps
REASONER, Frank S.	First Lieutenant	I Corps*
SINGLETON, Walter K.	Sergeant	I Corps*
SMEDLEY, Larry E.	Corporal	I Corps*
WHEAT, Roy M.	Lance Corporal	I Corps*

• **POSTHUMOUSLY**

Rank listed was that of the individual at the time of the action for which the Medal of Honor was given.

Marine Corps Medal of Honor Recipients¹ Recapitulation

<i>Awards Prior To World War II:</i>		<i>Number</i>
Civil War	1862-1865	17
Korea	1871	6
France	1872	1
France	1881	1
Spanish American War	1898	15
Samoa	1899	3
Philippines	1899-1900	4
China; Boxer Rebellion	1900	33
Samar, P. I.	1901	2
Uruguay	1901	1
USS <i>Petrel</i>	1901	1
Vera Cruz, Mexico	1914	9
Haiti	1915-1919	8
San Domingo	1916	3
World War I (6 Army and 7 Navy)		13
Pensacola, Florida	1921	2
Nicaragua	1928-1932	2
Total Medals Prior To World War II		120
World War II:		
Posthumous Awards		50
Awards To Living Marines		30
Total Medals World War II		80
Korean War:		
Posthumous Awards		28
Awards To Living Marines		14
Total Medals Korean Conflict		42
Vietnam War Through 1969:		
Posthumous Awards		48
Awards To Living Marines		8
Total Medals up to 31 December 1969		26

¹ 268 Medals of Honor have been awarded to 261 Marine officers and enlisted men through 31 December 1969. One officer and one enlisted man received two Navy Medals of Honor. Five enlisted men received both the Army and the Navy Medal of Honor for the same act of heroism in World War I (Duplicate Awards). One enlisted man received the Army Medal of Honor only in World War I.

APPENDIX D

Landings And Battles In Which Marines Have Participated 1776-1969

The Revolution—1776-1783:

Raid on New Providence, Bahamas	3-17 March 1776
<i>Alfred</i> and <i>Cabot</i> vs. British <i>Glasgow</i>	6 April 1776
<i>Lexington</i> vs. armed tender <i>Edward</i>	7 April 1776
<i>Providence</i> vs. British <i>Solebay</i>	1 September 1776
<i>Andre Doria</i> vs. British brig <i>Racehorse</i>	December 1776
Second Battle of Trenton (Assunpink Creek)	2 January 1777
Battle of Princeton	3 January 1777
<i>Reprisal</i> vs. British <i>Swallow</i>	5 February 1777
<i>Cabot</i> vs. British frigate <i>Milford</i>	26 March 1777
<i>Hancock</i> vs. British <i>Fox</i>	27 June 1777
<i>Raleigh</i> vs. British <i>Druid</i>	4 September 1777
<i>Alfred</i> and <i>Raleigh</i> vs. British <i>Ariadne</i> and <i>Ceres</i>	9 March 1778
<i>Boston</i> vs. British <i>Martha</i>	11 March 1778
<i>Virginia</i> vs. three British frigates	1 April 1778
Raid on Whitehaven, England	22 April 1778
<i>Ranger</i> vs. British <i>Drake</i>	24 April 1778
<i>Warren</i> , <i>Queen of France</i> , and <i>Ranger</i> vs. British privateer and British ships	7 April 1779
<i>Providence</i> vs. British <i>Diligent</i>	7 May 1779
Penobscot Expedition	24 July-14 August 1779
Battle of Banks Island	26 July 1779
Battle of Majabagaduce Peninsula	28 July-13 August 1779
<i>Bon Homme Richard</i> vs. British <i>Serapis</i>	23 September 1779
<i>Trumbull</i> vs. British <i>Watt</i>	2 June 1780
<i>Saratoga</i> vs. British <i>Charming Molly</i> , <i>Elizabeth</i> , <i>Nancy</i> , and one other brig	8-9 October 1780
<i>Alliance</i> vs. British <i>Atalanta</i> and <i>Trepassy</i>	28-29 May 1781
<i>Confederacy</i> vs. British <i>Roebuck</i> and <i>Orpheus</i>	(15 April?) 22 June 1781
<i>Alliance</i> vs. British <i>Sybill</i>	7 (10?) March 1783

French Naval War—1798-1801:

<i>Constellation</i> vs. French <i>L'Insurgente</i>	9 February 1799
<i>Constellation</i> vs. French <i>La Vengeance</i>	2 February 1800
<i>Experiment</i> vs. Haitian Picaroons	1 January 1800

War With Tripoli—1801-1805:

<i>Enterprise</i> vs. Tripolitan Ship <i>Tripoli</i>	1 August 1801
Raid on Tripoli	20 May 1803
Capture of <i>Philadelphia</i> by Tripolitans	31 October 1803
<i>Constitution</i> , <i>Siren</i> , <i>Argus</i> , <i>Scourge</i> , <i>Vixen</i> , <i>Nautilus</i> , <i>Enterprise</i> , and gunboats vs. Tripolitan vessels	3 August-12 September 1804
Capture of fortress at Derne, Tripoli	25-27 April 1805
<i>Chesapeake</i> vs. British <i>Leopard</i>	22 June 1807
<i>President</i> vs. British <i>Little Belt</i>	16 May 1811

War of 1812:

<i>President</i> vs. British <i>Belvidera</i>	23 June 1812
<i>Essex</i> vs. British <i>Alert</i>	13 August 1812
<i>Constitution</i> vs. British <i>Guerriere</i>	19 August 1812
<i>Wasp</i> vs. British <i>Frolic</i>	18 October 1812

<i>United States vs. British Macedonian</i>	25 October	1812
Capture of fort at Red House, Canada	November	1812
<i>Constitution vs. British Java</i>	29 December	1812
<i>Hornet vs. British Peacock</i>	24 February	1813
Capture of York (Toronto), Canada	27 April	1813
Battle of Fort George, Canada	27 May	1813
<i>Chesapeake vs. British Shannon</i>	1 June	1813
Battle of Craney Island, near Norfolk, Va.	22 June	1813
<i>Essex and Greenwich vs. British Seringapatam</i>	13 July	1813
<i>Enterprise vs. British Boxer</i>	5 September	1813
Battle of Lake Erie	10 September	1813
<i>Essex vs. British Phoebe and Cherub, off Valparaiso, Chile</i>	28 March	1814
<i>Peacock vs. British Epervier</i>	29 April	1814
<i>Wasp vs. British Reindeer</i>	28 June	1814
Battle of Bladensburg, Md.	24 August	1814
<i>Adams vs. British squadron, Penobscot River, Maine</i>	3 September	1814
Defense of Baltimore, Md.	10 September	1814
Battle of New Orleans, La.	8 January	1815
<i>President vs. British Endymion, Majestic, Pomone, and Tenedos</i>	15 January	1815
<i>Constitution vs. British Cyane and Levant</i>	20 February	1815
<i>Hornet vs. British Penguin</i>	23 March	1815
Battle of Twelve Mile Swamp (Florida)	11 September	1812
Battle of Quallah Battoo (Sumatra)	6 February	1832
 Florida Indian War—1835-1842:		
Relief of Fort Brooke (Florida)	22 January	1836
Battle of Wahoo Swamp (Florida)	21 November	1836
Campaign in the New River Country (Florida)	22 October to 15 December	1836
Battle of Hatchee-Lustee (Florida)	27 January	1837
 Mexican War—1846-1847:		
Expedition to Point Isabel, Mexico	8-13 May	1846
Expedition to Barrita, Mexico	18-20 May	1846
Landing at Monterey, Upper California	7 July	1846
Expedition against Frontera and Tabasco, Mexico	23-24 October	1846
Expedition against Tampico and Panuco, Mexico	14 November-5 December	1846
Battle of Santa Clara, Calif.	2 January	1847
Battle of San Gabriel, Calif.	8 January	1847
Battle of La Mesa, Calif.	9 January	1847
Siege of Vera Cruz, Mexico	9-29 March	1847
San Jose, Lower California	30 March	1847
San Lucas, Lower California	3 April	1847
La Paz, Lower California	14 April	1847
Expedition against Tuxpan, Mexico	18 April	1847
Second expedition against Tabasco, Mexico	14-16 June	1847
Battle of Chapultepec, Mexico	13 September	1847
Landing at Muleje', Lower California	1 October	1847
Battle of Guaymas, Mexico	17 November	1847
San Jose, Lower California	19 November	1847
Battle at Urias, Mexico	20 November	1847
Battle at Cochori, Mexico	30 January	1848
San Jose, Lower California	15 February	1848
Expedition to Guaymas, Mexico	9 April	1848
Battle of Shanghai (China)	4 April	1854
Battle of Ty-ho Bay (China)	4 August	1855
Battle with Indians near Seattle (Washington)	26 January	1856
Battle of the Barrier Forts (China)	16-22 November	1856
Battle of Waya (Fiji Islands)	6 October	1858
Capture of John Brown (Harper's Ferry, Va.)	18 October	1859
 Civil War—1861-1865:		
Relief of Fort Pickens, Fla.	12 April-26 May	1861
First Battle of Bull Run (Manassas), Va.	21 July	1861
Capture of Hatteras Inlet, N. C.	30 August	1861
Destruction of schooner <i>Judah</i> , Pensacola, Fla.	14 September	1861

- Battle of Port Royal, S. C. 7 November 1861
 Destruction of armed schooner *Royal Yacht*, off Galveston, Texas 8 November 1861
Cumberland and *Congress* vs. *CSS Virginia (Merrimac)* 8 March 1862
Minnesota vs. *CSS Virginia (Merrimac)* 9 March 1862
 Occupation of Fernandina, Fla. 15-25 March 1862
 Battle for New Orleans, La. 24-28 April 1862
 Battle of Drewry's Bluff, Va. 15 May 1862
 Blake's Plantation, Santee River, S.C. 25 June 1862
 Farragut's fleet vs. Vicksburg, Miss., batteries 28 June 1862
 Farragut's fleet vs. *CSS Arkansas*, near Vicksburg, Miss. 15 July 1862
 Affair at Pascagoula, Miss. 17 July 1862
Keystone State vs. *CSS Chicora* and *Palmetto State*, off Charleston, S.C. 31 January 1863
 Passing Port Hudson, La. 14 March 1863
 Quelling the New York City Draft Riots 13-20 July 1863
 Boat attack on Fort Sumter, S.C. 8-9 September 1863
 Expedition to Legareville, Stono River, S.C. 25-28 December 1863
Miami, and others, vs. *CSS Albermarle*, near Plymouth, N.C. 18-19 April 1864
 Expedition up Ashepoo and South Edisto Rivers, S.C. 25-27 May 1864
Kearsarge vs. *CSS Alabama*, off Cherbourg, France 10 June 1864
 Skirmish near White Point, S.C. 3 July 1864
 Defense of Havre de Grace, Md., against Early's Raid 11-15 July 1864
 Battle of Mobile Bay, Ala. 5-23 August 1864
 Battle of Boyd's Neck and Honey Hill, S.C. 30 November 1864
 Battle of Tullifinney Cross Roads, S. C. 6-9 December 1864
 Battle of Fort Fisher, N. C. 23-25 December 1864
 Capture of Fort Fisher, N. C. 13-15 January 1865
 USS *Wyoming* vs. three Japanese ships and shore batteries in Straits of
 Shimonoseki, Japan 16 July 1863
 Battle of the Saiee River forts, Korea 10-11 June 1874
- War With Spain—21 April To 13 August 1898:**
- Battle of Manila Bay 1 May 1898
 Battle of Guantanamo Bay (Cuba) 11-14 June 1898
 Battle of Cuzco Well (Cuba) 14 June 1898
 Battle of Santiago (Cuba) 3 July 1898
- Philippine Insurrection—30 June 1898 To 4 July 1902:**
- Battle of Novalleta (Luzon) 8 October 1898
 Battle of Sohoton River (Samar) 5 November 1901
 Battle of Sohoton Cliffs (Samar) 17 November 1901
 March across Samar 28 December 1901 to 18 January 1902
 Battle of Tagalii (Samoa) 1 April 1899
- China Relief Expedition (Boxer Rebellion)—June To August 1900:**
- Battle of Tong-Ku (near Tientsin) 19 June 1900
 Battle of the East Arsenal (near Tientsin) 21 June 1900
 Battle of Tientsin 24 June 1900
 Battle of the Imperial Arsenal (near Tientsin) 9 July 1900
 Recapture of Tientsin 13-14 July 1900
 Battle of Yangtsun 6 August 1900
 Battle of Peking 15-19 August 1900
- Nicaraguan Campaign of 1912:**
- Battle of Masaya 19 September 1912
 Battle of Coyotepe and Barranca Hills 3-4 October 1912
 Battle of Leon 5 October 1912
 Capture of Vera Cruz (Mexico) 21-22 April 1914
- Occupation of Dominican Republic**
- Battle of Puerto Plata 1 June 1916
 Battle of Las Trencheras 27 June 1916
 Battle of Guavacanas 3 July 1916
 Battle of Las Canitas 7 April 1917

Occupation of Haiti—28 July 1915 To 31 August 1934:

Battle of Grosse Roche	24 October 1915
Battle of Fort Dipite	24-25 October 1915
Battle of Fort Capois	5 November 1915
Battle of Forts Selon and Berthol	8 November 1915
Battle of Fort Riviere	17-18 November 1915
Battle of Hinche	4 April 1919
Battle of Port-au-Prince	7 October 1919
Capture of Charlemagne Peralte	31 October 1919
Battle of Port-au-Prince	14-15 January 1920

World War I—6 April 1917 To 11 November 1918:

Battle of Les Mares Farm (near Belleau Wood)	3-4 June 1918
Battle of Hill 142 (near Belleau Wood)	6 June 1918
Battle of Bouresches (near Belleau Wood)	6-7 June 1918
Battle of Belleau Wood	6-26 June 1918
Battle of the Aisne-Marne (Soissons)	18-20 July 1918
Battle of St. Mihiel	12-16 September 1918
Battle of Blanc Mont	2-9 October 1918
Battle of the Meuse-Argonne	1-11 November 1918

Occupation of Nicaragua—6 January 1927 To 3 January 1933:

Battle of La Paz Centro	16 May 1927
Battle of Ocotal	16 July 1927
Battle of Telpaneca	19 September 1927
Battle of Camino Real	30 December 1927
Battle of Sapotilla Ridge	1 January 1928
Battle of Quilali	1-8 January 1928
Battle of El Chipote	25 January 1928
Battle of Bromaderos	27-28 February 1928
Battle of the Cua River	13 May 1928
Battle of the Coco River (near Hilihugas)	7 August 1928
Battle of the Cuje	6 December 1928
Battle near Ocotal-Apali	31 December 1930

World War II—7 December 1941 To 15 August 1945:

Pearl Harbor—Midway	7 December 1941
Wake Island	8-23 December 1941
Philippine Islands	8 December 1941-6 May 1942
Netherlands East Indies	23 January-27 February 1942
Pacific Raids—1942	1 February-10 March 1942
Guadalcanal-Tulagi Landings	7-9 August 1942
Capture and Defense of Guadalcanal	10 August 1942-8 February 1943
Makin Raid	17-18 August 1942
Eastern Solomons (Stewart Island)	23-25 August 1942
Buin-Faisi-Tonolai Raid	5 October 1942
Cape Esperance (Second Savo)	11-12 October 1942
Santa Cruz Islands	11-12 October 1942
Guadalcanal (Third Savo)	12-15 November 1942
Tassafaronga (Fourth Savo)	30 November-1 December 1942
Eastern New Guinea	17 December 1942-1 July 1944
Rennel Island	29-30 January 1943
Consolidation of Southern Solomons	8 February-20 June 1943
Consolidation of Northern Solomons	27 October 1943-15 March 1945
Aleutians Operation	26 March-2 June 1943
New Georgia Group Operation	20 June-16 October 1943
Bismarck Archipelago Operation	25 June 1943-1 May 1944
Pacific Raids—1943	31 August-6 October 1943
Treasury-Bougainville Operation	27 October-15 December 1943
Gilbert Islands Operation	13 November-8 December 1943
Marshall Islands Operation	26 November 1943-18 March 1944
Asiatic-Pacific Raids—1944	16 February-9 October 1944
Western New Guinea Operation	21 April 1944-9 January 1945
Hollandia Operation	21 April-1 June 1944
Marianas Operation	10 June-27 August 1944

Capture and Occupation of Tinian	24 July-1 August 1944
Western Caroline Islands Operation	31 August-14 October 1944
Leyte Operation	10 October-16 December 1944
Luzon Operation	12 December 1944-22 January 1945
Iwo Jima Operation	15 February-16 March 1945
Okinawa Gunto Operation	17 March-30 June 1945
Third Fleet Operations Against Japan	10 July-15 August 1945
Kurile Islands Operation	1 February 1944-11 August 1945
Borneo Operation	27 April-20 July 1945
Consolidation of the Southern Philippines	26 February-20 July 1945
Manila Bay-Bicol Operation	29 January-16 April 1945
Naval Group China	19 February 1943-4 May 1945

Engaged in United Nations' Action, Korea—27 June 1950 To 27 July 1953:

North Korean Aggression	27 June-2 November 1950
Inchon Landing	13-17 September 1950
Communist China Aggression	3 November 1950-24 January 1951
First U.N. Counteroffensive	25 January-21 April 1951
Communist China Spring Offensive	22 April-8 July 1951
U.N. Summer-Fall Offensive	9 July-27 November 1951
Second Korean Winter	28 November 1951-30 April 1952
Korean Defense Summer-Fall 1952	1 May-30 November 1952
Third Korean Winter	1 December 1952-30 April 1953
Korea, Summer-Fall 1953	1 May-27 July 1953
Landing in Lebanon	15 July-30 September 1958
Thailand	15 May-30 July 1962
Cuba	21 October-20 November 1962
Dominican Republic	28 April-6 June 1965

Republic of Vietnam:

Vietnam Advisory Campaign	15 March 1962-7 March 1965
Vietnam Defense Campaign	8 March 1965-24 December 1965
Vietnam Counteroffensive Campaign	25 December 1965-30 June 1966
Vietnamese Counteroffensive, Phase II	1 July 1966-31 May 1967
Vietnamese Counteroffensive, Phase III	1 June 1967-29 January 1968
Tet Counteroffensive	30 January-1 April 1968
Vietnamese Counteroffensive, Phase IV	2 April-30 June 1968
Vietnamese Counteroffensive, Phase V	1 July-1 November 1968
Vietnamese Counteroffensive, Phase VI	2 November 1968-22 February 1969
Tet 1969 Counteroffensive	23 February-8 June 1969
Unnamed Campaign	9 June 1969 to date to be announced.

APPENDIX E
Strength Of The Marine Corps
1794-1969

	<i>Authorized</i>			<i>Active</i>		
	<i>Off</i>	<i>Men</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Off</i>	<i>Men</i>	<i>Total</i>
Act of 27 March 1794	6	306	312			
Act of 11 July 1798	33	848	881			
Act of 2 March 1799	41	1044	1085			
Act of 22 April 1800	41	1044	1085			
1803, February, strength				26	453	479
1807, 2 December strength				26	722	748
Act of 3 March 1809	46	1823	1869			
1809, strength				35	943	978
1812, September strength				37	1294	1331
Act of 16 April 1814	93	2622	2715			
Act of 3 March 1817	50	938	988			
1826, December strength				50	960	1010
Act of 30 June 1834	63	1224	1287			
1836, May strength				58	1086	1144
Act of 2 March 1847	75	2324	2399			
1847, 30 April strength				75	1271	1346
1848, 31 May strength				71	2170	2241
Act of 3 March 1849	75	1224	1299			
1850, October strength				70	1210	1280
1855, authorized in place of landsmen by Executive Order	63	1424	1487			
1857, 21 April, authorized in place of landsmen by Executive Order	63	1692	1727			
1858, authorized in place of landsmen by Executive Order	63	1924	1987			
1861, January strength				63	1829	1892
1861, 22 April, authorized in place of landsmen by Executive Order	63	2500	2563			
1861, 30 May, authorized in place of landsmen by Executive Order	93	3074	3169			
1861, 30 June strength				54	2311	2365
1861, 25 July, authorized in place of landsmen by Executive Order	93	3654	3747			
1865, January strength				78	3177	3255
1898, strength				116	4700	4816
1899, Act of 3 March	211	6062	6273			
1912, 30 June strength				319	9739	10,058
1917, 30 June strength				874	26,621	27,495
1918, 11 December maximum war strength				2462	72,639	75,101
1920, 30 June strength				962	16,085	17,047
1928, 1 July strength				1197	17,822	19,019
1940, 1 July strength				1556	26,369	27,925
1941, 30 June strength				3320	50,866	54,186
1942, 30 June strength				7138	136,250	143,388
1943, 1 July strength				21,938	287,621	309,559
1945, 15 August (V-J Day Peak)				37,664	447,389	485,053
1946, 30 June strength				14,158	141,434	155,592
1950, 30 June strength				7,254	67,025	74,279
1953, 30 June strength				18,718	230,488	249,206
1965, 30 June strength				17,258	172,955	190,213
1969, 30 June strength				25,698	284,073	309,771

APPENDIX F

List Of Posts And Stations

1969

Headquarters

Headquarters Marine Corps, Washington, D.C.

Bases and Camps

Marine Corps Base, Camp Butler, Okinawa
Marine Corps Base, Camp Lejeune, N. C.
Marine Corps Base, Camp Pendleton, Calif.
Marine Corps Base, Quantico, Va.
Marine Corps Base, Twentynine Palms, Calif.
Camp H. M. Smith, Oahu, Hawaii

Supply Centers

Marine Corps Supply Center, Albany, Ga.
Marine Corps Supply Center, Barstow, Calif.
Marine Corps Supply Activity, Philadelphia, Pa.

Republic of Vietnam

III Marine Amphibious Force

Recruit Depots

Marine Corps Recruit Depot, Parris Island, S. C.
Marine Corps Recruit Depot, San Diego, Calif.

Training Commands

Landing Force Training Command, Coronado, Calif.
Landing Force Training Command, Little Creek, Va.

Cold Weather Training

Mountain Warfare Training Center, Bridgeport, Calif.

Aviation

Marine Corps Air Station, Beaufort, S. C.
Marine Corps Air Station, Cherry Point, N. C.
Marine Corps Air Station, El Toro, Calif.
Marine Corps Air Station, Iwakuni, Japan
Marine Corps Air Station, Kaneohe Bay, Oahu, Hawaii
Marine Corps Air Station, New River, N. C.
Marine Corps Air Station, Quantico, Va.
Marine Corps Air Station, Santa Ana, Calif.
Marine Corps Air Station, Yuma, Ariz.
Marine Corps Air Facility, Futema, Okinawa
Marine Aviation Detachment, Jacksonville, Fla.
Marine Aviation Detachment, Memphis, Tenn.
Marine Aviation Detachment, Glynco, Ga.
Marine Aviation Detachment, Patuxent River, Md.
Marine Aviation Detachment, Pensacola, Fla.
Marine Aviation Detachment, Point Mugu, Calif.
Marine Air Reserve Training Command, Glenview, Ill.

Security Forces

Marine Barracks, Naval Station, Adak, Alaska
Marine Barracks, Naval Air Station, Alameda, Calif.

Marine Barracks, Naval Station, Annapolis, Md.
Marine Barracks, Naval Station, Argentia,
Newfoundland
Marine Barracks, Naval Air Station, Atsugi, Japan
Marine Barracks, Naval Ammunition Depot,
Bangor, Wash.
Marine Barracks, Naval Air Station, Barbers Point,
Oahu, Hawaii
Marine Barracks, Naval Station, Bermuda,
British West Indies
Marine Barracks, Naval Base, Boston, Mass.
Marine Barracks, Bremerton, Wash.
Marine Barracks, Naval Base, New York, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Marine Barracks, Naval Air Station, Brunswick, Me.
Marine Barracks, Naval Air Station, Cecil Field, Fla.
Marine Barracks, Naval Weapons Station,
Charleston, S. C.
Marine Barracks, Naval Base, Charleston, S. C.
Marine Barracks, Naval Weapons Station, Concord, Calif.
Marine Barracks, Naval Ammunition Depot, Earle, N. J.
Marine Barracks, Naval Weapons Station, Fallbrook
Annex, Seal Beach, Calif.
Marine Barracks, Naval Security Agency, Fort Meade, Md.
Marine Barracks, Naval Training Center, Great Lakes, Ill.
Marine Barracks, Guam, Mariana Islands
Marine Barracks, Naval Base, Guantanamo Bay, Cuba
Marine Barracks, Naval Ammunition Depot,
Hawthorne, Nev.
Marine Barracks, Naval Air Station, Jacksonville, Fla.
Marine Barracks, Naval Forces Iceland, Keflavik, Iceland
Marine Barracks, Naval Base, Key West, Fla.
Marine Barracks, Naval Station, Kodiak, Alaska
Marine Barracks, Naval Air Station, Lakehurst, N. J.
Marine Barracks, Lake Mead Base, Las Vegas, Nev.
Marine Barracks, Naval Air Station, Lemoore, Calif.
Marine Detachment, London, England
Marine Barracks, Naval Base, Los Angeles,
Long Beach, Calif.
Marine Barracks, Mare Island, Vallejo, Calif.
Marine Barracks, Naval Ammunition Depot,
McAlester, Okla.
Marine Barracks, Naval Air Station, Moffett Field, Calif.
Marine Barracks, Naval Training Command, Morocco
Marine Barracks, Naval Air Facility, Naha, Okinawa
Marine Barracks, Naval Support Activity, Naples, Italy
Marine Barracks, Submarine Base, New London, Conn.
Marine Barracks, Naval Base, Newport, R. I.
Marine Barracks, Naval Base, Norfolk, Va.
Marine Detachment, Headquarters, Commander in Chief,
Atlantic Fleet, Norfolk, Va.
Marine Barracks, Naval Air Station, North Island, Calif.

Marine Barracks, 15th Naval District, Rodman,
Canal Zone, Panama
Marine Barracks, Naval Ammunition Depot,
Oahu, Hawaii
Marine Barracks, Naval Air Station, Patuxent River, Md.
Marine Barracks, Naval Base, Philadelphia, Pa.
Marine Barracks, Naval Shipyard, Portsmouth, N. H.
Marine Detachment, Naval Disciplinary Command, N. H.
Marine Barracks, Norfolk Naval Shipyard,
Portsmouth, Va.
Marine Barracks, Naval Air Station, Quonset Point, R. I.
Marine Barracks, Naval Station, Roosevelt Roads,
Puerto Rico
Marine Barracks, Naval Activity, Rota, Spain
Marine Barracks, Naval Station, Sangley Point,
Luzon, R. P.
Marine Barracks, Naval Station, San Diego, Calif.
Marine Barracks, San Juan, Puerto Rico
Marine Barracks, San Francisco Naval Shipyard,
San Francisco, Calif.
Marine Barracks, Naval Weapons Station,
Seal Beach, Calif.
Marine Barracks, U.S. Fleet Activities, Sasebo, Japan
Marine Barracks, Naval Base, Subic Bay, Luzon, R. P.
Marine Barracks, Naval Station, Treasure Island, Calif.
Marine Barracks, 8th & 1 Streets, Washington, D.C.
Marine Barracks, Naval Air Station, Whidbey Island,
Oak Harbor, Wash.
Marine Barracks, Fleet Activity, Yokosuka, Japan
Marine Barracks, Naval Weapons Station, Yorktown, Va.

State Department Detachments

Afghanistan, Kabul
Argentina, Buenos Aires
Australia, Canberra
Austria, Vienna
British Crown Colony, Hong Kong
Belgium, Brussels
Bolivia, La Paz
Brazil, Brasilia
Brazil, Rio de Janeiro
Bulgaria, Sofia
Burma, Rangoon
Canada, Ottawa
Ceylon, Colombo
Chile, Santiago
Colombia, Bogota
Costa Rica, San Jose
Cyprus, Nicosia
Czechoslovakia, Prague
Denmark, Copenhagen
Dominican Republic, Santo Domingo
Ecuador, Quito
El Salvador, San Salvador
England, London
Ethiopia, Addis Ababa
Finland, Helsinki
France, Paris
Germany, Bonn
Germany, Frankfurt
Germany, Hamburg
Germany, Munich
Ghana, Accra
Greece, Athens

Guatemala, Guatemala City
Haiti, Port au Prince
Honduras, Tegucigalpa
Hungary, Budapest
Iceland, Reykjavik
India, Calcutta
India, New Delhi
Indonesia, Djakarta
Iran, Tehran
Ireland, Dublin
Israel, Jerusalem
Israel, Tel Aviv
Italy, Rome
Ivory Coast, Abidjan
Jamaica, Kingston
Japan, Tokyo
Jordan, Amman
Kenya, Nairobi
Korea, Seoul
Kuwait, Kuwait
Laos, Vientiane
Lebanon, Beirut
Liberia, Monrovia
Libya, Tripoli
Luxembourg, Luxembourg
Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur
Mexico, Mexico City
Morocco, Rabat
Nepal, Kathmandu
Netherlands, The Hague
New Zealand, Wellington
Nicaragua, Managua
Nigeria, Lagos
Norway, Oslo
Pakistan, Rawalpindi
Panama, Panama City
Paraguay, Asuncion
Peru, Lima
Philippines, Manila
Poland, Warsaw
Portugal, Lisbon
Republic of Congo, Kinshasha
Republic of Vietnam, Saigon
Rumania, Bucharest
Saudia Arabia, Dhahran
Saudia Arabia, Jidda
Senegal, Dakar
Singapore, Singapore
Somali, Mogadiscio
South Africa, Pretoria
Spain, Madrid
Sudan, Khartoum
Sweden, Stockholm
Switzerland, Bern
Switzerland, Geneva
Taiwan, Taipei
Thailand, Bangkok
Tunisia, Tunis
Turkey, Ankara
Turkey, Istanbul
Uruguay, Montevideo
U.S.S.R., Moscow
Venezuela, Caracas
Yugoslavia, Belgrade

APPENDIX G

THE MARINES' HYMN¹

From the halls of Montezuma
To the shores of Tripoli,
We fight our country's battles
In the air, on land, and sea.
First to fight for right and freedom,
And to keep our honor clean,
We are proud to claim the title
Of United States Marines.

Our flag's unfurl'd to every breeze
From dawn to setting sun;
We have fought in every clime and place,
Where we could take a gun.
In the snow of far-off northern lands
And in sunny tropic scenes,
You will find us always on the job—
The United States Marines.

Here's health to you and to our Corps
Which we are proud to serve;
In many a strife we've fought for life
And never lost our nerve.
If the Army and the Navy
Ever gaze on Heaven's scenes,
They will find the streets are guarded
By United States Marines.

¹ While no written record exists to substantiate the various stories of the origin of the words of the Marines' Hymn, tradition says the first verse was written in Mexico shortly after the end of the Mexican War. Marine veterans have reported it was popular in the Corps during the Civil War.

The music, as we know it today, was borrowed from Jacques Offenbach's comic opera, "Genevieve de Brabant," first presented in Paris on 19 November 1859. Former Principal Musician Arthur Tregina of the Marine Band (served 1892-1919) stated he made the adaptation under orders "to arrange a proper and appropriate setting of the Marines' Hymn," but gives no date for the arrangement. Musicians are of the opinion that the basic tune was originally a Spanish folk song.

While many unofficial verses have been written, the Commandant authorized the above three verses as the official version in 1929. The inclusion of a reference to "air" Marines was authorized on 21 November 1942. The Marine Corps secured the original copyright under date of 19 August 1919.



RESOLUTION, CONTINENTAL CONGRESS, 10 NOVEMBER 1775

Resolved, That two Battalions of marines be raised, consisting of one Colonel, two Lieutenant Colonels, two Majors, and other officers as usual in other regiments; and that they consist of an equal number of privates with other battalions; that particular care be taken, that no persons be appointed to office, or enlisted into said Battalions, but such as are good seamen, or so acquainted with maritime affairs as to be able to serve to advantage by sea when required: that they be enlisted and commissioned to serve for and during the present war between Great Britain and the colonies, unless dismissed by order of Congress: that they be distinguished by the names of the first and second battalions of American Marines, and that they be considered as part of the number which the continental Army before Boston is ordered to consist of.