

MARINE CORPS

Junior Reserve Officers' Training Corps



LEADERSHIP EDUCATION II
STUDENT TEXT

LEADERSHIP
EDUCATION
STUDENT TEXT

II

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Leadership Primary and Secondary Objectives

PURPOSE

This lesson will explain to you the primary and secondary objectives of leadership as defined by the Marine Corps.

Introduction

The primary objective of leadership is **mission accomplishment**. Mission accomplishment is achieving your goal. Achieving your goal is your primary focus when asked to take on a task. The secondary goal of leadership is **troop welfare**. The welfare of your troops should always be a consideration for you as a leader. Both objectives go hand and hand in accomplishing any task.

In the MCJROTC program, these same objectives apply. You are expected to accomplish assigned missions and to take care of the cadets under your leadership. Accomplishing your primary and secondary objectives develops leadership.

Mission Accomplishment

Mission accomplishment means that you must know your job and do it well. You must know how to control and employ your unit under varied conditions. In military situations, leaders must be skilled in military sciences and in the use of weapons. Military leaders must ensure their troops know the basics: care and use of weapons and equipment; camouflage, fire and maneuver; cover and concealment; preparation of fighting

positions; use of supporting arms, land navigation, discipline, hand to hand combat; and other essentials on how to fight, survive and win.

In MCJROTC, mission accomplishment is also your primary objective. As a cadet you are given many different tasks that your instructor expects you to carry out properly. Examples include: executing drill movements properly, or completing your assignments in a timely fashion. It is your responsibility to accomplish these tasks.



DID YOU KNOW?

President Harry S. Truman kept a plaque on his desk with the inscription “The buck stops here.” Truman was one of America’s most honest and ethical presidents. He never flinched from accepting responsibility for his decisions, however, unpopular or controversial.

Troop Welfare

The secondary objective of leadership is troop welfare. Marine leaders must know their Marines and take care of them. They must learn all they can about each Marine in their unit: their background, their problems, their strong and weak points, their military skills, their endurance, and their courage. This knowledge will help predict and influence their actions. It enables the Marine leader to make the most of each Marine's ability.

Leaders must put the needs of their troops before their own needs. They must instill a feeling of camaraderie and team spirit in their troops and a sense of trust in the leader.

In MCJROTC, the welfare of the cadets is of no less importance. In order to be the best, cadets must know that their leader is concerned about their welfare. Leaders, at every level, must make an effort to get to know the cadets they lead. No cadet is exempt. The leader must set the example and in doing so, will earn the trust and respect of their cadets.

BE a leader of character. Embrace the values and demonstrate the leader attributes. Study and practice so that you will have the skills to KNOW your job. Then act, DO what is right to achieve excellence.

Case Study

You are a newly promoted sergeant and the platoon leader just made you a squad leader. During your initial encounter with the members of your squad, you sense some resentment toward you as their "new" leader. The squad leader you replaced was popular with them, but the platoon

leader relieved him for failure to motivate the squad to achieve standards.

Your first assignment as squad leader is to fold the U.S. flag at a ceremony. While you are meeting briefly with the platoon sergeant, your squad departs for the football field to prepare for a rehearsal. During the meeting, the platoon sergeant tells you who in your squad has been on these details before.

As you approach the field, you see your squad relaxing. Instead of going straight into a rehearsal, you decide to have a few knowledgeable people demonstrate how to fold the flag.

You state to the squad that you are going to conduct a demonstration and for them to move into a circle. They don't move. You walk up to PFC Hart, whom the platoon sergeant said knows how to fold the flag, and he gives you a challenging stare as if to say, "I don't want to be a demonstrator." You ask him to come forward and take the flag. He says something disrespectful and still doesn't move.

This action infuriates you, but you control your emotions and remain calm. Your mind swiftly goes to work on the situation. This subordinate has challenged your authority and put you in a difficult position. He has given you a major disciplinary problem – disrespect and insubordination – before you have even had the opportunity to get to know your squad members and the informal norms of the squad. The way you handle this situation will have a major impact on the cohesion, discipline, and the respect these people will have for you.

Case Study Options

After identifying this challenge as one of how to take immediate action to gain control and maintain discipline while earning the long-term

respect of your subordinates, you consider the following alternatives:

- Reprimand PFC Hart in front of the squad, informing him that you will recommend him for an instructor's reprimand for his insubordination. If he continues to disobey, you will recommend that he be demoted.
- Stand directly in front of PFC Hart, look him in the eye, and order him to stand up and take the flag from you.



You quickly weigh the advantages and disadvantages of each course of action.

If you take the first course of action, you come across as decisive and strong and you immediately assert yourself as the authority. The disadvantage is that it is normally unprofessional to reprimand someone in front of others. In addition, it is never wise to tell a subordinate exactly what punishment you would recommend until you have had a chance to think the situation through and discuss it with your seniors.

If you take the second course of action, you would not be reprimanding PFC Hart in front of others – you could do that later in private. You would show your squad that you do not back

down from a challenge, and that you do not resort to threats in order to maintain discipline. Remember, you could still recommend punishment that you believe is appropriate later depending on PFC Hart's actions. The disadvantages are that you would not be immediately asserting yourself as the unquestioned authority, and that some of your subordinates might think they could get away with disrespectful and insubordinate behavior.

You quickly think through the actions you could take, including the use of possible contingencies. If you order PFC Hart to stand and take the flag and he does, continue with the demonstration; then order him and his team leader to meet you immediately after the rehearsal. If he refuses, inform him: (1) that he is being insubordinate and give him another order, and (2) by refusing your order, he will have committed two serious offenses. If he still refuses, immediately send for the platoon sergeant or platoon leader while you select other squad members to do the demonstration. This plan prepares you for possible contingencies if he finally obeys you or if he continues to disobey.

Depending on what PFC Hart does, take action in terms of your plan or make appropriate changes. Also, observe the effect of your actions on the manner and obedience of the other squad members. Explain that you will not tolerate insubordination and disobedience, and that you will always take suitable disciplinary action against those offenses.

You decide on the second course of action. Initially, some squad members do think that PFC Hart got away with his insubordination, but they discover otherwise when they find out that you sternly reprimanded him in the presence of his team leader, counseled him, and recommended him for additional punishment.

Conclusion

As MCJROTC cadets, it is important that you know and understand the primary and secondary objectives of leadership. These objectives are key to effective leadership. Remember, you must accomplish your mission but in doing so, you must also ensure that you are taking care of the cadets whom you lead. Understanding that good judgment, and respect for your own subordinates as people, will make you an effective leader in the Marine Corps JROTC program. ❖

The 11 Leadership Principles

PURPOSE

This lesson explains and provides examples of the 11 leadership principles.

Introduction

For any group to be successful, an effective leader must guide it. As a **potential** MCJROTC leader, there are certain proven guidelines, or leadership principles, that will help you to be an effective leader. The implementation of the 11 leadership principles will give you the ability to earn the respect of your fellow cadets, both seniors and subordinates.

1. Self-Knowledge and Improvement

The first and most important leadership principle is to “know yourself and to seek self-improvement.” Successful leaders must be able to honestly evaluate themselves, realizing both personnel strengths and weaknesses. Individuals who rely on their strengths while ignoring their weaknesses cannot be successful leaders. They should continually work to improve their weaknesses, thus developing more strengths.

Not only can you discover your strengths and weaknesses through self-evaluation, but also through evaluation by others. The objective opinions of your friends and superiors can help you further realize your true abilities.

After realizing your strengths and weaknesses, you should seek self-improvement. Self-improvement can be achieved through both study and observation. Study the causes for the success or failure of other leaders: Why did they succeed or fail? How can you avoid similar mistakes? How can you achieve similar successes? If you are able to identify a case where you have failed as a leader, make every effort to analyze that failure objectively and try to determine what you might have done to produce success. Never blame your failure on others or on the circumstances. It is a weakness if you fail to face your own shortcomings. Also, study and practice effective writing and speaking skills. By mastering such skills, you will be able to better communicate and understand commands.

Close observation of people will help you acquire a better understanding of human nature. With such knowledge, a leader can better determine the best way to deal with any given situation. A leader may deal with one situation in a firm, “hard stand” manner, while another situation may call for a “big brother” approach. The manner in which a leader leads varies from situation to situation.

Finally, it is necessary to set a definite goal or plan of self-improvement. Establish what it is that you want to improve and how to go about it. For example, if you wanted to be able to give a successful speech, you could take a class in speech, read speeches given by prominent people, or attend and observe a speech given by a local official.

2. Be Technically and Tactically Proficient



Before you can lead, you must be able to do the job, or “be **technically** and **tactically proficient**.” This is the second principle of leadership. Technical and tactical training can be gained through books, classroom instruction, or on-the-job training. Respect is the reward of the leader who is technically and tactically competent.

To develop this leadership principle as a cadet, you should first seek a well-rounded education. Taking a variety of courses, practicing the principles set forth in MCJROTC, and studying and researching can contribute to increased technical and tactical knowledge. As a cadet, take every advantage of learning that your unit provides.

You can also increase your knowledge through association with capable leaders. Observe and study their actions. Through observation, you can further develop your technical and tactical knowledge and better understand how to apply that knowledge.

3. Know Your Subordinates

The third principle, “Know your subordinates,” is extremely important. You should know and understand the behavior of each subordinate in your unit and how they react in different situations. This knowledge can prevent future problems, while the lack of this knowledge could endanger the success of the unit. Knowledge of each unit member’s personality will enable you to decide whether close supervision is needed and when and to whom to delegate authority. A cadet who lacks self-confidence and is nervous under stress should not be placed in a position in which a quick and decisive decision is needed.

As a leader, you should always place your unit’s welfare before your own. Oliver Wendell Holmes, Jr., said that “the reward of a general is not a bigger tent - but command.” This statement is pertinent to all leaders. It simply means that a leader’s reward is not luxuries such as a bigger tent, but command itself. It is important that you as a commander share the hardships of your unit.

You should concern yourself with your unit’s health and physical well-being. Protect the health of your unit by supervising hygiene and sanitation. Provide sufficient recreational time and insist on participation.

You are also responsible for your unit’s mental well-being. Be sure to quickly correct **grievances** and remove discontent. Try to keep in touch with the unit’s thoughts. You can do this by making yourself approachable to your subordinates. Make them feel free to come to you for counseling or advice.

4. Keep Your Subordinates Informed

It is impossible to accomplish a task efficiently without correct information. This brings us to the fourth principle, “Keep your subordinates informed.” To promote efficiency and morale, you must inform your subordinates of all happenings that will affect them and give reasons as to why things are to be done. (Of course, the **conveyance** of information is done when time and security permit.) When you keep your unit members informed, they feel they are a part of the team. Information will help them do their job intelligently and will also inspire initiative, enthusiasm, loyalty, and conviction.

A leader should use the chain of command to pass on information. Always be sure that your **immediate** subordinates are passing the necessary information correctly. This can be checked through frequent inspections. Be alert to rumors within your unit, and replace them with the truth. Rumors, or misinformation, can cause serious problems.

5. Set the Example

“Set the example” is principle number five. The attitude of “do as I say, not as I do” is NOT the manner in which a cadet should lead. As a leader, it is your responsibility to set standards for your unit by your personal example. This principle does not only apply when you are on duty, but also when you are off duty. If your personal standards are high, you can expect your cadets to also have high standards. Remember that leadership is set by example and that your cadets will reflect your image.

There are several techniques that can be used to apply this principle. First of all, set the example in personal appearance. Be physically fit,

well-groomed, and properly dressed. If you are sloppy in appearance, your superiors and subordinates will likely lose respect for you.

Second, set an example in your personal conduct. Conduct yourself in such a manner that your personal habits are not open to criticism. Display an outlook that is calm, confident, and optimistic in nature, because your attitude, directly affects your unit's attitude.

Third, set an example of performance. Show your unit that you are willing to do the same things that you ask of them. Share danger and hardship with your unit to demonstrate your willingness to assume your share of difficulties. All of these steps will help you acquire the respect, trust, and confidence of your unit.

6. Insure the Task Is Understood, Supervised, and Accomplished

The sixth principle, “Insure the task is understood, **supervised**, and accomplished,” is necessary in the exercise of command. You cannot expect your unit to perform if they do not know what is expected of them. This principle is applied in two ways communication and supervision.

A leader must communicate with subordinates in a clear and **concise** manner. Talk on a level that your subordinates will be sure to understand. Do not talk down to them but if you talk at too high a level, they will not understand you. If you talk at a level too low, you will insult their intelligence. Communication should always be two-way, thus giving your unit members a chance to ask questions and seek advice.

Supervision is also essential, for without supervision you cannot be sure that your orders will be properly executed. Under-supervision will

possibly result in the incompleteness or inaccuracy of a task. On the other hand, over-supervision hurts initiative and is viewed as harassment. Therefore, take thought and care in your supervision.



7. Training Your Subordinates as a Team

“Training your subordinates as a team” is the seventh principle of leadership. It is the combination of all the unit members’ efforts that makes a unit successful. Teamwork applies to cadets both in and out of school. Even the most difficult tasks become easier to accomplish when teamwork is evident. Teamwork is a give-and-take situation in which the individuals give their best to the unit; and in turn, the unit provides individuals with security, recognition, and a sense of accomplishment.

As a leader, it is your responsibility to develop teamwork. To do this, you must train, challenge, test, correct, and encourage your entire unit. The hard work strengthens a unit, reduces problems, and is one of the best ways to develop teamwork, morale, and esprit de corps. To further develop teamwork emphasize the “buddy system” and encourage unit participation in recreational and school events.

8. Make Sound and Timely Decisions

The eighth principle of leadership is “Make sound and timely decisions.” Situations frequently call for quick and strong decision making. A leader must be able to rapidly evaluate a situation and make an accurate decision based on that evaluation. Hesitation and indecisiveness might not only cause the unit to fail in the accomplishment of a task, but also could lead to subordinates losing confidence. Loss of confidence, in turn, creates confusion and hesitation in a unit.

If you make a decision and discover that it is the wrong one, do not blame it on others or ignore it. Immediate correction of your mistake will help you to retain the respect of your unit. People do not respect leaders who bluff their way through poor decisions.

There are several steps that can be taken to develop this principle. Plan for situations that are foreseen and announce your decisions in time to allow your subordinates to be prepared. Also, consider the advice and suggestions of your subordinates whenever possible before making a decision. Their ideas are often valuable and can be effectively applied. Finally, consider the effects of your decisions on the members of your unit: How did your decision affect your unit? Was it a good decision? How would you revise your decision under a similar situation?

9. Develop a Sense of Responsibility among Your Subordinates

“Ability is important, but the ability to discover ability in others and then help them develop it is the true test of leadership.” - L. Rader.

This concept brings us to the ninth principle of leadership, “Develop a sense of responsibility among your subordinates.” Mutual respect and confidence can be developed between a leader and a subordinate by assigning tasks and delegating authority. When delegating authority, you should show your faith in your unit members to increase their desire for greater responsibility.

Recognize your subordinates’ accomplishments when they demonstrate responsibility, resourcefulness, and initiative. Let your subordinates know that honest errors will NOT result in punishment. Instead, use their mistakes for critique and constructive guidance. Always be sure to avoid public criticism or condemnation when correcting the errors of your subordinates. Corrections should be done privately, and never in the presence of personnel whom they command or lead.

10. Employ Your Command in Accordance with Its Capabilities

The tenth principle of leadership is “Employ your command in accordance with its capabilities.” Your unit cannot complete a task for which it has not been trained. Failure of such a task causes a loss of morale and self-esteem within the unit. It is wrong to expect five cadets to do a job that would take ten. You also would not send a medical unit to repair a truck. In both cases, the task is not within the unit's capabilities. If you volunteer your unit for impossible tasks, your unit will think that you are seeking personal glory, rather than looking out for their welfare.

A leader should not only avoid assigning tasks that are beyond the unit's capabilities, but should also avoid tasks that do not challenge the unit. Sending ten cadets to do the job of five is a ridiculous waste of manpower and will result in boredom and dissatisfaction within your unit.

11. Seek Responsibility and Take Responsibility for Your Actions

Finally, the eleventh leadership principle is “Seek responsibility and take responsibility for your actions.” You must actively seek out challenging assignments to develop professionally. Seeking responsibility also means that you must take responsibility for all your actions. This means that you are responsible for all that your unit does or fails to do. Never remove or demote a subordinate for a failure that is a result of your own mistake. The great flyer Antoine de Saint-Exupery said, “A chief is a man who assumes responsibility. He says, ‘I was beaten,’ not ‘My men were beaten.’” This is true of an MCJROTC cadet leader. Regardless of the actions of your subordinates, the responsibility for decisions and their application falls on you.

As a leader, you must always issue orders under your own name. Do not issue orders under your commander’s name. In the absence of orders, take initiative to perform the actions your seniors would direct you to perform if they were present. Remember, in such cases, “doctrine” is there to guide you in the absence of instructions. “Doctrine” is the rules and regulations, as well as what you have been taught. It allows you to exercise initiative.

Conclusion

The 11 leadership principles are an intrinsic part of effective leadership. As a potential leader, you must know yourself and continually seek self-improvement. You must be both technically and tactically proficient, so that you can accomplish any task. You must know your subordinates, look out for their welfare, and keep them informed at all times. Insure that every task is understood, supervised, and accomplished by your unit as a team. Be sure to set an example in physical appearance, personal conduct, and performance for your unit.

Always make sound and timely decisions after evaluating a situation and then employ your command in accordance with your unit's capabilities. Develop responsibility among your subordinates and also seek and take responsibility for your own actions.

The implementation of these principles will strengthen you as a leader and increase the respect with which your seniors and subordinates will view you. The eleven leadership principles are the sound basis on which to build successful leadership. ❖

Authority, Responsibility, and Accountability

PURPOSE

This lesson explains how authority, responsibility, and accountability play a key role in successful leadership.

Introduction

Do you believe you are a good follower or team member? Being a good follower is one of the first steps to becoming a good leader. To be successful at both, you must know your individual responsibilities and cultivate your self-reliance and self-image. If you know how to apply the traits of **followership**, then the role that you play in a team will be more rewarding and challenging.

You will have many opportunities throughout MCJROTC to develop your leadership skills and abilities, be a follower and a team member, and lead a team, squad, or higher. Let's look at how authority, accountability, and responsibility all play a role in leadership and if developed properly, produce successful leaders.

Authority

Authority is the legitimate power of a leader to direct individuals to take action within the scope of the leader's position. All leaders regardless of rank are responsible to exercise their authority to accomplish the mission. Equally important; however, is the idea that when an individual is given responsibility for a mission, the individual must also be given the degree of authority necessary to carry it out.

Responsibility

Responsibility is the obligation to act or to do a task that one must answer for, either to team members or to supervisors. Responsibility includes, but is not limited to assigned tasks, equipment, cadets, money, morale, and leadership. Responsibility is an integral part of a leader's authority. All cadets are expected to apply proper influence upon their fellow cadets by setting examples of obedience, courage, zeal, and neatness.

Accountability

Accountability is the reckoning, when leaders must answer for their actions and accept the consequences, good or bad. Accountability is the very cornerstone of leadership. If individuals in leadership positions were not accountable, the structure on which the MCJROTC is founded would be weakened and eventually disintegrate.

Accountability establishes reasons, motives, and importance for actions in the eyes of your team leaders and fellow cadets. Accountability is the final ingredient to establish one's credibility. Plainly speaking, the accountable leader is saying, "The buck stops here!" It is important to remember that accountability results in rewards for good performance, as well as punishment for poor performance.

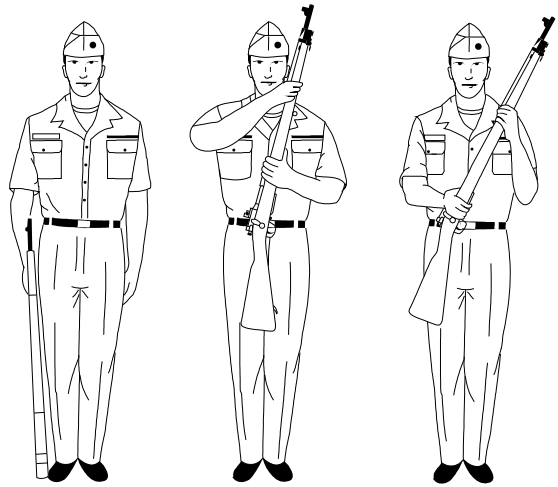
Developing Individuals

How are authority, responsibility, and accountability developed in individuals? Use the following guidelines:

- Be patient with team members, and tolerate honest mistakes so that initiative may be developed and valuable lessons learned.
- Provide clear, well-thought out directions to team members that convey intentions and provide freedom of action.
- Do not micro-manage.
- Let your team know that you are willing to help, but are not willing to do their jobs for them.
- Hold individuals accountable for their actions at all times.
- Develop loyalty by establishing and nurturing a climate of trust and confidence.
- Reward and recognize good work and effort in such a way as to motivate others.
- Always view successes in terms of unit accomplishment and encourage teamwork and identity with teams, squad, and platoon.
- Maintain the integrity of your unit when assigning tasks or establishing goals.
- Anticipate the needs of your fellow cadets and ensure they have confidence in your ability to take care of them.

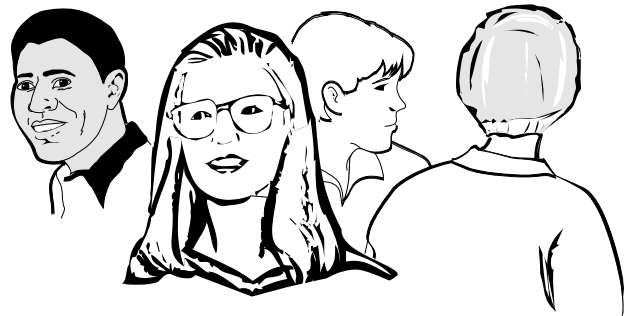
R = A + A

There is an inherent relationship between responsibility, authority, and accountability (Responsibility = Authority + Accountability). Each cadet has responsibilities within MCJROTC. As you progress, your responsibilities will increase. You will earn positions of authority, which means you will be accountable for those positions. This is the normal progression in MCJROTC.



Scenarios

Now let's look at the following scenarios and see how authority, responsibility, and accountability play a role in leadership positions within MCJROTC.



Scenario 1

You are the platoon sergeant for your platoon. After school, you see a fellow cadet in a store who is wearing his uniform improperly. What action should you take? What authority do you have?

Scenario 2

You are a squad leader and you notice that one of your team members is having trouble executing basic drill movements. The rest of your team has mastered the movements and are ready

to move on to something else. What action should you take? What responsibility do you have?

Scenario 3

You are a member of a drill team that will be competing in a drill competition all day Saturday. However, your best friend just got two tickets to a sold out concert that you want to attend. What action should you take? How does accountability apply to this scenario?

Conclusion

Through the scenarios, you have seen how successful leaders use responsibility, accountability, and authority to accomplish their missions. These three ingredients are essential to successful leadership and a successful MCJROTC program. A leader who exhibits responsibility, utilizes authority, and maintains accountability will help ensure continued success in the MCJROTC.❖

The Role of the NCO

PURPOSE

This lesson explains the role of the Non-Commissioned Officer for the Marine Corps and the MCJROTC.

Introduction

What would the US Marine Corps be like without the noncommissioned officer? It would be a group lacking in cohesiveness, discipline, and order. It is difficult to think of an elite and versatile force in such a manner. The NCO is the glue that holds the Marines together. In order to maintain the dignity of command there must be an intermediate between the officer and the troops, a “go between.” This is the NCO’s responsibility. The Marine NCO is the catalyst, the backbone of the Corps.

Origins of the NCO

The concept of noncommissioned officers is not a product of modern military organization. It is as old as the act of war itself. For example, there is evidence to suggest that a form of NCO existed in the forces of Moses during the seventh century B.C. During the years of Roman dominance, the centurion commanded the smallest tactical unit in the Roman army. The centurion’s position is comparable to an NCO’s in that they communicated commands from the senior leaders to the individual units.

After the fall of the Roman Empire, there were no organized armies until the fourteenth

century. The condottiere (kon’ dot tye’ re) a group of French, Swiss, and Italian mercenaries, were the first example of a modern military organization. It was in these units that the ranks “Sergeant” and “Corporal” were first utilized. The rank of sergeant is the older of the two, dating from c. 1425.

The American noncommissioned officer dates back to the American Revolution. Baron von Steuben, a Prussian adviser to the Americans, was responsible for molding the Americans into a professional army. He placed great importance on the role of the NCO. On the topic of choosing NCOs, Baron von Steuben stated, “The order and discipline of a regiment depends so much on their behavior, that too much care cannot be taken....” The Marine Corps shares von Steuben’s opinion of the importance of the NCO.


The Purpose of NCOs

Noncommissioned officers are responsible for assisting and advising officers in carrying out their duties. They must also be prepared to assume the duties and the responsibilities of the officer when absent. There is no clear-cut division between officer and NCO responsibilities and duties. There are several reasons for the existence of Marine NCOs. In the following paragraphs, the five main purposes for Marine NCOs will be outlined.

Decentralization of command authority is a key element of the NCOs’ jobs. This means that the authority of the commanding officer is entrusted with the NCOs. They conduct the daily business of the Marine Corps within established orders, directives, and policies. The NCO ensures

that the officer's commands are carried out and put into effect.

Five Purposes of NCOs

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- 1. Decentralize Authority**
 - 2. Provide links between commanders and enlisted men**
 - 3. Provide a senior enlisted advisor for commander**
 - 4. Afford avenues for advancement**
 - 5. Recognize and reward outstanding skills**

Think of the platoon level in your organization. First, the platoon commander confers with superiors to obtain general guidance on what needs to be accomplished. After analyzing the situation, the platoon commander decides on a plan of action. The NCOs then use the authority invested in them to enforce the policies, orders, and directives set by the platoon commander. The platoon sergeant implements the platoon commander's ideas, using his junior NCOs to supervise different tasks that need to be accomplished.

Perhaps the most important duty that the NCO performs is to act as a link between commanders and their subordinates. This duty applies toward all officers, not just commanders. For example, the officer concentrates on collective training that will enable the unit to accomplish the task. The NCO concentrates on individual and

team training that develops the capability to accomplish the mission. By working through their NCOs, officers are able to incorporate their ideas, policies, and directives. As explained in the previous paragraph, the officer analyzes the current situation, develops a plan of action, and incorporates policies. The NCO must communicate with the enlisted personnel. The officer creates conditions and makes time and other resources available. The NCO gets the job done.

In addition to implementing the officer's policies, the NCO must act as an adviser to the commander. These positions are held by senior enlisted personnel -- a platoon sergeant at the platoon level, a first sergeant at the company level, and a sergeant major at the battalion level. These individuals must call on their experience in the Corps to aid the officer in the decision making process. Good officers will value the advice of the noncommissioned officers under their command. This relationship is particularly valuable to the NCO. It affords the NCO the opportunity to influence the way in which the Corps is operated. This privilege should never be abused or neglected.

Finally, the NCO ranks provide enlisted personnel with the opportunity for advancement and reward. Through hard work, every Marine can advance, proving to others that the avenue for advancement and reward does exist. Enlisted Marines may realize their full potential as leaders. The NCO ranks also recognize and reward enlisted personnel for outstanding technical and military skills. This is evident in the noncommissioned officer's role as adviser to the commander. The adviser role is one of honor, a reward for outstanding service as a Marine.

Creed of the NCO

“I am an NCO dedicated to training new Marines and influencing the old. I am forever conscious of each Marine under my charge, and by example will inspire him to the highest standards possible. I will strive to be patient, understanding, just, and firm. I will commend the deserving and encourage the wayward.

“I will never forget that I am responsible to my Commanding Officer for the morale, discipline, and efficiency of my men. Their performance will reflect an image of me.”

Creed of the Staff NCO

“I am a Staff Noncommissioned Officer in the United States Marine Corps. As such, I am a member of the most unique group of professional military practitioners in the world. I am bound by duty to God, Country, and my fellow Marines to execute the demands of my position to and beyond what I believe to be the limits of my capabilities.

“I realize I am the mainstay of Marine Corps discipline, and I carry myself with military grace, unbowed by the weight of command, unflinching in the execution lawful orders, and unswerving in my dedication to the most complete success of my assigned mission.

“Both my professional and personal demeanor shall be such that I may take pride if my juniors emulate me, and knowing perfection to lie beyond the grasp of any mortal hand, I shall yet strive to attain perfection that I may ever be aware of my needs and capabilities to improve myself. I shall be fair in my personal relations, just in the enforcement of discipline, true to myself and my fellow Marines, and equitable in my dealing with every man.”

Relations between Officers and Enlisted Marines

Marines are involved on a daily basis in officer/enlisted relationships. Marine Corps standards of behavior were developed to promote good order, discipline, and mutual respect between Marines of different ranks.

Situations that promote familiarity or undue informality among Marines of different grades should be avoided. For example, if you were a Marine lieutenant it would be improper to associate on a social basis with the enlisted personnel under your command.

As a MCJROTC cadet, you should follow these rules of behavior in accordance with the situation. At MCJROTC functions and in the classroom, respect for rank should be present. As students, it is likely that you will associate with fellow cadets outside of MCJROTC activities. This is acceptable.

Major General Lejeune’s Precepts

The following precepts as expressed by Major General John A. Lejeune, the 13th Commandant, appeared in the Marine Corps Manual, 1921 Edition. Since that time, they have defined the relationship that exists between Marine officers and the enlisted.



Comradeship and Brotherhood

The World War (WWI) wrought a great change in the relations between officers and enlisted men in the military services. A spirit of comradeship and brotherhood in arms came into being in the training camps and on the battlefields. This spirit is too fine a thing to be allowed to die. It must be fostered and kept alive and made the moving force in all Marine Corps organizations.

Teacher and Scholar

The relation between officers and enlisted men should in no sense be that of superior and inferior nor that of master and servant, but rather that of teacher and scholar. In fact, it should partake of the nature of the relation between father and son, to the extent that officers, especially commanding officers, are responsible for the physical, mental, and moral welfare, as well as the discipline and military training of the young men under their command who are serving the nation in the Marine Corps.

Physical, Moral, and Mental Improvement

The realization of this responsibility on the part of officers is vital to the well-being of the Marine Corps. It is especially so, for the reason that so large a proportion of the men enlisting are under twenty-one years of age. These men are in the formative period of their lives, and officers owe it to them, to their parents, and to the nation, that when discharged from the services they should be far better men physically, mentally, and morally than they were when they enlisted.

Train and Cultivate Bodies, Minds, and Spirits.

To accomplish this task successfully, a constant effort must be made by all officers to fill each day with useful and interesting instruction

and wholesome entertainment for the men. This effort must be intelligent and not perfunctory, the object being not only to do away with idleness, but to train and cultivate the bodies, the minds, and the spirit of our men.

Love of Corps and Country

It will be necessary for officers not only to devote their close attention to the many questions affecting the comfort, health, military training, and discipline of the men under their command, but also to do the following:

- Actively promote athletics and to endeavor to enlist the interest of their team in building up and maintaining their bodies in the finest physical condition.
- Encourage them to enroll in the Marine Corps Institute and to keep up their studies after enrollment, and
- Make every effort by means of historical, educational and patriotic address to cultivate in their hearts a deep abiding love of the Corps and country."

Leadership

Finally, it must be kept in mind that the American soldier responds quickly and readily to the exhibition of qualities of leadership on the part of his officers. Some of these qualities are industry, energy, initiative, determination, enthusiasm, firmness, kindness, justness, self-control, unselfishness, honor, and courage. Every officer should endeavor by all means in his power to make himself the possessor of these qualities and thereby to fit himself to be a real leader of men.

Major General Lejeune did not mean for these words to be read only by commanders. He intended that they apply to all officers and

noncommissioned officers alike. They should be understood and put into use on a daily basis. Likewise, your unit, as a whole, and the cadets individually, can only benefit from such a practice.

Special Trust and Confidence

The United States Marine Corps is demanding of its noncommissioned officers. As you have already learned, the Marine NCOs are known as the backbone of the Corps. Their duties are numerous and they must often perform them under great pressure and hardship. They must maintain a level of expertise and be able to communicate with all personnel. At any one moment, the noncommissioned officer could be called upon to lead Marines or serve as an adviser to the commander. Despite the difficulty of these duties, the Marine Corps expects them to be performed at the highest levels attainable.

In return for their diligence, Marine NCOs enjoy a distinct and unequalled honor. They are given the special trust and confidence of the United States Marine Corps. These words can be found on the Marine NCO's certificate of appointment, a document that bears the Marine Corps seal. The NCO's certificates are signed by their Commanding Officer and the SNCO's certificates are signed by the Commandant of the Marine Corps. The NCO's certificate is the foundation of the noncommissioned officer's status, rank, and authority.

An individual reaching the NCO ranks should be proud of such an achievement. On the foundation of this special trust and confidence, NCOs are given privileges. These privileges do not come without a price. The price is greater

responsibility and the obligation to perform their duties to the absolute best of their abilities. The Marine NCOs have a tough road to follow. However, they can find comfort in the tradition set by the great Marine NCOs who led the way; namely, Quick, Daly, Basilone, and Hulbert.

Sergeant Major John Quick

Sergeant Major Quick was a quiet man. He won the Medal of Honor in Cuba in 1898 and the Distinguished Service Cross in WW I, yet was humble concerning his accomplishments. He rose to sergeant in his first enlistment, an extraordinary feat in those days, but to Sergeant Quick it was just part of the job. For this man, outstanding performance was routine, just part of the business and his business was being a Marine. The relations Sergeant Quick enjoyed with all men were excellent. He was equally admired and respected by his officers and by his troops, for they all knew that he had an interest in them, and in their common task, the Marine Corps.

War correspondent Stephen Crane, author of *The Red Badge of Courage*, watched Sergeant Quick as Quick stood exposed to enemy gunners on a hilltop in Cuba. He calmly signaled naval gunfire corrections with his back to the enemy while under gunfire. Crane said of the sergeant, "He was the embodiment of tranquility...absorbed only in the business at hand ... he was magnificent." This calm man only spoke when he had something worth saying, something of importance to the Marine Corps or to the person addressed. His control of his emotions, quiet courage, and confidence in the Marine Corps were noted repeatedly by those with whom he served.



Sergeant Major John Quick

Sergeant Quick earned such commendations from his contemporaries and commanders by practicing his business of leadership in such a way as to foster excellent relations with those whom he came in contact. He was an exceptional leader because he listened to others. He appreciated their efforts and did not consider himself all-important. Sergeant Quick employed his human relations skills to build confidence, to furnish inspiration, and to maintain morale. In so doing, he led his Marines to serve as well as he did.

Sergeant Major Dan Daly

Sergeant Daly retired in 1920 with the rank of Sergeant Major, after more than twenty years of highly distinguished service with the Marine Corps. Sergeant Daly had the distinction of being one of only three men in history who was awarded two Congressional Medals of Honor. He also won the Distinguished Service Cross. As a private in China and as a gunnery sergeant in Haiti, he demonstrated his bravery and dedication.

As a first sergeant in Germany, he led an assault on German machine gun nests with the cry, "Come on... do you want to live forever?"

Brave as he was, Sergeant Daly had much more than reckless courage in combat, for he was noted as one of the most efficient and respected noncommissioned officers in the Marine Corps. He was a tough disciplinarian, but was popular and respected. He was fair-minded and worked constantly to protect the rights and promote the welfare of those who served under him. He was a real leader who fulfilled his mission by knowing his men, caring for them, and causing them to work together. When offered an officer's commission, Daly said, "Any officer can get by on his sergeants. To be a sergeant, you have to know your stuff. I'd rather be an outstanding sergeant than just another officer." Sergeant Major Daly used his knowledge to apply the principles of leadership in such a manner as to become one of the Corps' finest leaders.

Gunnery Sergeant John Basilone

Sergeant "Manila John" Basilone was the first enlisted Marine in World War II to win the Congressional Medal of Honor. He first served as an Army private in the Philippines before joining the Marines. At Guadalcanal, the twenty-five-year-old Sergeant Basilone proved his character.

One day, after heavy bombardment from the Japanese, Basilone counterattacked with his machine gun. At one point, he instructed Marines to push aside the piled up bodies to clear his field of fire. At another position, the Japanese penetrated the Marine lines. Sergeant Basilone lugged up another machine gun on his back and fired on the enemy to drive them off. When the resupply line was cut off, he fought his way through the Japanese to bring up more ammunition. When Colonel "Chesty" Puller

recommended him for the Medal of Honor, Puller said that Basilone had “contributed materially to the defeat and virtually the annihilation of a Japanese regiment.”

After the defeat of the Japanese at Guadalcanal, he returned to America to campaign in War Bond Drives. Although serving admirably in this position, he grew tired of the daily routine. Considering himself a fighting Marine, he requested transfer back to the Pacific. His request granted, he returned in time for the invasion of Iwo Jima. At Iwo Jima, he was killed after destroying a blockhouse and guiding a tank through a minefield. Gunnery Sergeant John Basilone was awarded the Navy Cross posthumously for his actions. “Manila John” Basilone’s efforts are the epitome of courage and devotion to duty that characterize Marine NCOs.



Sergeant Major Henry Hulbert

(Story provided by Leatherneck Magazine, January 1999, From Exile to Hero, Henry Hulbert, by Maj Allan C. Bevilacqua, USMC (Ret))

In the cold, drizzling pre-dawn dark of Oct. 4, 1918, the 5th Marines passed through the ranks of its brothers in the 6th Marines to continue the attack against the key German strong point of

Blanc Mont Ridge in the Champagne country of France. It was a gloomy, brooding place, littered with the wreckage of the previous day’s fighting, American, French and German dead all intermingled. A tall Texas Marine in Major George Hamilton’s 1st Battalion, Lieutenant John W. Thomason, thought it an evil place, made for calamities. Private Elton Mackin, one of Hamilton’s battalion runners--the most dangerous job a Marine could have--remembered that the battalion went into action that day at T/O strength of slightly more than 1,000.

The Germans resisted furiously, desperate to prevent the collapse of their entire front. If Blanc Mont Ridge fell, the dominant feature of the entire region would be lost, and the Meuse River crossing would be wide open to the Americans. With Blanc Mont Ridge gone, the bastion of the Hindenburg Line would be irretrievably ruptured. The shell-ravaged white chalk slopes of the ridge became the scene of some of the most savage fighting of the war. For more than a week Marines fought with rifles, bayonets, hand grenades, knives and bare fists, prying tenacious German infantry from a maze of trenches and bunkers with names like the Essen Trench, the Kriemhilde Stellung and the Essen Hook.

When it was finally over, when all objectives had been secured, the 134 remaining members of 1st Bn, 5th Marines filed wearily down from the torn and blasted ridge. Among those they left behind was an unlikely 51-year-old platoon leader, a man whose courage and leadership were an inspiration to all who knew him. Yet, for all that, he was a man

whose life had been spent erasing a dark secret of shame and disgrace. His story began years before.

He was born Henry Lewis Hulbert on Jan. 12, 1867, in Kingston-Upon-Hull, Yorkshire, England. The first child of a prosperous merchant family, he was joined by a brother and three sisters. None of the children of Henry Ernest Hulbert and Frances (Gamble) Hulbert knew the want and deprivation that was the lot of so many children born into the industrial cities of the mid-19th century. Theirs was a childhood, if not of luxury, then certainly of abundance, an abundance that included a far better than average education.

For young Henry this meant matriculation at the prestigious and exclusive Felsted School in Essex, a school that traces its origins to 1564. At the age of 13, already showing signs of the tall, rangy, handsome young man he would become, Henry Lewis Hulbert found himself immersed in the demanding rigors of a classical education in mathematics, science, Latin, Greek and English literature. There was a purpose to all of this, for even at an early age the young Yorkshireman had determined upon a career in Britain's Colonial Civil Service. In 1884, not yet 18 years old, Henry Lewis Hulbert received his first appointment-clerk and storekeeper-in the Civil Service of the Malay State of Perak, today a part of the country of Malaysia.

The drive for excellence that was to mark the rest of his life manifested itself with superior performance that soon caught the eyes of his supervisors. Among

those impressed was Robert Douglas Hewett, state auditor for Perak and right-hand man of the British Resident (governor) Frank Sweattenham. Soon young Hulbert was exercising authority and responsibility far beyond his years and exercising it exceedingly well. His records show such diverse assignments as Inspector of Public Works in Krian, District Engineer for Kuala Kangsar, Harbor Master for the port of Matang and District Magistrate for Kinta District.

He also acquired a sweetheart, Anne Rose Hewett, his mentor's sister, who had been born in Bombay, India. In June of 1888, with the approval and best wishes of the influential Hewett family, the two were married. A year later the young couple welcomed the arrival of a daughter, Sydney. It was, to all appearances, a perfect family.

Henry Lewis Hulbert's career was taking off. His own exceptional abilities and his marriage into a powerful family guaranteed his eventual rise to the top. Admired and respected by his peers and favored by his superiors, he was a man marked for success. Then, in the early summer of 1897, everything crashed down around him. Henry Lewis Hulbert had fallen deeply in love with his wife's younger sister, visiting from England. It had begun secretly two years earlier during a previous visit. Drawn irresistibly toward each other, they had become lovers. Then they were discovered, and the fury of the Hewett family descended like an executioner's axe.

The sister-in-law was immediately put aboard a ship bound for England,

only to die tragically in a shipwreck during a storm on the homeward voyage. For Henry Lewis Hulbert there was banishment. He was sent packing with scarcely more than the clothes on his back, told to leave the Malay States and never return. A discreet and very quiet divorce followed.

Where does a man go when he flees disgrace and shame? For Henry Lewis Hulbert it was Skagway, jumping off point for Chilkoot Pass and the Klondike gold fields. The venture didn't pan out. By the following spring, he had wandered to San Francisco. With war with Spain looming, Henry Lewis Hulbert enlisted in the Marine Corps on March 28, 1898, a 31-year-old private with a ruined life behind him and skimpy prospects before him. It is unlikely that he thought of it in such dramatic terms, but the moment he had spent his life waiting for had arrived. The exiled magistrate and the United States Marine Corps were made for each other.

Boot camp at Mare Island, Calif., was followed by assignment to the Marine Guard, USS *Philadelphia* (C-4) and the beginning of a remarkable record as a United States Marine. Barely more than a year after his enlistment, on April 1, 1899, during a combined British-American expedition in Samoa, Henry Lewis Hulbert was awarded the Medal of Honor for extraordinary heroism. When the landing force of British and American Marines and seamen was ambushed by a numerically superior rebel force, Private Hulbert, despite being wounded himself, conducted a one-man delaying action that enabled the landing force to withdraw to

a defensible position covered by the guns of the warships offshore. Under fire from three sides, he stood his ground, refusing to withdraw until the main body had established a new defensive perimeter. Single-handedly he held off the attackers, while at the same time he protected two mortally wounded officers, Lieutenant Monaghan, USN and Lt Freeman, RN. In his official report of the action, Lt Constantine M. Perkins, commander of *Philadelphia's* Marine Guard, wrote of Pvt Hulbert: "His conduct throughout was worthy of all honor and praise."

When he left USS *Philadelphia* in 1902, Hulbert wore the chevrons of a sergeant. The years that followed saw his steady rise through the enlisted ranks. Serving in a succession of billets ashore and afloat that were representative of the era, he never missed an award of the Marine Corps Good Conduct Medal and never fired less than Expert Rifleman in his regular service rifle requalification. His conduct and proficiency marks were uniformly the highest that could be awarded, and his service records contain numerous commendations by reporting seniors. He was also gaining a reputation as a totally dependable noncommissioned officer, whose advice was sought by seniors and subordinates alike. A congenial and friendly man, whose knowledge and experience covered an array of subjects, and who delighted in good company and good conversation, he was described by a fellow Marine as having "the bearing and manners of a fine gentleman and the complete and all-embracing courtesy of an earlier generation." Yet even those who knew

him best never heard him speak of his life before joining the Marine Corps.

By 1917 Hulbert had attained the grade of sergeant major, the Marine Corps' senior NCO of that grade, and he served on the personal staff of Major General Commandant George Barnett. He also had remarried, and he and his wife, Victoria, had settled into a modest house in Riverdale, Md., eventually to be joined by an infant daughter, Leila Lilian Hulbert. It was also in 1917, shortly before America's entry into World War I, that Hulbert appeared before an examining board to determine his fitness for appointment to the newly established grade of Marine gunner. On March 24, 1917, with the enthusiastic recommendation of the president of the examining board, Brigadier General John A. Lejeune, Henry Lewis Hulbert became the first Marine ever to wear the bursting bomb grade insignia of a Marine gunner.

Considered too old for combat at the age of 50, Gunner Hulbert nonetheless pressed to be among those sent to France. He could have remained safe and secure in his position in the office of the Major General Commandant, returning home each evening to his wife and daughter. Who would have expected a man of his years to go off to war? He did, and that was what was important. There was a war, and the old war horse could not sit idly by while other Marines fought it. Finally winning the approval of Gen Barnett, with whom he had a long and close association, Hulbert, again the Marine Corps' senior officer of his grade, sailed for France aboard the old transport

Chaumont with the 5th Marines in July 1917.

In France they tried to give him a safe job out of the way at regimental headquarters, but they could not keep him there. At every opportunity--and he created plenty of opportunities--he found his way up to the front lines and indulged himself in a bit of free-lance fighting. Finally, the powers that be gave in to the inevitable. Gunner Hulbert, 51 years old, was assigned as a platoon leader with the 66th Company (later C Co), 1st Bn, 5th Marines. It did not take the enemy long to learn he was there.

Wounded in his regiment's first major engagement, at Belleau Wood on June 6, 1918, Gunner Hulbert was twice cited in official orders for acts of bravery. On one occasion, armed only with a rifle, he single-handedly attacked German machine-gun positions and, as the citation read, "left seven of the enemy dead and put the remainder to flight." The second citation commended him for continuing to lead his platoon in attacks that routed the defenders of a series of strong points despite being painfully wounded himself.

The platoon leader who was old enough to be the father of the men he led, whose stamina and endurance were the envy of men half his age, was not quite finished. A third act of heroism led him to be decorated with the Distinguished Service Cross, one of the first Marines to be so recognized. In his official report of the monthlong fighting in Belleau Wood, Army MajGen Omar L. Bundy, commanding general of the 2d Division, United States Regular, in which

the 5th Marines served as part of the famed Marine Brigade, singled out Hulbert, “for his extraordinary heroism in leading attacks against enemy positions on June 6th.” MajGen Bundy concluded, “No one could have rendered more valuable service than Gunner Hulbert.”

Gen Bundy was not alone in his praise. Captain George K. Shuler, USMC wrote, “I should be most glad to have Gunner Hulbert under me in any capacity, and should he through good fortune be promoted over me I should be most happy to serve under his command.” Lt W. T. Galliford, himself a winner of the Distinguished Service Cross, remarked, “If the Fifth Regiment goes over the top, I want to go with Mister Hulbert.” Gen John J. Pershing, commander of the American Expeditionary Force, personally recommended that Hulbert be directly commissioned as a captain.

Heroism under fire at Soissons, an action in which he was again wounded, saw Gunner Hulbert cited for bravery yet again, commissioned a second lieutenant and immediately promoted to first lieutenant. But the trail ahead of him was growing short. At Blanc Mont Ridge on Oct. 4, 1918, the Second Division’s bloodiest single day of the war, it ended.

Approved by the Secretary of the Navy for promotion to the grade of captain, Henry Lewis Hulbert, up front as usual, was struck down by an unknown German machine-gunner. John W. Thomason saw him fall and noted the peaceful look upon his face. He was posthumously awarded the Navy Cross

and cited for bravery a fourth time. The French government bestowed the Croix de Guerre Order of the Army upon this “most gallant soldier.” Britannia’s son, who gave his life for his adopted land, rests today in Virginia’s Arlington National Cemetery. His name is among those inscribed on the Peace Cross at Bladensburg, Md., erected in 1919 to honor the memory of the men from Prince George’s County who died in the Great War.

However, the story of Henry Lewis Hulbert did not end with his death in France. On June 28, 1919, Victoria C. Hulbert, the widow of this inspirational Marine, christened the destroyer USS *Henry L. Hulbert* (DD-342) when it was launched at Norfolk, Va. Commissioned and put into service in 1920, *Hulbert* served continually on the Asiatic Station until 1929 when she returned to American waters, remaining there until she was decommissioned in 1934. Recalled to service in 1940, *Hulbert* was assigned to the Pacific Fleet and on Dec. 7, 1941, was moored at Berth D-3, Submarine Base, Pearl Harbor, territory of Hawaii. While *Hulbert’s* whaleboats rescued seamen from stricken ships along Battleship Row, her .50-caliber antiaircraft battery brought down a Japanese torpedo bomber and damaged two others. The ship continued to serve in the Central and North Pacific until she was taken to Philadelphia and decommissioned for the last time in November 1945. In 1946, USS *Henry L. Hulbert* was stricken from the Navy List and sold for scrap.

Saved from the scrap heap was the ship's bell. For more than 50 years that bell, along with others of its kind, mementos of long-gone ships of the line, collected dust in a warehouse at the Washington Navy Yard. Then, in July of 1998, thanks to the efforts of the Medal of Honor Society, the ship's bell of USS *Henry L. Hulbert* was rededicated at The Basic School's Infantry Officer Course at Quantico, Va. On the quarterdeck of Mitchell Hall, along with the decorations won by her ship's namesake, the bell stands as a reminder of the exemplary qualities of a magnificent Marine. What better inspiration for officers about to assume one of the Marine Corps' most demanding duties-infantry platoon leader-than a man whose dedication to duty and devotion to the Marine Corps continue to serve as an example years after his death on the battlefield?

Did Henry Lewis Hulbert find redemption? Did he regain his lost honor? You be the judge.

Author's note: Special thanks for assistance in the preparation of this article are due to Mary C. Leitch of Immingham, Lincolnshire, England. Without her detailed and exhaustive research efforts, nothing would be known of the early life of Henry Lewis Hulbert. From all Marines, a hearty "Well done!"

The Cadet Non-Commissioned Officer

Throughout this lesson, the role of the Marine Noncommissioned Officer has been discussed in great detail. The history and purpose of NCOs were outlined. The relationship experienced by officers and enlisted Marines were then discussed, concentrating on Major General

Lejeune's definition. After which, the special trust and confidence of the Marine NCO's status was discussed. Finally, you learned about a few of the Marine NCOs who gave their all. You should now have a general understanding of the NCO's relationship with the Marine Corps.

At this point, you may be wondering how the Marine NCO's role relates to you as a MCJROTC cadet. Cadet noncommissioned officers, like their Marine counterparts, will be selected from those who demonstrate by their motivation, achievements, and proficiency in MCJROTC subjects that they have a desire to lead. During your advancement through the MCJROTC ranks, you will have to perform as a noncommissioned officer. The Marine Corps expects you to uphold the principles and traditions of the NCO ranks. The following paragraphs will define the NCO leadership positions that you can expect to hold as a cadet. Keep in mind that these positions, responsibilities, and duties are a reflection of those found in a Marine Corps infantry battalion. In these descriptions, you should assume the ideal situation as to available ranking NCOs and unit size.

Cadet Squad Leader

A cadet sergeant should hold this billet. A cadet squad's size will vary depending on the size of your MCJROTC unit. A cadet **squad leader** must personally interact with all of the members of the squad on a daily basis. Squad leaders concentrate on each subordinate to ensure that each is well-trained, highly motivated, ready, and functioning. Responsibility for standards of performance, training, and professional development of cadets in their squad comes with the territory. The squad leader's job is a tough one. The NCO will experience more contact with the individual cadet in this position than the NCO will ever again. Never again will an NCO have this

much influence on the individual development of cadets.

Cadet Platoon Guide

This position is senior to a squad leader and should be held by the senior cadet sergeant in the platoon. There is more to being the cadet **platoon guide** than occupying the senior position in the platoon formation. In this billet, the duties center on logistics and supply.

The cadet platoon guide is responsible for ensuring that the platoon is properly equipped. If your platoon was planning to participate in some sort of MCJROTC competition, the cadet platoon guide would be charged with securing the necessary items. The cadet platoon guide should constantly check the status of existing supplies to prevent shortages. This also applies to the condition of the platoon's uniforms and equipment. They must be kept informed on the platoon's supply and logistic status. The cadet platoon guide is next in line to the cadet **platoon sergeant** and must be ready to assume that position at all times.

Cadet Platoon Sergeant

The cadet platoon sergeant's position is the senior NCO position at the platoon level. A Marine rifle platoon has thirty-nine Marines, one platoon sergeant, and one platoon commander. However, a cadet platoon's size will vary with the size of your MCJROTC unit. A cadet staff sergeant fills this position.

The cadet platoon sergeant concentrates on the platoon's standards of performance and the development of junior NCOs and enlisted personnel. Working with the squad leaders and the platoon guide, the platoon sergeant implements the policies, directives, and programs of the platoon commander. The cadet platoon sergeant

also acts as an adviser to the platoon commander. In order for a platoon to function efficiently, the platoon commander and the cadet platoon sergeant must have a good professional relationship. The cadet platoon sergeant must be an effective communicator, able to translate the commander's wishes down through the ranks.

Cadet Company Gunnery Sergeant

This position is customarily filled by a cadet gunnery sergeant. The NCO filling this position belongs to the company headquarters and works directly for the company commander. The company gunnery sergeant's responsibilities are essentially an extension of the cadet platoon guide's duties. The cadet company "gunny" is the middle man between battalion supply and the platoon guides of each platoon in the company.

Cadet Company First Sergeant

This position is held by a cadet first sergeant, the senior noncommissioned officer in the company. It is primarily one of adviser to the company commander on all matters pertaining to the company. The senior NCO is tasked with the development of all the NCOs in the company and the enlisted in general. The company first sergeant is particularly concerned with the discipline and morale of the unit. A cadet first sergeant should foresee problems and keep the company commander informed of all situations. The company commander and the company first sergeant must work together as in the platoon commander-platoon sergeant relationship.

Cadet Battalion Sergeant Major

This position is held by a cadet sergeant major, the senior noncommissioned officer in the battalion. The two main duties that come with this position are to serve as an adviser to the battalion commander on all matters pertaining to the

battalion and a senior enlisted leader. As an adviser, the cadet sergeant major must use insight and experience to help the commander make decisions. It is the cadet sergeant major's duty to inform the commander of all problems discovered. Again, as with other NCO adviser roles, the cadet sergeant major must work closely with the battalion commander. As the senior enlisted man in the battalion, the cadet sergeant major is primarily concerned with the morale of the battalion and the professional development of all NCOs in the battalion. There is never a problem too big for a cadet sergeant major.

Responsibilities of the Cadet NCO

Though these positions differ in the type of duties performed, they do require on your part certain responsibilities. These responsibilities parallel those of the Marine NCO and are different only in degree and scope. By studying these responsibilities, you will have the knowledge to take on the duties of a noncommissioned officer.

- **Know your job** – You should know your job and the job of the next higher grade. You can do this by studying, observing, asking questions, and talking with cadets and instructors.
- **Carry out assignments promptly** – When told to do something, do it. You will be expected to carry out your duties with minimum supervision.
- **Use initiative and resourcefulness** – Don't wait to be told to do things that you know must be done. Use your imagination; don't be afraid of trying for fear of failing.
- **Keep your seniors informed** – Always make sure that your seniors know what you are doing.

- **Know cadet regulations and follow them** – Do not become lax or allow your subordinates to become lax in discipline or practice of customs and courtesies.
- **Lead and teach drill and ceremonies** – Study and know your drill. Learn to observe carefully and correct mistakes or imprecise execution of movements.
- **Maintain high standards of conduct** – Your actions in and out of uniform, on and off school, grounds reflect the MCJROTC and the Marine Corps. Set a good example and live up to the proud tradition that you have inherited.
- **Be a good instructor** – Learn and practice the techniques of military instruction. Assist, supervise, and correct subordinates in matters of dress, conduct, courtesy, and performance of duty.
- **Deal fairly and impartially with your subordinates** – Be consistent. Don't play favorites.
- **Be unselfish** – Put the welfare of your unit, your job, and the MCJROTC above personal interests.

Conclusion

Your responsibilities as a cadet NCO should not interfere with your educational development. Getting a good education is still your primary goal. The lamp of learning insignia should remind you of your purpose. The MCJROTC NCO ranks will give you the opportunity to gain leadership and management experience that others in your school will not receive for several years. Pursue this advantage; use it to excel as a student and as a citizen. ❖

The Role of an Officer

PURPOSE

This lesson explains the role of Officers for the Marine Corps and the MCJROTC.

Introduction

The role of an **officer** does not focus on specified duties or tasks. It also does not imply an occupation that requires one certain personality type. In fact, the officer is involved in numerous duties, responsibilities, and activities of great variety. The following quotation is from a speech given by John W. Week to the 1922 graduating class of West Point. It brings to attention the degree of variance involved in the officer's role:

An officer and a gentleman is a familiar term to everyone in and out of the service. Be sure you are both. You cannot be an officer and a gentleman unless you are just, humane, thoroughly trained; unless you have character, a high sense of honor and an unselfish devotion to duty. Be an example of such to everyone.

The officer's role is split into three types of commitment.

1. An officer is always a leader. This in itself is a huge **responsibility**. Even the best officers must devote a large portion of their daily labors to improving their leadership skills.
2. The officer must perform as the **decision maker**. This includes all matters that relate to their area of obligation.

3. Officers must be prepared to assume responsibility for the actions of subordinates under their area of obligation.

In order to give you a clear picture of the officer's role, these commitments are categorized. In real situations, these different commitments mesh with each other in the officer's daily routine. For example, a platoon leader would be responsible for the leadership decisions made in that platoon. Leadership, decision-making skills, and responsibility for one's actions are all part of this role. In the rest of this lesson, each of these commitments are explored. This lesson should improve your knowledge of the officer's role in your MCJROTC unit.



Leadership

As noted earlier, an officer is a leader first. The officer's first area of concern should always be whether the duty of leadership is being fulfilled. Leadership entails a number of factors. These factors are always changing depending on the people involved, the surroundings, and the situation. Despite these variables, certain areas should not change. Setting the example, sharing

hardships, and effectively dealing with subordinates should remain constant.

Setting the example is **critical** for the growth of a leadership foundation. This basic principle affects a unit in many distinct ways. Subordinates do not always understand or appreciate rules or **procedures**. Leaders, because of the nature of their positions, have a better knowledge of the overall picture. By setting the example, the leader communicates to subordinates the need for the rules and procedures. The leader gains respect and influence, because subordinates see that their leader follows the same set of guidelines. This has a positive effect on morale and the physical welfare of the unit. For example, under dangerous conditions, a leader who displays self-control and cool thinking will ease panic. This in return reduces danger.

Enduring the same conditions, regardless of the severity, is an essential part of an officer's leadership role. A story about Alexander the Great, one of the greatest military leaders of all time, illustrates this point.

On returning from India, Alexander and his army were in the process of crossing a large desert. The army was tired from the many battles they had fought and the immense distances they had traveled. As one could imagine, the adverse desert conditions were making the journey difficult. To make matters worse, the army was very low on supplies and water. When the water supply was nearly exhausted, one of his soldiers brought him a helmet full of water for him to drink. Alexander held it up in front of his men and poured the water on the ground. The men knew then that their leader understood their misery and was willing to share their hardships, thus they found strength to continue.

As a cadet officer, it is very doubtful that you will ever experience such extreme conditions,

but the principle is the same. Officers should eat the same food, live under the same conditions, and be willing to share the same hardships as their subordinates. An officer should enjoy **privileges**, but never at the expense of subordinates.

Every leader must be able to effectively deal with their subordinates. To accomplish this, you must have confidence in them. You must support them at every opportunity. Confidence means trust and you must be willing to give it if you expect to receive it. There should never be a need to talk down to subordinates. If you are fair, if you are sincerely concerned for their well-being, and if you respect them, they will respect you and your rank. An officer should know subordinates by name and have general background knowledge of each individual. This makes that person feel as if they make a difference. It also helps in solving personal problems that may occur. A good relationship with your subordinates promotes an efficient unit. Over familiarity will destroy that efficiency.

Decision Maker

Leadership is an officer's first concern, but it is not unique to the officer role. At every level in the Marine Corps chain of command, leadership is practiced. However, the officer's role as a decision maker is a distinctive one. The decision-making role is characterized by the officer's duty to plan and organize. These duties are interwoven. It is impossible to accomplish a mission without the use of both. Given a task, the officer must decide on a plan of action. Once a plan is established, an organization must be developed to accomplish the task. Flexibility and adaptability are key elements during the decision making process. Because of the changing factors and outside influences, an officer cannot afford to become a rigid thinker.

A good example of an officer's duty to plan and organize is that of a communication officer in the Fleet Marine Force. In planning for an operation, this officer must decide how to deploy communication personnel and assets. This procedure is outlined in detail in the communication annex of the operation order. During the actual operation, this officer must maintain a communication network through the chain of command, delegation of authority, and the issue of orders, policies, and directives.



Assuming Responsibility

You have learned how an officer must perform as a planner and organizer. The officer must also make the decisions and bear the responsibility for those decisions. Officers receive a commission, which is given in the name of the President of the United States. This document is signed by the Secretary of the Navy. It confers rank and authority as a Marine Corps officer. Marine Corps officers receive new commissions for each rank to which they are promoted. The commission gives the officer the authority as a decision maker. It enjoins all those of lesser rank to obey any "lawful order" given by the officer.

In addition to authority, the commission also gives the officer the esteem of a "special trust and confidence." Based on this special status, the

officer is granted special privileges. On this same basis, the officer is subject to the responsibilities and obligations, some of which have already been discussed in this lesson.

The duty of the officer that has not been mentioned thus far is that of self-development. This is the responsibility that the officer has to himself and to the unit to always strive for improvement. The pursuit of education is an excellent way to attain this goal, for it enhances the officer's professional abilities. Through education and study, the officer improves the thought process. Study also develops communication skills and technical proficiency.

Conclusion

To put this lesson in perspective, you must remember that these distinct types of officer commitments were developed for this lesson. In reality the duties, obligations, and responsibilities that have been discussed throughout this lesson are interwoven. The officer in the role of a leader simultaneously performs as the decision maker and as the individual who assumes responsibility. In order to perform as the leader, the officer must set the example, endure the same hardships, and be able to deal with subordinates in an effective way. As the decision maker, the officer must plan and organize to accomplish the task or mission. Finally, the officer's commission gives the authority to issue a lawful order and the responsibility for the success of a mission. ❖

Motivational Principles and Techniques

PURPOSE

This lesson will identify the factors that motivate individuals and explain the 14 principles of motivation. You will learn why being motivated is important to your unit and some techniques for motivating them.

“A leader is a man who has the ability to get other people to do what they don’t want to do, and like it.”

Harry S. Truman

Introduction

When in a leadership position, it is important to understand the factors of **motivation**. Motivation is based on factors such as an individual’s needs, desires, impulses, inner drives, or commitments that influence the reactions and attitudes of individuals. Simply put, for a Marine, motivation is commitment that is generally based on pride and unit integrity, and the firm adherence to the Marine Corps code of conduct.

As a leader, you must be personally committed to leadership values, such as honor, duty and loyalty, in order to properly motivate your Marines. You must realize that to influence an individual’s motivation, you must have an understanding of human nature. Human nature encompasses an individual’s values, beliefs, and basic needs.

Since the quality of leadership is judged by the behavior of the unit, successful leadership is displayed in a unit that is well organized, productive, and goal oriented. The application of the principles of motivation develops a satisfied individual that, in turn, develops a cohesive unit.

Leadership Motivators

Motivation means getting others to want to do what you know must be done. Since basic needs play an important role in motivation, you must understand that a person’s motivation depends on two things:

- The strength of those specific needs.
- The perception that taking a certain action will help satisfy those needs.

If the members of your unit have confidence in themselves, each other, the unit, in the cause, and their leader, they will be greatly motivated. Training them to have knowledge and skill will increase confidence and decrease the fear of “the unknown.” The unit will win as a cohesive, well-trained team and will also possess high levels of morale, courage, and the will to fight.

The most powerful form of motivation is self-motivation; therefore; your goal as a leader should be to create self-motivation in your Marines. The primary influences of these individuals are their beliefs, values and character traits. They are people of moral principle, doing their duties, not for reward, but rather, to have the satisfaction of doing the right thing.

Motivation Principles

There are 14 practical principles that extend from this basic view of motivation. Each principle gives practical techniques for applying them.

Principles

1. *Make the needs of the individuals in your unit coincide with unit tasks.*

As a leader, you should link the needs of the individuals with the interests and the needs of the unit as a whole.

This principle can be applied by recommending your Marines, who do their job well and stay out of trouble, for promotion when they have proven that they can handle the added responsibility.

2. *Reward individual and team behavior that supports unit tasks.*

A certificate, a badge, a letter, or a medal is an only small tangible object; yet they do a great deal psychologically. They all have strong motivating power. This approach is referred to as **positive reinforcement**. These rewards succeed in satisfying the individual's social needs by showing that they are appreciated and needed by the leader and the unit. Once the higher needs are awakened by rewards, the motivation to keep working for more recognition will increase.



3. *Counsel or punish individuals who behave in a way that is counter to unit tasks.*

In Principle 2, the approach referred to is positive reinforcement. Principle 3 is the opposite. The motivation for an individual to accomplish their task is not from the promise of a reward, but from the fear of punishment. This approach should only be used to motivate those who do not respond to positive motivation. However, be certain that the task and the standard were clearly communicated prior to the infraction.

4. *Set the example in all things.*

If you follow regulations consistently, you are showing your Marines that you expect them to follow regulations and policies. If you show them how to act, you are teaching them proper conduct measures at the same time. You also strengthen your own degree of self-discipline.

5. *Develop morale and **esprit de corps** in your unit.*

Morale is defined as the mental, emotional, and spiritual state of an individual. Moral has a tremendous impact on motivation. As a leader, you must always be aware of how your actions and decisions affect morale. The state of morale in the unit is an important link to the effectiveness of unit leadership.

6. *Give your Marines tough problems and challenge them to wrestle with them.*

By providing some challenging tasks for your unit to solve, you will encourage the development of future leaders. Valuable ideas can arise from the process of problem solving, decision making, and planning.

7. *Have your Marines participate in the planning of upcoming events.*

Motivation is high when individuals are encouraged to participate in the planning of future events. Communication improves, and everyone

sees the objective clearer. Clear understanding of the task and the plan combats unfounded rumors and fears that are based on lack of knowledge.

8. *Allleviate causes of personal concern of your Marines so that they can concentrate on their jobs.*

If someone in the unit is having a personal problem, the problem will break the concentration level needed in order to perform efficiently and effectively. Teach your team to handle their problems in a constructive manner. A balance of some kind must be formed, since problems, whether they are considered big or small, are a fact of every day life.

9. *Ensure your Marines are properly cared for and have the tools they need to succeed.*

Providing the unit with basic physical needs is important, but caring for them goes even further. By caring, you will prepare them for life by teaching them what you know. You want them to possess the right values, knowledge, character traits, and skills. These important tools are the key for your Marines to lead happy, productive lives.

10. *Keep your Marines informed about tasks and standards.*

Clear open communication is extremely important to the success of the unit tasks and encourages the unit to take the initiative in the absence of orders.

11. *Use positive peer pressure to work for you and the unit.*

Peer pressure can be a very powerful motivating force. Positive peer pressure based on professional **norms** and values can be healthy. When members of the team, who are performing well, exert positive peer pressure on the members who do not, the result can be all members of the team performing well.

12. *Avoid using statistics as a primary method of evaluating units and motivating your Marines.*

Statistics can be misleading. For example, a unit leader who expects 100% participation is unrealistic for it does not account for illness or conflicting responsibilities. Such expectations will not motivate individuals, but will discourage them.



13. *Make the jobs of your Marines as challenging, exciting and as meaningful as possible.*

As a person in a leadership position, you must encourage those under your command to believe that their creative thinking and competence are important to the success of the unit tasks. When individuals think they are important and the jobs that are assigned to them are important, then they will try to accomplish that assignment, even if it is unpleasant for them. They will feel more responsible, needed and motivated.

14. *Do not tolerate any form of prejudicial talk or behavior in your unit.*

Racial, sexual, and other prejudicial behavior is contrary to the principles on which this country was founded. They are also contrary

to MCJROTC ethics. A cadet who is on the receiving end of such prejudices will lose the motivation to serve the unit. This also means that the cohesion level of the unit will be affected and may deteriorate.

Positive and Coercive Tools

Developing and applying the proper mix of positive and **coercive** tools within the unit is one of the most difficult tasks faced by most leaders. They must decide when a specific situation requires the positive reinforcement approach, or the need for counseling, or punishment; and, when they need to apply a healthy combination of both. When in a leadership position, your ability to use these tools appropriately and effectively will significantly affect cohesion, discipline, and efficiency of your unit.

Several guidelines are given below on how to determine when to use counseling or punishment:

- Warnings about inappropriate behavior or activity.
- Verbal or written reprimands.
- Non-judicial and judicial punishment.

The principles for positive reinforcement are:

- Establishing clear goals and standards.
- Listening, persuading, and rewarding
- Making jobs and tasks meaningful.
- Setting the example.

Overusing Coercive Tools

Leaders who overuse coercive tools will increase the possibility of rising resentment within the unit and will decrease the motivational level.

Coercive tools depend upon fear. This means that people who are motivated by this approach will only apply themselves to accomplish the minimum standards of the task to avoid punishment. The leader must strive to find the appropriate time to use the coercive method of motivation.

Properly Using Coercive Tools

Leaders will be more successful with the use of coercive tools when reasonable, attainable standards are set and the consequences for not meeting the standards are communicated to the entire unit. Investigate why a certain standard was not met by considering if the communication process was incomplete or if the cause is intentional behavior. Also, ensure that the individuals within the unit have the knowledge and skills necessary to accomplish the assigned task.

Positive Tools: Teaching and Counseling

Teaching and counseling are two leadership skills that have an indirect, but strong, long range impact on the motivational level of the unit. The unit's character traits, values, skills, knowledge, and confidence will be affected when the leader counsels and teaches well. As a result, the **counterproductive** motivational forces will disappear.



Conclusion

The purpose of this lesson was to present practical techniques for increasing the motivational level of the unit. When in a leadership position, understanding and implementing the principles of motivation are the keys to successful task accomplishment. When applied properly, the fourteen principles can greatly increase the motivational level of a unit. Also, teaching and counseling play a vital role in gaining and maintaining the desired level of individual and unit motivation. ❖

Teaching is creating the conditions that cause someone to learn and develop. This means coaching, rewarding, and counseling him or her. Learners must be motivated to learn, feel the need to learn, and they must remain involved and attentive in the learning process.

Counseling is talking with the individuals in a way that helps them to solve problems. It is helping them to create the conditions that will help to improve their behavior, character, or values. Counseling is a skill and above all requires sincerity, patience, and compassion.

Maintaining High Morale

PURPOSE

This lesson will examine the importance of maintaining high morale. You will discover some of the factors that can lead to low morale, as well as the leadership techniques that you can use to improve it. You will also learn how you can assess the morale of your unit and identify the positive and negative indicators of morale.

“Morale is one of the most powerful intangibles in warfare, a quality that had turned underdogs into the indomitable – and withered the most powerful empires.”

Justin Brown

Introduction

Morale is the emotional and mental state of mind of an individual as exhibited by confidence, positive attitude, discipline, and willingness to perform assigned tasks. Put simply, morale is how you feel and act. It is the idea that your work is actually enjoyable, a source of pride.

When morale is high, people enjoy their jobs, the quality of their work is better; they exceed expectations; communication is enhanced; and they are less likely to quit. By doing his/her duty willingly, and to the best of his/her ability, a cadet develops a feeling of personal worth, another factor necessary to high morale. This

feeling leads to confidence in ability, confidence in leadership, and confidence in equipment. However, high morale does not exist automatically; it is something you must continually work toward and nurture.

On the other hand, when morale is low, it can be very destructive, undermining the goal or task at hand. When you have a low morale you are more likely to call in sick, your levels of frustration and stress escalate, mistakes are made, and communications break down.

In order to achieve high performance, it is important to effectively **foster** good morale within your unit. As a leader, you must be able to:

- Recognize potential morale problems before they become emergencies.
- Employ techniques that will booster and maintain high morale within your unit.

Causes of Low Morale

There are many potential causes of morale problems. When you are in a leadership position, it is essential to be aware of the causes so that you know what you need to avoid. Some of the most common situations, which lead to low morale, are listed below:

- **Nebulous** (meaning unstated or not clearly articulated) expectations. When people do not clearly understand their responsibilities, they can become frustrated, confused, or apathetic. All cadets should be aware of their mission.
- Unrealistic or constantly changing goals. If the others in your unit do not feel that the goals are attainable, or that they are only

temporary, they will not be motivated to try to achieve them.

- Lack of training and resources. When people feel that they have not been properly trained to accomplish their assigned task, they lose confidence. They are likely to feel that the leadership is not supporting them, and that they are being denied the knowledge, skills and tools they need to succeed.
- Poor Leadership and Communication. Leaders need to act as role models. If a leader is unenthusiastic, and generally shows a lack of commitment, the people that he/she leads will likely **emulate** that attitude. Likewise, an inaccessible, moody or highly critical leader can instantly kill the enthusiasm of a team.

Indicators of Morale

In order to make good decisions regarding morale, you must be able to recognize the signs of a potential problem. In fact, awareness is the first step in managing morale within your unit. Of course, you need to know what to look for. A cadet will not likely say to you, “I am experiencing low morale. Can you help me?” Instead, you are going to have to do some detective work.

A leader can measure morale within his/her unit through close observation of their cadets in their daily activities, frequent inspections, and routine conversations or counseling. Although morale is an internal feeling or attitude, it does **manifest** itself in some outward signals. The following are some **indicators**, or outward signs of morale. They can either be positive, signaling high morale in your unit, or they could be negative, signaling a potential morale problem.

- Personal appearance and hygiene. Is the cadet well groomed? Is his/her uniform neat and pressed?
- Personal conduct. Does the cadet engage in appropriate behavior?
- Standards of military courtesy. Does the cadet answer with “Sir or Ma’am”? Does he or she salute and return salutes as appropriate? Does the cadet follow other military **protocol**?
- Use of recreational facilities. Does your unit have recreational facilities? Does the cadet use them? Does he/she willingly participate in team activities?
- Interpersonal relations. How well does the cadet interact with other cadets? Is he/she willing to help other team members or does he/she exhibit an uncooperative attitude? Have you observed friendly and positive interactions with others?
- Condition of mess and quarters. Are the mess and quarters clean and neat?



- Care of equipment. Is the equipment issued to the cadet in good repair? Has it been cleaned and polished? Does the cadet care for issued equipment as if it were his/her own personal property?

- Response to orders and directives. Does the cadet willingly accept new responsibilities? Does he or she show **deference** to superiors?
- Motivation during training. Does the cadet seem interested in learning new skills? Does he/she actively participate in the training activities?
- Arrests, military or civilian. Has the cadet been arrested?
- Requests for transfers. Has the cadet asked to be re-assigned to another unit?
- Sick call rate and unauthorized absences. Does the cadet frequently call in sick or come in late? Attendance and punctuality are clear indicators of a person's level of commitment.
- Re-enlistment rates. Have the enlistment rates gone down?
- Use and abuse of drugs and alcohol. Have you noticed any signs of drinking or drug use? Has the cadet arrived at a function drunk or on drugs? Do you have any other reason to suspect a drinking or drug problem?

The presence of any one of these indicators in the negative does not mean that you have a **de facto** morale problem, but rather you need to do some more investigation to get to the bottom of the problem. Likewise, one positive indicator does not necessarily mean a condition of high morale.

Techniques to Improve and Foster High Morale

Now that you know what to look for, what can you do if you detect a problem with morale in your unit? What can you do to improve morale, and possibly prevent future problems?

There are a number of techniques that you employ to foster good morale, and they are all consistent with the principles of leadership. In other words, a good leader will continually foster high morale within his or her unit. The following are some of the methods that you can use to improve morale:

- Know your cadets, their motivations and **aspirations**, and demonstrate your concern for their physical, mental, and spiritual welfare. Also demonstrate concern for the welfare of their families. Recognize their individuality, and treat them accordingly.



- Carefully consider job assignments in order to best match your cadets' abilities and desires with the available assignments.
- Be enthusiastic and set a good example.
- Keep your cadets informed. When time and security permit, a leader should inform the cadets in his/her unit of all happenings and give reasons why things are to be done. This information makes individuals feel that they are a part of the team, and not just an outsider looking in. The key to giving out information is to be sure that the cadets have enough information to do their job intelligently and to

inspire their initiative, enthusiasm, loyalty, and convictions.

- Instill a belief in the mission. Foster the feeling that each cadet is essential to the unit.
- Instill in your cadets confidence in themselves, their leaders, their training and their equipment.
- Develop a sense of responsibility among your cadets. Assign tasks and delegate the authority to accomplish the tasks. This promotes mutual confidence and respect between the leader and his/her team. It also encourages initiative. When you properly delegate authority, you demonstrate faith in your cadets and increase their desire for greater responsibilities. If you fail to delegate authority, you indicate a lack of leadership, and your subordinates may take it to be a lack of trust in their abilities.
- Ensure that tasks are understood, supervised, and accomplished. Before you can expect your cadets to perform, they must know what is expected of them. You must communicate your instructions in a clear, concise manner, and talk at a level that your cadets are sure to understand, but not at a level that would insult their intelligence. Before your cadets start a task, allow them a chance to ask questions or seek advice.
- Make sure that awards and rewards are passed out as quickly as punishment.
- Identify and remove any causes for misunderstanding or dissatisfaction. Ensure your cadets know the procedures for registering complaints, and that action is taken promptly to resolve complaints.
- Be **approachable**. Cadets should feel comfortable coming to you for advice and

assistance, not only in military matters, but for personal problems as well.

If you use these effective leadership techniques, you will build morale within your unit and you will have a strong and high performing team. High morale gives you a feeling of confidence and well being, and enables you to face hardship with courage, endurance, and determination.

Conclusion

The Marine Corps' performance and effectiveness in battle has been linked to our high-caliber morale. Maintaining that morale is a priority. Our leaders must be able to anticipate potential morale problems before they occur and identify the warning signs of low morale. By continually practicing leadership techniques that foster high morale, we become **indomitable**. ❖

Marine Discipline

PURPOSE

This lesson will identify what is meant by the term “discipline.” You will discover several indicators of discipline as well as the leadership techniques that can be used to improve discipline.

Viscount Montgomery indicated that the ability to concentrate is essential in a leader; the constant exercise of this ability makes a leader a disciplined human being, enabling him or her to simplify a problem, to discover the essentials upon which all action must be based and the details which are unimportant.

Introduction

Over the years, the term **discipline** has acquired at least three meanings: punishment, obedience, and **self-control**. Punishment, the first meaning, is frequently used when a Marine violates a policy or regulation. The second meaning of discipline suggests complete and total **obedience** to the orders of superiors. The third and highest concept of discipline, involves self-control and a sense of personal responsibility that goes beyond threat of punishment or mere obedience. This lesson focuses on discipline as the training, or course of action, expected to produce a specific type of pattern of behavior; training that produces mental or moral improvement.

Discipline

The Marine Corps’ concept is to strive to develop leadership qualities in all Marines. Two of those qualities are self-control and a sense of personal responsibility. If a Marine is obedient only because he or she fears punishment, that Marine is not going to be reliable unless he or she is constantly supervised. Blind obedience results in robot-like performance, which suppresses the development of the individual and, in the extreme, may result in the individual carrying out improper or illegal orders such as those involving unfair treatment and war crimes. True discipline implies not only action, but also knowledge of what is being done. Marines need to exercise discipline as active thinking participants. Marines should do what needs to be done, which is the real meaning of discipline.

Andrew Carnegie believed one who cannot reason is a fool, one who will not is a bigot, and that one who dare not is a slave.

It frequently happens that the root meaning of a word explains the whole context of ideas with which it is legitimately associated than the public’s mistaken use of the same word. Coming from the Latin, to discipline means to teach. As far as the military establishment of the United States is concerned, nothing need be added to that definition. Discipline is that standard of personal **deportment**, work requirement, courtesy, appearance, and ethical conduct, that **inculcated** in Marines, will enable them singly or

collectively to perform their mission with optimum efficiency.

Military discipline is the state of order and obedience among military personnel resulting from training. When discipline is spoken of in the Marine Corps, reference is not made to regulations, punishments, or a state of **subservience**. What it actually means is the exact execution of orders resulting from intelligent, willing obedience rather than execution based solely upon habit or fear. Habit plays its part, however, and for this reason the Marine benefits from such routine training as gun drill, range firing, inspections, drill for foot troops, and bayonet drill. Punishment of individuals for **breaches** of discipline are sometimes necessary, but only to correct or eliminate those who are presently unfit to serve on the team.

Discipline is necessary to secure orderly, coordinated action, which alone can triumph over the seemingly impossible conditions of battle. Fear is the enemy of discipline. The individual must be able to recognize and face fear, because fear unchecked will lead to panic, and a unit that panics is no longer a disciplined unit, but a mob. There is no sane person who is without fear, but good discipline and high morale will keep fear in its proper place.

“It is the constant and determined effort that breaks down all resistance and sweeps away all obstacles.”

Claude M. Bristol

Indicators of Discipline

Discipline is the individual or group attitude that ensures prompt obedience to orders and initiation of appropriate action in the absence

of orders. It is an attitude that keeps Marines doing what they are supposed to do, as they are supposed to do it, through strong inner conviction. Good discipline is constant and functions whether or not outside pressure or supervision is present. It is the result of good training and intelligent leadership. Lieutenant General Lewis Puller believed that the most important element of military training is discipline. Without discipline, a unit cannot function effectively.

Some indicators of discipline follow:

1. Attention to detail
2. Good relations among unit members
3. Devotion to duty
4. Proper senior/subordinate relationships
5. Proper conduct on and off duty
6. Adherence to standards of cleanliness, dress, and military courtesy
7. Promptness in responding to orders
8. Adherence to the chain of command
9. Ability and willingness to perform effectively with little or no supervision

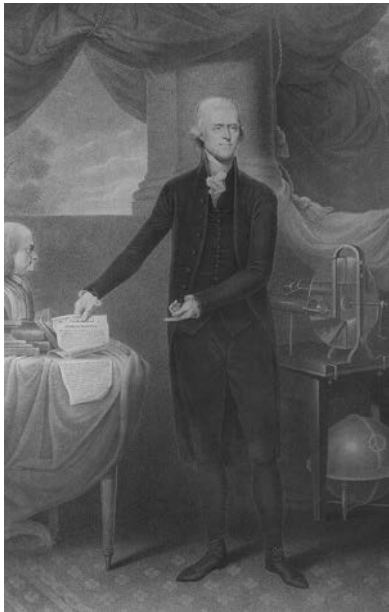
Essentially, military discipline is no different from the discipline of the university, a baseball league, or an industrial corporation. Both make specific requirements of the individual and have a system of punishments. These things are only incidental to the end result. Their main objective is to preserve the interests and further the opportunity of the cooperative majority. The big difference between discipline in the military establishment and in any other free institution is that if the Marine objects, he or she does not have the privilege of quitting, and if he or she resists or becomes **indifferent** and is not corrected, his or

her bad example will be felt to the far end of the line.

One major threat to discipline is **insubordination**. Insubordinate acts may be exhibited in a variety of modes: neglecting the customary salute, indifference, **insolence**, **impertinence**, undue familiarity, or anything that does not show the proper respect for rank. The officer who tolerates slackness in the dress of his Marine soon ceases to tend to his or her own appearance. There is only one correct way to wear the uniform. When any deviations in dress are condoned within the service, the way is open to the destruction of all uniformity and unity.

In matters of style, swim with the current; in matters of principle, stand like a rock.

Thomas Jefferson



Courtesy of the Library of Congress

Techniques to Improve Discipline

How can a leader improve discipline? Some actions a leader can take to improve discipline within his or her unit follow:

1. Be self-disciplined and consistent.
2. Strive for forceful and competent leadership throughout the entire organization.
3. Ensure all officers and noncommissioned officers practice principles of leadership.
4. Set the example.
5. Institute a fair and **impartial** system of reward and punishment. Praise and reward those deserving it promptly and properly; likewise, punish quickly and appropriately when required.
6. Resort to punitive measures only when necessary to protect the rights of individuals, the government, and the standards of the Marine Corps.
7. Develop mutual trust and confidence through tough, stressful training. Challenge subordinates in accordance with their capabilities.
8. Encourage and foster the development of self-discipline.
9. Be alert to conditions conducive to breaches of discipline; eliminate them where possible.
10. Eliminate or reduce meaningless tasks and assignments.
11. Rotate personnel assigned to **menial** tasks.
12. Provide guidance and assistance, but avoid **micro-managing**.
13. Set high performance standards.

14. Encourage innovation and support your subordinates.

Some leaders may not appreciate the necessity for discipline and will not until they experience the trials of battle. However, when leaders understand the necessity for discipline, they have learned a sense of obligation to themselves, to their comrades, to their commander, and to the Marine Corps. The leader has learned that he or she is a member of a team that is organized, trained, and equipped for the purpose of engaging and defeating the enemies of our country. The final objective of military discipline is effectiveness in combat.

Discipline is achieved through careful **precept** and proper training accompanied by corrective and restraining measures. Unit leaders provide this discipline. Final discipline is the prompt, correct reaction to given situations, and the ever present knowledge that in the daily routine, leaders are doing their utmost to live up to the standards set for them by custom and tradition.

Conclusion

All Marines share responsibility for leadership and must seek to develop these fundamentals throughout their service to the Corps. The application of leadership traits and principles by Marines who understand the concepts of authority, responsibility, and accountability has been instrumental in making the Corps the effective fighting force it is today.

The Marine Corps' performance and effectiveness in battle has been characterized by high-caliber morale, motivation, esprit de corps, discipline, and proficiency. This is the foundation of Marine Corps leadership and the heritage to be maintained by all leaders of Marines today.

Understanding the principles of discipline and techniques for improving discipline will make you a better leader. ❖

A perfectly trained amphibious operation requires people, skillful people, for its effective execution. In fact, in no service are people more important than they are in the Marine Corps. This means that **STRONG DISCIPLINE** continues to be most important. This is a point on which there is sometimes some misunderstanding. When we Marines speak of discipline, we speak of the spirit of the team. When the average civilian hears the word, he or she is apt to think of fear and punishment and chastisement. Actually, these things are not a part of the true military discipline. Without the proper spirit, there can be no such thing as discipline in a military organization. You may have the outward semblance of compliance with regulations, even cooperation of a kind, as long as the fear of punishment is present. But actually you have only the discipline enforced upon school children who begin to throw things and misbehave the moment their teacher's back is turned. The discipline upon which a Marine unit must be built is of a different kind, a kind that endures when every semblance of authority has vanished, when the leader has fallen, when the members of the team are dropping out one by one, when the only driving power that remains is the strong and unconquerable spirit of the team. This is the working definition of discipline--the spirit of the team. The Marines know it as esprit de corps.

General Graves B. Erskine

Individual and Team Training

PURPOSE

This lesson explains the importance of individual practice and training. It also explains the need to train as a team.

Introduction

Throughout our lives, we are continually learning and increasing our body of knowledge. We learn through observation, experience, and structured study or **training**. The manner in which training is given is of the utmost importance, for poor instruction leads to inferior learning. It also leads to a lack of knowledge and understanding.

The MCJROTC must continually train to develop and prepare individuals to perform assigned tasks to specific standards. Not only does training increase a cadet's knowledge, but it also builds self-confidence. Training should be conducted in such a manner that team members are prepared for any situation.

Individual Practice

Practice is defined as: "to perform or work at repeatedly so as to become proficient." Have you heard the old adage "practice makes perfect?" This applies to any skill that you are trying to accomplish. The more you practice the skill the more comfortable you are with it.

Many aspects of MCJROTC require practice. Drill is a primary example. Even though the repetition of practicing the drill movements

may seem monotonous, it is the only way to truly become proficient.



Individual Training

The word training is defined as: "the skill, knowledge, or experience, acquired by one who trains." Individual training is required to develop every person's skills. Learning new tasks help broaden your horizons and develop you as a cadet.

There are many things involved in training an individual. Training cannot be effective without proper preparation. Three steps should be used in preparing and conducting training.

1. Describe the desired results of training.
2. Prepare to conduct the training.
3. Conduct training to the required standards.

Within the Marine Corps, the NCO is responsible for conducting individual training. The Staff NCO is responsible for small unit training and the officer is responsible for unit training.

The Marine Corps training system is based on standards. All training standards are derived from specific mission requirements. Individual Training Standards (ITS) are the tasks that individual Marines, within a given grade for a particular MOS, are trained to perform.

Training as a Team

Teamwork is the effort of a group to complete a task or mission. Successful teamwork requires each team member to **cooperate** with other members of the group in order to complete the effort as directed.

Learning about teamwork is an important part of MCJROTC. It is a team spirit where all members work together to achieve the same goals. It is a willingness to give other team members a friendly push when they need it or a pat on the back when they deserve it. In teamwork, each member of the team expects the same degree of effort from the other. Then, when one teammate does it right, the whole team wins and when cooperation coexists with teamwork, the mission moves more quickly.

If a situation should ever arise, where someone calls upon you to complete a job, task, or mission that is too involved for you to do alone, teamwork usually provides the answer. In teamwork, a group of people, or fellow cadets, is there to help you complete it. As you will soon discover in a story that begins at the bottom of this page, distributing food to the needy can be a huge mission. However, with good leadership and effective teamwork, the task can be accomplished.

Teamwork also gives you the opportunity to interact with other cadets. In most organizations that you will encounter, the members of a team or group will probably come from different backgrounds and will have

different interests. But, by working together as a cohesive unit, everyone tries harder to get along with each other in a productive and professional manner. By working cooperatively with your teammates, you can improve your individual leadership, followership, and communication skills and abilities.

Another very important aspect of teamwork is that it builds friendships and fosters esprit de corps, or feelings of unity and pride for the team. When people feel united, everyone works together to complete the mission.

Training as a team is essential to accomplishing the team's goals. For example, the major goal of the football team is to have a winning season. The football team's task is to practice rigorously, so the team can achieve this goal. On the other hand, the environmental club's goal is to protect local wildlife. The environmental club's task is to organize local awareness of the environment. Although the types of team tasks vary between teams, the team tasks are always a part of every team.



Case Study

The Senior Marine Instructor (SMI), Major Mason, wanted his cadet battalion to distribute food to the needy at Thanksgiving. He asked for a volunteer to research, plan, and

present a report to him and the cadet battalion staff on the best way to accomplish this mission.

Although several leaders expressed an interest, the SMI selected Jim, a junior and recent enrollee into JROTC, but whose leadership potential was very impressive. Major Mason gave Jim the order on 1 October and told him he had until 1 November to complete the project.

Although Jim's squad was a group of 12 cadets with very different and independent ideas and backgrounds, they could be counted on to work well together and to complete their tasks. Jim was their squad leader because he consistently displayed outstanding leadership -- not only in MJROTC but in student government and extracurricular activities as well -- and he knew how to motivate people to get things done.

The same day Jim received the order, he called a meeting of his squad and told them about the project. Everyone began to speak excitedly and all at once. "What about calling the Salvation Army?" "Yea, that's right. They know a lot about that stuff." "My mom can get dry goods from the store where she works."

Jim waited until everyone quieted down before continuing. "Those are all great ideas. I think we can put together an excellent report, but we need to get organized. I have broken the mission down into parts and would like to know what each think you can do. Some of the jobs are big enough for two or three of you to work together. If you have any other suggestions, please mention them."

At the end of the meeting, Jim gave out the tasks. He charged Tony and Michelle with finding a place from which to distribute the food. Roger and Orlando were to find out how and where to get community support and donations. Mark was to prepare sample announcements for

the school newspaper and for the public address given at school each morning, informing the other students about their efforts.

Jim had Tina and Larry work out a plan on how to collect food donated by students and where to store the food products. Joe was to keep an inventory of the collected foods. Based on Joe's inventory, Margo was to divide the food into packages for the families who came to collect a donation. Sandy and Leigh Ann were to devise a parking plan and lay out the area for the lines to form on the day of the distribution. Gail was to obtain the addresses of homeless shelters and other areas letting the needy know when and where to come when the plan was set. Once everyone did their part of the planning and gave the information back to Jim, he would prepare a report for the SMI and cadet battalion staff.

Each team member or pair within the squad worked hard to develop their section of the overall plan. In some instances, they came up with several alternatives for doing their jobs. After discussing those alternatives as a group and obtaining Jim's decision on the best way to do them, they completed the parts of the project. They knew that on the day of execution, they would be responsible for executing the portion of the plan that they helped to develop.

With still a few days remaining before 1 November, Jim collected the results of the squad's hard work and thanked them for their outstanding effort. He wrote up a draft report concluding the research, verified each part with the squad member or members who researched it, then finalized the report.

After reading the report, Major Mason said, "You and your squad did a commendable job. A lot of planning went into this report; it is very complete and it includes some very sound information. I will put your squad in charge of

making the formal arrangements for carrying out the project and I will have the cadet battalion commander assign other cadets to your squad to assist in the areas that you have identified. As a result of your efforts, I'm certain that this will be a very successful community project.”

In the story about distributing food to the needy over Thanksgiving, Jim divided his squad into eight sections to accomplish various tasks: Joe and Mark each worked individually, Margo and Gail also worked individually, there were two mixed pairs (Tony/Michelle and Tina/ Larry), one all girl pair (Sandy and Leigh Ann) and one all boy pair (Roger and Orlando). In your notebook, indicate if you prefer working by yourself, working with someone of the same gender, working with someone of the opposite gender, or if it does not matter. Explain your answer. Include in your explanation which leadership qualities you are better at and which one(s) you need to improve.

Conclusion

Individual practice and training is an essential element toward advancement of oneself. In addition, training as a team is key to accomplishing the established mission or goal. Learning to train both as a team and as an individual will lead toward proficiency of a given task. ❖

Proficiency Defined

PURPOSE

This lesson explains proficiency as it relates to the Marine Corps, MCJROTC, and leadership in general.

Introduction

According to Webster’s dictionary the term “**proficiency**” is described as follows:

- The quality or state of being proficient;
- The advance in the acquisition of any art, science, or knowledge; progression in knowledge; improvement; adeptness; as to acquire proficiency in music.
- Skillfulness in the command of fundamentals deriving from practice and familiarity; "practice greatly improves proficiency."

In this lesson, we will look at proficiency as it relates to the Marine Corps, MCJROTC, and leadership.

Proficiency as a Marine

In the Marine Corps, proficiency is defined as the technical, tactical, and physical ability of the individuals in the unit to accomplish the mission. How Marines actually accomplish their jobs is a technical question; however, when Marines must accomplish their jobs under enemy fire, it becomes a matter of willpower. Technical training alone creates qualified technicians. How do you think Marines ensure they have “the right

stuff” to do their jobs when it is critically necessary?

Many aspects of MCJROTC also require proficiency. Drill is a primary example. Even though the repetition of practicing the drill movements may seem monotonous, it is the only way to truly become proficient.



Leadership and Proficiency

There are many things a leader can do to develop the sort of proficiency that is the “right stuff.” Refer to the following items:

1. Be proficient and instill in others the immense pride that they can accomplish anything relative to the performance of their assigned jobs.
2. Thoroughly train your team members to do their duties as well as they can be done under any conditions. There is no substitute for their best effort, and always work to improve that.
3. Emphasize teamwork and the chain of command.
4. Cross-train your team members so that essential tasks can always be performed.

5. Attempt to accomplish as realistic training as possible. Train to be flexible, and to be able to apply “lessons learned” quickly and continuously.
6. Provide team members with frequent opportunities to lead at the next higher level. Every team member must be ready to lead if the situation requires it.
7. Set high, attainable performance standards and stick to them.

Within MCJROTC, there are many opportunities to instill the aspects of proficiency.

Personal Proficiency

It is also essential that you develop your own personal proficiency in MCJROTC. Before you can lead, you must be able to know and do your job. You must demonstrate the ability to accomplish the mission. To do this, you must be capable of answering questions and demonstrating your competence in your assigned tasks. Tactical and technical competence can be learned from books and from on-the-job training.

To develop your own proficiency in MCJROTC, you should do the following:

1. Seek a well-rounded education.
2. Seek out and associate with capable leaders and mentors. Observe and study their actions.
3. Broaden your knowledge through association with members of JROTC units and community leaders.
4. Seek opportunities to apply knowledge through the exercise of command. Good leadership is a skill required only through practice.
5. Prepare yourself for the job of leader at the next higher rank.



Conclusion

During this lesson, you have learned about proficiency. It is up to you to develop it. Proficiency is a skill that you will be glad you mastered. ❖

Freedom Documents

PURPOSE

The United States is very diverse in its population. We live in very different environments; we practice different religions; and we have different cultural and ethnic backgrounds. Yet, we are all Americans. Many of our American values are rooted in famous documents and speeches that provide us with a basis for what we as Americans believe and hold dear. Some of these documents are included in this lesson.

Introduction

Before there was a United States, there were people who thought about how a country should be organized and talked about the principles that country should stand for. After the United States came into existence and to this very day, those issues continue to be discussed and those principles refined. In order for us to truly be effective and knowledgeable citizens, it is important that we understand our democratic heritage. Most Americans know that the Pilgrims and others came to America to have the freedom to practice their religion, that others wished to escape tyranny, or sought economic opportunity. Many of us take those freedoms and rights for granted. How did the American ideals become established? Many of those concepts were borrowed from Greek, Roman, British, and even American Indian practices. Many of our ideals were forged in colonial times. They have been tempered by time.

Pilgrims Set the Model for Government in the Colonies

Before the Pilgrims ever set foot on American soil at Plymouth Rock, they got together to decide how they would work together. In the **Mayflower Compact**, the Pilgrims decided that they would pass laws that were for the good of the entire group. Many point to the Mayflower Compact as the document that was the basis for the concept of majority rule.



The Mayflower Compact (November 11, 1620)

In the name of God, Amen:

We, whose names are underwritten, the Loyal Subjects of our dread Sovereign Lord, King James, by the Grace of God, of Great Britain, France and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith, etc. Having undertaken for the Glory of God, and Advancement of the Christian Faith, and the Honour of our King and Country, a voyage to plant the first colony in the northern Parts of Virginia: Do by these Presents, solemnly and mutually in the Presence of God and of one another, covenant and combine ourselves together into a civil Body Politick, for our better Ordering and Preservation, and Furtherance of the aforesaid

Ends; And by Virtue hereof to enact, constitute, and frame, such just and equal Laws, Ordinances, Acts, Constitutions and Officers, from time to time, as shall be thought most meet and convenient for the General good of the Colony; unto which we promise all due Submission and Obedience. In Witness whereof we have hereunto subscribed our names at Cape Cod the 11th of November, in the Reign of our Sovereign Lord, King James of England, France and Ireland, the eighteenth, and of Scotland the fifty-fourth. Anno Domini, 1620.

“Give Me Liberty or Give Me Death”

Patrick Henry was most famous for a speech delivered at the Virginia legislature known as the House of Burgesses on March 23, 1775. In that speech, he questioned why his colleagues were trying to find a peaceful way to resolve the issues between the colonies and Great Britain. He suggested that the colonies had already explored every avenue but had been rejected in every instance. He suggested that others were already staking their lives on the independence from Great Britain and that, “ I know not what course others may take, but as for me give me liberty or give me death.”

Henry is also remembered because in later years he was opposed to the adoption of the **Constitution** because he felt it gave too much power to the federal government and endangered individual and states’ rights. He was influential in the creation of the **Bill of Rights**.

Patrick Henry’s Call to Arms (March 23, 1775)

Mr. President, no man thinks more highly than I do of the patriotism, as well as abilities, of

the very worthy gentlemen who have just addressed the house. But different men often see the same subject in different lights; and, therefore, I hope it will not be thought disrespectful to those gentlemen, if entertaining, as I do, opinions of a character very opposite to theirs, I shall speak forth my sentiments freely, and without reserve. This is no time for ceremony. The question before the house is one of awful moment to this country. For my own part, I consider it as nothing less than a question of freedom or slavery. And in proportion to the magnitude of the subject, ought to be the freedom of debate. It is only in this way that we can hope to arrive at truth and fulfill the great responsibility which we hold to God and our country. Should I keep back my opinions at such a time, through fear of giving offense, I should consider myself guilty of treason toward my country, and of an act of disloyalty toward the majesty of Heaven, which I revere above all earthly kings. My President, it is natural for a man to indulge in the illusions of hope. We are apt to shut our eyes against a painful truth and listen to the song of that siren till she transforms us into beasts. Is this the part of wise men, engaged in a great and arduous struggle for liberty? Are we disposed to be of the number of those who, having eyes, see not, and having ears, hear not, the things which so nearly concern their temporal salvation. For my part, whatever anguish of spirit it might cost, I am willing to know the whole truth; to know the worst and to provide for it.

I have but one lamp by which my feet are guided; and that is the lamp of experience. I know of no way of judging the future but by the past. And judging by the past, I wish to know what there has been in the conduct of the British ministry for the last ten years to justify those hopes with which gentlemen have been pleased to solace themselves and the house? Is it that insidious smile with which our petition has been

lately received? Trust it not, sir; it will prove a snare to your feet. Suffer not yourselves to be betrayed with a kiss. Ask yourselves how this gracious reception of our petition comports with those warlike preparations which cover our waters and darken our land. Are fleets and armies necessary to a work of love and reconciliation? Have we shown ourselves so unwilling to be reconciled that force must be called in to win back our love? Let us not deceive ourselves, sir. These are the implements of war and subjugation the last arguments to which kings resort. I ask gentlemen, sir, what means this martial array, if its purpose be not to force us to submission? Can gentlemen assign any other possible motive for it? Has Great Britain any enemy in this quarter of the world to call for all this accumulation of navies and armies? No, sir, she has none. They are meant for us: they can be meant for no other. They are sent over to bind and rivet upon us those chains which the British ministry have been so long forging. And what have we to oppose to them? Shall we try argument? Sir, we have been trying that for the last ten years. Have we anything new to offer upon the subject? Nothing. We have held the subject up in every light of which it is capable; but it has been all in vain. Shall we resort to entreaty and humble supplication? What terms shall we find which have not been already exhausted? Let us not, I beseech you, sir, deceive ourselves longer. Sir, we have done everything that could be done to avert the storm which is now coming on. We have petitioned--we have remonstrated--we have supplicated we have prostrated ourselves before the throne, and have implored its interposition to arrest the tyrannical hands of the ministry and Parliament. Our petitions have been slighted; our remonstrances have produced additional violence and insult; our supplications have been disregarded; and we have been spurned, with contempt, from the foot of the throne. In

vain, after these things, may we indulge the fond hope of peace and reconciliation. There is no longer any room for hope. If we wish to be free if we mean to preserve inviolate those inestimable privileges for which we have been so long contending if we mean not basely to abandon the noble struggle in which we have been so long engaged, and which we have pledged ourselves never to abandon until the glorious object of our contest shall be obtained we must fight! I repeat it, sir, we must fight!! An appeal to arms and to the God of Hosts is all that is left us!

They tell us, sir, that we are weak unable to cope with so formidable an adversary. But when shall we be stronger? Will it be the next week, or the next year? Will it be when we are totally disarmed, and when a British guard shall be stationed in every house? Shall we gather strength by irresolution and inaction? Shall we acquire the means of effectual resistance by lying supinely on our backs, and hugging the delusive phantom of hope, until our enemies shall have bound us hand and foot? Sir, we are not weak, if we make a proper use of those means which the God of nature hath placed in our power. Three millions of people, armed in the holy cause of liberty, and in such a country as that which we possess, are invincible by any force which our enemy can send against us. Besides, sir, we shall not fight our battles alone. There is a just God who presides over the destinies of nations, and who will raise up friends to fight our battles for us. The battle, sir, is not to the strong alone; it is to the vigilant, the active, the brave. Besides, sir, we have no election. If we were base enough to desire it, it is now too late to retire from the contest. There is no retreat, but in submission and slavery! Our chains are forged, their clanking may be heard on the plains of Boston! The war is inevitable and let it come!! I repeat it, sir, let it come!!!

It is in vain, sir, to extenuate the matter. Gentlemen may cry, peace, peace but there is no peace. The war is actually begun. The next gale that sweeps from the North will bring to our ears the clash of resounding arms! Our brethren are already in the field! Why stand we here idle? What is it that gentlemen wish? What would they have? Is life so dear, or peace so sweet, as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery? Forbid it, Almighty God! I know not what course others may take; but as for me, give me liberty or give me death!

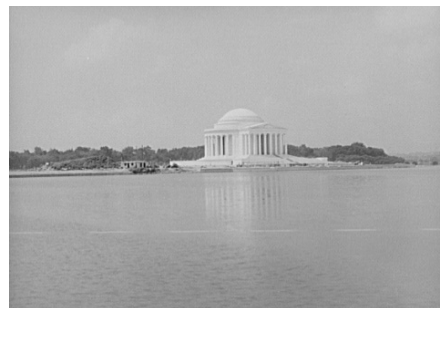
Continental Congress Sets Us Free

The clearest call for independence up to the summer of 1776, came in Philadelphia on June 7. On that date the Continental Congress heard Richard Henry Lee of Virginia read his resolution beginning: "Resolved: That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States, that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved."

The Continental Congress then brought together a Committee of Five (John Adams, Ben Franklin, Roger Sherman, Robert Livingston, and **Thomas Jefferson**) to write the **Declaration of Independence**. The Committee asked Jefferson to write the first draft. He submitted that draft, after making a few changes requested by Adams and Franklin, to the Congress on July 2.

On July 4, 1776, the Declaration of Independence was read aloud in Philadelphia. It consists of five parts. The introduction states that the colonists will tell the world why they must break their connection with Great Britain. The preamble identifies the basic principles of government under which eighteenthth century

Englishmen live and that when these principles are not adhered to, it is the duty of the people to revolt. The next section identifies the abuses of the mother country toward the colonies. That section is followed by documentation of all the efforts that the colonists had made to peaceably resolve their differences. Finally, the conclusion states, "these United Colonies are, and of Right ought to be Free and Independent States; that they are Absolved from all Allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain, is and ought to be totally dissolved."



The Declaration of Independence (July 4, 1776)

When in the Course of human Events, it becomes necessary for one People to dissolve the Political Bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the Powers of the Earth, the separate and equal Station to which the Laws of Nature and of Nature's God entitle them, a decent Respect to the Opinions of Mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the Separation.

We hold these Truths to be self-evident, that all Men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable

Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the Pursuit of Happiness --That to secure these Rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just Powers from the Consent of the Governed, that whenever any Form of Government becomes destructive of these Ends, it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new Government, laying its Foundation on such Principles, and organizing its Powers in such Form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their Safety and Happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that Governments long established should not be changed for light and transient Causes; and accordingly all Experience hath shewn, that Mankind are more disposed to suffer, while Evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the Forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long Train of Abuses and Usurpations, pursuing invariably the same Object, evinces a Design to reduce them under absolute Despotism, it is their Right, it is their Duty, to throw off such Government, and to provide new Guards for their future Security. Such has been the patient Sufferance of these Colonies; and such is now the Necessity which constrains them to alter their former Systems of Government. The History of the present King of Great Britain is a History of repeated Injuries and Usurpations, all having in direct Object the Establishment of an absolute Tyranny over these States. To prove this, let Facts be submitted to a candid World.

He has refused his Assent to Laws, the most wholesome and necessary for the public Good.

He has forbidden his Governors to pass Laws of immediate and pressing Importance, unless suspended in their Operation till his Assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other Laws for the Accommodation of large Districts of People, unless those People would relinquish the Right of Representation in the Legislature, a Right inestimable to them, and formidable to Tyrants only.

He has called together Legislative Bodies at Places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the Depository of their public Records, for the sole Purpose of fatiguing them into Compliance with his Measures.

He has dissolved Representative Houses repeatedly, for opposing with manly Firmness his Invasions on the Rights of the People.

He has refused for a long Time, after such Dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the Legislative Powers, incapable of the Annihilation, have returned to the People at large for their exercise; the State remaining in the mean time exposed to all the Dangers of Invasion from without, and the Convulsions within.

He has endeavoured to prevent the Population of these States; for that Purpose obstructing the Laws for Naturalization of Foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their Migrations hither, and raising the Conditions of new Appropriations of Lands.

He has obstructed the Administration of Justice, by refusing his Assent to Laws for establishing Judiciary Powers.

He has made Judges dependent on his Will alone, for the Tenure of their Offices, and the Amount and Payment of their Salaries.

He has erected a Multitude of new Offices, and sent hither Swarms of Officers to harrass our People, and eat out their Substance.

He has kept among us, in Times of Peace, Standing Armies, without the consent of our Legislatures.

He has affected to render the Military independent of and superior to the Civil Power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a Jurisdiction foreign to our Constitution, and unacknowledged by our Laws; giving his Assent to their Acts of pretended Legislation:

For quartering large Bodies of Armed Troops among us;

For protecting them, by a mock Trial, from Punishment for any Murders which they should commit on the Inhabitants of these States:

For cutting off our Trade with all Parts of the World:

For imposing Taxes on us without our Consent:

For depriving us, in many Cases, of the Benefits of Trial by Jury:

For transporting us beyond Seas to be tried for pretended Offences:

For abolishing the free System of English Laws in a neighbouring Province, establishing therein an arbitrary Government, and enlarging its Boundaries, so as to render it at once an Example and fit Instrument for introducing the same absolute Rules into these Colonies:

For taking away our Charters, abolishing our most valuable Laws, and altering fundamentally the Forms of our Governments:

For suspending our own Legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with Power to legislate for us in all Cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated Government here, by declaring us out of his Protection and waging War against us.

He has plundered our Seas, ravaged our Coasts, burnt our Towns, and destroyed the Lives of our People.

He is, at this Time, transporting large Armies of foreign Mercenaries to compleat the Works of Death, Desolation, and Tyranny, already begun with circumstances of Cruelty and Perfidy, scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous Ages, and totally unworthy the Head of a civilized Nation.

He has constrained our fellow Citizens taken Captive on the high Seas to bear Arms against their Country, to become the Executioners of their Friends and Brethren, or to fall themselves by their Hands.

He has excited domestic Insurrections amongst us, and has endeavoured to bring on the Inhabitants of our Frontiers, the merciless Indian Savages, whose known Rule of Warfare, is an undistinguished Destruction, of all Ages, Sexes and Conditions.

In every stage of these Oppressions we have Petitioned for Redress in the most humble Terms: Our repeated Petitions have been answered only by repeated Injury. A Prince, whose Character is thus marked by every act which may define a Tyrant, is unfit to be the Ruler of a free People.

Nor have we been wanting in Attentions to our British Brethren. We have warned them from Time to Time of Attempts by their Legislature to extend an unwarrantable Jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the Circumstances of our Emigration and Settlement here. We have appealed to their native Justice and Magnanimity, and we have conjured

them by the Ties of our common Kindred to disavow these Usurpations, which, would inevitably interrupt our Connections and Correspondence. They too have been deaf to the Voice of Justice and of Consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the Necessity, which denounces our Separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of Mankind, Enemies in War, in Peace, Friends.

We, therefore, the Representatives of the UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, in GENERAL CONGRESS, Assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the World for the Rectitude of our Intentions, do, in the Name, and by Authority of the good People of these Colonies, solemnly Publish and Declare, That these United Colonies are, and of Right ought to be, FREE AND INDEPENDENT STATES; that they are absolved from all Allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political Connection between them and the State of Great Britain, is and ought to be totally dissolved; and that as FREE AND INDEPENDENT STATES, they have full Power to levy War, conclude Peace, contract Alliances, establish Commerce, and to do all other Acts and Things which INDEPENDENT STATES may of right do. And for the support of this Declaration, with a firm Reliance on the Protection of divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our Lives, our Fortunes, and our sacred Honor.

The Form of Government

Once the American Revolution had been won, the new nation found it difficult to work together under the **Articles of Confederation**. During the Revolution, the Continental Congress served as the governing body for the United States. Once the war was over, the U.S. had John Dickinson develop the Articles of Confederation.

They were approved in 1781, but did not include a strong central government. The Articles allowed for the 13 states to continue conducting themselves independently from each other. This loose confederation caused a great many disputes. Under the leadership of George Washington, representatives of the states arrived in Philadelphia in 1787 to discuss these issues. Instead, they developed the framework for our present form of government. The work was difficult because small states feared control by the large states and southern states differed from northern states. Eventually, a government was formed that considered all of these concerns and instituted **compromises** on especially sticky issues.

The new government was divided into three branches, the Executive, the Legislative, and the Judicial. These branches provided a system of checks and balances so that no one branch would get too powerful. The federal government was strong, but it also allowed that authority in certain matters belonged to the states exclusively so that there was a separation of powers. Our Constitution is the longest surviving document of its sort and is the model for other democracies. The Preamble to the Constitution is important because it defines the purpose of the document. The remainder of the Constitution defines how the government will operate.



The Constitution of the United States of America (September 17, 1787)

We the People of the United States, in Order to form a more perfect Union, establish Justice, insure domestic Tranquility, provide for the common defence, promote the general Welfare, and secure the Blessings of Liberty to ourselves and our Posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

Article 1

Section 1 - The Legislature

All legislative Powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

Section 2 - The House

The House of Representatives shall be composed of Members chosen every second Year by the People of the several States, and the Electors in each State shall have the Qualifications requisite for Electors of the most numerous Branch of the State Legislature.

No Person shall be a Representative who shall not have attained to the Age of twenty five Years, and been seven Years a Citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an Inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

Representatives and direct Taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective Numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole Number of free Persons, including those bound to Service for a Term of

Years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other Persons.

The actual Enumeration shall be made within three Years after the first Meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent Term of ten Years, in such Manner as they shall by Law direct. The Number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty Thousand, but each State shall have at Least one Representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to chuse three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five and Georgia three.

When vacancies happen in the Representation from any State, the Executive Authority thereof shall issue Writs of Election to fill such Vacancies.

The House of Representatives shall chuse their Speaker and other Officers; and shall have the sole Power of Impeachment.

Section 3 - The Senate

The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six Years; and each Senator shall have one Vote.

Immediately after they shall be assembled in Consequence of the first Election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three Classes. The Seats of the Senators of the first Class shall be vacated at the Expiration of the second Year, of the second Class at the Expiration of the fourth Year, and of the third Class at the Expiration of the sixth Year, so that one third may be chosen every second Year; and if Vacancies happen by Resignation, or otherwise, during the Recess of

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the Legislature of any State, the Executive thereof may make temporary Appointments until the next Meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such Vacancies.

No person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the Age of thirty Years, and been nine Years a Citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an Inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

The Vice President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no Vote, unless they be equally divided.

The Senate shall chuse their other Officers, and also a President pro tempore, in the absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the Office of President of the United States.

The Senate shall have the sole Power to try all Impeachments. When sitting for that Purpose, they shall be on Oath or Affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside: And no Person shall be convicted without the Concurrence of two thirds of the Members present.

Judgment in Cases of Impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from Office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any Office of honor, Trust or Profit under the United States: but the Party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to Indictment, Trial, Judgment and Punishment, according to Law.

Section 4 - Elections, Meetings

The Times, Places and Manner of holding Elections for Senators and Representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by Law make or alter such Regulations, except as to the Place of Chusing Senators.

The Congress shall assemble at least once in every Year, and such Meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by Law appoint a different Day.

Section 5 - Membership, Rules, Journals, Adjournment

Each House shall be the Judge of the Elections, Returns and Qualifications of its own Members, and a Majority of each shall constitute a Quorum to do Business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the Attendance of absent Members, in such Manner, and under such Penalties as each House may provide.

Each House may determine the Rules of its Proceedings, punish its Members for disorderly Behavior, and, with the Concurrence of two-thirds, expel a Member.

Each House shall keep a Journal of its Proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such Parts as may in their Judgment require Secrecy; and the Yeas and Nays of the Members of either House on any question shall, at the Desire of one fifth of those Present, be entered on the Journal.

Neither House, during the Session of Congress, shall, without the Consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other Place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

Section 6 – Compensation

The Senators and Representatives shall receive a Compensation for their Services, to be ascertained by Law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States.

They shall in all Cases, except Treason, Felony and Breach of the Peace, be privileged from Arrest during their Attendance at the Session of their respective Houses, and in going to and

returning from the same; and for any Speech or Debate in either House, they shall not be questioned in any other Place.

No Senator or Representative shall, during the Time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil Office under the Authority of the United States which shall have been created, or the Emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no Person holding any Office under the United States, shall be a Member of either House during his Continuance in Office.

Section 7 - Revenue Bills, Legislative Process, Presidential Veto

All bills for raising Revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with Amendments as on other Bills.

Every Bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a Law, be presented to the President of the United States; If he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his Objections to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the Objections at large on their Journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such Reconsideration two thirds of that House shall agree to pass the Bill, it shall be sent, together with the Objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two thirds of that House, it shall become a Law. But in all such Cases the Votes of both Houses shall be determined by Yeas and Nays, and the Names of the Persons voting for and against the Bill shall be entered on the Journal of each House respectively. If any Bill shall not be returned by the President within ten Days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the Same shall be a Law, in like Manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress

by their Adjournment prevent its Return, in which Case it shall not be a Law.

Every Order, Resolution, or Vote to which the Concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary except on a question of Adjournment shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the Same shall take Effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the Rules and Limitations prescribed in the Case of a Bill.

Section 8 - Powers of Congress

The Congress shall have Power To lay and collect Taxes, Duties, Imposts and Excises, to pay the Debts and provide for the common Defence and general Welfare of the United States; but all Duties, Imposts and Excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

To regulate Commerce with foreign Nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian Tribes;

To establish an uniform Rule of Naturalization, and uniform Laws on the subject of Bankruptcies throughout the United States;

To coin Money, regulate the Value thereof, and of foreign Coin, and fix the Standard of Weights and Measures;

To provide for the Punishment of counterfeiting the Securities and current Coin of the United States;

To establish Post Offices and Post Roads;

To promote the Progress of Science and useful Arts, by securing for limited Times to

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Authors and Inventors the exclusive Right to their respective Writings and Discoveries;

To constitute Tribunals inferior to the supreme Court;

To define and punish Piracies and Felonies committed on the high Seas, and Offenses against the Law of Nations;

To declare War, grant Letters of Marque and Reprisal, and make Rules concerning Captures on Land and Water;

To raise and support Armies, but no Appropriation of Money to that Use shall be for a longer Term than two Years;

To provide and maintain a Navy;

To make Rules for the Government and Regulation of the land and naval Forces;

To provide for calling forth the Militia to execute the Laws of the Union, suppress Insurrections and repel Invasions;

To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the Militia, and for governing such Part of them as may be employed in the Service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively, the Appointment of the Officers, and the Authority of training the Militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

To exercise exclusive Legislation in all Cases whatsoever, over such District (not exceeding ten Miles square) as may, by Cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the Seat of the Government of the United States, and to exercise like Authority over all Places purchased by the Consent of the Legislature of the State in which the Same shall be, for the Erection of Forts, Magazines, Arsenals, dock-Yards, and other needful Buildings; And

To make all Laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into Execution the foregoing Powers, and all other Powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any Department or Officer thereof.

Section 9 - Limits on Congress

The Migration or Importation of such Persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the Year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such Importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each Person.

The privilege of the Writ of Habeas Corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in Cases of Rebellion or Invasion the public Safety may require it.

No Bill of Attainder or ex post facto Law shall be passed.

No capitation, or other direct, Tax shall be laid, unless in Proportion to the Census or Enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

No Tax or Duty shall be laid on Articles exported from any State.

No Preference shall be given by any Regulation of Commerce or Revenue to the Ports of one State over those of another: nor shall Vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay Duties in another.

No Money shall be drawn from the Treasury, but in Consequence of Appropriations made by Law; and a regular Statement and Account of the Receipts and Expenditures of all public Money shall be published from time to time.

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No Title of Nobility shall be granted by the United States: And no Person holding any Office of Profit or Trust under them, shall, without the Consent of the Congress, accept of any present, Emolument, Office, or Title, of any kind whatever, from any King, Prince or foreign State.

Section 10 - Powers prohibited of States

No State shall enter into any Treaty, Alliance, or Confederation; grant Letters of Marque and Reprisal; coin Money; emit Bills of Credit; make any Thing but gold and silver Coin a Tender in Payment of Debts; pass any Bill of Attainder, ex post facto Law, or Law impairing the Obligation of Contracts, or grant any Title of Nobility.

No State shall, without the Consent of the Congress, lay any Imposts or Duties on Imports or Exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection Laws: and the net Produce of all Duties and Imposts, laid by any State on Imports or Exports, shall be for the Use of the Treasury of the United States; and all such Laws shall be subject to the Revision and Controul of the Congress.

No State shall, without the Consent of Congress, lay any duty of Tonnage, keep Troops, or Ships of War in time of Peace, enter into any Agreement or Compact with another State, or with a foreign Power, or engage in War, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent Danger as will not admit of delay.

Article II. - The Executive Branch Note

Section 1 - The President

The executive Power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his Office during the Term of four

Years, and, together with the Vice-President chosen for the same Term, be elected, as follows:

Each State shall appoint, in such Manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a Number of Electors, equal to the whole Number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress: but no Senator or Representative, or Person holding an Office of Trust or Profit under the United States, shall be appointed an Elector.

The Electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by Ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an Inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a List of all the Persons voted for, and of the Number of Votes for each; which List they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the Seat of the Government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the Presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the Certificates, and the Votes shall then be counted. The Person having the greatest Number of Votes shall be the President, if such Number be a Majority of the whole Number of Electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such Majority, and have an equal Number of Votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately chuse by Ballot one of them for President; and if no Person have a Majority, then from the five highest on the List the said House shall in like Manner chuse the President. But in chusing the President, the Votes shall be taken by States, the Representation from each State having one Vote; a quorum for this Purpose shall consist of a Member or Members from two-thirds of the States, and a Majority of all the States shall be necessary to a Choice. In every Case, after the Choice of the President, the Person having the greatest Number of Votes of the Electors shall be the Vice President. But if there should remain two

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or more who have equal Votes, the Senate shall chuse from them by Ballot the Vice-President.

The Congress may determine the Time of chusing the Electors, and the Day on which they shall give their Votes; which Day shall be the same throughout the United States.

No person except a natural born Citizen, or a Citizen of the United States, at the time of the Adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the Office of President; neither shall any Person be eligible to that Office who shall not have attained to the Age of thirty-five Years, and been fourteen Years a Resident within the United States.

In Case of the Removal of the President from Office, or of his Death, Resignation, or Inability to discharge the Powers and Duties of the said Office, the same shall devolve on the Vice President, and the Congress may by Law provide for the Case of Removal, Death, Resignation or Inability, both of the President and Vice President, declaring what Officer shall then act as President, and such Officer shall act accordingly, until the Disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

The President shall, at stated Times, receive for his Services, a Compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the Period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that Period any other Emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Before he enter on the Execution of his Office, he shall take the following Oath or Affirmation:

"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the Office of President of the United States, and will to the best of my

Ability, preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States."

Section 2 - Civilian Power over Military, Cabinet, Pardon Power, Appointments

The President shall be Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, and of the Militia of the several States, when called into the actual Service of the United States; he may require the Opinion, in writing, of the principal Officer in each of the executive Departments, upon any subject relating to the Duties of their respective Offices, and he shall have Power to Grant Reprieves and Pardons for Offenses against the United States, except in Cases of Impeachment.

He shall have Power, by and with the Advice and Consent of the Senate, to make Treaties, provided two thirds of the Senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the Advice and Consent of the Senate, shall appoint Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, Judges of the Supreme Court, and all other Officers of the United States, whose Appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by Law: but the Congress may by Law vest the Appointment of such inferior Officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the Courts of Law, or in the Heads of Departments.

The President shall have Power to fill up all Vacancies that may happen during the Recess of the Senate, by granting Commissions which shall expire at the End of their next Session.

Section 3 - State of the Union, Convening Congress

He shall from time to time give to the Congress Information of the State of the Union, and recommend to their Consideration such Measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary Occasions,

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convene both Houses, or either of them, and in Case of Disagreement between them, with Respect to the Time of Adjournment, he may adjourn them to such Time as he shall think proper; he shall receive Ambassadors and other public Ministers; he shall take Care that the Laws be faithfully executed, and shall Commission all the Officers of the United States.

Section 4 - Disqualification

The President, Vice President and all civil Officers of the United States, shall be removed from Office on Impeachment for, and Conviction of, Treason, Bribery, or other high Crimes and Misdemeanors.

Article III. - The Judicial Branch Note

Section 1 - Judicial powers

The judicial Power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior Courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The Judges, both of the supreme and inferior Courts, shall hold their Offices during good Behavior, and shall, at stated Times, receive for their Services a Compensation which shall not be diminished during their Continuance in Office.

Section 2 - Trial by Jury, Original Jurisdiction, Jury Trials

The judicial Power shall extend to all Cases, in Law and Equity, arising under this Constitution, the Laws of the United States, and Treaties made, or which shall be made, under their Authority; to all Cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls; to all Cases of admiralty and maritime Jurisdiction; to Controversies to which the United States shall be a Party; to Controversies between two or more States; between a State and Citizens of another State; between Citizens of different States; between Citizens of the same State claiming Lands

under Grants of different States, and between a State, or the Citizens thereof, and foreign States, Citizens or Subjects.

In all Cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, and those in which a State shall be Party, the Supreme Court shall have original Jurisdiction. In all the other Cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate Jurisdiction, both as to Law and Fact, with such Exceptions, and under such Regulations as the Congress shall make.

Trial of all Crimes, except in Cases of Impeachment, shall be by Jury; and such Trial shall be held in the State where the said Crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the Trial shall be at such Place or Places as the Congress may by Law have directed.

Section 3 - Treason Note

Treason against the United States, shall consist only in levying War against them, or in adhering to their Enemies, giving them Aid and Comfort. No Person shall be convicted of Treason unless on the Testimony of two Witnesses to the same overt Act, or on Confession in open Court.

The Congress shall have power to declare the Punishment of Treason, but no Attainder of Treason shall work Corruption of Blood, or Forfeiture except during the Life of the Person attainted.

Article IV. - The States

Section 1 - Each State to Honor all others

Full Faith and Credit shall be given in each State to the public Acts, Records, and judicial Proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general Laws prescribe the Manner in which such Acts, Records and

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Proceedings shall be proved, and the Effect thereof.

Section 2 - State citizens, Extradition

The Citizens of each State shall be entitled to all Privileges and Immunities of Citizens in the several States.

A Person charged in any State with Treason, Felony, or other Crime, who shall flee from Justice, and be found in another State, shall on demand of the executive Authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having Jurisdiction of the Crime.

No Person held to Service or Labour in one State, under the Laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in Consequence of any Law or Regulation therein, be discharged from such Service or Labour, But shall be delivered up on Claim of the Party to whom such Service or Labour may be due.

Section 3 - New States

New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new States shall be formed or erected within the Jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the Junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the Consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

The Congress shall have Power to dispose of and make all needful Rules and Regulations respecting the Territory or other Property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to Prejudice any Claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

Section 4 - Republican government

The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a Republican Form of Government, and shall protect each of them against Invasion; and on Application of the Legislature, or of the Executive when the Legislature cannot be convened against domestic Violence.

Article V. - Amendment

The Congress, whenever two thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose Amendments to this Constitution, or, on the Application of the Legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a Convention for proposing Amendments, which, in either Case, shall be valid to all Intents and Purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by Conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other Mode of Ratification may be proposed by the Congress; Provided that no Amendment which may be made prior to the Year One thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any Manner affect the first and fourth Clauses in the Ninth Section of the first Article; and that no State, without its Consent, shall be deprived of its equal Suffrage in the Senate.

Article VI. - The United States

All Debts contracted and Engagements entered into, before the Adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

This Constitution, and the Laws of the United States which shall be made in Pursuance thereof; and all Treaties made, or which shall be made, under the Authority of the United States, shall be the supreme Law of the Land; and the

Judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any Thing in the Constitution or Laws of any State to the Contrary notwithstanding.

The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the Members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial Officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by Oath or Affirmation, to support this Constitution; but no religious Test shall ever be required as a Qualification to any Office or public Trust under the United States.

Article VII. - Ratification Documents

The Ratification of the Conventions of nine States, shall be sufficient for the Establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the Same.

Done in Convention by the Unanimous Consent of the States present the Seventeenth Day of September in the Year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and Eighty seven and of the Independence of the United States of America the Twelfth.

Ratification and the Bill of Rights

Once the Constitution was written, it still required the **ratification** of nine of the thirteen states before it was adopted as the law of the land. Almost immediately, a group calling themselves **Federalists** began writing articles called the Federalist Papers on support of the ratification of the Constitution. James Madison, who is called the Father of the Constitution, Alexander Hamilton, and John Jay were the leaders of this group. Likewise, anti-federalists led by George Mason, Patrick Henry, and Elbridge Gerry wrote articles, published pamphlets, and made speeches in

opposition to the acceptance of the Constitution. One of their main concerns was that the Constitution did not contain a “Bill of Rights” that would protect the rights of the individual and of the states.

It was the promise of an addition of the Bill of Rights that ultimately led to the ratification of the Constitution in 1788. Twelve amendments to the Constitution were proposed; ten were adopted. These first ten amendments constitute the fundamental individual rights guaranteed to us as citizens.

The Bill of Rights (December 15, 1791)

Amendment I - Freedom of Religion, Press, Expression. Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances.

Amendment II - Right to bear arms. A well regulated Militia, being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear Arms, shall not be infringed.

Amendment III - Quartering of soldiers. No Soldier shall, in time of peace be quartered in any house, without the consent of the Owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

Amendment IV - Search and seizure. The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no Warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by Oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

Amendment V - Trial and Punishment, Compensation for Takings. No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a Grand Jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the Militia, when in actual service in time of War or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

Amendment VI - Right to speedy trial, confrontation of witnesses. In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the Assistance of Counsel for his defense.

Amendment VII - Trial by jury in civil cases. In Suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury, shall be otherwise re-examined in any Court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

Amendment VIII - Cruel and Unusual punishment. Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

Amendment IX - Construction of Constitution. The enumeration in the Constitution, of certain

rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

Amendment X - States' Rights. The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

The Civil War and the Gettysburg Address

The period between the beginning of the Civil War in 1861 and 1870 was a decade that provided several important documents that provided greater freedom for Americans. In 1862, Abraham Lincoln issued the **Emancipation Proclamation** that freed the slaves in the rebellious states. The 13th amendment (1865) to the Constitution officially abolished slavery in the United States. The 14th (1868) amendment helped to define citizenship. The 15th (1870) amendment provided for the voting rights of former slaves and prohibited preventing persons from voting for reasons of race or color. The speech given by Abraham Lincoln at the dedication of the cemetery at Gettysburg, to honor soldiers who died there, is one of the most remembered speeches ever delivered. On that day, President Lincoln uttered the words that will forever be cherished by Americans, “that government of the people, by the people, and for the people shall not perish from the earth.”



**The Gettysburg Address by Abraham Lincoln
(November 19, 1863)**

Fourscore and seven years ago our fathers brought forth on this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal.

Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation or any nation so conceived and so dedicated can long endure.

We are met on a great battlefield of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field as a final resting-place for those who here gave their lives that that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this.

But in a larger sense, we cannot dedicate, we cannot consecrate, we cannot hallow this ground. The brave men, living and dead who struggled here have consecrated it far above our poor power to add or detract. The world will little note nor long remember what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us the living rather to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to

be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us--that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion—that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain, that this nation under God shall have a new birth of freedom, and that government of the people, by the people, for the people shall not perish from the earth.

Civil Rights and Martin Luther King, Jr.

One hundred years after Lincoln delivered the Gettysburg Address to a small crowd in Pennsylvania, Martin Luther King, Jr. delivered a famous speech on the steps of the Lincoln Memorial before thousands of people. Like Lincoln, King was shot before he had the opportunity to realize his dream. Lincoln did not witness the healing of the Union as he envisioned after the Civil War ended. King hoped for a time when the racial discrimination ended, and people were judged by their deeds and not by the color of their skin. His “I Have a Dream” speech in Washington, D.C., inspired the civil rights movement and referred to Lincoln and his words.

**"I Have a Dream" by Martin Luther King, Jr.
(August 28, 1963)**

I am happy to join with you today in what will go down in history as the greatest demonstration for freedom in the history of our nation. Five score years ago, a great American, in whose symbolic shadow we stand today, signed the Emancipation Proclamation. This momentous decree came as a great beacon light of hope to millions of Negro slaves who had been seared in the flames of withering injustice. It came as a joyous daybreak to end the long night of their captivity

But 100 years later, the Negro still is not free. One hundred years later, the life of the Negro is still sadly crippled by the manacles of segregation and the chains of discrimination. One hundred years later, the Negro lives on a lonely island of poverty in the midst of a vast ocean of material prosperity. One hundred years later, the Negro is still languished in the corners of American society and finds himself an exile in his own land. And so we've come here today to dramatize a shameful condition

In a sense we've come to our nation's capital to cash a check. When the architects of our republic wrote the magnificent words of the Constitution and the Declaration of Independence, they were signing a promissory note to which every American was to fall heir. This note was a promise that all men - yes, black men as well as white men - would be guaranteed the unalienable rights of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

It is obvious today that America has defaulted on this promissory note insofar as her citizens of color are concerned. Instead of honoring this sacred obligation, America has given the Negro people a bad check; a check that has come back marked "insufficient funds."

But we refuse to believe that the bank of justice is bankrupt. We refuse to believe that there are insufficient funds in the great vaults of opportunity of this nation. And so we've come to cash this check, a check that will give us upon demand the riches of freedom and security of justice.

We have also come to his hallowed spot to remind America of the fierce urgency of now. This is no time to engage in the luxury of cooling off or to take the tranquilizing drug of gradualism. Now is the time to make real the promises of democracy. Now is the time to rise from the dark

and desolate valley of segregation to the sunlit path of racial justice. Now is the time to lift our nation from the quick sands of racial injustice to the solid rock of brotherhood. Now is the time to make justice a reality for all of God's children.

It would be fatal for the nation to overlook the urgency of the moment. This sweltering summer of the Negro's legitimate discontent will not pass until there is an invigorating autumn of freedom and equality. Nineteen sixty-three is not an end but a beginning. Those who hoped that the Negro needed to blow off steam and will now be content will have a rude awakening if the nation returns to business as usual. There will be neither rest nor tranquility in America until the Negro is granted his citizenship rights. The whirlwinds of revolt will continue to shake the foundations of our nation until the bright day of justice emerges.

But there is something that I must say to my people who stand on the warm threshold which leads into the palace of justice. In the process of gaining our rightful place we must not be guilty of wrongful deeds. Let us not seek to satisfy our thirst for freedom by drinking from the cup of bitterness and hatred. We must forever conduct our struggle on the high plane of dignity and discipline. We must not allow our creative protest to degenerate into physical violence. Again and again we must rise to the majestic heights of meeting physical force with soul force. The marvelous new militancy which has engulfed the Negro community must not lead us to a distrust of all white people, for many of our white brothers, as evidenced by their presence here today, have come to realize that their destiny is tied up with our destiny. And they have come to realize that their freedom is inextricably bound to our freedom. We cannot walk alone. And as we walk, we must make the pledge that we shall always march ahead. We cannot turn back.

There are those who are asking the devotees of civil rights, "When will you be satisfied?" We can never be satisfied as long as the Negro is the victim of the unspeakable horrors of police brutality. We can never be satisfied as long as our bodies, heavy with the fatigue of travel, cannot gain lodging in the motels of the highways and the hotels of the cities. We cannot be satisfied as long as the Negro's basic mobility is from a smaller ghetto to a larger one. We can never be satisfied as long as our children are stripped of their selfhood and robbed of their dignity by signs stating "for whites only." We cannot be satisfied as long as a Negro in Mississippi cannot vote and a Negro in New York believes he has nothing for which to vote. No, no we are not satisfied and we will not be satisfied until justice rolls down like waters and righteousness like a mighty stream. I am not unmindful that some of you have come here out of great trials and tribulations. Some of you have come fresh from narrow jail cells. Some of you have come from areas where your quest for freedom left you battered by storms of persecution and staggered by the winds of police brutality. You have been the veterans of creative suffering. Continue to work with the faith that unearned suffering is redemptive.

Go back to Mississippi, go back to Alabama, go back to South Carolina, go back to Georgia, go back to Louisiana, go back to the slums and ghettos of our northern cities, knowing that somehow this situation can and will be changed.

Let us not wallow in the valley of despair. I say to you today my friends - so even though we face the difficulties of today and tomorrow, I still have a dream. It is a dream deeply rooted in the American dream.

I have a dream that one day this nation will rise up and live out the true meaning of its

creed: "We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal."

I have a dream that one day on the red hills of Georgia the sons of former slaves and the sons of former slave owners will be able to sit down together at the table of brotherhood.

I have a dream that one day even the state of Mississippi, a state sweltering with the heat of injustice, sweltering with the heat of oppression, will be transformed into an oasis of freedom and justice.

I have a dream that my four little children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the color of their skin but by the content of their character.

I have a dream today.

I have a dream that one day down in Alabama, with its vicious racists, with its governor having his lips dripping with the words of interposition and nullification - one day right there in Alabama little black boys and black girls will be able to join hands with little white boys and white girls as sisters and brothers.

I have a dream today.

I have a dream that one day every valley shall be exalted, and every hill and mountain shall be made low, the rough places will be made plain, and the crooked places will be made straight, and the glory of the Lord shall be revealed and all flesh shall see it together.

This is our hope. This is the faith that I go back to the South with. With this faith we will be able to hew out of the mountain of despair a stone of hope. With this faith we will be able to transform the jangling discords of our nation into a beautiful symphony of brotherhood. With this faith we will be able to work together, to pray together, to struggle together, to go to jail

together, to stand up for freedom together, knowing that we will be free one day.

This will be the day, this will be the day when all of God's children will be able to sing with new meaning "My country 'tis of thee, sweet land of liberty, of thee I sing. Land where my father's died, land of the Pilgrim's pride, from every mountainside, let freedom ring!"

And if America is to be a great nation, this must become true. And so let freedom ring from the prodigious hilltops of New Hampshire. Let freedom ring from the mighty mountains of New York. Let freedom ring from the heightening Alleghenies of Pennsylvania.

Let freedom ring from the snow-capped Rockies of Colorado. Let freedom ring from the curvaceous slopes of California.

But not only that; let freedom ring from Stone Mountain of Georgia. Let freedom ring from Lookout Mountain of Tennessee.

Let freedom ring from every hill and molehill of Mississippi - from every mountainside.

Let freedom ring. And when this happens, and when we allow freedom to ring - when we let it ring from every village and every hamlet, from every state and every city, we will be able to speed up that day when all of God's children – black men and white men, Jews and

Gentiles, Protestants and Catholics - will be able to join hands and sing in the words of the old Negro spiritual: "Free at last! Free at last! Thank God Almighty, we are free at last!"

What We Believe....

William Tyler Page, an employee in the House of Representatives, wrote the American's Creed in 1917. In 1919, he was elected Clerk of the U.S. House of Representatives, a position he held for the remainder of his life. The Speaker of the House of Representatives formally accepted the Creed on April 3, 1918 when it was written into the *Congressional Record*.

The American's Creed

I believe in the United States of America as a government of the people, by the people, for the people; whose just powers are derived from the consent of the governed; a democracy in a republic; a sovereign Nation of many sovereign States; a perfect union, one and inseparable; established upon the principles of freedom, equality, justice, and humanity for which American patriots sacrificed their lives and their fortunes.

I therefore believe it is my duty to my country to love it, to support its Constitution, to obey its laws, to respect its flag, and to defend it against all enemies.

Conclusion

Many Americans are familiar with the Freedom Documents that are listed in this text. In fact, the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, and the Bill of Rights are on display at the National Archives building in Washington, D.C. Hundreds of thousands of people each year



pass through long lines to briefly glimpse the words of Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, James Madison, and the other founders of our nation. These documents are sacred to all Americans because they represent our ideals, our values, and our aspirations. To paraphrase the Gettysburg Address, “the world *will* note and long remember what we have said here.” ❖

U.S. Citizenship

PURPOSE

*There are three ways to become a citizen of the United States. The easiest way is to be born here. All persons born in the United States according to the Fourteenth Amendment are citizens of the United States and the state in which they reside. This type of citizenship is known as **Jus Soli**. Literally, meaning “law of the soil” *jus soli* is based on where you were born. **Jus Sanguinis**, meaning “law of the blood,” applies to persons born abroad to United States citizens. If one or both of their parents are U.S. citizens, they are also citizens. These individuals can actually hold dual citizenship by also being a citizen of the country in which they were born. Finally, the most difficult way of becoming a citizen is through the **naturalization** process.*

Introduction

The Statue of Liberty in New York harbor has been a welcoming site to immigrants from all over the world for generations. It symbolizes the open door to America. The Immigration and Naturalization Service indicated that in 1996 more than one million **immigrants** became naturalized citizens of the United States. Legal immigrants are persons lawfully admitted for permanent residence in the United States. A 1990 immigration act set an annual limit, beginning in 1995, of 675,000 new entrants (excluding **political refugees** and other special categories), of whom no more than seven percent can come from any one country. In 1998, more

than 660,000 persons applied for permanent residence in the U.S.

Since the early part of the twentieth century, immigration to the U.S. has decreased significantly. Between 1900 and 1910 nearly one million immigrants entered the U.S. each year. Early immigration patterns favored people from Western Europe and Great Britain. In fact, laws were passed, which actually excluded certain nationalities such as the Chinese from entering the country. Persons wishing to become naturalized American citizens must have legal immigrant status.

Naturalization

Naturalization is the process by which citizens of another country can become citizens of the United States. Those who wish to become naturalized citizens must demonstrate to the court that they have met all the legal requirements set by Congress. Those who would become citizens must then **renounce** the citizenship of their former country and swear an oath of allegiance to the Constitution and to the laws of the United States.

Qualifications for U.S. Citizenship

The 1952 McCarran-Walter Immigration and Naturalization Act (as amended in 1965) established the following qualifications for U.S. citizenship. Any person wishing to become a U.S. citizen must:

- Have entered the U.S. lawfully for permanent residence;
- Be of good moral faith;

- Agree to support the principles of the government of the United States;
- Be able to read, write, and speak the English language;
- Be able to demonstrate a knowledge of American history and government;
- Be able to demonstrate a dedication to American values, which includes not being a member of **subversive** group such as a communist party.

Other qualifications include attending a hearing accompanied by two witnesses conducted by the Immigration and Naturalization Service and having the oath of citizenship officially administered.

Applicants for citizenship must file a petition that requires reaching the age of 18. In order to file, the person must have lived in the U.S. continuously for the past five years and resided in a state for six months or lived in the U.S. for three years if married to an American citizen.

Green Cards

A **Green Card** is a U.S. permanent residence visa. A visa is permission granted by the government to enter a country. Visas are granted for tourists, for students, and for work-related reasons. An individual, who is a permanent resident, is eligible to apply for citizenship. Each year the U.S. makes 50,000 Green Cards available through a lottery system. Nations with historically low immigration rates into the U.S. are encouraged to participate. Applicants must meet specific requirements for education/training. However, qualifications for Green Cards are less stringent than citizenship requirements. You do not have to speak or write English. You do not

have to have a certain level of wealth or a job waiting. You need only qualify as an immigrant, which means that you may not be a criminal, cannot be mentally disturbed, must be able to work to support yourself, and cannot be a threat to the national interests of the United States.

Benefits of Immigration

While many Americans believe that immigrants are taking jobs away from citizens, the fact is that immigrants are more likely to be self-employed and start new businesses. Compared to the native-born population, census statistics show that immigrants are more likely to be employed, save more of their earnings, and have a slightly higher per capita income level than natives. Non-refugee immigrants of working age are less prone to welfare than natives.

Immigrants have contributed greatly to American society. Immigrants are twice as likely to hold a doctorate level of education as native-born Americans. Famous scientist, Albert Einstein, was an immigrant. Werner Von Braun, who led American efforts to get into space, was an immigrant. Secretaries of State Henry Kissinger and Madeleine Albright were immigrants. In fact, most Americans can trace their origins to somewhere outside the United States. We have been called a nation of immigrants with good reason.

Conclusion

The United States has been called a melting pot of various ethnic groups that eventually all become American with shared values. Immigrants, since the founding of colonial America in the seventeenth century have come to this country for economic, religious, and political reasons. In the twenty-first century, those reasons

are still valid as the United States continues to represent a bright and hopeful future for people all over the world. ❖

Political Systems of Government

PURPOSE

It is important not to confuse political systems of government with economic systems of government. Economic systems of government focus on the approach that a nation takes toward the production, development, and management of the material wealth of a country. Political forms of government represent a philosophy of how a country should be ruled. Who is responsible for making and implementing the laws? How are government officials including the heads of state selected? How much input do the people have in the decision making process? As you read about other forms of government, be sure to consider how they differ from our own.



Democratic Forms of Government

The term democracy goes back to ancient Greece where it originated. Literally, democracy means “of the people” and refers to a method of governing that allows the people to make the decisions. If each member of a team is able to participate in the decision making process, that team is practicing a form of direct democracy where everyone has a say. In Athens, the Greek form of democracy limited the participation in lawmaking to “citizens” of the city-state, excluding other inhabitants and slaves. Women also could not participate. The majority of people in that democracy did not have a say in the way government was run. The United States does not have a direct democracy. Imagine how difficult it would be to have every citizen participate in decisions on proposed legislation, even in the technological era. Instead, we elect Congressional

Introduction

In recent years, the political reconstruction of the former Union of Soviet Socialist Republics has meant the emergence of new nations that call themselves democracies. However, what really is meant by the term democracy? Are both the United States and Russia democracies? Is Great Britain, who has a queen and a parliament, a democracy? Or is Great Britain a monarchy? What other forms of government are there? In times of political change, it is helpful to understand the variety of the competing political philosophies of government.

representatives to make those decisions for us. This type of democracy is called a **republic**.

The American form of democracy evolved from the political thinking of philosophers such as John Locke and Jean Jacques Rousseau. Locke developed a doctrine of **natural rights**, i.e., that all people have certain rights, such as life and liberty. We have these rights because we are people, and not because a government gives them to us. Later the idea of a **social contract** followed. The decision makers and the people have an agreement about their mutual responsibilities. If the ruler failed to meet responsibilities or tried to take away natural rights, the people could take back their allegiance to the ruler. This point, which was further developed by Jean Jacques Rousseau, was an important factor in the American and French revolutions.

As the years have passed, the United States has given opportunity to participate in our representative form of democracy to more and more people. The 15th Amendment (1870) gave voting rights to former slaves. The 19th Amendment (1920) gave women the right to participate in the election process. The 24th Amendment (1964) removed the restriction on voting that required payment of a poll tax ensuring that poor people would have the opportunity to vote. The 26th Amendment (1971) lowered the voting age to 18. These amendments meant that more and more Americans could participate in the voting process making our nation more and more democratic. Unfortunately, statistics show that fewer and fewer persons seem to be participating in the voting process even though more and more persons are being provided with the opportunity.

Another aspect of our democracy that distinguishes it from other forms of government is the two political party system. In 1787, the

disagreement between the federalists who supported the ratification of the Constitution with a strong central government against the anti-federalists who opposed them, we have virtually always had a two-party system in the U.S. Other parties come and go, but since the early nineteenth century, every U.S. President has either been a Republican or a Democrat. Because these two parties have such large memberships and because they are so well funded, it is difficult for a third party to establish itself as anything more than a spoiler that attempts to focus on one or more issues. Part of the reason our two-party system is so successful is that the election results in one person being selected per district.

Another type of representative system is that of **proportional** representation where the seats in the assembly are distributed among the parties based on the proportion of the vote that each party receives. This system guarantees that minority votes will be taken into account, which tends to result in a greater number of political parties.

The advantage of representative democracy over direct democracy is that it is much easier to make decisions with smaller groups. One obvious negative is that you only have limited opportunities to vote the individual out of office if you disagree with that decision-making. One way for citizens in a representative democracy to have an impact is through the **referendum** process. A referendum allows people to vote directly on a legislative or policy issue. In this way, the will of the people is clear on the subject. One example of this type of legislation is millage votes. In many communities, education is in part funded by direct taxes on property called millages. People are able to determine whether the cost of a property tax increase should be used to help fund schools in their school district.

Parliamentary Types of Government

While many countries call themselves democratic republics, not all of them are like the United States. Great Britain, for example, has a **parliamentary** form of government. The British form of government has two legislative houses, only one of which (the House of Commons) is elected by the people. The other house is appointed, usually for life, and is called the House of Lords because it consists of **nobles**. The House of Commons is the more powerful of the two houses. When an election is held, the party that has the majority is able to form the government headed by the party leader who is called the **prime minister**. Members of the government are also members of Parliament. The members of the government are like the **cabinet** of the President of the United States. While either of the houses of Parliament can initiate legislation, only the House of Commons can pass bills that relate to tax and finance. The House of Lords, once very powerful advisers to the **monarchy**, now serve in more of an advisory capacity.

Another feature of the British form of government is the existence of a monarch. By the year 2002, Queen Elizabeth II served as the head of the state for nearly 50 years. Her power is limited, but she consults regularly with the prime minister and other government officials. She signs all legislation before it becomes law, but her approval is usually just a formality. Her authority is generally limited to representing the country at various functions, hosting other heads of state, appearing at public functions, and serving on the boards of charitable organizations. While she is not powerful, she is highly respected by the people and is a symbol of the United Kingdom. Other monarchs are more powerful.

Monarchies

A monarchy is a form of rule in which there is a single head of state, a monarch, with the title of King (or Queen). The monarch holds his or her office for life. The title of monarch normally passes on to members of a specific royal family. Historically, the monarch serves by **divine right**, which means he or she answers only to God. When a monarch rules with full or nearly full executive, legislative, and judicial powers practically unlimited by a constitution, the system is often referred to as an **absolute monarchy**. Saudi Arabia is run by a traditional monarchy where power lies in the hands of the al-Saud family who have a hereditary claim to the throne. King Fahd bin Abdel-Aziz al-Saud has ruled since 1982. The king appoints and leads the Council of Ministers. The Council of Ministers serve as the instrument of royal authority in executive matters. The king also is assisted by an advisory council, nominated or approved by him.

Today, in many of the countries that have monarchs, the power of the monarch is limited. Elected officials who are guided by a constitution generally run these countries. This type of system is referred to as **constitutional monarchy**.

Theocracy – Rule by Religion

A **theocracy** is a form of government in which the clergy possesses all legitimate political authority and in which religious law is more important than civil law and enforced by state agencies. Iran is an example of a theocratic form of government.

When the leader of the country, the Shah, was overthrown in 1979, Iran came under the influence of the religious leader, the Ayatollah

Khomeini. Today, Iran is a theocratic Islamic republic governed under the constitution of 1979, which established Islamic principles of government. While the country has an elected president, who serves as the head of government, he is under the influence of the Islamic religious advisory board. There is also a chief of state who is appointed for life by the Islamic religious advisory board and is the leader of the Islamic Revolution.

Totalitarianism – Absolute Power

Totalitarianism is a form of government dominated by a single, like-minded governing body that controls all organized political, economic, social, and cultural activities in a country. This type of government **represses** all forms of disagreement and opposition. It employs censorship of the mass media. It centralizes state planning and administration of the economy. It uses massive propaganda to gather popular support from the people. Totalitarian states differ from traditional **dictatorships** by the "total" scope of human behavior that the authorities seek to control.

An example of a country with a totalitarian form of government is Cuba. Since the Cuban revolution in 1959, power has been consolidated into the hands of one man, Fidel Castro, and his followers. Castro is both the chief of state and the head of government. His brother is the vice-president. The Legislative Branch is called the National Assembly. When National Assembly elections are held, the special candidacy commission appointed by Castro approves candidates. The National Assembly appoints the Judicial Branch. There is only one political party headed by Castro. One group controls the government, the economy, and the media.



Conclusion

The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) called itself a republic. It had a constitution that provided for the just and equitable treatment of its people. China calls itself the People's Republic of China. Yet, there was only one political party allowed to participate in the government in the USSR, the communists. There is only one political party in China that represents its leaders. Most totalitarian governments have constitutions, but they do not carry much weight. The opportunity to participate in government is not available to literally billions of people. It is the active involvement of people who have the privilege of being able to participate in government that will ensure these freedoms continue. ❖

Economic Systems of Government

PURPOSE

*If you asked political scientists what they thought the most important document written in 1776 was, they would probably say Thomas Jefferson's Declaration of Independence. However, if you asked an economist that same question, he might answer **Adam Smith's The Wealth of Nations**. It was Smith's book that outlined the theory of **capitalism** that became the basis for the economic systems of many countries. In this lesson, we will explore the development of capitalism and compare it with **socialism and communism**.*

Introduction

Between 1600 and 1800, the most successful economic practice in Western Europe was called **mercantilism**. According to mercantilism, a country's economic success could be determined by how much wealth it had acquired. This wealth was generally measured in gold or silver. The gold and silver were acquired through discovery and trade. It was important that the countries had a positive trade balance. Nations with a positive trade balance export more goods than they import. A successful mercantile country, like Great Britain, would have the following:

- A strong agricultural industry so that food would not have to be imported;
- Enough sea power so that they could convey trade goods, and enough military power so that they could protect them;

- Colonies that could be markets for manufactured goods and sources of raw materials;
- Well-developed industries; and
- A large enough population to provide labor.

A primary reason that the British fought the American Revolution was because the colonies were very important to British economic success, and Britain did not want to lose this segment of their economy.

Capitalism- A New Kind of Economy

Adam Smith's book, The Wealth of Nations, outlined a new kind of economy called capitalism. Under this system, government practiced a policy called *laissez-faire* economics. *Laissez-faire* is French for "let do." In a pure capitalist society, the government does not interfere in the economic system. As long as people respected the personal and property rights of others, they should be allowed to make decisions for themselves.

Under pure capitalism, **entrepreneurs** became very important. Entrepreneurs are individuals who organize, operate, and assume the risk in business activities. These individuals are also sometimes called capitalists. They own the industries that produce goods for trade. They employ the workers. They invest in machinery to produce goods. They set the prices for the market place. Capitalists believe in **free trade** without any laws or regulations that limit competition in the market place.

In a capitalist society, the price of goods is determined, not by the government, but by the marketplace through the **Law of Supply and Demand**. Under this economic theory, goods are more expensive if they are limited in supply and the demand for them is great. Prices are lower if the supply is great and the demand is low.

Another factor in the theory of capitalism is that it operates in cycles. The economy as measured by the **Gross National Product** (GNP), will go up and down. The GNP is the total value of goods and services produced in an economy. When the GNP goes down, there are usually higher rates of unemployment, greater numbers of businesses going **bankrupt**, and a decline in prices. When an economic downturn lasts for an extended period of time, it is called a **recession**. In capitalist theory, the recession ends as the cycle reverses itself. Low prices increase demand. Increased demand lowers the supply level. Short supply calls for an increase in production. Increased production requires more labor creating new jobs. New jobs lower the unemployment rate. More people working increases the sale of goods. The economy then revives.

In modern capitalist societies, the government plays an active role, stimulating the economy as needed. One example of government intervention in the economy is the laying of **tariffs** on imported goods. A tariff is an additional tax placed on certain products that raises the price of those imported goods. During the 1970s, there was a huge increase in the cost of gasoline at the pump. Since the American automobile industry made large cars that consumed a great deal of fuel, Americans started buying German and Japanese cars in greater numbers. These cars tended to be smaller in size and more fuel-efficient. As a result, the American automobile industry was forced to lay-off autoworkers. The supply of U.S. made cars

was greater than the demand. Some in the automobile industry called for higher taxes and limits on the number of vehicles imported from foreign countries in an effort to protect the U.S. auto industry. In this way, foreign car companies would not have a competitive edge on American cars. This type of government action, sometimes called **Protectionism**, allows the industry affected and its workers some benefit. However, the consumer is faced with paying a higher price in the marketplace. So, although the car industry is protected from foreign competition, the American car buyer is faced with a higher price for the purchase of a new automobile.



Reaganomics

Efforts by the government to stimulate the economy by imposing tariffs, lowering interest rates, or cutting taxes is generally thought to be in keeping with the philosophy of John Maynard Keynes. This economic theory, called Keynesian economics, is designed to even out the business cycle and stop recession periods. On the other hand, **supply-side economics**, sometimes called Reaganomics because President Ronald Reagan's administration proposed them, emphasizes the need to constantly improve efficiency as a way of increasing economic growth. Supply-side economics also promotes the idea that high taxes

on corporations and on high-income capitalists discourages business expansion. They argue that people will be unwilling to take investment chances if the government takes profits away through taxes and regulations. Supply-siders want to increase competition by removing barriers to free trade. They would repeal special tax breaks to certain industries and have a more uniform tax rate across the board. If individuals and corporations have more money to work with, they will expand business and wealth will “trickle down” to the average worker.

The **factors of production** are the resources that are used to produce other goods and services. These include land, labor, finance, and human capital or entrepreneurship and will influence the type of capitalism found in a country. In many cases, the factors of production will determine the approach a country takes toward its economy. Capitalism includes a number of differing philosophies or approaches because each country differs in the way it is able to implement its economic policy. A country rich in natural resources like oil is not dependent on other countries to run its manufacturing plants. Japan must import nearly all of its oil while Great Britain, on the other hand, is **self-sufficient** when it comes to fuel. As a result, the price of manufactured goods in Japan is dependent to some extent on the price of oil. Some countries are rich in agriculture, and others may have a very educated labor force.

While some version of capitalism is today found in most countries, the degree of government involvement varies. Even countries that view themselves as socialist or communist often have some degree of capitalism.

Communism

In 1848, **Karl Marx** wrote the Communist Manifesto. In it, he described some of the weaknesses of the capitalist economies. Marx argued that in order for capitalists to be successful, they had to take advantage of their workers. According to Marx, capitalists paid workers low wages and maintained dreadful working conditions so that they could make a profit. He argued that in time, the workers would join together, like slaves overthrowing their masters, in a revolution that would replace capitalism with a form of socialism he called communism. Marx believed in a communist **utopia**, a perfect society, where everyone would be expected to co-operate in the production of goods. In Marx’s communist society, everyone would produce according to his or her level of ability. Everyone would have access to consumer goods according to their needs. He believed in a classless society where everyone was treated equally. Unfortunately, Marx also believed that the only way to achieve this level of perfection is through a violent revolution of the working class against those in authority.

While Marx believed that the “Communist Revolution” would occur in an industrialized country like France, England, or Germany, it actually happened in Russia 70 years after the writing of the Manifesto. Russia, at the time, was primarily an agricultural country run by a monarch called the **czar**.

While the leader of the revolution in Russia was **Vladimir Lenin**, the person who led the Russians for much of the twentieth century was **Joseph Stalin**. Marx argued that after the revolution, the country would be run by a dictatorship that would prepare the way for the ideal society that he envisioned under communism. Russia eventually became the Union

of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), and the dictatorship never ended. Another 70 years would pass before the USSR would crumble in 1989.

Under Stalin, the government owned the means of production. The whole national economy was administered as one giant firm. There was little or no private ownership. The economic planning was centralized into annual, five-year, and long-term plans established by the government. Rapid industrialization, a high investment rate, and a low level of consumption characterized Stalinism. Ironically, under this form of communism the government employed various forms of slave labor. Stalin was ruthless in gathering and maintaining his power. In addition, the communist society was atheist, and under Stalin's dictatorship, literally tens of thousands of Christians and Jews were killed.

On an economic level, everyday life was marked by food shortages and fear. Stalin changed Soviet society from a rural agricultural focus to an urban industrialized one. There was a rapid expansion of education in the Soviet society. Another trend in the Stalinist government was the effort to bring other countries under Soviet control. After World War II, much of Eastern Europe became communist. Communism also spread to China, North Korea, North Vietnam, and eventually to Cuba. However, as the decades passed, it became clear that economically, the communist form of socialism with strict controls of both the people and the economy would not be successful.

Socialism

Many consider communism an extreme form of socialism. Under socialism, all or most sources of production are the property of the government. Most goods and services are administered by the government and not by

private industry. Whatever private production and distribution exists is carefully regulated by the government rather than by the free market process.

There are democratic and non-democratic forms of socialism. Both forms agree that running the economy must reflect the best interests of the people. How this is done is reflected in the varying attitudes of the government toward personal freedom, civil liberties, political participation, bureaucracy, and political competition. In Western Europe, the socialist countries like Sweden tend to be more democratic than third world countries that tend to be totalitarian.

Third world countries generally have fewer resources. Their populations are less educated. Their economies are generally focused on one industry such as agriculture or oil. One example of such a country is The Great Socialist People's Libyan Arab Jamahiriya or simply Libya. Since 1969, Colonel **Muammar Qadhafi** has been Libya's leader. In 1992, the political structure was changed when Colonel Qadhafi, the leader of the revolution, divided Libya into 1500 mahallat (communes). Each mahal is vested with its own budget, and legislative and executive powers. Revolutionary committees, hand-picked by Colonel Qadhafi, "supervise" the mahallat. Unlike Libya under Qadhafi, the trend in socialist countries is to allow more and more opportunity for private ownership and less government economic restrictions.

The modern European version of the socialist economy has often been called the **welfare state**. In a welfare state, such as Sweden, the government focuses on providing services for its population. These services can include benefits such as government issued funds to support programs such as old age and disability pensions, unemployment benefits, aid to families with

dependent children, income supplements for the poor, public housing, health care, food stamps, public education, and child care. In countries that focus on providing for the welfare of its people, taxes tend to be very high.

Conclusion

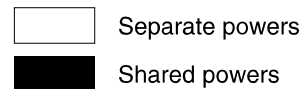
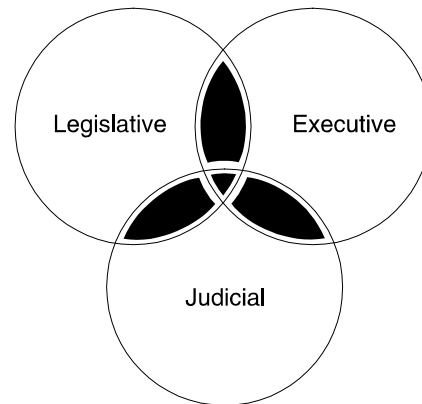
One thing that should be clear is that in today's world no single economic system completely rules. In the United States, generally thought of as the most capitalist of economies, the government provides subsidies to industries, stimulates the economy by lowering interest rates and imposing tariffs, and provides a number of welfare programs at state and national levels. Communist and socialist countries are opening up their doors to private ownership, freer trade, and greater competition. As each nation develops, it becomes more important for its leadership and its people to realize that differences in economic systems may exist, but common goals for the people make it necessary for greater international cooperation. ❖

The Three Branches of Government

PURPOSE

*Most of us have heard of Thomas Jefferson and James Madison. These former Presidents are well known as writers of the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States. How many of us know that the words in Jefferson's Declaration of Independence that claim we have a right to life, freedom, and to rebel against bad government were first written by John Locke nearly 100 years earlier? How many of us know that the idea for a division of powers within government was the result of the thinking of Charles-Louis de Secondat, baron de Montesquieu forty years before the Constitution of the United States was written by James Madison? This lesson will provide information about how important the concept of **Separation of Powers** is to our method of governing.*

Hobbes believed that the people could be heard in government by authorizing a representative to speak for them. His words influenced the creation of our representative form of democracy or as we call it a **republic**. The fear that the founders had of a powerful monarch or **parliament**, led to the development of a central government that operated under a system of **checks and balances**. Our new constitution established a framework for government that allowed for three branches, the executive, the legislative, and the judicial, each of which could check the authority of the others.



Introduction

The influence of European philosophers such as Montesquieu, Locke, Rousseau, and Hobbes on the founders of our nation is demonstrated time and again in the writing of Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, and others. It was Rousseau's idea that there was a contract between the state and the people. This contract ensured that none of the natural rights of the people could be given or taken away. In fact, it was the state's job to preserve and protect those rights. This thinking led to the acceptance of the Bill of Rights as part of the Constitution. Thomas

The Legislative Branch

Article I of the Constitution states that all legislative powers belong to the Congress of the United States that is composed of a Senate and a House of Representatives. Members of Congress are responsible for the development of the laws of the United States. This means that Representatives and Senators have the authority to hold hearings

to determine the need for legislation, to draft legislation, to discuss bills, and to vote on them.

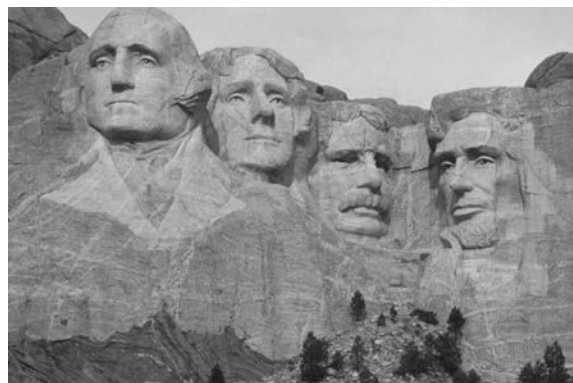
When the discussion of how the Congress would be formed took place in 1787, there were a number of issues. The framers were concerned that the larger, more populous states did not have more power than the smaller less populous ones. There was also a concern that population be considered when representatives were selected so that the smaller states did not have more influence than the larger ones. Known as the **Great Compromise**, it was decided that there would be two houses of Congress. The Senate would be made up of two members from each state elected for six-year terms by the state legislatures. (The 17th amendment changed the selection process to allow senators to be elected by the people of the state.) Members of the House of Representatives would be selected based on population and elected by the people for a two-year term.

An excellent example of checks and balances is the process for passing legislation. In order for a bill to become a law, both houses of Congress have to agree to it. Usually this means that the original version has been altered in a joint committee to meet the standards of both houses of Congress. The bill is then sent to the President for his signature in order for it to become a law. If the President does not sign the bill within ten days, it becomes law without his signature. The President may also refuse to sign the law and send it back to Congress for changes. This action is called a **veto**. If the Congress adjourns before the bill is acted on, it does not become a law. However, if the President vetoes a bill, Congress can still make it a law by **overriding** his veto. If two-thirds of both houses repass the bill, it becomes a law in spite of the President's veto. Once the law is passed, it can still be challenged in the federal courts. If it is found to be

unconstitutional by the judiciary branch, it ceases to be a law.

There are other checks on the power of the Executive branch. All bills that raise revenue, such as by increasing taxes, must originate in the House of Representatives. Only Congress can borrow and regulate the issuance of money. However, the President is responsible for spending the money.

While the President is the Commander in Chief, only the Congress can declare war. Congress has the power to raise and support armies, provide and maintain a navy, and make rules for the regulation of the land and naval forces.



The Executive Branch

The President, who is elected for a four-year term, holds the executive power of the United States. The President's responsibilities include the ability to execute laws and develop relationships with foreign countries. However, as already noted both the legislative and the judiciary branches have the authority to check presidential power.

While unable to declare war, but the President is still able to use troops in national emergencies and when American interests are

threatened. President Eisenhower employed the National Guard to ensure Little Rock, Arkansas schools were **desegregated** in 1957. President Reagan in 1983 sent Marines to Grenada and Lebanon to protect U.S. lives and property without a declaration of war from Congress. However, in most instances, the President will consult with Congressional leadership prior to engaging troops in combat. When President George Bush, Sr. sent troops to the Persian Gulf to liberate Kuwait, there was no formal declaration of war, but Congress provided support. However, Congress could vote to withhold funds to support a President’s military actions or the Supreme Court could declare his actions unconstitutional.



The President has the authority to enter into treaties with foreign countries, but he must do so with the advice and consent of the Senate. The Senate also has to provide the support of two-thirds of its members for appointments the President makes to the Supreme Court, to cabinet posts, and to ambassadorships.

Perhaps the greatest check on the Chief Executive’s power is the ability of the other branches of government to remove the President from office. The House of Representatives can

vote articles of **impeachment**. If the reasons for removal receive enough votes, the Senate will conduct a trial with the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court presiding. A two-thirds vote of all members present is required for dismissal from office.

The President also has the authority to convene special meetings of the Congress under extraordinary circumstances. He can also dismiss them if the occasion warrants. Even though the President does not make law, through his advisors and messages to Congress, he can request needed legislation. Perhaps the greatest power of the Presidency is his ability to communicate to the people in times of crisis. President Franklin Roosevelt conducted “fireside chats” on the radio during World War II; President John Kennedy spoke frequently to the American people during the Cuban Missile Crisis; and President George Bush, Jr. addressed America and the world on television during the War on Terrorism.

DID YOU KNOW?

The 10th Amendment to the Constitution provides that all powers not specifically given to the federal government by the Constitution or denied to the States are reserved for the States or the people. This amendment provides another check on the power of the federal government.

The Judicial Branch

The Constitution provides for the judicial power of the United States through the Supreme Court and through as many federal courts as Congress decides is necessary. As noted earlier, federal judges are appointed by the President but

only with the consent of the Senate. In the famous *Marbury v. Madison* court case, Chief Justice John Marshall ruled that the Supreme Court could declare a law unconstitutional. In doing so, the court established its power of **judicial review**. This check on the power of both Congress and the President is the most important power of the judicial branch of government.

Each year, hundreds of cases are sent to the Supreme Court for review. The Court selects only those that it feels have a Constitutional or national importance for their review. In November of 2000, the Supreme Court made decisions on the Presidential election procedures in the state of Florida. Because this case was so important to the future of the nation, it was decided very quickly. Because the appeals process can ultimately reach the Supreme Court, these justices have a great deal to say about what Americans can and cannot do. Topics such as abortion, prayer in schools, and desecration of the flag have reached the Supreme Court.

The Constitution is considered the “law of the land,” and, as interpreters of that law, federal judges have a great deal of power. Members of Congress, high officials in the executive branch, and federal judges all have to take an oath to uphold the Constitution before taking office. However, the Judiciary Branch will often be asked to decide if their actions are constitutional.

Conclusion

The system of checks and balances is one of the reasons that our form of democracy continues more than 200 years after the framers of the Constitution met in Philadelphia to develop it. Our Constitution was the first of its kind, and it is the most enduring. Our country has survived wars, economic depressions, and natural disasters.

It continues because it is the most effective form of government. ❖

The Flag of the United States

PURPOSE

No one knows with absolute certainty who designed the first Stars and Stripes or who made our first flag. Congressman Francis Hopkinson seems most likely to have designed it. Few historians believe that Betsy Ross, a Philadelphia seamstress, made the first one. But the story has tremendous popularity, best expressed by President Woodrow Wilson who said, when asked his opinion of the story, "Would that it were true!"

Ever wonder about how the flag that waves today, the most recognizable symbol of our country and of liberty and freedom around the world became the official flag of the United States?

First Official Flag

In Philadelphia on June 14, 1777, the Second Continental Congress officially adopted the flag of the United States, popularly called the "Stars and Stripes" and "Old Glory." This was the result of a resolution offered by the Congressional Maine Committee. The resolution read as follows:

"Resolved, that the flag of the United States be thirteen stripes, alternate red and white; that the union be thirteen stars, white in a blue field representing a new constellation."

The number 13 represents the original 13 colonies. The resolution gave no instruction as to how many points the stars should have, nor how the stars should be arranged on the blue union. Consequently, some flags had stars scattered on

the blue **field** without any specific design, some arranged the stars in rows, and some in a circle. Some stars had six points while others had eight. The first Navy Stars and Stripes had the stars arranged in staggered formation in alternate rows of threes and twos on a blue field. Other Stars and Stripes flags had stars arranged in alternate rows of four, five, and four.

Francis Hopkinson

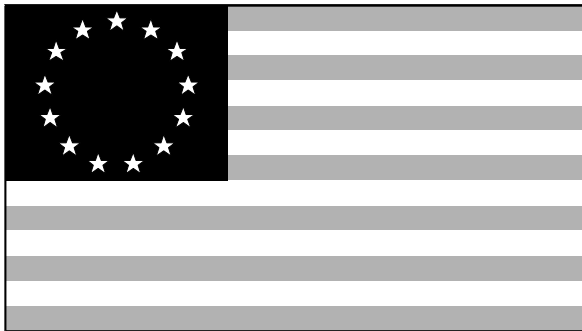
Strong evidence indicates that **Francis Hopkinson**, a congressman from New Jersey who was a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was responsible for the stars in the U.S. flag. At the time that the flag resolution was adopted, Hopkinson was the Chairman of the Continental Navy Board's Middle Department. Hopkinson also helped design other devices for the Government including the Great Seal of the United States. In addition to being a signer of the Declaration, Hopkinson was a popular patriot, a lawyer, poet, artist, and distinguished civil servant.

Hopkinson's use of stars in the design for the flag is believed to be the result of an experience he had during the Revolutionary War. It seems that a Hessian soldier (one of 17,000 German soldiers hired by England to assist British soldiers in fighting the American Revolution) took a book from Hopkinson's home in Bordentown in December 1776. This was a particularly dark time in the war for America. Someone in Philadelphia recovered the book from the soldier and then eventually returned it to Hopkinson. The soldier had written "Semper Paratus" (Always Ready) both above and below Hopkinson's bookplate (a label, often specially designed, pasted in a book to identify its owner), which had three six-pointed stars and his family motto. Some

people believe that the safe return of the book may well have symbolized for Hopkinson the revival of the American hope of winning the war.

The Betsy Ross Flag

During the Revolutionary War, several patriots made flags for our new nation. Among them were Cornelia Bridges, **Elizabeth (Betsy) Ross**, and Rebecca Young, all of Pennsylvania, and John Shaw of Annapolis, Maryland. Although Betsy Ross, the best known of these people, made flags for 50 years, the claim that she designed the first flag of the United States is based on family traditions rather than documented evidence. We do know for certain that she made flags for the Pennsylvania State Navy in 1777. The flag popularly known as the “Betsy Ross flag,” which arranged the stars in a circle, did not appear until the early 1790’s.



The claims of Betsy Ross were first brought to the attention of the people in 1870 by one of her grandsons, William J. Canby. In a paper he read before the meeting of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, Canby stated:

It is not tradition, it is report from the lips of the principal participator in the transaction, directly told not to one

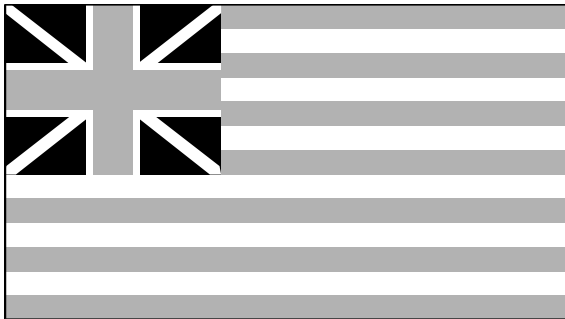
or two, but a dozen or more living witnesses, of which I myself am one, but a little boy when I heard it... Colonel Ross with Robert Morris and General Washington, called on Mrs. Ross and told her they were a committee of Congress, and wanted her to make a flag from the drawing, a rough one, which, upon her suggestions, was redrawn by General Washington in pencil in her parlor. This was prior to the Declaration of Independence. I fix the date to be during Washington’s visit to Congress from New York in June 1776 when he came to confer upon the affairs of the Army, the flag being no doubt, one of these affairs.

Who was Betsy Ross and how did she come to be the one associated with the creation of the first flag? She was a Philadelphia seamstress (1752 – 1836), married to John Ross, an upholsterer who was killed in a munitions explosion in 1776. She kept the upholstery shop going after her husband’s death and lived not too far from the State House where history was being made almost every day. It seems George Washington was a frequent visitor to the home of Mrs. Ross before receiving command of the army. She embroidered his shirt ruffles and did many other things for him. He knew her skill with a needle. Is it any wonder that the legend arose from this friendship?

In the many years that the story of Betsy Ross has been told, numerous historians have conducted thorough searches into old government records of the era, personal diaries, and writings of Washington and his contemporaries. None of them have verified the story of Betsy Ross and the flag.

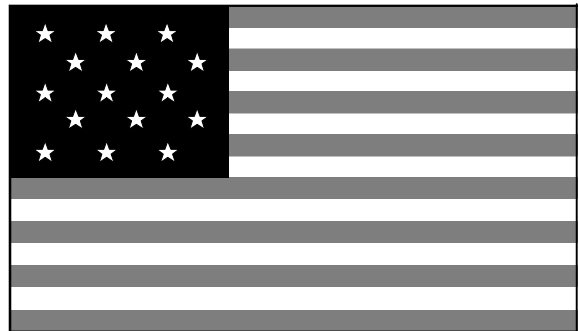
The Colonists' First Flag

The first flag of the colonists to have any resemblance to the present Stars and Stripes was the Grand Union Flag, sometimes referred to as the Congress Colors, the First Navy Ensign, and the Cambridge Flag. Its design consisted of 13 stripes, alternately red and white, representing the Thirteen Colonies. It had a blue field in the upper left-hand corner bearing the red cross of St. George of England and the white cross of St. Andrew of Scotland. As the flag of the revolution, it was used on many occasions. It was first flown by the ships of the Colonial Fleet on the Delaware River. On December 3, 1775, John Paul Jones, then a Navy lieutenant, raised it aboard Commodore Esek Hopkin's flagship Alfred. Later the flag was raised on the liberty pole at Prospect Hill, which was near George Washington's headquarters in Cambridge, Massachusetts. It was our unofficial flag and **ensign** of the Navy until June 14, 1777, when the Continental Congress authorized the Stars and Stripes.



Fifteen Stars and Stripes

The first change in the design of the flag was the flag **prescribed** in 1794 when Congress passed an act requiring that the flag consist of 15 white stars on a blue field and 15 stripes, alternately red and white.



The occasion for this change was the admission of Vermont in 1791 and Kentucky in 1792 as states of the union. This flag was the official flag of our country from 1795 to 1818 and was prominent in many historic events. It inspired Francis Scott Key to write "The Star Spangled Banner" during the bombardment of Fort McHenry. It was the first flag to be flown over a fortress of the Old World when American Marine and Naval forces raised it above the pirate stronghold in Tripoli on April 27, 1805. This flag was also the ensign of the American forces in the Battle of Lake Erie in September of 1813. And last, but not least, this was the flag flown by General Jackson in New Orleans in January of 1815.

The "Star Spangled Banner"

You know that Francis Scott Key wrote the "Star Spangled Banner" when he saw the flag still waving over Fort McHenry on September 14, 1814 after the British ceased their bombardment

of the city of Baltimore. The British had concluded that Baltimore was “too costly a prize” and so ordered a retreat. But do you know much about that flag? Here is a little history about a huge flag.

During the summer of 1813, at the star-shaped Fort McHenry, the commander, Major George Armistead, asked for a flag so big that “the British would have no trouble seeing it from a distance.” Two officers, a Commodore and a General were sent to the Baltimore home of Mary Young Pickersgill, a “maker of colours,” and commissioned the flag. Mary and her 13-year-old daughter, Caroline, working in an upstairs front bedroom, used 400 yards of best quality wool bunting. They cut 15 stars that measured two feet from point to point. Eight red and seven white stripes, each two feet wide, were cut. They laid out the material on the malt house floor of Claggett’s Brewery, a neighborhood establishment, and sewed the flag together. The flag was completed by August. It measured 30 by 42 feet and cost \$405.90. You can visit Mary Young Pickersgill’s home in Baltimore. Her home is now a museum, The Baltimore Flag House, which was restored in 1953.

Old Glory

The famous name, “Old Glory,” was coined by a shipmaster of Salem, Massachusetts, named **Captain Stephen Driver** in 1831. As he was leaving on one of his many voyages aboard the brig *Charles Doggett*, some friends presented him with a beautiful flag of twenty-four stars. As the banner opened to the breeze for the first time, Driver is reported to have exclaimed, “Old Glory!”

Captain Driver retired from his sea days to Nashville, Tennessee, in 1837, taking his flag with him. By the time the Civil War erupted, most

everyone in and around Nashville new of his flag and recognized “Old Glory.” When Tennessee seceded from the Union, Rebels were determined to destroy his flag. His home was repeatedly searched but Old Glory was never found!

When the Union forces captured Nashville in February 1862, they raised an American flag over the capital. It was a rather small ensign and people in the area began asking Captain Driver if Old Glory still existed. Assured by the company of soldiers, Captain Driver went home and began ripping at the seams of his bedcover. As the quilt-top came away from the batting, the 24-starred original Old Glory revealed itself. It had been hidden under everyone’s nose for many years!

Captain Driver and the soldiers returned to the capital and despite being 60 years old, Driver climbed up to the tower and replaced the small banner with his flag! The Sixth Ohio Regiment cheered and saluted. Later this regiment adopted the nickname “Old Glory” as their own. They told and retold the story of Captain Driver and his devotion to his flag!

Assuring the Basic Design of the Flag

Realizing that the flag would become difficult to carry with a stripe for each new state, **Captain Samuel C. Reid**, USN, suggested to Congress that the stripes remain 13 in number to represent the Thirteen Colonies, and that a star be added to the blue field for each new state coming into the union. Accordingly, on April 4, 1818, President Monroe accepted a bill requiring that the flag of the United States have a union of 20 stars, white on a blue field. The bill also stated that upon admission of each new state into the Union one star be added to the union of the flag on the fourth of July following the date of that

state's admission. The 13 alternating red and white stripes would remain unchanged. This act succeeded in prescribing the basic design of the flag, while assuring the growth of the nation would be properly symbolized.

DID YOU KNOW?

West Virginia was admitted to the Union in 1863 as the 35th state. West Virginia is composed essentially of those Virginia counties that, unsympathetic to the plantation South, refused to join Virginia in its 1861 secession from the Union.

The Fifty-Star Flag

Eventually, the growth of the country resulted in a flag with 48 stars with the admission of Arizona and New Mexico in 1912. Alaska added a 49th star in 1959, and Hawaii a 50th star in 1960. With the 50-star flag came a new design and arrangement of the stars in the union, a requirement met by President Eisenhower in Executive Order No. 10834 issued August 21, 1959. To conform to this, a national banner with 50 stars became the official flag of the United States. The flag was raised for the first time at 12:01 a.m. on July 4, 1960, at the Fort McHenry National Monument in Baltimore, Maryland.

The Symbolism of the Colors of the Flag

The colors used in the flag of the United States are white for purity and innocence, red for hardness and valor, and blue for **vigilance**, **perseverance**, and justice. “The star is a symbol of the heavens and the divine goal to which man has aspired from time immemorial; the stripe is

symbolic of the rays of light emanating from the sun.” (This quote is from a book about the flag published in 1977 by the House of Representatives.)

A Traditional Symbol of Liberty

Traditionally a symbol of liberty, the American flag has carried the message of freedom to many parts of the world. Sometimes the same flag that was flying at a crucial moment in our history has been flown again in another place to symbolize continuity of our struggles for the cause of liberty. One of the most memorable flags is the one that flew over the Capital in Washington on December 7, 1941, when Pearl Harbor was attacked. This same flag was raised again on December 8 when war was declared on Japan and three days later at the time of the declaration of war against Germany and Italy. President Roosevelt called it the “flag of liberation” and carried it with him to the Casablanca Conference and on other historic occasions. It flew from the mast of the *USS Missouri* during the formal Japanese surrender on September 2, 1945. It also was present at the United Nations Charter meeting in San Francisco, California, and was used at the Big Three Conference at Potsdam, Germany.

The Flag Today

The flag of the United States of America has 13 horizontal stripes – 7 red and 6 white – the red and white stripes alternating. The flag also has a union that consists of white stars of 5 points on a blue field placed in the upper quarter to the staff and extending to the lower edge of the fourth red stripe from the top. The number of stars equals the number of states in the Union.

Designer of America’s Current National Flag

Robert G. Heft is the designer of America’s current national flag. The design of the flag began as a high school project in 1958! A shy student who used to “sit in the back of the class,” according to Heft himself, he spent 12 ½ hours one weekend arranging and sewing a new combination of stars in a new flag design. His teacher, a gentleman by the name of Stanley Pratt, gave him a B minus on the project. Pratt said, “...it lacked originality...anybody could make the flag.”

However, Pratt said he would give Heft a high grade if Heft could get Congress to accept his design. (Recall that Alaska became a state in ’59 and Hawaii in ’60.) So Heft took the challenge and sent his flag to his congressman, Representative Walter Moeller, who eventually got Heft’s design accepted!

Mr. Heft has already designed a 51-star version of the flag, with six rows of stars, beginning with a row of nine and alternated by rows of eight to achieve a 51-star total. He is ready if our nation ever adds a new state to the Union!

The flag that Heft designed has flown over every state capital building and over 88 U.S. embassies. An uneven patch at a lower corner is evidence of an attack on the embassy in Saigon in 1967. “It’s the only flag in America’s history to have flown over the White House under five administrations,” Heft says.

Flag Day

Each year on June 14, we celebrate the birthday of the Stars and Stripes, which came into being on June 14, 1777. At the time, the Second Continental Congress authorized a new flag to

symbolize the new Nation, the United States of America.

The Stars and Stripes first flew in a Flag Day celebration in Hartford, Connecticut in 1861, during the first summer of the Civil War. The first national observance of Flag Day occurred June 14, 1877, the centennial of the original flag resolution.

By the mid 1890’s, the observance of Flag Day on June 14 was a popular event. Mayors and governors began to issue proclamations in their jurisdictions to celebrate this event.

In the years to follow, public sentiment for a national Flag Day observance greatly increased. Numerous patriotic societies and veterans groups became identified with the Flag Day movement. Since their main objective was to stimulate patriotism among young people, schools were the first to become involved in flag activities.

In 1916, President Woodrow Wilson issued a proclamation calling for a nationwide observance of Flag Day on June 14. It was not until 1949 that Congress made this day a permanent observance by resolving “...that the 14th day of June of each year is hereby designated as Flag Day...” President Harry Truman signed the measure into law.

Although Flag Day is not celebrated as a federal holiday, Americans everywhere continue to honor the history and heritage the flag represents.

“I Pledge Allegiance to the Flag...”

On September 8, 1892, a Boston based magazine entitled *The Youth’s Companion*, published a few words for students to repeat on Columbus Day that year. The circulation manager of the magazine, Francis Bellamy, wrote this pledge. It

was reprinted on thousands of leaflets and sent out to public schools across the nation. On October 12, 1892, the quadricentennial of Columbus' arrival, more than 12 million children recited the Pledge of **Allegiance** and began a required school-day ritual.

A number of changes to that original pledge were made to the wording over the years, and in 1942, the final amendment to the pledge added the words "under God." Then, in 1959, President Dwight D. Eisenhower said, "In this way, we are reaffirming the **transcendence** of religious faith in America's heritage and future; in this way, we shall constantly strengthen those spiritual weapons which forever will be our country's most powerful resource in peace and war."

Although written and recited in 1892, it was not until 1942 that Congress officially recognized the Pledge of Allegiance. One year later, in June 1943, the Supreme Court ruled that school children could not be forced to recite it. In fact, today only half of our fifty states have laws that encourage the recitation of the Pledge of Allegiance in the classroom!

Constitutional Amendment

Issue: Desecration of the Flag

In 1989 and again in 1990, the Supreme Court struck down federal and state statutes prohibiting flag **desecration**. The Court held that those laws **infringed** on the right to free speech and expression protected under the First Amendment.

In response to the Supreme Court's rulings, a constitutional amendment has been proposed that would make it illegal to burn the American flag. The proposed amendment reads as follows: "The Congress and the states shall

have power to prohibit the physical desecration of the flag of the United States."

On Thursday, May 25, 1995, the amendment passed the Constitution subcommittee by a vote of 7 - 5 and went on to the full Judiciary Committee. Those who support the amendment say the flag deserves special protection because it symbolizes freedom and unites a diverse country. Opponents say burning the flag is a form of free speech, and it should be protected. This is essentially the position that the Supreme Court has taken in its rulings.

Conclusion

Since June 14, 1777, when the Second Continental Congress officially adopted the flag of the United States, until today, our Flag has played an important role in our nation's development. Though it has undergone a number of changes in its design, it remains a constant reminder of our history and our heritage. As it did in 1777, and does so now, the U.S. Flag represents all that we as a nation stand for – freedom, liberty, and unity.❖

The Great Seal of the United States

PURPOSE

This lesson will describe the significance of each part of the Great Seal of the United States. You will learn to recognize the symbols within the Great Seal and learn what each symbol represents. You will be able to identify dates in the history of the Seal and the names of those responsible for its design. You will see how the Seal is officially used.

Introduction

For the past 6,000 years, cultures old and new have used seals, often instead of a signature, to formalize contracts and agreements. Like empires of old, the new United States needed an official **emblem** that could be used to **authenticate** signatures on treaties and other official documents. This "great" seal would be the principal seal of the nation. Other branches of government – as well as corporations, institutions, and individuals – also have seals.

When America's **founders** declared independence on July 4, 1776, they pledged to each other: "our Lives, our Fortunes, and our sacred Honor," and expressed their "firm Reliance on the Protection of divine Providence."

That same day, they began the process of designing a national emblem, a symbolic image that would convey to the world, and to future generations, what was in their hearts and minds at that **unprecedented** moment in history.

The same team that had just written the Declaration of Independence, Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, and Benjamin Franklin, was chosen for the first of three committees whose combined ideas would create this image of America, the "Great Seal of the United States."



The Flag and the Seal

Often carried in battle, flags stand for courage and camaraderie, safety and protection. Flags inspire the heart and symbolize patriotism and love of country.

Seen from a distance, bright colors raised high to catch the eye, flags help identify a battalion, a ship, or a border. They mark territory and represent a nation's physical presence.

A seal's design is more deliberate and thoughtful, a blending of images that impact the brain on many levels. Seals inspire the mind.

Seals are intended to be seen up close, where their details can be considered, their purpose understood. Composed of symbols and words, seals graphically capture **ideals** and express purpose.

The colors of the Great Seal are the same used in the American Flag. As described by

Congress in 1782, "White signifies purity and innocence. Red signifies hardiness and valor. Blue signifies vigilance, perseverance, and justice."

Patriots honor their nation's Seal, just as they do their Flag. It is the official seal of the United States government. It is two-sided, having both an **obverse** and a **reverse**. Only the obverse has been cut as a die (a device used for stamping materials), but the design of the reverse has been copied and appears on items such as the U.S. one-dollar bill.

History of the Seal

On the same day as the Declaration of Independence, July 4, 1776, the Continental Congress formed a committee with Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, and Thomas Jefferson to "prepare a device for the seal of the United States of North America."

Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, and Thomas Jefferson submitted a design that was deemed unacceptable, as were designs submitted by two succeeding committees. Then the matter was referred to the Secretary of Congress, Charles Thomson, who asked the assistance of William Barton, a prominent citizen of Philadelphia. Barton proposed two designs, then Thomson submitted his own, which was revised by Barton. The design was finally adopted on June 20, 1782.

The Design of the Seal

The Great Seal was carefully designed by our nation's founders to symbolize the United States. It is America's symbolic mission statement, created by the people who gave us our freedom.

In their written Declaration of Independence, the founders express their "firm Reliance on the Protection of divine Providence."

In their graphic Great Seal, adopted six years later, they illustrate their vision of the United States, including their very real experience of "Providence in favour of the American cause."

Although the eagle (obverse) side quickly became popular, the reverse side remained obscure until it appeared on the one-dollar bill in 1935. Consequently the image of the pyramid and radiant eye is typically associated only with financial matters, as opposed to an alternative view that says it should be interpreted as "God Bless America."

When given the attention it deserves, the Great Seal communicates the original founding principles that gave birth to and sustain the United States. It links us to our ancestors who pledged their lives to protect our liberty.

"The founding principles are the road which alone leads to peace, liberty, and safety."
– Thomas Jefferson

The Parts of the Seal

Every illustration of the Great Seal is actually a graphic interpretation of the written description that precisely defines the design.

A revolutionary American creation, the Great Seal is a unique combination of natural elements (eagle, **olive branch**, stars, cloud, light rays, eye) and universal symbols (pyramid, arrows, **shield**).

On the Obverse Side

American Bald Eagle

Charles Thomson was the one who chose the American bald eagle, which is only found in North America, as the centerpiece of the Great Seal. Furthermore, he specified that it be "on the wing and rising," with the wing tips down. Later this was changed to "displayed." Thomson's original 1782 version is shown here.



In its **talons**, the eagle carries symbols representing "the power of peace (olive branch) and war (arrows)."

Shield

The shield is composed of the blue Chief (top horizontal bar) and the red and white **Pales** (thirteen vertical bars), which represent the original colonies all joined in one solid compact group, supporting a Chief, which unites the whole and represents Congress. The **motto "E pluribus unum"** ("Out of many, one") alludes to this union.

Thompson's remarks continue:

The Pales in the arms are kept closely united by the Chief, and the Chief depends upon the union and the strength resulting from it for its support to denote the Confederacy of the United States of America and the preservation of their union through Congress.

NOTE: The shield has seven white and six red stripes, but the flag has seven red and six white stripes.

Olive Branch

The designers of the Great Seal used the phrase: "the power of peace and war." To further emphasize the superiority of peace, they placed the olive branch in the eagle's stronger right talon as well as turned the eagle's head toward the olive branch.

Bundle of Thirteen Arrows

In the final Great Seal design, Charles Thomson placed a "bundle of thirteen arrows" in the American eagle's left talon. Five years later, the symbolism would be echoed in the Preamble to the Constitution of the United States: "... provide for the common defense... and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity." The arrows bundled together are much stronger than a single arrow. This is symbolic of the thirteen colonies joining together "for the common defense."

Motto on scroll in eagle's beak: E Pluribus Unum (out of many, one)

The first Great Seal committee chose "E pluribus unum" in 1776. Consultant and artist Pierre Du Simitière recommended this Latin motto, and his design is essentially an expression of this theme.

The phrase's English translation, "out of many, one," is a clear reference to the thirteen colonies united into one nation, and symbolized by the shield on the eagle's breast.

Cloud (Glory)

The **glory** is the only symbol found on both sides of the Great Seal. A glory emanates from the constellation of stars over the eagle's head, and a glory surrounds an eye in a triangle in the zenith of an unfinished pyramid on the reverse side.

"Glory" is a **heraldic** term for a circle of rays, an emanation of light, gold or yellow in color, similar to the halo used by artists to depict angelic beings. Its closest natural equivalent is the twilight rays of sunlight that shine through breaks in high clouds and illuminate dust particles in the air.

In the official description of the Great Seal, the glory is "breaking through a cloud" over the head of an eagle on the obverse side. Many early illustrations depicted the light rays extending beyond the cloud.

Constellation of Thirteen Stars

"A radiant Constellation of 13 stars" was first suggested by the second committee's consultant, Francis Hopkinson. Mr. Hopkinson had designed the American flag three years earlier. The sketches of his two versions show the stars surrounded with light rays, but in no particular formation.

William Barton (third committee) also included several groups of stars in both of his elaborate designs.

Charles Thomson's original drawing showed the stars in a random arrangement. All **dies** of the Seal, however, have depicted the

thirteen stars in the shape of a hexagram, a six-pointed star.

Also, it does not specify whether the individual stars are to have five or six points. In each of the committee's sketches, the stars were drawn like asterisks (with three intersecting lines).

In 1782, the first official Great Seal had six-pointed stars. Since 1841, however, dies have had five-pointed stars, including the one in use today (as seen on the one-dollar bill).

On the Reverse Side

A pyramid, **truncated** near the top, is the central figure of the reverse side. The base of the pyramid is inscribed with the date 1776 in Roman numerals: MDCCLXXVI.

At the top of the pyramid, within a triangle surrounded by a glory, "appears the all-seeing eye of Divine Providence." Above the eye is inscribed the motto "*Annuit coeptis*" ("He has smiled on our undertakings"). Below the pyramid is a scroll bearing the motto "*Novus ordo seclorum*" ("New order of the ages").

Pyramid

William Barton, the consultant and artist on the third Great Seal committee in 1782, originally suggested the pyramid: "A Pyramid of thirteen Strata, (or Steps)." On the final design of the Great Seal, it is described as "A Pyramid unfinished," and explained with only a brief remark: "The Pyramid signifies Strength and Duration."

Barton was undoubtedly influenced by the pyramid on the 1778 \$50 bill, designed by Francis Hopkinson, the consultant for the second Great Seal committee two years earlier.

Eye and motto

The eye over the pyramid and the motto, “*Annuit Coeptis*” signify interpositions of “providence in favour of the American cause.”

This Latin phrase has been traced to Virgil, the renowned Roman poet who lived in the first century B.C. In his epic masterpiece, the *Aeneid*, he tells the story of Aeneas, son of Venus, ancestral hero of the Romans, and his journey from Troy to Italy.

In book IX, line 625, is the phrase: “*Jupiter omnipotens, audacibus annue coeptis.*” (“All-powerful Jupiter, favor [my] daring undertakings.”) Also, in Virgil’s *Georgics* (book I, line 40) are the words: “*Da facilem cursum, atque audacibus annue coeptis.*” (“Give [me] an easy course, and favor [my] daring undertakings.”)

Charles Thomson changed the first person imperative “*annue*” to the third person “*annuit.*” In the motto “*Annuit Coeptis,*” the subject of the verb must be supplied, and the translator must also choose the tense.

Thomson said: “The pyramid signifies Strength and Duration: the Eye over it and the Motto allude to the many signal interpositions of Providence in favour of the American cause.”

The eye is therefore the missing subject, and the translation could be: “It (the Eye of Providence) is favorable to our undertakings” or “Providence has favored our undertakings” or “God favors our undertakings.”

Date and Motto on Base and Beneath Pyramid

The date on the base of the pyramid is MDCCLXXVI, Roman numerals for 1776.

Thomson coined the motto “*Novus ordo seclorum.*” The accepted translation is: “A new order of the ages.”

Thomson explains: “The date underneath [the pyramid] is that of the Declaration of Independence and the words under it signify the beginning of the new American Era, which commences from that date.”

The Use of the Seal

In 1789, the custody of the seal was entrusted to the Secretary of State, in accordance with a law that further provided that the **impression** of the obverse of the seal should be affixed to all civil commissions given to officers of the U.S. appointed by the President.

Use of the impression was later expanded, and it now appears on a wide variety of documents.

Documents that Qualify for the Great Seal

The Great Seal is the actual engraved metal die that impresses the design onto a document. It is also the impression made by the die (and the substance bearing the impression).

The Secretary of State normally affixes the Great Seal to documents that serve a purpose in international affairs. After the President of the United States has signed them, the following types of documents qualify for the Great Seal:

- Proclamations of treaties and other international agreements
- Instruments of ratification or acceptance of, or adherence to, treaties and other international agreements
- Appointment commissions of Ambassadors and Foreign Service officers
- Assignment commissions for consular officers
- **Letters of credence** and recall for Ambassadors, and letters of credence for

special representatives on ceremonial
diplomatic missions

The U.S. Presidential Seal is similar to the Great Seal, but differs from it in the border inscription "The Seal of the President of the United States." Each U.S. state has a seal of its own.

Conclusion

Today, the Great Seal of the United States continues to connect us with the energy and strength-of-spirit embodied by our ancestors, the people who gave us our freedom and fought for our liberty. They count on us to continue the effort. ❖

Effective Writing Skills

PURPOSE

This lesson takes what you have learned in the Communicating Effectively Through Writing lesson, and teaches additional methods of improving your writing skills. We will instruct you on how to analyze your purpose for writing, as well as analyze your intended audience. We also will teach you how to conduct research, organize your thoughts, and create well-structured paragraphs and sentences in order to improve your writing.

Know Your Purpose



Introduction

Communication is a process in which people are able to transfer information among themselves. In order to improve your written communication skills, you must be able to analyze your purpose and audience, as well as learn the rules of writing. It is important to be able to organize your information to maximize communication, and minimize confusion.

First, make sure you need to communicate. The majority of our communications are essential. They could probably be done with less words on fewer pages, but generally speaking, they are necessary. Some portions of our communications, however, are not very essential. Worse, yet, some are simply counterproductive. Before you do anything else, make sure you need to communicate.

What is your purpose? If the need to communicate is necessary, then you are ready to set the process in motion, and your first move is to analyze the purpose. Most writing or speaking falls under one or a combination of three general purposes: to direct, to inform, or to persuade. You should not find it difficult to determine the primary purpose your communication must fulfill. Once you decide the purpose, you will know where to place the emphasis. A directive communication generally emphasizes what to do; informative writing or speaking highlights how; and persuasion focuses on why something should be done. Almost all of our communications have overlapping purposes; some people even argue that almost everything we say or write is designed to persuade – to get someone or some group to act. In any case, a few moments spent on thinking about your general purpose will prepare you for the important task of identifying your specific objective.

If you have one sentence or 30 seconds to explain your specific objective, what will you write or say? If you have a difficult time nailing down your objective, then your audience will be equally confused. If you cannot squeeze it into one sentence or phrase, then your target lacks a bull's-eye. Ask yourself. "What do I want the audience to do as a result of my communication?" The answer to that question should be your specific objective. Do not go any further until you do this. Once you have done it, you have a concrete objective that will filter, shape, and clarify your efforts. Keep reminding yourself of this objective as you write and edit.

Know Your Audience

Who is the audience? In analyzing the audience, we confront a series of questions:

- How do we want the recipient(s) to react to this communication?
- Is this audience receptive, skeptical, or hostile?
- How much do they already know about the subject? What's their background, education, and professional experience?
- What tone is appropriate? Warm? Stern?
- Is this a message to a friend, a teacher, a congressman, or a next-door neighbor? What personal information might help you tailor the communication to the individual?

Answers to questions like these pay off. An oversight or misjudgment here could frustrate everything that follows.

Conduct the Research

It is impossible to effectively communicate or to do anything without spending time researching and digging for data. Every problem, and every communications task you will ever face, begs for a foundation of information – to which logic is then applied in the search for a solution or response.

Objective and Scope

Spend a few quiet moments just thinking about your goal. What are the barriers to that goal? Is time limited? Try to get some feel for how far you should go in your research, what you can realistically do, and where you should stop. Most research tasks are clear in objective and scope. Others are not. When the research task is not clear, you may need to do some preliminary research just to get smart enough to answer the question, "what is (or should be) the objective and scope of this research task?"

A Research Plan

This plan is nothing more than a series of questions that you write down about the subject during a brainstorming session. It merely serves as a guide on where to look for information, and should keep you in the right mental ballpark when asking questions or analyzing data. Feel free to revise the list of questions as you begin to collect the data and information. On short projects, you will probably construct your research plan without having to write it down.

Support Your Ideas

Make certain to back up, or support your ideas that you are writing. Methods of providing strong support include:

Examples: specific instances chosen to represent or indicate facts. Good examples must be appropriate, brief, and attention grabbing. Quite often, they are presented in groups of two or three for impact.

Statistics: an excellent means of support if you handle them competently. Keep them simple and easy to read or understand. One way to do this is to discuss them in terms your audience understands. Also, remember to “round off” your statistics, whenever possible, and document your sources. Saying “Recent studies show that...” will not get you anything from a smart audience. Tell them the exact source of your statistics.

Testimony: a means of supporting your opinion with the comments of recognized authorities. These comments can take the form of direct quotes or paraphrases, but direct quotations tend to carry more weight with readers.

Comparison and Contrast: use comparison to dramatize similarities between two objects or situations and contrast to emphasize differences.

Explanation: may be used in three ways. 1. *Definition:* a simple explanation in understandable terms of what you are talking about. 2. *Analysis:* dividing your subject into small parts, and discussing the questions who, what, why, where, when, and how. 3. *Description:* similar to “definition” but usually more personal and subjective.

The persuasiveness or “believability” of your argument or the acceptance of your information depends on the strength of your support material. Keep it simple, relevant, and accurate.

Get Organized

Most effective writing follows a three-part arrangement: introduction, body, and conclusion. This three-part format is so logical you will probably use it for most of your writing.



There is, of course, more to organization than this simple three-part breakdown. The introduction must capture your reader’s attention, establish rapport, and announce your purpose. The body must be an effective sequence of ideas. In addition, finally, the conclusion must summarize the main points stated in the body and close the whole thing smoothly.

Let us assume you have completed your basic research and your notes (or assorted letters, reports, etc.) are scattered over the top of your desk – now what? How do you “get ready” to write?

Determine your bottom line. It is the one sentence you would keep if you could keep only one. It is your main point – your purpose of being. It is what you want the audience to do after digesting your communication. Concentrate on it again for a few minutes, and then start with a fresh sheet of paper.

Identify your main and supporting ideas. If, after looking at your “bottom line” (statement of purpose), you have exhausted your ideas on your subject (you probably have not), your task at

this point is simple. When in doubt, write down more facts or ideas that support or relate to your purpose statement. Then question each fact or idea in light of your purpose and the needs of your readers. Delete items not directly related to your purpose or not required for reader understanding and acceptance.

Bear in mind that the problem for most writers is too much rather than too little material. If you are like many writers, you may experience some frustration in deciding how much of the gathered material is relevant, but a lot of questioning will reduce the list. Question, sift, revise, and discard until you have only the material you need to support your purpose and the needs of your readers. When you are certain that you have retained only the relevant material, you are ready to identify main and supporting ideas.

Main ideas and facts represent major divisions or points you expect to develop in the course of your writing. When you weigh them against other facts and ideas, they seem to stand out and appear equally important. They are so vital to your purpose that omission of one or the other would leave you with an unbalanced communication. For example, if your purpose were to describe our form of government, your main points would be statements concerning significant characteristics of the three key branches: the executive branch, legislative branch, and the judicial branch. Supporting ideas would be descriptive elements that expand each characteristic of the branch, set it apart from other characteristics, and distinguish one from another.

Identification of your main and supporting ideas should enable you to establish priorities in the order in which you will develop your communication. That is, you can determine which point will come first and which will come second, third, and so forth, as you lead your

readers step-by-step through your message. This “list” of main and supporting ideas may be very short if your communication is simple, or quite long if you are doing a detailed report.

Pick a Pattern

Your next step is to select a structure or pattern that enables you and your readers to move systematically and logically through your ideas from a beginning to a conclusion. Either your purpose, the needs of your audience, the nature of your material, or a combination of the three will almost always dictate one (or a combination) of the following patterns:

Topical Pattern: This is a commonly used pattern to present general statements followed by numbered listing of subtopics to support, explain, or expand the statements. For example, if you make a general statement that cadets participate in a number of special activities in pursuit of personal interests and hobbies, you could use the topical pattern to list and briefly describe typical activities. In this case, the sequence in which you list the activities would not be important unless you want to begin with the most popular activity and move down the scale to the less popular. At times, however, the list should follow some logical order, depending on the nature of your material and the purpose of your communication. Some material flows more logically if you arrange it from the simple to the complex, the known to the unknown, the general to the specific, the specific to the general, and so on. The best approach in using this pattern is to experiment with the arrangements that will best help your readers understand what you are saying.

Time or Chronological Pattern: When you use this pattern, you discuss events, problems, or processes in the sequence of time in which they take place or should take place (past to present, present to past, or present to future). This pattern

is the simplest and most commonly used approach in writing because you frequently encounter situations based on time sequences. Of course, you must be careful to select facts that support the purpose of your communication. In most cases, this pattern is used in writing histories, tracing the evolution of processes, recording problem conditions and solutions, and dealing with other situations that develop over extended periods.

Reason Pattern: You can use this pattern if you want to state an opinion or point of view and then develop support by discussing reasons. For example, in discussing an opinion or point of view that, you think, would lead to a solution to a problem, your approach might be to write a complete statement of the opinion or point of view and then discuss each reason for the idea in a series of numbered paragraphs.

Problem-Solution Pattern: You can use this pattern to identify and describe a problem or issue and then discuss possible solutions to the problem or techniques for resolving an issue. This pattern may be used in several variations. Present a complete description of a problem and then discuss what you perceive as the single, most logical solution. Of course, you will want to discuss all facets of the problem – its origin, its characteristics and impact, and any consequences. In your proposed solution, you will need to include enough factual information to convince your readers that the solution is practical and cost-effective. As part of your discussion, you might explain how to implement the solution. Offer several possible solutions and then discuss what you consider the best alternative. Use the pro-and-con approach to discuss a problem and possible solutions. You will find the pattern useful when you are for or against someone else’s proposal, or when you are considering alternate solutions offered by several other people. One technique in using this variation is to begin with a description

of the problem and the alternate solutions. You then analyze and question the strengths and weaknesses of the proposed solutions. You conclude by discussing your solution to the problem and showing how your proposals are superior. This is not a format for a personal attack on an adversary; it is simply a systematic approach to use in persuading people either to accept your ideas or to modify their own ideas.

Spatial or Geographical Pattern: When you use this pattern, you will start at some point in space and proceed in sequence to other points. The pattern is based on a directional strategy – north to south, east to west, bottom to top, above and below, clockwise or counterclockwise, etc. For example, you might describe buildings at your school from north to south, the services offered by a library on the first floor, second floor, and the third floor, or the view from one point in a clockwise or counterclockwise movement through space to another point. Make sure to use appropriate transitions to indicate spatial relationships – to the left, further to the left, still further to the left; next to, a short distance away, etc. Otherwise, you can easily confuse or disorient your readers.

Cause and Effect Pattern: You can use this pattern to show how one or more ideas, actions, or conditions lead to other ideas, actions, or conditions. Two variations of this pattern are possible: cause to effect, and effect to cause. To use the cause to effect variation, you might begin by identifying ideas, actions, or conditions and then show how they have produced or will produce certain effects. For example, in discussing increased numbers of women in the Air Force, you might first describe opportunities for women to assume more responsible leadership roles in the Air Force. One effect of these opportunities might be that women are joining the Air Force in increasing numbers.

You can also use an effect to cause approach with the same example by reversing the conditions. You could begin by discussing increases in the number of women joining the Air Force (the effect), and argue that more advanced leadership roles are responsible (the cause). The technique you use depends on the context of your discussion.

Whichever strategy you use, avoid false causes and single causes. You are guilty of using a false cause when you assume that one event or circumstance causes a second event or circumstance. Many people observe that circumstance B occurred after circumstance A and conclude that A caused B. The conclusion is based on a false cause. In addition, you are guilty of using a single cause when you assume that one condition is responsible for a series of conditions. For example, an absence of safety features on automobiles is not the only cause of highway injuries.

Many times, your material will dictate the pattern you use; but, unless the pattern is suited to your purpose and audience, do not hesitate to try another one. Try to choose a pattern that permits you to move from the familiar to the unfamiliar or from the simple to the complex. After you have chosen a specific subject heading, identified your main and supporting points, and selected an appropriate organizational pattern, your next step is to outline your material in the framework as it will appear in your letter, book report, research paper, etc.

Outline Your Ideas

Even exceptional writers need an outline for their ideas to appear as if they were naturally arranged from the beginning of the message or

report to the end. Thus, this blueprint is a time-saver rather than a time-waster.

If you plan to write a short letter, message, or report, your list of main points may be all you need. Even so, you will find it helpful to arrange them according to their order of importance. Which idea or ideas will you use in the main part of your discussion? Which will you use at the end? As a minimum, write down your main points in some kind of orderly arrangement before you begin to write.

For longer papers and reports, you will find a detailed outline is usually a better aid in organizing your material. Even though developing the outline can be a difficult process, it forces you to align your main and supporting ideas in logical order before you begin writing. Otherwise, distractions of all kinds can confuse you and make your writing job much more difficult than it should.

It is not necessary to be overly concerned with form in outlining. Use any form that works! Although most writing texts lay out elaborate formats for topic and sentence outlines, your purpose in outlining is to arrange main and supporting ideas in a visible framework that permits you to see and test your logic on paper. Then, if some ideas do not fit together or flow naturally, you can rearrange them before you get under way with your big job. There are no “absolutes” for organizing; every writer has his or her own mental approach to the task.

Draft and Edit

In this step, you will need to fully develop more effective sentences and paragraphs – and do so with descriptive yet focused language. Transitions between ideas usually need to be more

fully developed during this step. Grammatical and punctuation errors, misspellings, and awkward phrasing should be corrected during this step of the process. You will need to develop a thorough and effective system for editing your work. This may include a system meant just for you, or involving others to edit your work as well.



Get Feedback

Feedback is a way of helping others improve some specific behavior, in this case – their communication. Feedback can also be a verbal or nonverbal response indicating the receiver’s reaction to the sender’s message. Feedback should be given and received in such a way that we improve our communications.

Structured, Effective Writing

Writing is one of the primary methods we use to exchange ideas. When information is clearly organized, paragraphs are soundly structured, and sentences are grammatically correct, communication is usually successful. On the other hand, when paragraph and sentence structure is not correct, the communication process can be hindered. This is why it is so important to know how to organize and develop

proper structure of paragraphs, as well as sentences.

Organizing a Paragraph

As discussed in the Communicating Effectively through Writing lesson, a paragraph is a collection of sentences logically arranged and focused on a narrowly defined topic. Learning about the composition of paragraphs is important in that the success of any larger form is entirely dependent on the success of its component parts.

The Topic Sentence

Use topic sentences as an aid in organizing your writing. When you properly focus a topic sentence, you have a solid basis upon which to include or exclude information as you write a paragraph. The topic sentence is a clue to the reader as to what the entire paragraph is about. The topic sentence should be just broad enough and narrow enough to allow approximately five to seven sentences about the topic.

Placing the Topic Sentence

The most direct and most common method for organizing a paragraph is to place its topic sentence first. This is known as a **deductive arrangement**, in which the most general statement of the paragraph goes before the details that support it. An **inductively arranged** paragraph, is when the most general statement, the topic sentence, is placed last. An inductive arrangement is effective when you want to lead a reader through the process of thinking that resulted in your topic sentence. Placing the topic sentence last can also create suspense in a paragraph: as readers learn more about the topic with each sentence, they wonder where you are leading them. In business letters and memoranda, the inductive technique works well if you have

unhappy news for your reader, for you will be able to build up to your main point slowly. By the time your readers get to the conclusion, he or she will already have anticipated it.

The easiest way to find the topic of a paragraph is to ask yourself one of these questions: What is the one thing this whole paragraph is about? What is the one thing the author is discussing throughout this paragraph?

After you think you have found the topic of a paragraph, check to see if you are correct by considering each sentence to be sure that it is a specific comment about the topic you discovered.

The Parts of a Sentence

Understanding the parts of a sentence and how they function, can improve your sentence structure, and your writing as a whole. A sentence must convey a complete thought: something happened or somebody did something. Every sentence must have a subject, which is the doer of the action, and a verb, which, as you have learned, is the action word. Here is an example of a sentence: Sergeant Smith ran. In this sentence, *ran* is the verb. The verb is the action word. *Sergeant Smith* is the doer of the action. He is the subject. A structure without a subject or without a verb is not a sentence. For example: *The young officer with the mustache* is not a sentence because it lacks a verb. *Was running toward the base* lacks a subject, and therefore is not a sentence. A sentence must express a complete thought. If a structure has a subject and a verb but does not express a complete thought, it is not a sentence. For example: *When Sergeant Harris received his orders* does not express a complete thought and, therefore, is not a sentence. In some sentences, the subject is understood to be *you*. These sentences give orders. In the sentence: *Plan the operation today* the reader

knows that what is meant is *you plan the operation today*.

The key to any English sentence is the verb. If you can find the verb, you can then ask yourself, “Who or what is the doer of the action?” Locating the verb first will prevent you from making mistakes in identifying the subject. For example, look at this sentence: *The leader of the 600 men was wounded*. The verb is *was wounded*. Who was wounded? The answer is the leader. *Leader*, then, is the simple subject. The 600 men were not wounded and are not the subject of the sentence.

Building Sentences with Adverbs and Adverb Phrases

Adverbs are modifiers that describe verbs. Adverbs and adverb phrases answer the questions *how*, *when*, *where*, *why*, and *under what condition*. Some adverbs and adverbial phrases can move around in sentences. For example: *The recruits mastered the obstacle course eventually*. *Eventually* is an adverb that describes when the mastering took place. Notice that *eventually* can move around in the sentence. Here are two more versions of this sentence: *Eventually, the recruits mastered the obstacle course*. *The recruits eventually mastered the obstacle course*. Here is a sentence that contains an adverb phrase: *Sergeant Harris left at noon*. *At noon* is an adverb phrase that describes when Sergeant Harris left. Notice that, like adverbs, some adverb phrases can move around in the sentence: *At noon, Sergeant Harris left*. When writing adverbs and adverb phrases, make sure that you are thorough. Ask each question we discussed above about the verb: *how? when? where? why? under what condition?*

Building Sentences with Adjectives and Adjective Phrases

Adjectives are words that describe nouns or pronouns. Adjectives can modify nouns and pronouns on their own. Here is an example: *The*

educated Marine will be promoted. Here the word *educated* is an adjective that describes the noun *Marine*. Notice that the adjective comes before the word it describes. Notice also that the position of the adjective is fixed in the sentence. The adjective cannot move to any other position in the sentence. The sentence would not make sense. For example, *The Marine educated will be promoted* does not make sense. Adjectives, then, cannot move around in a sentence, and they come before the words they describe.

Phrases can also describe or limit nouns. Phrases are nouns and pronouns that are connected to the rest of the sentence by prepositions. Here is the sentence: *The man with the sunglasses served with me.* Here the phrase *with the sunglasses* describes the man. *With* is a preposition that connects the noun *sunglasses* to the rest of the sentence. *Sunglasses* is the *object of the preposition*. Notice that, like adjectives, adjective phrases cannot move around in the sentence. For example, this word order does not make sense: *The man served with me with the sunglasses.*

Building Sentences with Clauses

Clauses are structures that have subjects and verbs. A sentence is an **independent clause**, which contains a complete thought. We can build more complex and informative sentences by adding dependent clauses to independent clauses. **Dependent clauses** are structures that have subjects and verbs. Unlike independent clauses or sentences, dependent clauses do not contain a complete thought. They are dependent on the rest of the sentence to make complete sense. Dependent clauses are joined to the rest of the sentence with **subordinate conjunctions**. Here is an example: *The Marine fired the rifle after the staff sergeant gave the order.* *After the staff sergeant gave the order* is the dependent clause. This clause does not contain a complete thought. This clause has a

verb, *gave*, and a subject, *staff sergeant*. This clause is joined to the rest of the sentence by the subordinate conjunction *after*. The following is a list of commonly used subordinate conjunctions: whenever, that, wherever, since, though, although, while, because, whether, before, if, which, until, how, what, and where.

Dependent clauses can be adverb or adjective clauses. Like adverbs and adverb phrases, adverb clauses answer the questions how, when, where, why, and under what condition after the verb. Like adverbs and adverb phrases, adverb clauses can move around in a sentence. Like adjectives and adjective phrases, adjective clauses cannot move around in the sentence.

Conclusion

Effective writing can be achieved by knowing your purpose and audience, using logical organization, conducting proper research to support your ideas, and by understanding paragraph and sentence structure. Poor organization of thoughts, paragraphs, and sentences can hinder the communication process. That is why it is important to understand the parts of a sentence. Knowing how these parts are used together can enhance your writing and the communication process. Just as important in effective writing is knowing how to organize these well-structured sentences into cohesive paragraphs to further communicate your ideas. Well-organized writing is more clearly understood, and is therefore more likely to fulfill its purpose and generate the desired response or action from the reader. ❖

The Job Application and the Interview

PURPOSE

*This lesson provides an opportunity for cadets to begin career preparation for their future. It introduces the **job application** and the **interview**; two important steps in landing the right job. In today's tough job market, a small mistake on a job application or poor interviewing skills can make the difference whether or not you land that job. No matter how good your grades, experience, or references are, a sloppily filled-out application or a disheveled appearance at an interview can determine whether you make the cut. That is why learning how to properly fill out a job application and handle tough interview questions are crucial to your career, no matter what field you choose.*

Introduction

You find a help-wanted ad in the newspaper listing the perfect job for you. You know you have the qualifications and skills for this job. You go to the company's office, fill out a job application, interview with the manager, and later find out that they offered the position to someone else. Why did this happen, you wonder. You may be the most qualified applicant for the job, but lose it to someone else who knows more about presenting himself or herself than you do. This lesson will focus on the job application and interview, and how to make the most of your strengths and minimize your weaknesses.

Filling Out a Job Application

A job application is often the first step in landing that job. It provides the employer vital information about you, your background, experience, qualifications, and whom you know. Filling out a job application can take some preparation. Even if you have a resume on hand, an application requires information, such as phone numbers, which you may not typically know by memory or have on hand. An incomplete application, which is missing this important information, will not give a positive impression to your potential employer. That is why it is helpful to know beforehand what information is required on a job application. The following type of information is requested on a typical job application:

- Social Security Number (SSN)
- Driver's license number and state of issue
- Whether or not you have been convicted of a crime
- Present home address, as well as previous home addresses
- Date you're available to start
- Military service background
- Position you're applying for
- **Salary** desired
- How you heard about the job
- Education
 - Sometimes includes grammar school (name, start and end dates, address)
 - High school (name, start and end dates, address, majors, Grade Point Average)

- (GPA), rank in class, type of diploma earned)
- College (name, start and end dates, address, majors and minors, GPA, rank in class, scholarships, awards, type of degree earned)
- Business or vocational school (name, start and end dates, address, certifications, types of degree earned)
- Additional skills. These can include:
 - Typing Words Per Minute (WPM)
 - Languages you are fluent in
 - Software skills
 - Technical skills
- Whether or not you are legally authorized to work in the country. You need to bring appropriate paperwork if you have a work visa or were not a citizen at birth.
- Up to four personal, school, or professional **references**, including their addresses, phone numbers, occupations, and relationships with you.
- Work history.
 - Your job titles and job descriptions
 - Names of employers, starting with your current employer.
 - Addresses and phone numbers
 - Start and end dates
 - Reasons for leaving
 - Beginning and ending salaries
 - Supervisor’s names, job titles, and contact information.
 - Explain any gaps between periods of employment (such as school).

What is a Job Interview?

“You only have one chance to make a first impression”. Do all you can to make it a good one. From the first few seconds you arrive, you are making a first impression, which can become a lasting impression. The interview is often the most important step of the hiring process. It offers the chance for both you and your potential employer to meet and size each other up. An interview works two ways. The interviewer evaluates you, but you also assess the employer to see if the company meets your needs. An interview is meant to determine whether an applicant and an employer are **compatible**. Ultimately, every employer when interviewing a prospective new employee is trying to determine: why does he/she want a position in this company? What can he/she do for my company? You need to demonstrate to the interviewer that this company will benefit if they hire you: you will help them operate more smoothly, save them time, make them more money, etc. During this screening process, it is important to convey yourself positively and enthusiastically. You do this through your attitude, appearance, **body language**, research, knowledge, tone of voice, and



answers to the interviewer's questions.

Preparing for the Interview

The interview actually begins before you even step foot in the employer's office.

Self-Assess. Know your strengths and weaknesses. Know what skills, talents, and relevant experience you have. Know what you want out of a job and out of a career.

Research the company you are interviewing with. Use the World Wide Web's search engines to look up information about the company. What kind of work do they do? Who are their clients? Where are they located? What kind of corporate image do they portray? Go to the library and ask the librarian to assist you in using **trade directories** to research the company. Go to your local **chamber of commerce** for additional research. Search for answers about the company's: products and services, competitors, philosophy, recent news, etc. Knowing as much as you can about the company will make you seem more knowledgeable and interested to the employer. In addition, you can better tailor your skills and expertise to fit the company's needs by knowing who the company is.

Think about the questions you might be asked before the interview and how you could best respond. Rehearse your interview with a friend. If possible, videotape yourself so you can evaluate your body language, tone of voice, and answers to the interviewer's questions.

Prepare your interview outfit in advance. Wear clothing suitable for the position you are applying for. If the worksite is an office, wear office clothing. If you are applying for a job as a construction worker, wear steel-toed boots and work gloves. No matter what kind of attire is necessary, make certain that your clothing is clean

and in good condition. Do not show up with stained or wrinkled clothing. The best way to make certain that your clothes are "interview ready", try everything on in a dress rehearsal beforehand.

Be at your best. This means getting a good night's sleep the night before and eating a good breakfast. This also means that you should leave time to be well groomed. Shave, shower, shine your shoes – do whatever it takes to look your best. Interviewers will notice small details such as scuffed shoes, missing buttons, or chipped nail polish. These noticed details will reflect poorly on you and on your ability to perform the job in the interviewer's eyes. Make certain your hands and nails are clean and well groomed. Do not overdo it with cologne, perfume, or aftershave. Neat, clean hair and minimal makeup are also important in reflecting a professional look.

Bring your paperwork with you. Bring appropriate documents, such as your social security card, driver's license, birth certificate, or **green card**. If applicable, bring any necessary working papers. Bring your resume, work samples, and/or portfolio if applicable. Bring pen and notepad to write down any information you may need to remember.

Job Interview Do's and Don'ts

An interview frequently has four stages of development:

- building **rapport** between the interviewer(s) and the applicant
- learning the facts about the applicant
- discussing the company and the position, career goals, asking the interviewer questions

- closing, showing appreciation for the interview, and discussion of the next step in the hiring process.

As you progress through these four stages, make certain to follow the “Do’s” and to avoid the “Don’ts” of an interview:

Do’s:

Be on time (or even a little early). This shows your prospective employer that you are time-efficient, dependable, and committed.

Come by yourself. You want to demonstrate that you are independent and do not need to have your hand held.

Be yourself. Act natural. Do not try to hide your personality. Rather, introduce aspects of your personality that would be to the company’s advantage. For example, if you are outgoing and are applying for a position in which you work with many types of people, let your friendliness show through. Do not be afraid to smile, if appropriate.

Be positive. Show the interviewer why you are qualified for the job. Be dynamic. Emphasize your accomplishments and skills, rather than just stating your previous job titles.

Address the interviewer by title and name. Do not call them by their first name, unless indicated to do so.

Maintain a positive attitude and try to relax. A job interview can potentially be a stressful experience, but try to stay calm and collected. Excessive nervousness will be evident to the interviewer through body language and tone of voice. View this experience as a learning experience, an opportunity to meet new people and learn about a company, instead of an interrogation. Be confident and assertive.

Listen carefully to the interviewer’s questions. How you listen is as important as how you speak. Pay attention and concentrate on what he or she is saying. Take time to collect your thoughts before answering. Clarify if there are questions you do not understand. There is no need to blurt out the first thing that comes to your mind. Respond with concise answers.

Remember that body language is important. According to some studies, more than half of the “messages” we send are through our body language and not through our actual words. Make eye contact with the interviewer. This indicates interest and sincerity. Stand up straight – good posture conveys confidence. Use a firm, full handshake. Use your hands when you speak to help express interest in what you are discussing. Facial expressions should convey your sincerity and enhance your responses.

Choose your language wisely. You are in a professional setting, so you should speak in a professional manner. This means you should avoid slang, cursing, and mumbling. This also means that when you speak; use words of the trade. For example, for a computer programmer position, talk about software and hardware that is commonly used in a programming job. Communicate clearly. Use a clear tone of voice, without shouting. Use active verbs, not passive. Show that you are the type of person who makes things happen, not one who just lets things happen to them. Back up your statements with actual real-life examples.

Ask questions. One of the worst things you can do on an interview is not to have any questions for the employer. This shows a lack of interest in the position and in the company. When prompted, ask questions that you have prepared in advance. Try to prepare at least five sample questions. These should relate to any information

about the company, position, and industry that you could not find in your research. A few sample questions are:

- How would you describe a typical day in this position?
- Why are you looking to fill this position?
- With whom will I be working on a regular basis?
- What are the chances for advancement within this company?

Leave the interview on a good note. At the end of the interview, be certain to say thank you to your interviewer. They have made time during their busy workday to fit you into their schedule, and you should express your appreciation. Just as first impressions are vital, it is also important to leave with a good impression.

Don'ts:

Ask about salary, weekends, or vacation time. You do not want it to appear that you are only interested in money and job perks – you need to show that you are actually interested in the job. If an interviewer does bring up salary or pay issues, make certain that you have researched appropriate salary ranges for the position.

Chew gum. This looks unprofessional and makes it difficult to understand what you are saying.

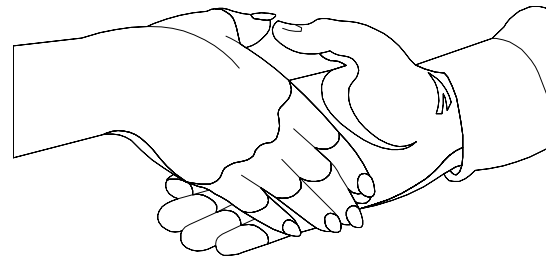
Criticize former teachers or employers. No matter what has happened in the past, you do not want to come across as a negative person who holds a grudge.

Lie about your experience. The interviewer can do research and contact your references and past employers. In addition, if hired and you cannot do what you said you could, this could lead to a negative job experience.

Smoke. This is inappropriate and can be inconsiderate, particularly in front of a non-smoker. It is also illegal in many instances.

Fidget. This makes you appear nervous and unconfident. It also gives you the appearance that you would rather be doing something else instead of interviewing with this employer.

Check your watch. This makes it look like you have better places to be and that you are not interested in the interview.



Types of Interviews

There are several different types of interviews:

Indirect interview – The interviewer asks vague questions and generalizes: tell me about yourself, what is your past experience, what can we do for you?

Stress interview – This is meant as an opportunity to observe how well you handle pressure. The interviewer may be argumentative with you. Stay collected, answer the questions calmly, and do not take anything personally – this is just a method of determining if you can handle the stress that comes with the job you are applying for.

One-on-One interview - This is meant to determine how well you would fit in with the

company and to see what kind of **rapport** you can establish.

Screening interview – This is meant to weed out candidates who are not qualified. At this type of interview, just give the facts about your skills and experience. The interviewer is not looking to build a rapport.

Lunch interview – This is the same as a regular office interview, but in a more casual atmosphere. Participate in a lunch interview as you would in an interview at the office. Use the interviewer's example on what kind of menu items to order.

Committee (or panel) interview – This is when you meet with several members of the company at a time. When answering questions from several people, speak directly to the person asking the question.

Group interview – This is typically used on prospective managers and employees who will often deal with the public. It assesses how well you interact with people and how influential you can be over others.

Telephone interview – This is an example of a screening interview. It is meant to aid the employer in the process of elimination and weed out unqualified applicants.

Common Interview Questions

- *What do you envision yourself doing five years from now?* Show that your goals and the company's goals are compatible.
- *What are your strengths and weaknesses?* Describe strengths you have and how they show through when you perform tasks. Turn a weakness into a strength. For example: say that you are a perfectionist and that you demand high quality from your own work.

- *What are your skills?* List skills you think would be important for this position. Give examples of when you have demonstrated these skills.
- *What do you currently do in your present job?* Do not be negative about your current job. Show how the skills you have learned from this present job will benefit your new employer. Show that this job experience makes you qualified for the position you are applying for.
- *Why would you like to work for us?* The interviewer is looking to see if you have done your research on the company. Answer the question showing the knowledge you have gained from your research.

Other common questions include:

- Why should we hire you?
- What have been your favorite jobs in the past? Least favorite?
- What does success mean to you?
- What was the worst job experience you have ever had? Best?
- Why are you qualified to work for us?
- Why did you apply for this job?
- Did you bring any samples of your work?

Questions that relate to gender, race, color, national origin, religion, age, or disabilities are illegal. Usually personal questions about marital status and family planning are taboo as well.

After the Interview

A post-interview thank-you note can create an additional opportunity for you. Send a thank-you note showing appreciation for the interviewer taking the time to meet with you.

Remind him or her of your qualifications and your interest in the position. If you do not hear from the company within the time period mentioned during the interview (usually a few days or even a couple weeks), contact the organization. Call the company's personnel office or the person who interviewed you. If unable to reach him or her by phone, it may also be appropriate to send an email inquiring about the status of your application.

Try to learn from your mistakes. If an interview does not go as well as you hoped for, do a self-assessment and think of ways to improve your interviewing skills for the next time around. If you do not get the job you interviewed for, you may want to ask the interviewer for some **constructive criticism** or suggestions for future interviews.

Conclusion

Successful job seekers practice how they present themselves to potential employers. They research the company, position, and information they need to provide on the application and through the interview. They research questions they should ask, as well as prepare themselves for the questions they may be asked themselves. They learn how to convey their strengths, while minimizing their weaknesses. They carry themselves in a manner exuding confidence, enthusiasm, and attention to detail. All of these factors will help the job seeker find the right job and begin the career of his or her choice. ❖

Uniforms, Insignia, and Grooming

PURPOSE

This lesson provides information on MCJROTC uniforms, insignia, and personal grooming. It reinforces how to wear the uniform, insignia placement on the uniform, and tips for personal grooming.

Introduction

One commandant wrote, “that well-dressed soldiers are usually well-behaved soldiers.” The Marine Corps has enjoyed success and an outstanding reputation on both counts. Marines are held accountable for maintaining the Marine Corps reputation for smart, soldierly, and correctly worn uniforms.

The Marine Corps Uniform Regulations provides the standards for uniforms, insignia, and grooming. Marines are to set the example by rigid compliance, and enforce the regulations meticulously.

MCJROTC uniforms, insignia, and personal grooming follow the same standards as those of the Marine Corps. The uniform will be worn in accordance with MCO P1020.34, Marine Corps Uniform Regulations. Just as the Marines do, you too must set the example by compliance and must enforce the regulations. This lesson will reiterate what you learned in your first year about Marine Corps and MCJROTC uniforms.

Types of Uniforms

In your first year, you learned that Marine Corps uniforms are divided into three categories: **dress**, **service**, and **utility**. This section will provide a refresher for you of each type of uniform. See *Figure 1: Uniform Explanation Chart* at the end of the lesson.

Dress Uniforms

Dress uniforms are worn for parades, ceremonies, reviews, and official social occasions. There are two forms of the dress uniform. They are the Blue Dress and Blue-White Dress.

- *Blue Dress “A”* uniform is identical to the Blue Dress “B” except that medals are worn on the Blue Dress A and ribbons are worn on the Blue Dress B. Uniform is blue coat and trousers/skirt/ slacks.

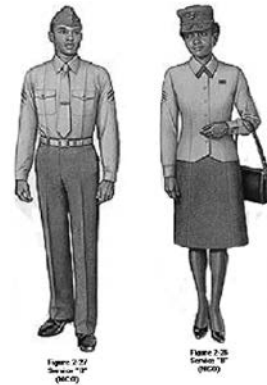
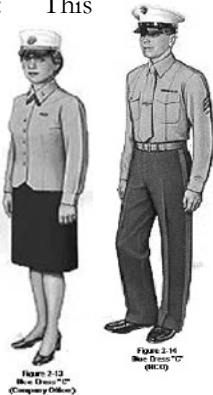


- *Blue-White Dress “A”* uniform consists of the same items as the blue dress “A” except the trousers/skirt/ slacks are white. The coat is blue and medals are worn.



- *The Blue-White Dress “B”* uniform consists of the same items as the blue-white dress “A” uniform, except that ribbons are worn in lieu of medals.

- *Blue Dress "C" Uniform:* This uniform consists of the long sleeve khaki shirt with blue trousers/skirt/slacks. Males will wear necktie and clasp. Females will wear black neck tab.



- *Blue Dress "D" Uniform:* This uniform consists of the short-sleeve shirt with blue trousers/skirt/slacks.



- *Service "C" Uniform:* This uniform consists of the short-sleeve shirt with green trousers/skirt/slacks.



Service Uniforms

For most day-to-day activities, Marine personnel wear what are termed "service uniforms." There are three forms of service uniforms, designated "A," "B," and "C."

- *Service "A" Uniform:* This uniform consists of the green coat and trousers/shirt/slacks with ribbons. Women may wear either the long or short sleeve khaki shirt and green neck tab with this uniform.



- *Service "B" Uniform:* This uniform is the same as the Service A except that the green coat is not worn. It consists of the long sleeve shirt with green trousers/skirt/slacks. Males wear necktie and female wear green neck tab.

Utility Uniforms

The Utility Uniform consists of camouflage coat and trousers. It is not authorized for wear except when in the field for field-type exercises or for those work conditions wherein it is not practical to wear the service uniform.

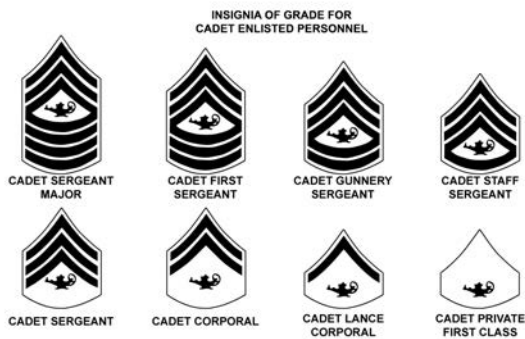
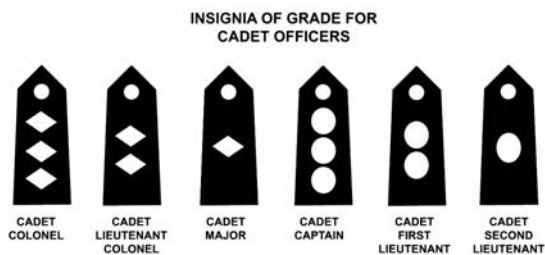


Physical Training Uniform

The Physical Training (PT) uniform consists of the green trunks and the standard brown or green undershirt or as prescribed by the commander.

Cadet Insignia

The charts below show cadet rank insignia.



Cadet Officer Insignia

The description for cadet company and field grade officer insignia is set forth below:

- The cadet company grade officer insignia consists of a flat disk, $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch in diameter (large size) and $\frac{1}{2}$ an inch wide in diameter (small size).
- The Cadet field grade officer insignia consists of flat lozenges, $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch wide by $1 \frac{1}{4}$ inches long (large size) and $\frac{1}{2}$ an inch wide by $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch long (small size).

- All cadet officer insignia will be of silver metal.

Placement of MCJROTC officer disks and lozenges on the uniform will be in the manner prescribed for the Marine Corps general officer insignia. The lozenge will be worn as follows:

- *Coat* - the long axis will point fore and aft.
- *Shirt* (including shirt w/quarter length sleeves) - one long axis point of each lozenge will point toward the top edge of the collar.
- *Garrison cover* - right front and centered.

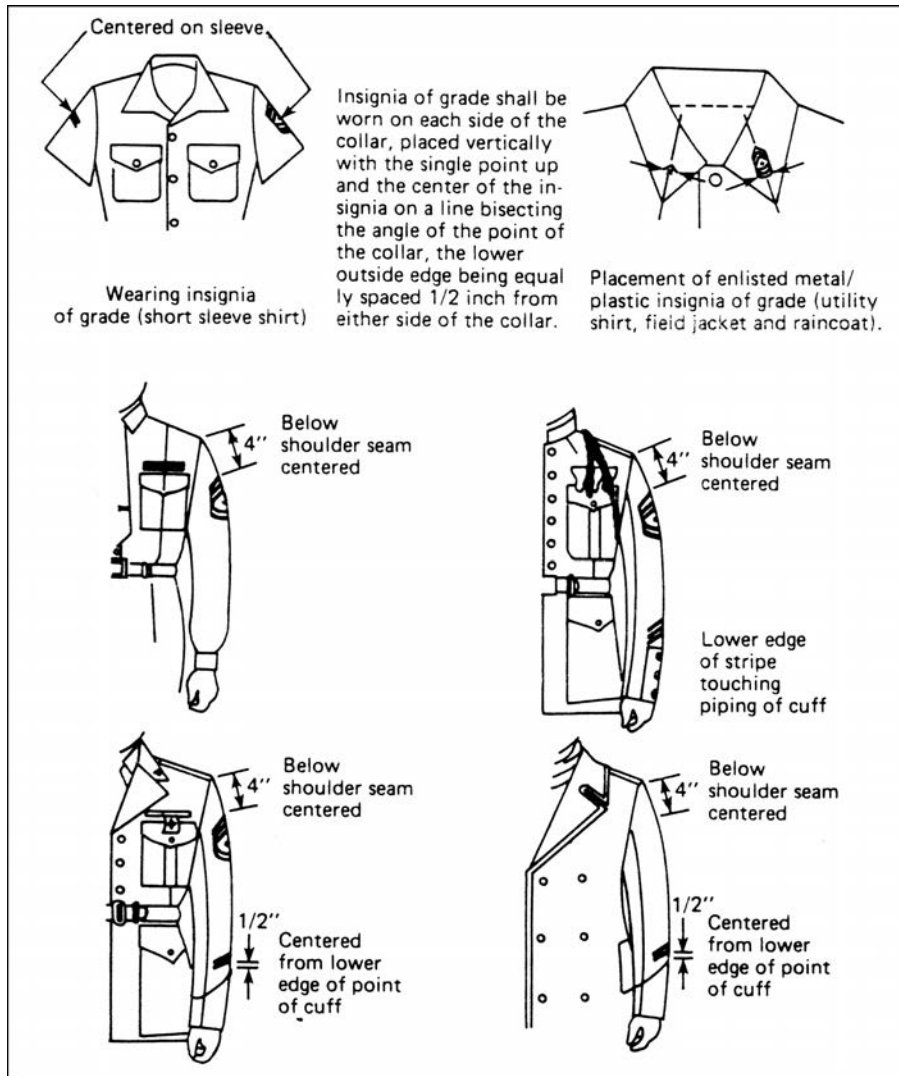
Only the grade insignia set forth in Appendix R of MCO P1533.6 is authorized for cadet officers and will be furnished at Government expense.

Cadet Enlisted Insignia

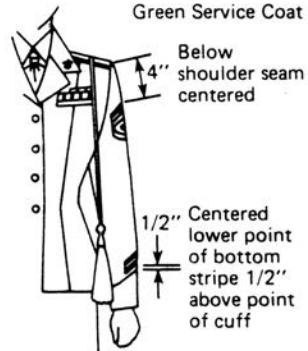
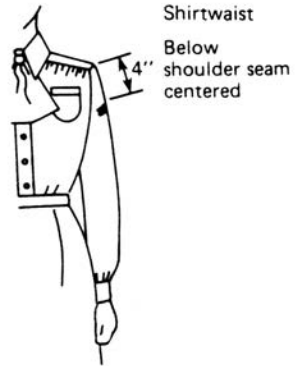
The cadet enlisted gold on scarlet MCJROTC insignia will be sewn on the blue coat. The plastic grade insignia will be worn on the collar of the utility coat and khaki shirts as set forth in MCO P1020.34. Scarlet on green MCJROTC insignia will be worn on the green coat. No other style of enlisted grade insignia will be authorized for wear on the MCJROTC uniform.

Placement of Insignia

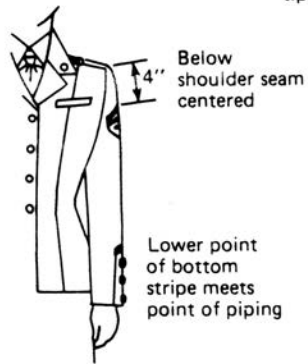
Insignia will be placed according to the guidelines in the figures below.



U.S. MARINE CORPS. MCJROTC
Category 5 – General Military Subjects
Skill 3 – Uniforms, Clothing, and Equipment



Branch of service insignia worn on the coat collar are worn with eagles facing inboard and the wing tips should be parallel to the bottom of the coat.



Grooming

Good grooming is essential to reflect the highest standards of dress. Therefore, here are some tips for good grooming.

- Hair should be neatly groomed. For males, hair should be neat and closely trimmed. The hair may be clipped at the edges of the side and back; should be evenly graduated from zero length at the hairline in the lower portion of the head to the upper portion of the head; and will not be over 3 inches in length fully extended on the upper portion of the head.
- For males, keep clean-shaven, except for a mustache.
- All leather must be maintained in very high polish.
- To make utility trousers look smartest with field boots, use blousing bands to cuff the trousers. Other methods to cuff the trousers include rubber bands, sleeve garters, or sections of inner tube inside the interior cuff.

- Keep the overlap of your khaki web belt within the prescribed 2-4 inches, 2 $\frac{3}{4}$ to 3 $\frac{3}{4}$ inches for coat belts.
- Although your uniforms contain many pockets, the safest rule is to carry nothing in them. Specifically, you should never place anything in exterior pockets of a dress or service uniform (exceptions: pencil out of sight in a shirt pocket, notebook in hip pocket: wallet, and handkerchief kept flat in trousers pockets).
- It is convenient and military to carry your handkerchief unobtrusively tucked inside your left sleeve.

Conclusion

How you wear your uniform reflects directly on you, the MCJROTC, and the Marine Corps. It is up to you to know the standards of dress, set the example, and enforce standards. ❖

U.S. MARINE CORPS. MCJROTC
Category 5 – General Military Subjects
Skill 3 – Uniforms, Clothing, and Equipment

Uniform Explanation Chart

UNIFORM COMBINATION	DESCRIPTION	OCCASIONS FOR WEAR
Blue Dress A	Blue coat and trousers/skirt/slacks w/medals	Parades, ceremonies, and formal semiformal social functions.
Blue Dress B	Same as A but w/ribbons instead of medals	Parades, ceremonies, and informal social functions and uniform of the day.
Blue-White Dress A or B	Blue coat w/white trousers/skirt/slacks an medals (A) or ribbons (B)	Parades and ceremonies, (summer only)
Blue Dress C	Long-sleeve shirt and tie w/blue trousers/skirt/slacks	Parades, ceremonies, and uniform of the day.
Blue Dress C with blue sweater	Long-sleeve shirt and tie w/blue trousers/skirt/slacks	Uniform of the day.
Blue Dress D	Short-sleeve shirt w/blue trousers/skirt/slacks	Parades, ceremonies, and uniform of the day.
Service "A"	Green coat and trousers/skirt/slacks w/ribbons	Parades, ceremonies, social events and uniform of the day
Service "B"	Long-sleeve shirt w/green trousers/skirt/slacks	Parades, ceremonies, and uniform of the day
Service "C"	Short-sleeve shirt w/green trousers/skirt/slacks	Parades, ceremonies, and uniform of the day
Utility uniform	Camouflage coat and trousers (sweater may be worn underneath)	Working uniform only
Physical Training Uniform	Trunks and brown undershirt.	Physical Training

Nautical Terms

PURPOSE

This lesson will explain sea service terms used by the Marines Corps. Upon completion of this lesson, you will be able to understand the use of sea service terms.



Marines for duty as ships' **detachments**. Influenced by the British, the Continental Congress, meeting in Philadelphia in 1775, authorized the raising and enlistment of two battalions of Continental Marines. The Marines were formed to serve with the newly formed naval forces of the colonies.

“...that no person be appointed to officers, or enlisted into said battalions, but such are good seamen, or so acquainted with maritime affairs as to be able to serve to advantage by sea.”

- Resolution of the Continental Congress to raise Marines, 10 November 1775

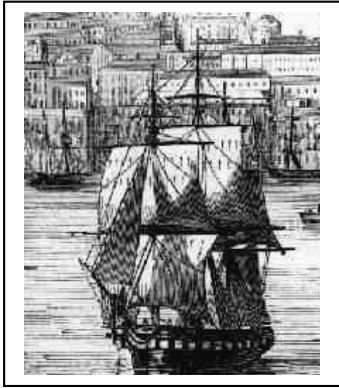
Introduction

Sea duty, the oldest and original duty of Marines, dates back to the Athenian fleets of the fifth century B.C., and continued through Roman times when separate legions of *milites classarii* (Latin meaning “soldiers of the Fleet”) were assigned to duty **afloat**. The early sea-going infantry was the primary weapon systems on ships, and sea battles consisted of boarding and hand-to-hand combat with edged weapons.

In the seventeenth century, the British and Dutch organized the first modern corps of

Nautical Terms

Many Marine Corps customs are derived from years of service afloat. Marines customarily use **nautical** terms. Floors are commonly referred to as “decks,” walls are “bulkheads,” ceilings are “overheads,” and corridors are “passageways.” The order “Gangway!” is used to clear the way for an officer ashore just as it is afloat. In the Marine Corps, the expression “Aye, aye, Sir” is used when acknowledging a verbal order – but not to answer a question. “Yes, Sir” and “No, Sir” are used to answer a direct question. The following list is only a few of sea terms you should become familiar with as a cadet.



Conclusion

Marines have been an important element of sea-going fighting ships since early times. These sea terms have been passed down over the years by customs and traditions that form the core of what makes the Marine Corps stand out from the other branches of the military. Many of the sea terms used aboard ships today share their origin with those early Marines who served aboard sailing ships. As MCJROTC cadets, these sea terms will become part of your vocabulary. ❖

TERM	DEFINITIONS
Aft	Referring to or toward the Stern (rear) of a vessel.
Ahoy	A nautical hail, once the dreaded war cry of the Vikings.
Aye, Aye	Aye is old English for "yes."
Bow	The front portion of a ship.
Bridge	The portion of a ship's structure from which it is controlled.
Bulkhead	Transverse or longitudinal partition separating portions of a ship. A wall.
Galley	Shipboard kitchen; kitchen of a mess hall; mobile field kitchen.
Hatch	Door or doorway
Head	Bathroom, toilet, restroom, or latrine
Port	Left side of a ship
Sea bag	The bag used to stow personal gear.
Sea legs	Adapt to the motion of the ship.
Scuttlebutt	Drinking fountain or an unconfirmed rumor.
Starboard	Right side of a ship. From the Viking "steer board" or rudder that was placed on the right side of the ship.
Stern	Rear portion of a ship.
Topside	Upstairs

Marine Corps Symbols

PURPOSE

This lesson introduces you to description of the Marine Corps Seal, the significance of the High Collar, Quatrefoil, Red Stripe, and Officer and NCO swords.

Introduction

Ceremonial duties are deeply embedded in the history of the Corps. The Marine Corps seal, Scarlet Trouser strip, NCO and Officer Swords, and other Marine Corps traditions play a key role in various ceremonial duties that Marines are called upon to perform. Precision drill, immaculately turned-out troops, disciplined marching, and outstanding bearing displays evidence of Marine Corps alertness and determination to put out only their best, and pride in the Corps and one's self. As MCJROTC cadets, you can draw upon years of Marine Corps traditions and customs as your foundation to be the best.

Marine Corps Seal

On June 22, 1954, President Eisenhower signed Executive Order 105.38 "Establishing a Seal for the United States Marine Corps." General Lemuel C. Shepard, Jr., 20th Commandant designed the seal. The new seal consisted of the traditional Marine Corps emblem in bronze with a depiction of wings, standing upon the western hemisphere of the world globe. Additionally, holding in his beak, a scroll inscribed with the Marine Corps motto "Semper Fidelis" (Ever

Faithful) with the hemisphere superimposed on a fowl anchor. The seal is displayed on a scarlet background encircled with a Navy blue band, edged in a gold rope rim and inscribed "Department of the Navy, United States Marine Corps" in gold letters. The emblem centered on the seal was adopted in 1955 as the official Marine Corps Emblem.



High Collar

The Marines' long-standing nickname "Leathernecks" goes back to the leather stock or neckpiece, which was part of the Marine uniform from 1775 to 1875. Marine Corps legend is that the high leather collar protected a Marines neck from the slash of an enemy cutlass.

Descended from the stock is the standing high collar, which is a hallmark of Marine blues. Like its leather ancestor, the standing collar regulates stance and posture and thus proclaims the wearer a modern "Leatherneck."

Leather Collar



This stiff leather collar, fastened by two buckles at the back, measured nearly three and a half inches high and prevented neck movement necessary for sighting along a rifle barrel. It supposedly improved military bearing, by forcing the chin high. General George F. Elliott, recalling its use after the Civil War, said it made the wearers appear "like geese looking for rain."

Quatrefoil

The quatrefoil is the cross-shaped braid atop the barracks covers of Marine Officers. The braid was taken directly from Napoleon III's army and has been worn since 1859. It is believed to have been first used by Marine sharpshooters to help tell friend from foe. The sharpshooters would climb into the rigging of American ships and when the Marines boarded an enemy ship, the sharpshooters would rain death and destruction upon the enemy while sparing the Marines who wore the cross of rope upon their covers.

Red Stripe

The red stripe worn on the dress blue trousers of officers and noncommissioned officers is in memory of the battle of **Chapultepec Castle**, at **Vera Cruz**, during the Mexican-American war. During that battle, 90% of the Marine Officers and NCOs died taking the Mexican stronghold. The officer's stripe is 1 ½ inch wide and the NCOs stripe is 1 1/8 inch wide.



NCO Sword

Although not specifically mentioned in uniform regulations until 1840, swords for Marine noncommissioned officers were carried and issued much earlier. The NCO sword is one of the oldest weapons in continual use in the U.S. Armed Forces. Marine Corps uniform regulations prescribed the Army sword, which by this time was the model 1840, patterned on a French model, with straight blade and cast bronze **hilt**. During the Civil War, senior Marines NCOs began to wear a sword of the same type as the Army infantry officer's sword. In 1975, this pattern was made official, and it continues to the present day.

Swords (other than individually owned) are organizational equipment. Staff NCOs wear them when blues or whites-blue-whites are worn. Sergeants may, when prescribed, wear the sword for drill with troops, parades, reviews, and ceremonies.



The Mameluke Sword

The sword that Marine officers carry goes back to the Uniform Regulations of 1826 (with a hiatus from 1859 to 1875). However, records of the day indicate that Marine officers wore swords of this pattern before the War of 1812.

The **Mameluke** sword gets its name from the cross-hilt and ivory grip, both of which were used for centuries by the Moslems of North Africa and Arabia. The Marine Corps tradition of carrying this type of sword dates from Lieutenant O'Bannon's assault on Derna, Tripoli, in 1805, when he was said to have been presented the Mameluke sword by the governor of Derna.

Marine Corps is a proud organization built upon years of history and traditions. ❖



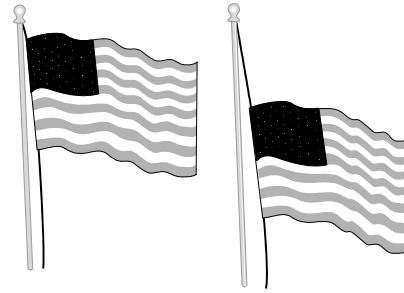
Conclusion

During this lesson, you have learned about the history and traditions surrounding much of what makes the Marine Corps unique from other branches of military service. Why Marines are called “Leathernecks” has been explained and the dress uniform, steeped in history, should be worn with pride. As a MCJROTC cadet, you may have an opportunity to show others why the

The United States Flag – Colors of Pride

PURPOSE

The purpose of this lesson is to make you aware of the importance of properly displaying the National, State and Organizational flags.



Introduction

Due to the symbolic nature of the flag, justice, unity, and pride in your country, you should honor it with respect and dignity. Even after the flag becomes old and worn, you should not use it for banners or in any disrespectful way. If you do not preserve it, you should destroy it as a whole, privately, respectfully, and traditionally by burning. Always show the flag the utmost respect, whether you are in uniform or in civilian attire.

Rules for Displaying the U.S. Flag

When displaying the flag, you should always raise it briskly and lower it ceremoniously. It is customary to display the flag from sunrise to sunset, but you can display all-weather flags at all times if properly lit at night. The use of the flag at night, as well as during the day, should follow rules of custom.

Presidential proclamations contain the rules for displaying the flag at **half-staff** -- for example, on Memorial Day, we display the flag at half-staff until noon, and then raise it to the top of the **staff**. State and federal governments also fly the flag at half-staff when there is death of a president, former president, principal official, or foreign dignitary.

When flying the flag at half-staff, first raise it to its peak, and then lower it to the half-staff position. When lowering the flag for the day after it has been flown at half-staff, first raise it to its peak, and then lower it ceremoniously.

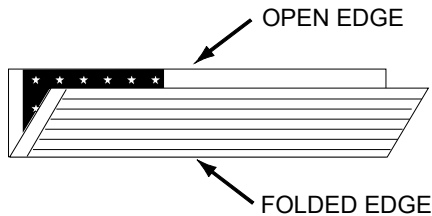
Executive Orders

- On June Act of January 13, 1794 - provided for 15 stripes and 15 stars after May 1795.
 - Act of April 4, 1818 - provided for 13 stripes and one star for each state, to be added to the flag single point of each star to be upward.
 - Executive Order of President on the 4th of July following the admission of each new state signed by President Monroe.
 - Executive Order of President Taft dated June 24, 1912 - established proportions of the flag and provided for arrangement of the stars in six horizontal rows of eight each.
 - Eisenhower dated January 3, 1959 - provided for the arrangement of the stars in seven rows of seven stars each, staggered horizontally and vertically.
 - Executive Order of President Eisenhower dated August 21, 1959 - provided for the arrangement of the stars in nine rows of stars staggered horizontally and eleven rows of stars staggered vertically.
-

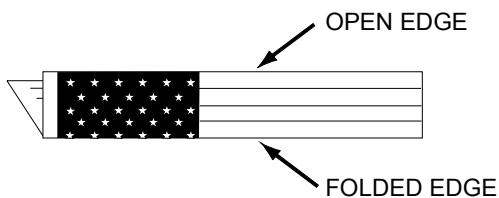
Folding the Flag Correctly

Illustrated below is the correct procedure for folding the U.S. flag.

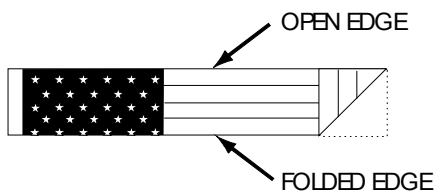
1. Bring the lower striped section of the flag up over the blue field.



2. Then, fold the “folded edge” over to meet the “open edge.”



3. Start a triangular fold by bringing the lower striped corner to the “open edge”.



4. Fold the outer point inward and parallel with the “open edge” to form a second triangle.



5. Continue to fold the flag in triangles until the entire length of the flag is folded with only the blue field and the margin showing.



6. Tuck the margin into the pocket formed by the folds at the blue field edge of the flag.



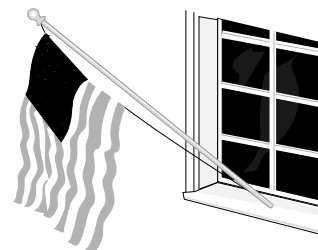
7. When you have completely folded the flag, only the blue field should be visible, and it should have the triangular shape of a cocked hat.



Display of the U.S. Flag Alone

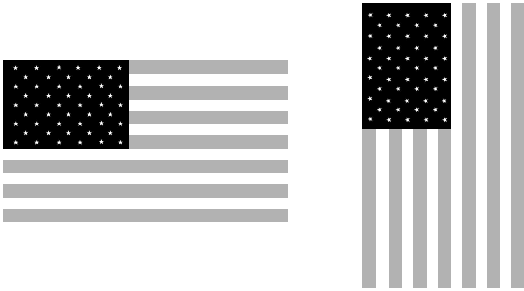
Display the U.S. flag alone according to the following guidelines:

- When displaying the national flag from a staff projecting from a windowsill, balcony, or front of a building, the **union** of the flag should be at the staff's peak (unless displaying the flag at half-staff).

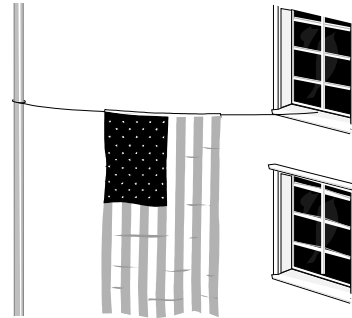


U.S. MARINE CORPS. JROTC
Category 5 – General Military Subjects
Skill 4 – Customs, Courtesies, and Traditions

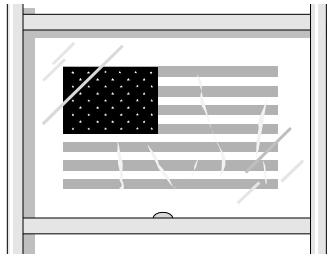
- When displaying the flag flat against a wall, either horizontally or vertically, the union should be upper most and to the flag's own right, or the observer's left.



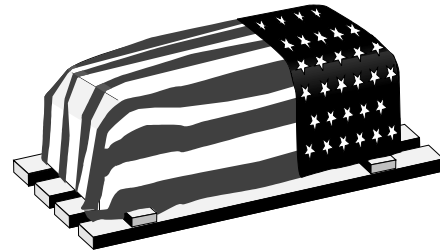
- When suspending the flag at the edge of a sidewalk on the side of a building, raise the flag out from the building towards the pole, union first.



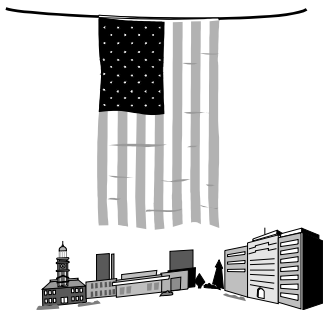
- When displaying the flag in a window, place it with the union to the left of the observer in the street.



- When using the flag over a casket, place it so the union is at the head and over the left shoulder.



- When displayed suspended across a street, the flag should be vertical, with the union to the north on an east-west street, or to the east on a north-south street.

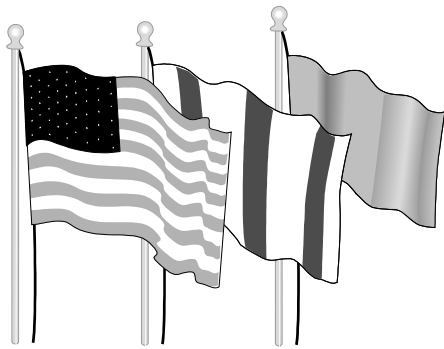


Note: Never lower the flag into the grave, nor allow it to touch the ground.

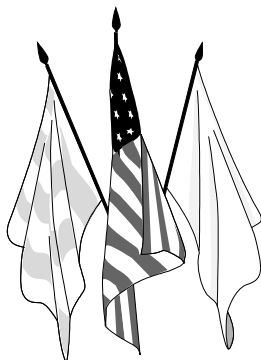
Group Display

Display a group of flags according to the following guidelines:

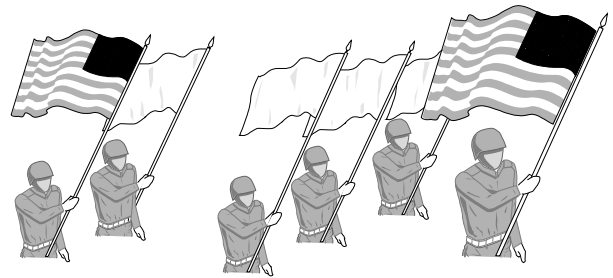
- When displaying the flags of two or more nations or states, fly them from separate flag staffs (or flagpoles) of the same height. The flags should be of similar size.



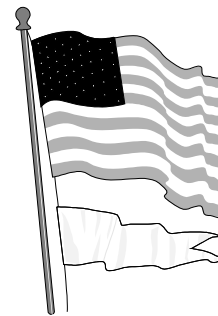
- When grouping a number of flags and displaying them from staffs radiating from a central point, center the national flag or place it at the highest point of the group.



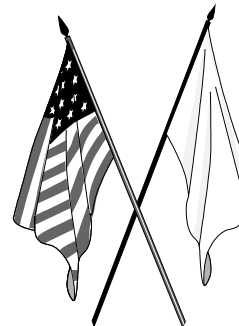
- When carried in a **procession** with other flags, carry the national flag either on the far right of the row of marching persons or, if in a line of flags, carry it in the front and center position of that line.



- When flying a **pennant** or another flag on the same **halyard** with the national flag, always fly the national flag at the peak of the staff. The only exceptions to this rule are displaying the United Nations flag at the United Nations Headquarters or the church pennant during services at sea.

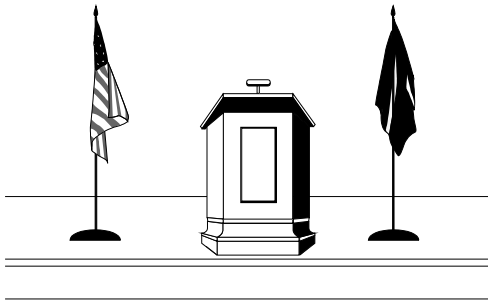


- When displaying the national flag with another flag from a crossed staff, place the national flag on its right with its staff in front of the staff of the other flag.



- When displaying the national flag from a staff in an auditorium, meeting hall, or chapel,

whether on the same floor level or on a platform, it should be in the position of honor at the speaker's or chaplain's right facing the audience or congregation. Place other flags on the left of the speaker or chaplain; that is, to the right of the audience.



Flag Laws and Regulations

By Executive Order, the flag flies 24 hours a day at the following locations:

- The Betsy Ross House, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
 - The White House, Washington, D.C.
 - U.S. Capitol, Washington, D.C.
 - Washington Monument, Washington, D.C.
 - Iwo Jima Memorial to U.S. Marines, Arlington, Virginia
 - Battleground in Lexington, MA (site of first shots in the Revolutionary War)
 - Winter encampment cabins, Valley Forge, Pennsylvania
 - Fort McHenry, Baltimore, Maryland (a flag flying over Fort McHenry after a battle during the War of 1812 provided the inspiration for The Star-Spangled Banner)
 - The Star-Spangled Banner Flag House, Baltimore, Maryland (site where the famed flag over Fort McHenry was sewn)
 - Jenny Wade House in Gettysburg, Pennsylvania (Jenny Wade was the only civilian killed at the battle of Gettysburg)
 - U.S.S. Arizona Memorial, Pearl Harbor, Hawaii
 - All custom points and points of entry into the United States
-

Marine Corps Colors and Standards

The commandant issues to every major Marine unit or organization a distinguishing flag that is carried beside the National Color. These unit flags are called Marine Corps Colors (or Standards). A Marine Corps Color bears the emblem and motto of the Corps and the unit title. It follows the color scheme of the Corps, scarlet and gold.



Organizational Battle Color (Standard)

The Marine Corps Color of a Fleet Marine Force unit is called the unit Battle Color. The color authorized for an organization in the Supporting Establishment (such as a Marine Barracks) is called the Organization Color.



Guidon

The Guidon is a small rectangular scarlet flag measuring 22 by 28 inches with the Corps badge in silhouette in the center in yellow. Organization Guidons carry the Marine Corps emblem and the title of the unit. Dress Guidons

(used as markers) simply bear the initials “USMC.” Companies, batteries, or detachments, carry a type I guidon. This design was adopted by a set of specifications issued on January 25, 1939.

Guidons are carried on all occasions of ceremony when a company or equivalent unit is represented by two or more platoons. In garrison, they may be displayed outside the company headquarters between the hours of morning and evening colors except in inclement weather or when the company is using the guidon in formation.



Commandant of the Marine Corps

Commandant of the Marine Corps

The Commandant of the Marine Corps has the only personal flag among the chiefs of the five armed forces that is not divided diagonally into two colors. The basic design of this flag dates back into at least the 1920s, when the Commandant, then the only major general in the Corps, flew a scarlet flag with the eagle, globe, and anchor badge in yellow above two white stars. As the grade of the Commandant was increased in World War II, stars were added to this basic design as reflected in the flag today.

Every active general officer in command displays a **Personal Flag**. Marine Corps personal

flags consist of a scarlet field with white stars, according to the officer’s rank, arranged in the same manner as the stars on Navy personal flags. Regulations governing personal flags are in Navy Regulations and Marine Corps Flag Manual.

Flag Holidays

The flag should be displayed, from sunrise to sunset, on all days when the weather permits, especially on:

- New Year's Day,
- Inauguration Day,
- Martin Luther King's Birthday,
- Lincoln's Birthday,
- Washington's Birthday,
- Easter Sunday,
- Patriots Day, April 19,
- National Day of Prayer, the 1st Thursday of May,
- Mother's Day,
- Armed Forces Day,
- Memorial Day (**half-staff until noon**),
- Flag Day,
- Independence Day, July 4th,
- Labor Day,
- Constitution Day,
- Columbus Day, October 12th,
- Navy Day,
- Veterans Day,
- Thanksgiving Day,
- Christmas Day,
- Election Days,
- State and Local Holidays,
- And such other days as may be proclaimed by the President of the United States.

Conclusion

The flag of the United States has a rich heritage and interesting history, from the original Stars and Stripes to the present-day 50-star version. It represents an independent nation. The traditions that it symbolizes will continue to exist as long as citizens treat the national flag with the respect it deserves. ❖

Pledge of Allegiance

PURPOSE

*The lesson will inform you of the importance of reciting the Pledge of **Allegiance**. As a MCJROTC cadet, you should know the origin and meaning of the words of the pledge and the proper response when in uniform or civilian cloths.*

Introduction

Each day across America, millions of students recite the Pledge of Allegiance along with thousands of citizens at meetings of Boys Scout, Girl Scout, American Legion and other organizations. Most do so out of repetition with no idea of the origin or meaning of the Pledge. While most of us know the words of the Pledge, there are a large number who do not know of its origin.

400th Anniversary

The Pledge of Allegiance was written for the 400th anniversary, in 1892, of the discovery of America. A national committee of educators and civic leaders planned a public-school celebration of Columbus Day to center around the flag. Included with the script for ceremonies that would culminate in raising of the flag was the pledge. Therefore, it was in October 1892 Columbus Day programs that school children across the country first recited the Pledge of Allegiance this way:

First Version of the Pledge

I pledge allegiance to my Flag and to the Republic for which it stands: one Nation indivisible, with Liberty and Justice for all.



The Author

Controversy continues over whether the author was the chairman of the committee, Francis Bellamy - who worked on a magazine for young people that published the pledge - or James Upham, who worked for the publishing firm that produced the magazine. The pledge was published **anonymously** in the magazine and was not copyrighted.

According to some accounts of Bellamy as author, he decided to write a pledge of allegiance, rather than a salute, because it was a stronger expression of loyalty - something particularly significant even 27 years after the Civil War ended. "One Nation indivisible" referred to the outcome of the Civil War, and "Liberty and justice for all" expressed the ideals of the Declaration of Independence.

In 1923, “the flag of the United States” replaced the words “my flag.” This change occurred because some feared that foreign-born people might have in mind the flag of the country of their birth, instead of the U.S. flag. A year later, “of America” was added after “United States.”

No form of the pledge received official recognition by Congress until June 22, 1942, when it was formally included in the U.S. Flag Code. The official name of The Pledge of Allegiance was adopted in 1945. The last change in language came on Flag Day 1954, when Congress passed a law that added the words “under God” after “one nation.”

Originally, the pledge was said with the right hand in the so-called “**Bellamy Salute**,” with the hand resting fist outward from the chest, then the arm extending out from the body. Once Hitler came to power in Europe, some Americans were concerned that this position of the arm and hand resembled the salute rendered by the Nazi military. In 1942, Congress established the current practice of rendering the pledge with the right hand placed flat over the heart.



Federal Code

Section 7 of the Federal Flag Code states that “when not in military uniform, men should remove any headdress with their right hand and hold it at the left shoulder, thereby resting the hand over the heart.” People in military uniform should remain silent, face the flag and render the military salute.

The Flag Code specifies that any future changes to the pledge would have to be with the consent of the President. The Pledge of Allegiance now reads:

"I pledge allegiance"

.....*I promise to be true*

"to the flag"

.....*to the symbol of our country*

"of the United States of America"

.....*each state that has joined to make our country*

"and to the Republic"

.....*a republic is a country where the people choose others to make laws for them. The government is for the people*

"for which it stands,"

.....*the flag means the country*

"one Nation"

.....*a single country*

"under God,"

.....*the people believe in a supreme being*

"indivisible,"

.....*the country cannot be split into parts*

"with liberty and justice"

.....*with freedom and fairness*

"for all."

.....*for each person in the country ...you and me!*

Conclusion

The United States is one of the few nations in the world to have pledge to its flag. Many individuals argue that the Pledge of Allegiance to our flag has usurped the U.S.

U.S. MARINE CORPS. JROTC
Category 5 – General Military Subjects
Skill 4 – Customs, Courtesies, and Traditions

Constitution and the Bill of Rights as the cornerstone of American patriotism. This argument has been going on for a long time and will continue to be argued for years to come. Each American must decide for themselves the importance of the Pledge of Allegiance and how it reflects on their patriotism. ❖

Boarding a Naval Vessel

PURPOSE

This lesson introduces you to the proper procedure for boarding and departing a Naval vessel, and entering an exiting a vehicle with a senior.

Introduction

From the beginning of the Marine Corps, back in 1775, Marines have served aboard ships as an integral part of the United States sea power. This means that on many occasions during your career, you will find yourself serving or embarked in naval vessels, as part of the ship's Marine detachment or as a passenger. Because of this and because, as a Marine, you are a member of the naval services, you must comply meticulously with the courtesies and customs practiced on board men-of-war.

Boarding a Naval Vessel

When boarding a naval vessel, the junior goes first and the others follow in reverse order of rank.

Upon reaching the quarterdeck, halt, face aft (or toward the National Ensign), and salute the colors. Immediately afterward, render a second, distinct salute to the officer of the deck or junior officer of the deck, and say, "Sir [or ma'am], I request permission to come on board."

There will be occasions that the **OOD** and the quarterdeck will be located at the start of

the **gangway** on the pier, and the same courtesies apply to boarding the vessel.



First, salute National Ensign at top of gangway.



Second, turn and salute OOD and request permission to come aboard.

If the ship is anchored in the stream, obtain permission from the ship's senior officer present at the landing (or from the **boat coxswain**, if no officer is on hand) to go out in one the of the ship's boats.

When boarding a small boat, juniors **embark** first and sit forward, leaving the stern seats for seniors, who embark last. The most senior officer in the boat sits farthest aft, at the centerline, or elsewhere as he or she wishes. When debarking, officers do so in order of rank. In embarking **liberty parties** on board ship, CPOs and staff NCOs embark first, then other petty officers and NCOs, then non-rated persons. Officers or enlisted in the boat rise and salute when a more senior officer boards or debarks.

On reaching the quarterdeck, from either the gangway or an **accommodation ladder**, halt, face aft, and salute the colors. Immediately afterward, render a second, distinct salute to the officer of the deck or junior officer of the deck, and say, "Sir [or ma'am], I request permission to come on board."

Disembarking from a Naval Vessel

When the time comes to leave the ship, render the same courtesies 'in reverse order, saying, "Sir [or ma'am], I request permission to leave the ship." Face aft, and salute the colors.



First, salute the OOD and request permission to leave the ship.



Second, turn salute the National Ensign and leave the ship.

Entering and Exiting a Vehicle

When traveling in a vehicle with a senior member of the armed forces, the junior service member should enter the vehicle first. In addition, the junior should be seated in the seat that is furthest from the door. Doing this will facilitate proper etiquette for exiting the vehicle, when the senior service member should exit the vehicle first. The rule to remember is: The senior enters a vehicle last in order to exit first.

Conclusion

During a Marine's career, there will be occasions when boarding a naval vessel will be necessary. Because of this and because, as a Marine, you are a member of the naval services, you must comply with the courtesies and customs practice on board a naval vessel. ❖

Navy Rank Structure

PURPOSE

This lesson introduces the Navy rank structure. It provides information on officer and enlisted rank, and on grades and insignia. Upon completion of this lesson, you will be able to identify Navy rank structure by rank, grade, and insignia and in order of seniority.



Introduction

As a member of the MCJROTC, it is important that you know and understand the Navy rank structure. The relationship between the Marine Corps and Navy is longstanding and operates so smoothly that it is a common misconception that the Marine Corps forms part of the Navy or vice versa. General Clifton B. Cates, 19th Commandant of the Marine Corps stated:

The partnership between the Navy and Marine Corps had its legal birth more than 150 years ago when Congress placed

both Services—which were then some 25 years of age—under a newly created Secretary of the Navy. The partnership was a close one initially, and it grew even closer with the passage of time. Today it is so close that only a handful of people—inside the Naval Services as well as outside—realize that technically the Navy and Marine Corps are separate Services under the command of the Secretary of the Navy. Practically speaking, the Navy and Marine Corps have lived, worked and fought together since their inception.

Based on this longstanding relationship, it is quite understandable that the relationship between MCJROTC programs and Navy JROTC programs coexist in the same manner.

Background

The Navy's overall mission is to maintain, train, and equip combat-ready naval forces capable of winning wars, deterring aggression, and maintaining freedom of the seas. Under the direction of the President and Secretary of Defense, the Navy has four primary missions during times of war; they are to:

1. Seek out and destroy enemy forces at sea.
2. Destroy or reduce enemy sea commerce.
3. Maintain control of the seas.
4. Conduct land, sea, or air operations as needed to achieve these goals.

Just like the Marine Corps, the Navy has to have a personnel classification system. This system provides for identifying manpower for the

Navy and Congress. This information is used for the same purposes as the Marine Corps; personnel planning, recruitment, selection for training, development of training needs, promotions, assignments. It is also used for the orderly call to active duty of inactive duty personnel in times of national emergency or mobilization.

History

The current rank structure of the Navy has evolved since its birth on October 13, 1775. While the origin of many ranks can be traced prior to 1775, others have a more modern origin.

The term Admiral comes from the Arabic term *amir-al-bahr* meaning commander of the seas. The rank of Admiral did not come about until 1862 when Congress authorized nine Rear Admirals on July 16. Two years later, Congress authorized the rank of Vice Admiral and appointed David Farragut to this new position. In July 1866, Farragut was appointed Admiral and David Dixon Porter Vice Admiral. When Farragut died in 1870, Porter became Admiral and Stephen C. Rowan Vice Admiral. When they died, Congress did not allow the promotion of any of the Rear Admirals to succeed them so there were no more Admirals or Vice Admirals by promotion until 1915 when Congress authorized an Admiral and a Vice Admiral each for the Atlantic, Pacific and Asiatic fleets. In 1899, Congress recognized George Dewey's accomplishments during the Spanish-American War by authorizing the President to appoint him Admiral of the Navy. He held that rank until he died in 1917. Nobody has since held that title. In 1944, Congress approved the five-star Fleet Admiral rank. Three individuals (Ernest J. King, William D. Leahy and Chester W. Nimitz) were appointed December 15, 1944 and one (William H. Halsey) in December 1945. None have been appointed since.

The sleeve stripes now used by Admirals were approved March 11, 1869. Admirals of the 1860s also wore the same number of stars on their shoulders as Admirals of corresponding grades today.

Captain was the highest rank in our Navy from its beginning in 1775 and has evolved to what it is today. The term Captain comes from the Latin words *capitaneus* (meaning chieftain) and *caput* (meaning head) that means chieftain or head of a unit. The commander of any warship was a Captain. At one time, there were three grades of Captain ranking. The top grade of Captain became Commodore or Rear Admiral in 1862, while the second of three grades became Master Commandant in 1806 and Commander in 1837. The third or lowest grade of Captain was Lieutenant Commanding, which became Lieutenant Commander in 1862.

The eagle as a rank insignia for Captain first appeared in 1852. The symbol was that of an eagle perched on an anchor and was worn on the **epaulettes** and shoulder straps. The four sleeve stripes appeared in 1869. The four stripes showed up on the Captain's shoulder marks in 1899. In 1941, the metal pin-on rank insignia was worn with khaki shirts. It was also at that time, that the eagle rank insignia changed from the eagle perched on an anchor to the spread eagle worn by Army and Marine Colonels.

Officers in the Navy began wearing embroidered gold oak leaves on their shoulder straps in 1862 and the two and one-half stripes of gold lace on their sleeve cuffs in 1874. In 1862, the Lieutenant's rank insignia was two gold bars. These became silver in 1877. In 1874, Lieutenants began wearing the sleeve stripes of two one-half-inch wide strips of gold lace.

The rank below Lieutenant evolved from Sailing Master, later Master, to Warrant Officer.

After 1855, graduates of the Naval Academy filled those positions. Their complete title was Master in line for Promotion to distinguish them from the Warrant Masters who would not be promoted. In 1833, the rank became Lieutenant, Junior Grade. In 1862, the Masters wore a gold bar for rank insignia, which became a silver bar in 1877. In 1881, the current sleeve stripes of one one-half-inch and one one-quarter-inch wide strips of gold lace were adopted.

Ensign comes from the Latin word insignia that meant and still means emblem or banner. As a military rank, Ensign started in the French army as a junior officer and soon entered the French navy. Ensigns were initially the lowest ranking commissioned officers in the Army beginning with the Revolutionary War. They became a part of the Navy in 1862 to fill the need for a rank for graduates of the Naval Academy equivalent to the Army Second Lieutenant. Also, in 1862, Ensigns wore a sleeve stripe of one one-quarter-inch wide gold lace, which increased to the present one-half-inch wide lace in 1881. The Ensign got the single gold bar rank insignia in 1922.

The Petty Officer can trace his title back to the old French word petit meaning something small. Over the years the word also came to mean minor, secondary, and subordinate.

Although Petty Officers have always been a part of the Navy, the first rank insignia was established in 1841. Specialty or **rating** marks did not appear officially until 1866. Three classes of Petty Officers were recognized in 1885 – First, Second and Third. In 1886, they wore insignia of chevrons with the points down under a spread eagle and rating mark. The eagle faced left instead of right as it does today. The present Petty Officer insignia came about in 1894. The pay

grades of E-8 and E-9, Senior Chief and Master Chief, were created effective June 1, 1958.

Seaman wear one, two, or three diagonal stripes or “hashmarks” on their sleeves. These stripes first appeared on the cuffs of sailors’ jumpers in 1886. Petty Officers and Seamen First Class wore three stripes, Seamen Second Class two stripes, and Seamen Third Class one stripe. Shortly after World War II the Navy moved the stripes to its Seaman’s upper arms.

Navy Rank Structure

The Navy rank structure consists of officers, warrant officers, and enlisted personnel. Rank, **rate**, grade and insignia identify Navy officers and enlisted. The Navy has the same pay grades as the Marines. As a matter of fact, all services have the same pay grades. However, the Navy terms used to signify rank and rate are different than those of the Marines.

Officer Rank Structure

The officer rank structure within the Navy has the same pay grades as that of the other branches of the service. The terms used to identify Navy officers are different from the other services. Listed below is the rank structure of Navy officers in order of seniority from highest to lowest:

<u>Rank</u>	<u>Grade</u>
• Admiral	0-10
• Vice Admiral	0-9
• Rear Admiral (Upper Half)	0-8
• Rear Admiral (Lower Half)	0-7
• Captain	0-6
• Commander	0-5

- | | |
|---|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lieutenant Commander 0-4 • Lieutenant 0-3 • Lieutenant Junior Grade 0-2 • Ensign 0-1 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seaman Apprentice E-2 • Seaman Recruit E-1 |
|---|---|

Enlisted personnel can be referred to by their rate or a combination of rate and rating. The highest rate possible is that of Master Chief Petty Officer of the Navy. Only one individual can hold this position at a time.

Warrant Officer Rank Structure

<u>Rank</u>	<u>Grade</u>
• Chief Warrant Officer, CW04	W-4
• Chief Warrant Officer, CW03	W-3
• Chief Warrant Officer, CW02	W-2
• Warrant Officer, W01	W-1

The grade of Warrant Officer (W-1) is no longer in use and there is no Chief Warrant Officer, CW05.

Conclusion












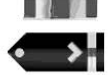












Knowing Navy rank will make you a better leader and citizen. This knowledge can greatly benefit you as a member of the MCJROTC. You should know the ranks of the U.S. Navy in the event you come in contact with a member of the U.S. Navy. If your future includes joining the Marines, Navy, or any of the other branches of the service, you will be well ahead of your peers.

Enlisted Rank Structure

The use of the term “rank” for Navy enlisted personnel is incorrect. The term is “rate.” The Navy enlisted rank structure in order of seniority from highest to lowest are as follows:

<u>Rate</u>	<u>Grade</u>
• Master Chief Petty Officer of the Navy	E-9
• Fleet/Command Master Chief Petty Officer	E-9
• Master Chief Petty Officer	E-9
• Senior Chief Petty Officer	E-8
• Chief Petty Officer	E-7
• Petty Officer First Class	E-6
• Petty Officer Second Class	E-5
• Petty Officer Third Class	E-4
• Seaman	E-3

Insignia of the U. S. Navy

					
Ensign	Lieutenant Junior Grade	Lieutenant	Lieutenant Commander	Commander	Captain
					
Rear Admiral (Lower Half)	Rear Admiral (Upper Half)	Vice Admiral	Admiral	Fleet Admiral	
					
Chief Warrant Officer 1 (CWO1)	Chief Warrant Officer 2 (CWO2)	Chief Warrant Officer 3 (CWO3)			
					
Seaman Apprentice	Seaman	Petty Officer 3rd Class	Petty Officer 2nd Class	Petty Officer 3rd Class	Chief Petty Officer
					
Senior Chief Petty Officer	Master Chief Petty Officer	Fleet Chief Petty Officer	Master Chief Petty Officer of the Navy		

Navy JROTC Rank Structure

PURPOSE

This lesson introduces cadets to the Navy JROTC Rank Structure. It provides information on cadet officer and cadet enlisted rank and insignia. Upon completion of this lesson, cadets will be able to identify Navy JROTC rank structure.

Introduction

The Navy JROTC (NJROTC) uniform is one of the program's most distinguishing features. The NJROTC **rank insignia** further identifies cadets within the cadet corps.

Background

The NJROTC rank structure was modeled after the Navy's rank structure. The uniforms issued and worn by cadets are the same as those worn on active duty by Navy personnel. Therefore, the design of the NJROTC rank insignia distinguishes cadets from active duty Navy personnel.

Rank

Rank as it applies to this lesson is the designation of an official officer position such as Ensign or Captain.

Insignia

Insignia worn in the NJROTC identifies the position and rank of cadets in the NJROTC.

NJROTC Rank Structure

The NJROTC Cadet Corp is comprised of cadet officer and cadet enlisted personnel. The rank and insignia of both will be covered.

Cadet Officer Rank Structure

The cadet officers in the NJROTC in order of seniority, from highest to lowest, are as follows:

Cadet Rank

- Cadet Commander
- Cadet Lieutenant Commander
- Cadet Lieutenant
- Cadet Lieutenant Junior Grade
- Cadet Ensign

The cadet officer insignia is authorized for NJROTC cadet officers and will be furnished at government expense.

Cadet Enlisted Rank Structure

The cadet enlisted members in the NJROTC in order of seniority from highest to lowest are as follows:

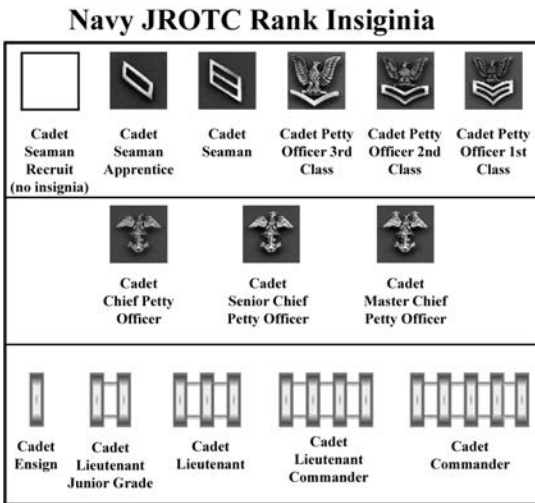
Cadet Rank

- Cadet Master Chief Petty Officer
- Cadet Senior Chief Petty Officer
- Cadet Chief Petty Officer
- Cadet Petty Officer First Class
- Petty Officer Second Class

U.S. MARINE CORPS. JROTC
 Category 5 – General Military Subjects
 Skill 5 – Rank Structure

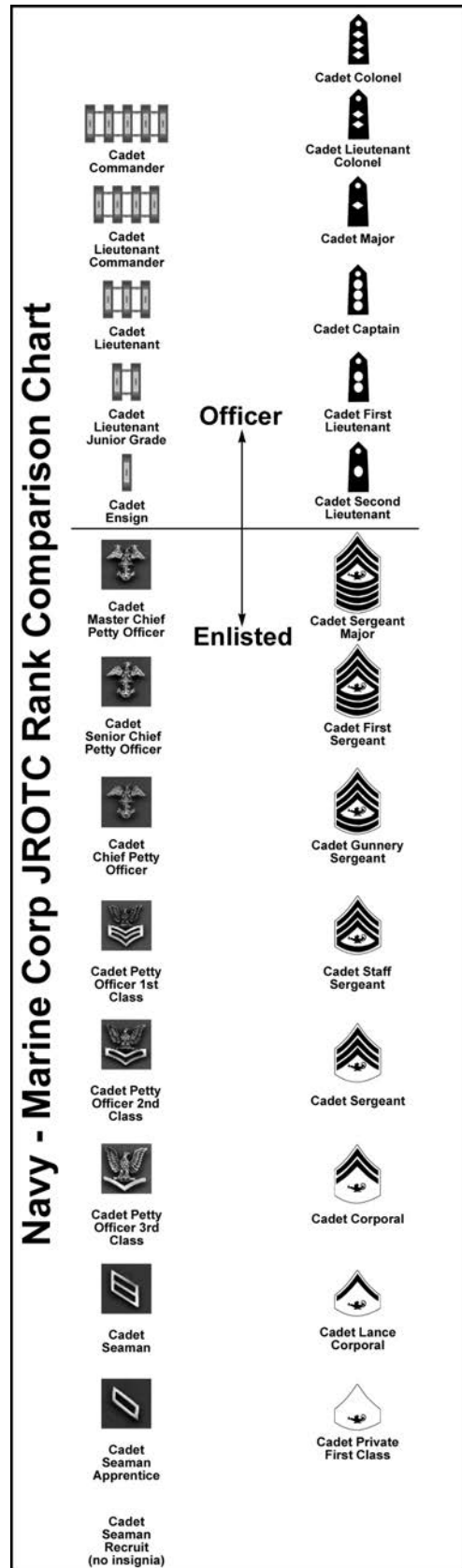
- Petty Officer Third Class
- Seaman
- Seaman Apprentice
- Seaman Recruit

The cadet enlisted insignia is authorized for NJROTC cadets and will be furnished at government expense.



A Comparison Chart

A comparison chart showing the MCJROTC rank structure and NJROTC rank structure is provided.



Conclusion

Remember, the more you know as a MCJROTC cadet, the better a leader and citizen you will be. Just as your rank and insignia identify you, Navy JROTC rank and insignia readily identifies Navy JROTC officers and enlisted. And now, you can identify them too.❖

Marine Corps Posts and Stations

PURPOSE

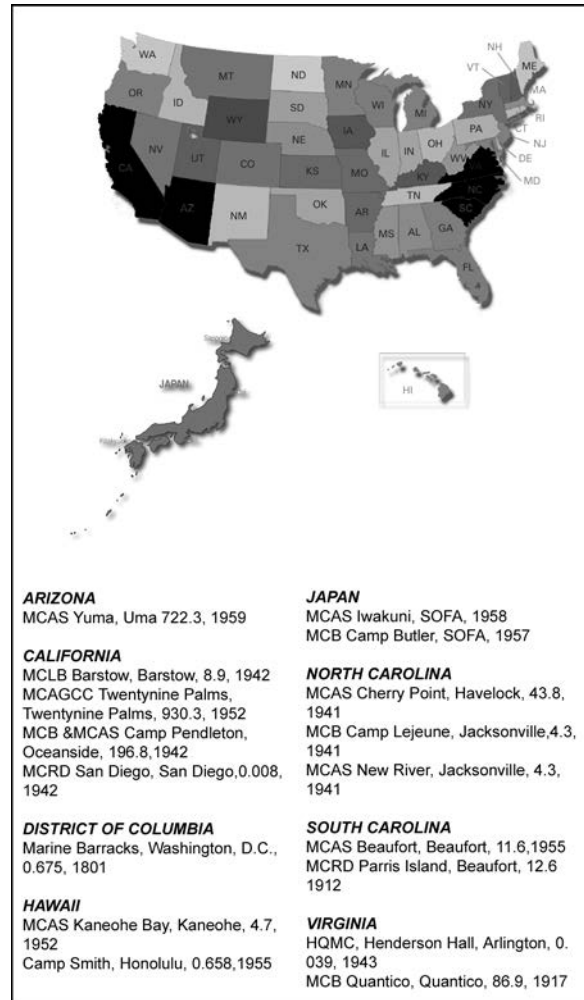
This lesson introduces the posts and stations of the Marine Corps. These are the places where Marines spend much of their career. You will learn about a typical post organization, the facilities and services provided on a typical post and the major posts and stations of the Marine Corps.

Introduction

Marines are located all over the world. Only the globe itself (trademark of Marines) limits the number of places where a Marine may ultimately serve. As a member of the MCJROTC, you may be provided an opportunity to visit a Marine Corps **installation**. This lesson will focus on major **posts** and **stations** and their organization.

Posts of the Marine Corps

A number of major **bases**, posts and air stations form part of the Marine Corps Supporting Establishment and are maintained exclusively for Marine Corps forces. Marines in the security forces, man more than 20 Marine barracks and shore-based Marine detachments at home and abroad. Except for posts with missions directly reflected in their titles (such as the Recruit Depots), the Corps has the following kinds of stations.



Marine Corps Bases (MCB) and **Marine Barracks (MB)** are the basic permanent posts for support of ground units of the Corps. Both are autonomous and self-supporting. Marine Corps bases and camps are devoted to field training and support of major tactical units, whereas Marine barracks perform security missions.

Marine Corps Air Station (MCAS) is the aviation counterpart of a Marine Corps base (MCB). Like MCBs, air stations are also permanent, autonomous, and self-supporting. All MCASs have a common mission: support of Marine aviation units.

Marine detachments are the smallest organizations of the Corps. A Marine detachment depends administratively and logistically on some larger organization, sometimes Navy, and often enjoys less permanent status than other Marine activities.

A Typical Post

Most posts follow the same organization. A typical post or base organization is show below:



Command

The commanding officer (CO) (if a general, called a commanding general) commands the post. The CO is responsible for all that the command does or leaves undone. The executive officer is the line officer next junior in rank to the CO. The executive officer relieves the commander of administrative detail and succeeds to command in the latter’s absence. The extent and character of the duties vary somewhat according to the policies and leadership of the CO. On a post commanded by a general, the

executive officer is entitled “chief of staff”. The general may also be assisted by a deputy.

Staff

Executive staff and special staff assist the post commander. The executive staff includes assistants for manpower, operations, facilities, fiscal matters and the full range of services that posts and stations must provide. In addition, most posts have a few special staff functions.

Provost Marshal

This is the post “chief of police” or “sheriff,” responsible for the public safety, traffic control, criminal investigation, internal and external security, regulation of pets, law, and order in general. Frequently, the provost marshal acts as a fire marshal and thus becomes responsible for fire protection. Law-abiding members of the post usually encounter the provost marshal in connection with licensing of vehicles or pets and obtaining passes for guests and family members.

Maintenance Officer

This officer bears responsibility for minor construction, repair, and upkeep of the physical plant of the post. He or she is also responsible for its cleanliness and shipshape appearance.

Public Works Officer (CEC, USN)

On large stations, this Navy officer supervises new construction, improvements, and plans for post development.

Boards and Councils

To supplement the staff, most stations include one or more standing boards or councils. Some are required by regulations, while others exist to meet local needs. Typical examples are:

- Exchange council
- Recreation council
- School board
- Athletic and sports council
- Housing board

Facilities and Services

In many ways a post resembles a small community. Most, if not all of the facilities and services you could expect in such a town have counterparts on a Marine post. Like small towns, however, stations of various age, locality, and mission exhibit considerable local disparities. Thus, what you find on one post might not exist, or hardly exists, at another.

One key to gaining the most benefits from the military community resides in the USMC family programs and family service centers maintained by all bases and activities. Family service centers provide a single point of reference for Marines as they change locations. Relocation specialists provide the latest information on new duty stations and civilian communities; housing, child care, schools, employment, vehicle and firearms registration; and non-Marine Corps activities.

The centers offer seminars and orientation courses on the many aspects of family and personal development. Trained counselors and social workers provide guidance and referrals to outside agencies. Courses, home visits, and specialized assistance are available for new and expectant parents. For those families experiencing crises, family advocacy counselors supplement the wide variety of counseling services. Also offered is employment counseling for family members and retirement preparation for Marines. These services are often not available in communities,

except at considerable expense. A Marine assigned to another service's installation and his or her family may also use the host command's center. Toll-free numbers are provided for both East Coast or West Coast services.

Medical and Dental Care

Every Marine post includes medical installations for health and sanitation of the command. These may range from a dispensary (sick bay) to a clinic (dispensary with limited facilities for inpatient care) or, on the largest posts, a naval hospital that can handle any medical or surgical emergency. Routine treatment and consultation are afforded daily at "sick call"—a fixed time of day when the sick bay is fully staffed. Emergencies, of course, are dealt with at any time, day or night

The Medical Department not only cares for ailments but also wages a ceaseless preventive campaign. All Marines must undergo certain immunizations and every officer must have a thorough physical examination. These examinations are ordered every other year until the officer reaches thirty-five years of age and annually thereafter.

Medical Care for Family Members

The government on a space-available basis provides medical care for service families and for retired officers and their families. CHAMPUS (Civilian Health and Medical Program, Uniformed Services) permits civilian medical care and hospitalization. A small percentage of the total annual cost of a civilian's medical care and hospitalization is borne by the individual.

Virtually all family members (spouse and unmarried children under age 21 with few exceptions) of Marines on active duty are eligible for civilian medical care and care in service medical facilities. In order to receive such care, however, armed forces personnel must enroll their families in the DEERS (Defense Enrollment Reporting System) Program. Family members cannot be treated without DEERS certification. If a Marine dies while on active duty or after retirement, their surviving dependent remains eligible for care at armed forces or U.S. Public Health Service medical facilities as well as for certain civilian medical care and hospitalization.

Identification and Privilege Cards for Family Members

The Department of Defense issues, on application, a standard Identification and Privilege Card (Form DD 1173) for family members (except children under age ten) of all active-duty personnel. This card is essential to enable military families to use the medical facilities, commissary, exchange, and post theaters. It is honored not only on Marine and Navy posts and stations, but on those of the other services as well.

Commissary

The military equivalent of the supermarket is the commissary. The privilege of making purchases is limited to regular and retired personnel; to reservists on active or training duty; and to certain government civilians. Family members of anyone entitled to commissary privileges may also use the commissary. Everyone entitled to commissary privileges must be prepared to present identification. The ID card identifies active personnel, as well as retired personnel; family members are identified by the

identification and privilege card. Stock and services available in commissaries vary somewhat according to the size of the post and the availability of adequate civilian facilities off the post.

Marine Corps Exchanges

Marine Corps exchanges (post exchanges, or PX, as they are known) are maintained by all posts of any size. Any regular Marine Corps organization may, with the approval of the commandant, establish its own exchange.

Post exchanges go far back into U.S. military history. During the nineteenth century, when the Army pushed our frontier westward, each isolated post had its “post trader” authorized to keep store at post. One of the trader’s prerequisites was the right of trading with Indians, trappers, and hunters, and from this arose the title, “post exchange”. The name carried over from the Army to the Marine Corps. In early times, the prerequisite of keeping the post trader’s stores at the various Marine barracks was awarded to the widows of some officer or senior NCO. The modern Post Exchange system was established by General Heywood, the ninth Commandant.

Today’s exchange is the post general store. On large stations, it’s about the size of a small department store. But, the size of an exchange depends on the size of the post and the accessibility of civilian shopping centers.

Eligibility to use the exchange, like the commissary, is a privilege that extends only to active or retired service personnel, to their eligible family members and surviving spouses, and to reservists on active or training duty.

Welfare Activities

The chaplain, special services officer, and legal assistance officer provide welfare services. Most large posts also have representatives of the American Red Cross, Navy Relief Society, and Navy Mutual Aid Association.

Educational Facilities

Many posts have their own public schools for the children on the post. Every post has a free library, open to Marines and their family members. Marine Corps Headquarters provides the books. A few large posts have museums. Even the smallest station and detachment features an Education Office which provides information on educational opportunities available on and off the post, including correspondence courses. Many of these programs lead toward various types of college degrees. The same office will provide information on tuition aid, veteran's assistance, and loan and scholarship programs.

Recreation

Most posts feature excellent on-station recreation opportunities. Facilities for athletic activities and hobbies are open to all. Frequently, instruction in various sports and hobbies are available at no cost, and will provide opportunities to learn skills for present or future enjoyment. Posts may also have golf courses, tennis courts, marinas, gymnasiums, skeet and small bore ranges, swimming pools, stables, flying fields, and various workshops.

Major Posts and Stations

Marine Barracks, Eighth and Eye Streets, S.E., Washington, D.C. 20390

“Eighth and Eye” is the senior post of the Corps, both because of its age and because it houses the commandant. The post has been a Marine Barracks since 1801, and quartered Marine Corps Headquarters throughout its first century. It is the “spit-and-polish” post of the Corps, famous for its weekly Evening Parades and constructed about a historic barracks square in the heart of Southeast Washington.

The Barracks provides ceremonial troops for official occasions in the nation's capital; it supports the U.S. Marine Band and the Marine Corps Drum and Bugle Corps, and the Marine Corps Institute. Marines are assigned to certain special security duties in and about Washington and in the Navy Yard.

Marine Corps Combat Development Command (MCCDC), Quantico, Virginia 22134

MCCDC is, in many ways, the showplace of the Marine Corps. It is located on the Potomac River, approximately 35 miles south of Washington, D.C. It is the only base in the Marine Corps to be the site of a national cemetery. The base also includes the Marine Corps Air Facility (MCAF), Quantico, and the Naval Medical Clinic. Because of its educational and developmental roles, MCCDC is called the “Crossroads of the Marine Corps.”

Marine Activities in Norfolk, Virginia 23551

Although the Norfolk-Hampton Roads area includes no major Marine Corps posts, it is the location of: Headquarters, U.S. Marine Corps Forces, Joint Forces Command, and its supporting Camp Allen; Landing Force Training Command,

Atlantic Fleet; and the Marine Corps Security Force Battalion. In addition, because Norfolk is the home of the United States Joint Forces Command and the primary East Coast base of the Atlantic Fleet, many Marines serve in the area as part of the U.S. Joint Forces Command and Fleet staffs. Thus, Norfolk and the surrounding area can be considered a Marine Corps station of importance.

Marine Corps Air Station (MCAS), Cherry Point, North Carolina 28533

Commissioned in May 1942, Cherry Point is the largest Marine Corps air station in the world and is one of the best all-weather jet bases. It is home to the 2nd Marine Aircraft Wing, the only Marine Corps – operated Naval Aviation Depot, and a naval hospital.

Marine Corps Base, Camp Lejeune, North Carolina 28542

Camp Lejeune is the East Coast base for the ground units of the Fleet Marine Force. It accommodates the Command Element, Marine Expeditionary Force (MEF), 2nd Marine Division; 2nd Force Service Support Group; 6th Marine Amphibious Brigade, Naval Hospital, Camp Lejeune; and adjoins Marine Corps Air Station (Helicopter), New River. Its neighboring community is Jacksonville, North Carolina.

Marine Corps Recruit Depot, Parris Island, South Carolina 29905

In the mid-1500, colonial empires clashed on the shores of Parris Island as Spanish and French explorers sought strategic footholds in the New World. Although more than 400 years have passed, the military tradition continues to be as vital today as it was then. More than one million recruits have been trained on Parris Island since “boot camp” was established there in 1915. Currently, male recruits from the eastern United

States and females from throughout the nation are trained at the place “Where the Difference Begins.” The commanding general of the Marine Corps Recruit Depot, Parris Island, is also the commanding general for the Eastern Recruiting Region.

Marine Corps Air Station (MCAS), Beaufort, South Carolina 29904

MCAS, Beaufort (pronounced “Bewfort”) is a major jet air base capable of supporting two Marine aircraft groups and associated service units. It is close to Parris Island and provides it with military air services.

Marine Corps Air Station (MCAS), Yuma, Arizona 85369

MCAS Yuma is one of the newest of the Marine Corps air stations. It has a 13,300-foot main runway, an instrumented range, and some of the finest flying weather to be found.

Marine Corps Air-Ground Combat Center (MCAGCC), Twentynine Palms, California 92278

MCAGCC is 932 square miles of area, twice the size of Los Angeles and big enough to encompass Pendleton, Lejeune, and Quantico with room to spare. MCAGCC is not only the largest post in the Marine Corps but it is also a primary training and experimental center for Marine artillery and guided missiles. It is also the location of the Communications-Electronics School and has facilities for the major part of the 7th Marine Expeditionary Brigade (MEB). The base also includes the Tactical Exercise Evaluation and Control Group, which exercise the combined-arms capabilities and readiness of Fleet Marine Forces (FMF) units in a live-fire environment.

**Marine Corps Logistics Base, Barstow,
California 92311**

The Marine Corps Logistics Base at Barstow is located to take advantage of transportation routes and the Mojave Desert's hot, dry climate, which inhibits deterioration of stored material. Barstow supports all Marine organizations west of the Mississippi and in the Far East, operates a central repair shop for Fleet Marine Forces equipment except aircraft, and stores designated items. The ten-acre repair shop at Yermo is the largest building in the Marine Corps and is surrounded by a forty-acre concrete platform.

**Marine Corps Recruit Depot (MCRD), San
Diego, California 92140**

The primary mission of the MCRD, San Diego is twofold. First is the recruiting of new Marines from the Western Recruiting Region, which is composed of the 8th, 9th, and 12th Marine Corps Districts. Second is the training of Marine recruits using facilities at San Diego and Camp Pendleton, California. Also located at MCRD are the Recruiters' School and the West Coast Drill Instructors' School. The depot is located in central San Diego on the Pacific Highway.

**Marine Corps Base (MCB), Camp Pendleton,
California 92055**

"Pendleton" is the prime amphibious training base in the Corps. It serves as the major West Coast base for ground units of the Fleet Marine Force and provides facilities and support for the 1st Marine Division and the I Marine Expeditionary Force. Other tenants units include the 1st Force Service Support Group (FSSG), elements of Marine Aircraft Group 39, and the Marine Corps Tactical Systems Support Activity (MCTSSA). Recruits from Marine Corps Recruit

Depot, San Diego, spend two weeks at Camp Pendleton's Edson Range and Weapons Field Training Battalion for weapons training. Those who go into infantry, attend the School of Infantry at Camp San Onofre after graduation from San Diego. Several other formal schools are also conducted at Camp Pendleton.

The Marine Corps' role in Camp Pendleton history dates from 25 September 1942, when the 125,000-acre tract of land was dedicated by President Franklin D. Roosevelt and named in honor of Major General Joseph H. Pendleton.

During World War II and the Korean and Vietnam conflicts, Pendleton was the training "funnel" through which the majority of Marine battle replacements passed on their way to combat. Today, the base's 196 square miles of varied terrain provide training areas for thousands of Marines each year, as well as for Reserve and other service personnel.

**Marine Corps Air Station (MCAS), Miramar,
California 92145**

Miramar has become the Marine Corps' largest aviation facility, following its reversion to USMC control in the late 1990s. A former cattle and citrus ranch, it first served Army infantry in 1914 as Camp Kearny. After World War I, Miramar became an auxiliary field for the Navy and an air base for the Marine Corps. When World War II broke out, Miramar quickly expanded. At the end of the war, the Marines moved and Miramar was developed as a master jet station. On 1 October 1977, Naval Air Station Miramar reverted to a Marine Corps air station.

Marine Activities in the Hawaiian Area

Camp H. M. Smith, HI 96861

MCAF Kaneohe Bay, HI 96863

Marine Barracks, Pearl Harbor, HI 96860

The island of Oahu includes several permanent Marine Corps installations with diverse missions. The headquarters and (nerve center) of all Marine Forces Pacific activities is at Camp H. M. Smith, overlooking Pearl Harbor from the site of the World War II Aiea Naval Hospital. In addition to Camp H. M. Smith, there is MCAF, Kaneohe, on the “windward” side of the island, home station of the 3d Marine Regiment and 1st Radio Battalion, and one of three Marine Corps air facilities outside the continental United States. Here, both ground and air units of the Fleet Marine Forces train and operate as an integrated air-ground team. The Pearl Harbor Marine Barracks performs security missions. Because of its superb site and outstanding facilities, Camp H. M. Smith was chosen by the commander in chief, Pacific, for his headquarters, which is a tenant activity. Camp Smith is thus the only Marine Corps station that also serves as the headquarters of a unified command.

Marine Corp Base (MCB), Camp Smedley D. Butler, Okinawa (FPO AP 96373)

Located at Camp Foster, Headquarters, MCB Camp Butler, is responsible for operation of all Marine facilities on the island. They include Camps, Schwab, Kinser, McTureous, Hansen, Courtney, and Foster, and MCAS, Futenma). Headquarters, III Marine Expeditionary Forces, 3d Marine Division, 1st Marine Aircraft Wing, and 3d Forces Service Support Group are also garrisoned at Camp Butler.

Marine Corps Air Station, Iwakuni, Japan (PSC561, FPO AP96310)

Iwakuni is the home of all tactical jet aircraft units of the first Marine Aircraft Wing

(whose headquarters is at Camp Butler, Okinawa) and of Japanese naval aviation units as well.

Smaller Posts

In addition to the large posts just described, the Corps maintains a dozen units of the Marine Corps Security Forces (MCSF) ashore. Formerly made up of Marine Barracks and Detachments, these reformed in 1986 into MCSF companies, monitored by a battalion headquarters. Two of the old barracks have retained their original status. Listed below by location are smaller posts both in the United States and overseas.

- *California:* Expeditionary Warfare Training Group (EWTG), Naval Air Base, Coronado; Mountain Warfare Training Center, Bridgeport
- *Georgia:* Marine Corps Security Forces Company, Submarine Base, Kings Bay
- *Maryland:* Marine Corps Security Forces Company, Naval Air Station, Patuxent River
- *Missouri:* Defense Finance and Accounting, Kansas City Center
- *Virginia:* Marine Corps Security Forces Battalion/1st Fleet Antiterrorist Support Team (FAST) Company, Norfolk; 2nd FAST Company, Yorktown; EWTG, Naval Amphibious Base, Little Creek.
- *Washington:* Marine Corps Security Forces Company, Submarine Base, Bangor
- *Bahrain:* Marine Corps Security Forces Company, Naval Activities, Bahrain
- *Cuba:* Marine Barracks, Naval Operating Base (NOB), Guantanamo Bay

- *Iceland:* Marine Corps Security Forces Company, Naval Air Station (NAS), Keflavik
- *Italy:* Marine Corps Security Forces Company, Naval Activities, Naples
- *Spain:* Marine Corps Security Forces Company, Naval Activities, Rota
- *United Kingdom:* Marine Corps Security Forces Company, Naval Activities, London

Embassy Guards: The Marine Security Guard Battalion

The Marine Corps administers and operates the Marine Security Guard program for the Department of State. The Corps maintains more than 120 State Department security detachments, commanded by noncommissioned officers, in most of the capital cities of the world.

Conclusion

During this lesson, you have learned about a typical post organization, the facilities and services provided on a typical post and posts, stations, and detachments of the Marine Corps. These Marine Corps locations exist to ensure mission accomplishment of the Corps.

The U.S. Marine Corps -The Early Years (1775-1815)

PURPOSE

The history of the United States Marine Corps began before the colonies became states and continues today. It is a story of heroic deeds, traditions, and dedication to country. The text that follows is the first of four lesson texts that chronicle the achievements of the Marines covering the period 1775 to 1918. The first section, "The Early Years" covers the period from the first days of the Marine Corps through the War of 1812. During this period of time Marine Corps, traditions were defined; Marine Corps heroes were identified; and Marine Corps legends were established.

Introduction

Before there was a United States of America, there was a Marine Corps in America. Prior to the American Revolution, colonists sometimes served as Marines in British naval operations. In 1740, four colonial battalions were raised to fight against Spain. Known as **Gootch's Marines** after Colonel William Gootch, these American Marines included George Washington's half-brother Captain Lawrence Fairfax. Fairfax served under British Admiral Edward Vernon, after whom the Mt. Vernon home was named. Colonel Gooch was wounded in action at Cartagena, Colombia. In July of 1741, Gootch's Marines landed at Guantanamo Bay where they secured a forward base for the British fleet. More

than 250 years later, Guantanamo still serves as an important U.S. foothold in the Caribbean.

Marines were also involved in supporting the British during the French and Indian War. Detachments of Colonial Marines were on every British fighting ship and were engaged in both sea and land operations. During sea battles, Marines fought from the mastheads and rigging as sharpshooters and grenadiers. Marines were also an important part of the landing force when it was needed.



Courtesy of the Library of Congress

The American Revolution

In October of 1775, General George Washington was asked by Congress to use Marines in an effort to capture two English ships loaded with munitions. This legislation established both a Continental Navy and a need for a Marine Corps. To oversee the development and deployment of American sea power, Congress created a Naval Committee with John Adams as

its head. The Naval Committee met at **Tun's Tavern** in Philadelphia. On November 10, 1775, a resolution sponsored by Adams to the Continental Congress formally established the Marine Corps. The resolution called for the forming of two Marine battalions. It noted that the Marines that formed the group should be good seamen and serve for the duration of the war with Great Britain. November 10 is annually celebrated as the birthday of the United States Marine Corps.

While the two battalions were never raised, on November 28, Congress commissioned Captain Samuel Nicholas to be the first Marine officer. Although he was never officially designated as such, Nicholas is usually considered by Marines to be the first commandant. Robert Mullin, proprietor of Tun's Tavern, was also commissioned an officer. Some have argued that Mullin's success as a recruiter in Tun's Tavern led to his commission. Under the leadership of Commodore Esek Hopkins, Captain Nicholas led the first amphibious Marine landing party in March of 1776 at New Providence Island in the Bahamas. They marched against Fort Montagu and received only token resistance. After confronting the governor, Nicholas indicated that their objective was to secure the island forts and capture gunpowder, cannon, guns, and mortar. They also recaptured three ships from the British. All of this was accomplished without a shot being fired.

On their return trip, Commodore Hopkins' fleet encountered the British frigate, *Glasgow*, in battle. During that one and a half hour battle, seven Marines were killed including **Second Lieutenant John Fitzpatrick** - the first Marine officer to die in battle.

One unusual aspect of the American Revolution was that colonists fought as Marines not only in the Continental Navy, but also in the

navies of the individual states and on **privateers** - ships that were privately owned but authorized to attack and capture enemy vessels.

Continental Marines wore green uniforms that included a special leather stock feature around the neck. Some regarded it as a special bit of body armor to protect a Marine's neck from a cutlass, and others thought it was a device designed to keep a man's head erect. Whatever its purpose, it was used until after the Civil War and gave Marines the nickname, "**Leathernecks.**"

In January of 1777, Nicholas, now a major, and 300 Marines joined Washington in the second Battle of Trenton. Washington tricked the British by leaving his campfires burning and slipping through the enemy lines. Washington detached a brigade, with Major Nicholas on the right flank, to hold a stone bridge two miles from Princeton. They ran into British troops who charged with fixed bayonets. Washington rallied the American troops, who at first broke lines, and the British were routed. The Battle at Princeton was the first Marine land campaign.

Captain James Willing was asked by the Commerce Committee of Congress to raise a company of Marines and to open up the Mississippi River. Willing and his Marines captured several British ships and eventually reached New Orleans where they defeated an armed British sloop on Lake Ponchartrain. Later, some of Willing's men fought the pro-British Indians in Illinois country. By securing the western border, Willing and his men helped make possible U.S. expansion beyond the Appalachian Mountains.

Continental Marines played an important role in battles fought by John Paul Jones in European waters and a major role in what has been called the greatest sea fight of the war. In that battle, Jones was commander of a French

ship named the *Bonhomme Richard*. Sailing in the North Sea, the Americans came upon 41 British merchantmen escorted by the 50-gun frigate, *Serapis*. Jones had the two ships lashed together, with 35 Marines on board shooting from the tops of the ship to clear the *Serapis*'s decks. After shooting at each other from point blank range, both ships were on fire. The British captain asked Jones to surrender, and Jones replied, "I have not yet begun to fight." Eventually, the Marines won the day. They climbed into the *Serapis*'s rigging and kept her deck cleared of defenders. Finally, the British surrendered, but the *Bonhomme Richard* sank the next morning.

On April 11, 1783, the Treaty of Paris officially ended the War of Independence. Shortly thereafter, the Congress authorized the sale of the ships in the Continental Navy and the Continental Marines were dissolved.



Courtesy of the Library of Congress

President John Adams

The First U.S. Marine Corps

In 1796, the Congress of the United States authorized the construction of three speedy, medium-sized war vessels called **frigates**, the

United States, the *Constellation*, and the *Constitution*. In 1797, the number of Marines was established by Congressional Act to include five lieutenants, eight sergeants, eight corporals, three drummers, three fifers, and 140 privates - or a total of 167 members.

On July 11, 1798, President John Adams signed an act establishing and organizing a Marine Corps into law. Under the Marine Corps act, there would be 881 men commanded by a major. The term of service was three years, and the Senate was responsible for the appointment of all officers. The concept of the Marine as a fighter first was established at this time. Marines would operate under naval regulations while on board ship and under the Articles of War when ashore. Marines were responsible for discipline aboard ship; leading boarding parties and amphibious landings; fighting with muskets in short-range naval battles; and if the captain wished, working some of the ship's long guns. They would also staff coastal installations and forts, "and any other duty ashore, as the President, at his discretion, shall direct." While the original rules forbid blacks and Indians from being Marines, at least three blacks served in the Continental Marines, including John Martin, a former slave, who was killed at sea in 1777. It was not until World War II that African-Americans were able to serve in the Marines.

President Adams named **William Ward Burrows** the first official commandant of the Marine Corps. Burrows moved Marine headquarters to Washington, D.C. In 1801, the site of the Marine Barracks Washington (8th and I Streets, SE) was selected. The Barracks was completed in 1806 and still stands today as the "Oldest Post of the Corps" and home of the present Marine Corps Commandant.

The Marine Band also came into official existence on July 11, 1798. Congress provided for a drum major, a fife major, and 32 drummers and fifers. 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."

War with France

France was at war with England, and she expected the U.S. to side with her. The U.S. attempted to stay out of war, but France began to **impress** American merchant seamen on the high seas. Impressment is the process of forcing persons to serve in the military against their will. The French also seized American ships and their cargo. American warships fought a number of one-on-one battles with the French at sea.

In the spring of 1800, the U.S. attempted to disrupt the French in Haiti by supporting anti-French blacks in their efforts for independence. A landing party from the *Constitution*, commanded by **Captain Daniel Carmick**, recaptured a British ship held by the French in the Haitian port of Santo Domingo. Carmick then led the Marines ashore through neck-high water, captured the forts, and spiked its cannon.

During the decade after 1801, the French seized more than 500 American ships. When Napoleon Bonaparte became the new leader of France, he ended the war with the U.S.

The Barbary Wars

The four Barbary States of North Africa - Morocco, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli - had plundered sea-borne commerce for centuries. Surviving by blackmail, they received great sums

of money, ships, and arms yearly from foreign powers in return for allowing the foreigners to trade in African ports and sail unmolested through the Barbary waters. They demanded tribute money, seized ships, and held crews for ransom or sold them into slavery.



Barbary pirates seized American merchant ships, no longer covered by British protection, in the years after the United States gained its independence, and American crews were enslaved. In 1799, the United States agreed to pay \$18,000 a year in return for a promise that Tripoli-based corsairs would not molest American ships. Similar agreements were made at the time with the rulers of Morocco, Algiers, and Tunis.

In May 1801, the United States refused to yield to the increasing demands of the Pasha (ruler) of Tripoli; in return, the Pasha declared war against the States. While Tripoli was not a strong power and little effort was necessary to watch and blockade it, the fear was that the other Barbary powers would join against the United States. The United States sent naval squadrons into the Mediterranean under the slogan of "Millions for defense, but not one cent for tribute!" Under the leadership of Commodores Richard Dale and

Edward Preble, the Navy blockaded the enemy coast, bombarded the Pasha's shore fortresses, and engaged in close, bitterly contested gunboat actions.

On February 16, 1804, **Lieutenant Stephen Decatur** led 74 volunteers including eight Marines into Tripoli harbor to burn the captured American frigate, the *Philadelphia*. The pirates had captured the ship when it struck a rock in Tripoli harbor and was disabled. The U.S. feared that the pirates would be able to repair the *Philadelphia* and use it against American ships. Sneaking into the harbor under the cover of darkness, Decatur and his men boarded the *Philadelphia*, killed or captured most of the enemy, and set the ship on fire. After only twenty minutes, they escaped. British Admiral Lord Nelson called the raid "the most daring act of the age."

In 1805, Marines stormed the Barbary pirates' harbor fortress stronghold of Derna (Tripoli), commemorated in the Marine Corps Hymn "To the Shores of Tripoli." Former consul **William Eaton** devised a plan to overthrow the Pasha of Tripoli and replace him with the Pasha's brother, Hamet, who was more favorably disposed toward the U.S. In November of 1804, Eaton sailed for Alexandria, Egypt to persuade the Pasha's brother to lead a force against Tripoli. **First Lieutenant Presley Neville O'Bannon**, only 20 years of age, commanded the Marine detachment. Eaton, O'Bannon and 18 men traveled on the Nile River and in February of 1805 met Hamet in the desert. Hamet agreed to return to Tripoli, and in March they began their trek across the desert with 500 men and more than 100 camels, determined to capture the Pasha and Tripoli. After marching 600 miles and dealing with mutiny along the way, Eaton arrived at Derna. U.S. ships bombarded the city that morning, and Eaton and O'Bannon led the attack. Eaton was

wounded, and O'Bannon led the charge to the fort. By mid-afternoon, the first American flag to be raised in battle in the Eastern Hemisphere was flying over the fort.

The Pasha counter-attacked. The defense of the city lasted sixteen days. After Hamet's forces completely defeated his brother's men, news arrived that the Americans had made peace with the Pasha. The treaty included a payoff of \$60,000 and left the Pasha in power. Hamet was taken to safety and presented the jewel encrusted "Mameluke" sword, carried by Marines officers today, to O'Bannon in 1805. The European powers ended the control of the Mediterranean by Barbary pirates a decade later.

The War of 1812

When George Washington left office after the completion of his second term in 1796, he warned Americans to stay clear of foreign entanglements. While this advice may have been good for the country at the time, it left the United States unprepared for a British invasion in The War of 1812.



*Courtesy of the Library of Congress
President George Washington*

Causes of War

The United States declared War on Great Britain on June 12, 1812. This marked the first of time in all of U.S. history that Congress declared war on another country. The war was declared because of long simmering disputes with Great Britain. The central dispute surrounded the impressment of American sailors by the British. The British Navy claimed that the Americans were actually British-born subjects of the king. The British had previously attacked the *USS Chesapeake* and nearly caused a war two years earlier. In addition, disputes continued with Great Britain over the Northwest Territories and the border with Canada. There were many in the U.S. who wanted to make Canada part of our country. Others wanted to expand our territory to the south. Finally, the attempt of Great Britain to impose a blockade on France during the Napoleonic Wars was a constant source of conflict with the United States.

Marine Sharpshooters

One of the primary reasons for the early success of the U.S. in the War of 1812 was the effectiveness of Marine sharpshooters. In battles against the *Guerriere* off the coast of Boston and the *Java* near Brazil, it was this skill that won the day. When able to get close enough, the Marines boarded British ships and usually defeated the enemy. Several successful sea battles included victories by the *Constitution* commanded by Lieutenant William Bush and by the *Chesapeake* commanded by Captain James Lawrence. Lawrence as he was dying, uttered the famous words, “Don’t give up the ship.”

Marines, serving under Commodore Oliver Hazard Perry on Lake Erie, used their excellent marksmanship to decimate the English seamen on the decks of their ships. In September

of 1814, Perry led his crew on the flagship *Lawrence* against the British. In short order, 83 of the 102 men aboard the *Lawrence* were killed or wounded. Despite these losses, Perry was able to defeat the British. His victory ended the British and Indian attacks on the western frontier and provided the opportunity for expansion to the Northwest.

Battle of Bladensburg

The British had some 4,000 men on hand to invade the United States. The naval defense of the Chesapeake Bay was given to Joshua Barney. A few Marines, under the command of **Captain Samuel Miller**, cooperated with Barney from the shore. When the British entered the area, Barney had his own ships sunk. As the British began the forty-mile march to Washington, Captain Miller arrived from Washington with 110 Marines and five artillery pieces. He joined Barney’s 400 to stop the British. At the Battle of Bladensburg, just outside of Washington, DC, the combination of seamen and marines withstood three British charges, even though they were badly outnumbered. Finally, they were forced to withdraw, and the British went on to burn the city. It is said, however, that the Marine headquarters was spared because of the bravery shown by the Marines at Bladensburg.

The Star Spangled Banner

After two nights in Washington, the British moved toward Baltimore where ten thousand Americans had built up the earthworks and prepared to defend the city. A thousand sailors and Marines formed a brigade under Commodore John Rodgers. The British pushed the defenders back and when the British commander was killed, the attack slowed. The British army halted and waited for the navy to bombard the defenders. For 24 hours, they

bombarded Fort McHenry. When dawn came, the U.S. flag was still flying over the fort, and Francis Scott Key had the inspiration for what was to become the *Star Spangled Banner*.

The Battle of New Orleans

In 1815 at New Orleans, the Marines were under the command of Major Daniel Carmick. Their job was to defend the canal against thousands of British troops. Even though Carmick was wounded and unable to participate, his men so well defended the fortifications that Congress cited them for “valor and good conduct.” After all was said and done, the British had 2,100 dead and wounded and 500 soldiers had been captured. The Americans had 71 casualties. The irony of the Battle of New Orleans was that the victory came after a peace treaty with the British had been signed the month before.

Conclusion

In its first 40 years of existence, the Marines fought the British and the French, and pirates on the shores of Tripoli. The Marines were established as an organization and their roles were defined. They defended their country at home and abroad. They became known for their skill as sharpshooters and for their daring. As pages were added to the story of the new nation, the long and proud history of the Marines would continue to grow as well.❖

A New Nation Takes Shape

PURPOSE

After the War of 1812, the U.S. reduced the size of its military forces. By 1817, there were only 14 officers and 652 enlisted men in the rolls of the Marine Corps. The relative peace abroad, did not, however, mean that there was no activity in the U.S. for the small group of remaining Marines. The U.S. expanded across the continent. Also, in the period of time preceding the Civil War, the U.S. engaged in a number of actions against Native Americans and a war with Mexico.

The primary activity of the U.S. during the next several decades became internal expansion. Americans were moving south and west. Between the period 1820 and 1850 the United States grew in population from five to twenty-three million. Most of these people needed land from which to provide for their families and the growing nation. It became the **Manifest Destiny** of the United States to expand its borders and to establish our form of democracy across the continent. Between 1812 and the 100th anniversary of the United States in 1876, 20 new states were added to the country. The borders stretched from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

Introduction

With the end of the War of 1812, the United States shifted its focus toward domestic development. From 1815 to 1846, there were no foreign military actions. In fact, the early part of the period was called the “Era of Good Feelings” because of the relative political calm in the nation. One party, the Democratic-Republicans controlled the government. In 1823, however, concerned about the influence of European nations in the Western Hemisphere, President James Monroe issued what came to be known as the **Monroe Doctrine**. Basically, the Monroe Doctrine stated that the U.S. would tolerate no new European expansion or colonization in North, Central, and South America. The U.S. gave clear notice that it definitely had a personal interest in all of the political activities of the nations on this side of the Atlantic Ocean.



President James Monroe

The “Grand Old Man of the Corps”

Archibald Henderson became the leader of the Marines in 1820 and served until 1859, the longest time span for any Marine Corps commandant. Henderson introduced higher

standards in areas of personal appearance, training, and discipline. He carried out rigid inspections to ensure the prompt execution of his orders. While commandant, he served under 11 Presidents. He was able to negotiate difficult political waters caused by the desire of both the Navy and the Army to take over the Marines. In fact, in 1830, the Navy Commissioner recommended the abolition of the Corps. President Jackson wanted the Corps to be absorbed by the Army. Finally, in 1834 Congress passed an act that made the Corps part of the Navy except on “order” of the President. The 1834 law established that one Colonel Commandant head the Corps, and it included 1,287 officers and enlisted men who served for a four-year term.

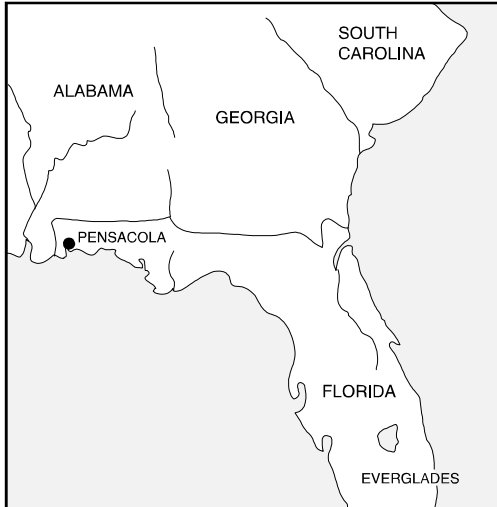
The use of Marines to stop domestic disturbances was established in 1824. **Major Robert Wainwright** led 30 Marines into a state prison riot in Boston. A mob of 280 prisoners refused to surrender. However, Wainwright threatened to fire a volley into the prisoners if they did not disperse within three minutes. Fortunately, the prisoners listened to reason. This story was retold for years to come as it was printed in the McGuffey Readers used in the public schools. Not only did the incident add to the reputation of the Marines, it set a precedent for using them when there was a civilian disorder.

Henderson volunteered the Marines to fight Indians in the southeastern part of the U.S. when hostilities broke out in 1835. The Marines fought the Creek Indians in Georgia and the Seminoles in Florida. In 1837, Colonel Henderson

was given command of a brigade composed of Marines and an Army regiment. He was promoted to the rank of brigadier general. By serving as commandant for 38 years until 1858, Archibald Henderson’s name became strongly associated with the Marine Corps for years to come. It is no wonder that he is known as the “Grand Old Man of the Corps.”

The Florida Indian Wars

At the conclusion of the American Revolution, Spain was in control of all of Florida. It was settled by Spanish colonists, Americans, and escaped slaves. Native Americans already lived there. In 1819, the **Adams-Onis Treaty**, also called the Transcontinental Treaty of 1819, officially surrendered control of Florida to the U.S. The Adams-Onis Treaty was one of the critical events that defined the U.S.-Mexico border. At the time, Spain was facing revolution among its colonies. She realized that she must negotiate with the United States or possibly lose Florida without any compensation. The United States agreed to pay its citizens’ claims against Spain up to five million dollars. The treaty drew a definite border between Spanish land and the Louisiana Territory. In the provisions, the United States ceded to Spain its claims to Texas west of the Sabine River. Spain retained possession not only of Texas, but also California and the vast region of New Mexico. At the time, these two territories included all of present-day California and New Mexico along with modern Nevada, Utah, Arizona and sections of Wyoming and Colorado.



The treaty -- which was not ratified by the United States and the new republic of Mexico until 1831 -- also mandated that Spain relinquish its claims to the country of Oregon north of the 42 degrees parallel (the northern border of California). The importance of this treaty becomes more apparent when the United States later annexed Texas and fought Mexico land in the Southwestern U.S.

Once the United States controlled the territory of Florida, it became much in demand especially by settlers from Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Georgia. The only problem was that Native Americans already occupied the land. Eventually, Congress passed the Indian Removal Act. Andrew Jackson began a systematic effort to defeat the Indians in the southeast in battle and to force them to agree to be relocated to land on the other side of the Mississippi River in Oklahoma. Opposition by the Indians was focused in two tribes, the Creek Indians and the Seminoles.

In 1836, Colonel Henderson volunteered the Marines to fight the Indians who opposed the

relocation efforts. In fact, the story goes that Henderson nailed a note on his door that stated, "Gone to Florida to fight Indians, will return when the war is over." Henderson sent 462 Marines to join Major General Winfield Scott in Georgia and another 160 to Florida. Henderson joined the troops fighting the Creeks. Marines guarded mail roads and supervised concentration camps where Creeks were being gathered. In July, the march of the first Creeks to Oklahoma began. Marines supervised the fifth detachment of Creeks on the trek that came to be known as the **Trail of Tears**. By November, they had traveled 2,000 miles.

In late summer, Henderson took command of a combined Marine and Army battalion. By January of 1837, nearly half of the Corps was involved in the fight against the Seminoles. They now sought to engage the Seminole Indians in Florida. **Osceola**, who fought a guerilla type war that made it difficult to defeat them, led the Seminoles. The largest engagement took place at the Hatchee-Lustee River. Even though most of the Seminoles were able to escape, the battle resulted in a conference with some of the chiefs who agreed to an armistice. It looked like the Seminoles would agree to participate in the relocation plan. However, Osceola convinced the chiefs to rethink this choice. Eventually, Osceola was captured and died the following summer. But, the Seminoles did not give up and the war lasted six years until 1842. A great deal of the fighting took place in swamps. In the summer of 1838, a special naval force was organized that included Marines and was called the **Mosquito Fleet**. Using small boats and 140 canoes, this force that included 130 Marines and as many as 622 men, made patrols into the Everglades searching for the enemy.

By the time the Florida Indian war ended a total of 1,466 men of the regular army and 61

Marines had died by the enemy's hand or from disease. At the end, the Seminoles were still in the Everglades never having surrendered. The Florida Indian war proved to be the first time a Marine expeditionary force fought a sustained campaign on shore.

In 1838, six ships began a four-year journey into the Pacific in what became known as the Wilkes Exploring Expedition. Led by Quartermaster Sgt. Simeon Stearns, 33 enlisted Marines were part of the expedition that surveyed 208 Pacific islands and 800 miles of the northwest coast of North America, explored the Antarctic, and circumnavigated the globe. Four Marines died during the expedition. Interestingly, when Marines landed on Wake Island in World War II, they used charts Wilkes had made a hundred years earlier.

The Mexican War – 1846 - 1848

Causes of the Mexican War

There are two primary causes for the Mexican War. Ever since the Louisiana Purchase in 1803, Americans had the belief that the United States had a God-given right, or destiny, to expand the country's borders from "sea to shining sea." Known as the Manifest Destiny, it proved to be one of the causes of the Mexican War. Americans migrated across the nation, sometimes into land already occupied. Their presence caused conflict with the British in the Oregon and along the Canadian border, and with Mexico in the southwest. The U.S. offered to buy California in 1835 and 1845, but Mexico refused. Both the border disputes and the presence of Americans in land claimed by Mexico caused a great deal of tension between the two nations.

The tension was increased by the second cause of the Mexican War, the **annexation** of Texas. Mexico invited settlers into its Texas territory in the 1820s and 1830s. Settlers agreed to provide allegiance to Mexico and to convert to the state religion. Many Americans moved to Texas for the land. Some brought slaves with them. After a time, the Texans began to rebel against the Mexican government. A number of battles took place, and after the Battle of Velasco in 1836, Texas declared its independence. However, because Mexican President Santa Anna had been a prisoner of the Texans when he signed the treaty, not all Mexicans felt that it was legal. The disputes with Mexico continued, and Americans who sided with Texas began to hold a very negative view of Mexico. Finally, Texas asked to be annexed or added to the U.S. On the Fourth of July, 1845, Texas became a part of the United States. Naturally, Mexico was displeased with this course of events. The border dispute now accelerated. The U.S. wanted the border to be the more southerly Rio Grande River while the Mexicans argued that the border should be the Nueces River farther to the north.

U.S. Efforts to Secure the Southwest

President James K. Polk believed in the theory of Manifest Destiny. Polk wanted California to join the Union if war with Mexico should break out. He assigned Marine 1st Lieutenant Archibald Gillespie to travel through Mexico to meet with the U.S. consul at Monterey. Gillespie was then to deliver dispatches for Commodore John Sloat on the west coast of Mexico, and personal letters to John C. Fremont in California. By May 11 of 1846, Congress had declared war on Mexico and Gillespie remained in California to fight against the Mexicans with Sloat and Fremont. Over the next seven months, Marines arrived in support of Commodore Robert

Stockton, who took over from Sloat, fought in battles ranging from San Francisco in the north to San Diego in the south. Gillespie was wounded twice. On January 10, 1847, California was brought under U.S. control.

Start of the Mexican War

The war with Mexico was precipitated by a border dispute that turned into military action. Mexican troops assembled on the southern bank of the Rio Grande in April of 1846. President Polk ordered General Zachary Taylor to move to the borders. Taylor marched to the Rio Grande and fortified a position on the northern bank. The Mexican and the American troops were thus facing each other across the river. Since the Mexicans considered the area around the Rio Grande their territory, they ordered Taylor and his troops to move back. When Taylor refused to retreat to the Nueces River, the Mexican commander on April 24, 1846 crossed the Rio Grande, ambushed a scouting force of 63 Americans, and killed or wounded 16 of them. Polk informed Congress that a state of war existed between the U.S. and Mexico, and Congress officially declared war.

The Invasion at Vera Cruz

In March of 1847, 70 ships and 12,000 sailors and Marines massed off the coast of **Vera Cruz**, Mexico's largest port. **Capt. Alvin Edson** commanded a battalion of Marines primed to be a part of the first wave of the first large amphibious operation in U.S. history and the turning point of the war. The U.S. used "surf boats" – the first American landing craft built to specifications for an amphibious operation. In preparation for the landing, gunboats sprayed the landing area. Edson quickly formed his Marines at the crest of the first row of sand dunes. Although ready to engage the

enemy, not a shot was fired. The Mexicans were nowhere to be seen. The 12,000 men encircled Vera Cruz with a seven-mile long line of trenches. The siege began. After less than a month, the city surrendered with the loss of only one Marine.

By this time, the enlistment time for many of the Army volunteers had run out. Not nearly enough re-enlisted. Commandant Henderson offered President Polk six companies of Marines to fight with the Army. The Marines were assigned to the fourth division commanded by Brig. Gen. John Quitman. Their goal was to take Mexico City.

Chapultepec

The army of Mexican dictator Santa Anna had assembled south of the city. General Scott decided to attack from the west. The hill of **Chapultepec** protected that direction. The hill was 200 feet high and 600 feet long and was surrounded by a 12-foot wall. At the top, was a palace turned into a military school. On September 13, 1847 the attack began. Repeatedly, heavy fire stopped the advance on the hill. The Marines struggled to move forward fighting hand-to-hand with bayonets and clubbed rifles. Finally, Americans reached the top of the hill, and a flag was raised over the fortress of Chapultepec.

The Mexican army now headed back toward the city. As they reached San Cosme gate leading into the city, the Mexicans fired into American troops for a full 15 minutes. Despite repeated counterattacks by the enemy, the Marines and soldiers successfully took the gate by dark. At dawn, the Americans marched into the city and took possession of the National Palace where once had stood the **Halls of Montezuma**. The capture of Mexico City for all intents and purposes marked the end for the Mexican army. They offered token resistance over the next few months, but it was ineffective. Marine officers and

non-coms began wearing scarlet stripes on their dress pants to commemorate the Marine blood shed at Chapultepec and the Halls of Montezuma.

Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo

In February of 1848, the signing of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo marked the end of the Mexican War. American lives lost added up to nearly 14,000. The treaty provided for the annexation of Mexico's northern territories. In return for the \$15 million given to Mexico for the seized lands, the U.S. received what are now the states of California, New Mexico, Nevada, Arizona, and Utah. Relations between the United States and Mexico remained tense for years to come.

Commandant Henderson had one last opportunity to lead the Marines in battle at age 74. In 1857, the United States found itself divided on issues that would lead to the Civil War. On Election Day, the city of Washington faced unruly mobs that could not be contained by police. Henderson led the Marines in an effort to disperse the crowd. Rioters fired pistols and threw rocks. When the Marines were ordered to prepare to fire the crowd scattered. On January 6, 1859, the "Grand Old Man" of the Corps died. Archibald Henderson was one of its greatest leaders.

Marines Around the World

During the period between the close of the Mexican War and the beginning of the Civil War, Marines served on board naval vessels and participated in many different activities around the world. In protecting U.S. interests, Marines performed duties that ranged from landings in Nicaragua to diplomatic ceremonies in Japan with Commodore Matthew Perry.

- Between 1852 and 1854, Perry negotiated a treaty that opened trade relations with the Japanese.
- In 1856, an unarmed American boat was fired upon in a river that led to Canton. After bombarding Chinese forts from Navy ships, 287 men including 50 Marines became part of the landing force determined to capture the forts. In three days, all four forts were captured.
- U.S. interests were also defended in Buenos Aires (1852), Nicaragua (1853), and the Fiji Islands (1855 and 1858).

Harper's Ferry

On October 17, 1859, President James Buchanan called out the Marines to quell what was called a slave uprising at Harper's Ferry. **John Brown** – an abolitionist who believed that slavery must end by any means including violence - seized the federal arsenal and gun factory located there. Eighty-five Marines under 1st Lieutenant Israel Greene assembled at the Navy Yard for the fifty-five mile train ride to Harper's Ferry.

Lt. Col. Robert E. Lee and his aide Lt. J.E.B. Stuart led the federal troops. Ironically, they were to become heroes for the rebel cause. At Harper's Ferry, John Brown had stormed the arsenal, taken hostages, and killed a number of locals. By nightfall, only Brown and four of his followers were unhurt, but Brown would not surrender. Lt. Col. Lee told Marine **Lt. Israel Greene** to capture Brown. So that the hostages would not be hurt, Greene was told to use bayonets. Greene and his men battered open the door and went in. Two of the raiders were killed and two of Greene's men wounded. Greene used

his sword to take Brown out of commission. Brown was later hanged for his crimes. Greene and 19 other officers later quit the Corps to fight for the South in the Civil War.



The Civil War

The Civil War lasted from 1861 until 1865. It began with the Confederacy firing on Fort Sumter in South Carolina on April 12 and did not end until the lives of 600,000 Americans north and south were lost. The role of the Marines was limited. They served primarily with naval detachments at sea. Those Marines who did serve ashore, did so either as part of ships' landing forces or when directly assigned to assist the Union Army. The senior officers of the Corps were considered too old for field duty. In 1861, the total number of Marines was only 1,892. Congress increased the size of the officer corps to compensate for those who decided to fight for the South. During the War, the total number of Marines never exceeded 3,900.

The Civil War signaled the beginning of major changes in the way the Navy would

approach warfare. Sailing ships gave way to steam power. Explosive shells were used to shatter wooden hulls. The Navy experimented with mines, turrets, submarines, and graduated gunsights.

The U.S. felt it needed to successfully blockade southern ports to cut off the Confederacy's supply lines. Marines acted in support of the Navy's efforts to blockade Rebel ports. In November of 1861, the Union began the largest American amphibious expedition to date. The target was Hilton Head Island in South Carolina. Fifteen thousand soldiers sailed in an attempt to establish a major base for the Union blockade. Capt. Edward Reynolds led a battalion of 350 Marines. However, a hurricane scattered the fleet. The amphibious landing never had the chance to take place as the Army and Navy captured the forts at Hilton Head. However, the plan to have an amphibious battalion of Marines land in advance of a campaign specifically designed to serve with the fleet and assault from the sea was created. The modern Marine Corps would develop and perfect this technique in the years to come.

In March of 1862, a new kind of warfare was created. Five wooden Union ships stood on blockade duty in the waters of Hampton Roads, Virginia. The *CSS Virginia*, formerly known as the *Merrimack* before the Rebels captured it, steamed for the wooden ships. She headed straight for the *Cumberland*, fired a shot that killed and wounded nine Marines, and rammed her. The Marines on board were able to fire at the enemy's ports, but the iron-sheathed sides were not penetrated. The *Cumberland* was sunk. Next, the *Virginia* attacked the *Congress*, who eventually surrendered. The other three ships were grounded. The battle certainly looked lost until the arrival of the ironclad gunboat, the *Monitor* arrived. The two armored ships exchanged fire for four hours.

Even though the *Monitor* suffered a direct hit in its pilot house, blinding its commander Lt. John Worden, the battle was a stalemate. However, the era of iron ships had begun.

On May 9, the *Monitor's* sister ship, the *Galena* steamed up the James River and ran into a battalion of Confederate marines. Aboard the *Galena*, Marine **Cpl. John Mackie** fired on the enemy from the exposed deck and rallied the ironclad's crew. Mackie restored three of the *Galena's* guns to firing condition, and carried off the dead and wounded. For his heroism, Mackie was the first Marine to be awarded the Medal of Honor.

On the Mississippi River, Capt. David G. Farragut was given the job of taking New Orleans and opening the Mississippi. As Farragut traveled down the river, they were fired at from Confederate forts defending the river. Led by **Capt. John Broome**, 333 Marines were stationed aboard 12 of the largest ships in Farragut's fleet. When he reached New Orleans, Farragut sent 20 Marines ashore to demand the city's surrender. When the demand was rejected, Capt. Broome took 250 Marines and captured the Custom's House and the City Hall.

Farragut now moved back up the river to meet with U.S. Grant who had captured Memphis and was marching on to Vicksburg. When the *Mississippi* ran aground within the range of Rebel guns, the order went out to destroy her. Marine Sgt. Pinkeron R. Vaughn earned a Medal of Honor for staying on board until the crew was safely off the ship and then setting her on fire.

In fact, Marines earned an additional eight Medals of Honor in the Battle of Mobile Bay. That victory eliminated the final port held by the Confederacy on the Gulf. However, by closing out the Confederate ports on the east coast and the Gulf of Mexico, it was no longer possible for the

Confederacy to reinforce its troops with supplies. The naval battles in the Civil War played an important role in ensuring Union victory.

Conclusion

Near the end of the Civil War, Commandant Harris died just before his seventy-fourth birthday. Rather than using the traditional practice of seniority to select the next head of the Marines, the Secretary of the Navy ordered four senior Marine officers to retire and named Maj. Jacob Zeilin as Commandant. The Marines played an important role in the winning of the Mexican War, but its leadership had grown old. The decision by half of its captains and two-thirds of its 1st Lieutenants to join the Confederacy had a negative impact on the leadership. It was clearly time for new blood in the Corps.❖

“The Marines Have Landed.....” (1865 – 1918)

PURPOSE

The United States Marine Corps developed a number of strategies designed to make them an effective fighting force for the United States. One of these tactics, the Advanced Force Base that allowed Marines to make amphibious landings to secure a foothold in enemy territory, served as the basis for the approach used by U.S. forces throughout the twentieth century. This text demonstrates how frequently the Marines were called into action and how effective their tactics came to be.

Introduction

The period after the Civil War until the onset of the Spanish-American War in 1898 was characterized by 33 years of relative peace. In fact, it was the lengthiest period of time with no major conflicts in our nation’s history. It marked a time when the United States was only beginning to make its presence felt on the international stage, when large-scale wars on foreign soil had not become common, and when weapons of mass destruction were not available.

However, the U.S. Marine Corps did engage in a number of activities at home and abroad between 1865 and 1898. The Spanish-American War marked the beginning of the end of colonialism. European military influence in the Western Hemisphere would soon be a thing of the past. Beginning with the war against Spain, the United States embarked on a path that would

eventually make it the most powerful nation in the world.

Domestic and Foreign Duty After the Civil War

After the Civil War, the Marine Corps was asked to participate in numerous **domestic** activities around the country. In 1866, Marines helped the victims of a fire in Portland, ME. In 1870, they helped close illegal liquor manufacturing in Brooklyn, NY. In 1872 and 1873, the Corps helped maintain law and order in Boston, MA, after fires destroyed part of the city. Marines even helped put an end to a labor riot in 1877 on the East Coast.

Overseas, the Marines were called on a number of times to protect Americans and American interests. With each skirmish, the reputation of the Marines grew. Richard Harding Davis, a correspondent, sent a cablegram from Panama stating, “The Marines have landed, and the situation is well in hand.” The list below identifies the year of the action and the activity.

Year	Activity
1867	Marines fought tribesmen in Formosa.
1868	Marines protect foreigners in Osaka and Yokohama, Japan.
1868	Marines guarded the consulate in Buenos Aires, Argentina.
1868	Marines fought pirates off Mexican coast.
1870	Marines helped the British restore order in Alexandria, Egypt.
1871	Marines battled Koreans who killed the crew of an American ship.
1873	Marines protected the trans-isthmus railroad in Panama.
1874	Marines protected U.S. interests in Hawaii. (Also in 1889 and 1893)
1888/91	Marines protected U.S. interest in Haiti.

The action in Korea is worth looking at a bit more closely. In 1870, the American merchant vessel, *USS General Sherman* was stranded in the Han River. The Koreans burned the ship. When the ship's crew came ashore, they were massacred. Other foreigners, including French missionaries, also had been killed. In late May of 1871, Frederick Low, U.S. minister to China, arrived aboard the *USS Colorado*. Along with four other ships of the Asiatic Squadron, the U.S. ships moved to the mouth of the Han River. Low was on his way to Seoul to try to resolve the issue. Before long, a scouting party was fired upon by one of the forts protecting the river. The U.S. waited for the Koreans to issue an apology. When none came, Marine Captain McLane Tilton with three officers and 105 Marines attacked the fort. Two of the three forts were taken easily. The third required hand-to-hand combat. Marine Cpl. Charles Brown and Pvt. Hugh Purvis raised the American flag, and Pvt. James Dougherty killed the Korean commander, earning each of them the Medal of Honor. At the end of the battle, 200 Koreans were dead, and all three of the forts had been captured.

It was also during this period that **Col. Charles McCawley** became the Commandant. McCawley concentrated on the improvement of training and on promoting officers on their professional qualifications. From 1883 to 1897, all 50 of the new Marine Corps officers graduated from the Naval Academy.

In 1891, **Col. Charles Heywood**, who had been involved in protecting the Panama Canal's railroad became Commandant. He continued McCawley's emphasis on training and professionalism. Rifle marksmanship was emphasized and systematized under the direction of Maj. Charles Lauchheimer. The Corps adopted the rapid-firing, multi-barreled Gatling gun and the Hotchkiss revolving cannon. Under

Heywood's administration, the Corps would triple in size to 7,532 men. He fought the Navy's attempts to replace shipboard Marines with sailors. He retired in 1903, shortly after the Marines would face a life and death test in the Spanish American War.

Commandant McCawley appointed **John Phillips Sousa** to be the leader of the Marine Corps Band in 1880. In his 12 years with the band, Sousa wrote more than a hundred marches, including *Semper Fidelis*. He took the band on nation-wide tours that made it famous. However, one section of the band always remains behind to complete its primary mission that is to perform when directed by the President, the Congress, or the Commandant of the Marine Corps.



The War with Spain in 1898

In 1898, Cuba, the Philippines, and Puerto Rico were under the control of Spain. Like many nations before them, elements of the population wanted independence from colonial rule. The civil disorder in Cuba particularly, only 90 miles away, concerned many Americans. Some felt that U.S. citizens and businesses were in

danger; some felt that the people of Cuba were being badly treated by the Spanish; and some thought that based on the **Monroe Doctrine**, the U.S. should not allow European interference in the Western Hemisphere. Many Americans felt that the U.S. should do something. In February, the battleship *Maine* exploded in Havana harbor. It was suggested that the Spanish were responsible for the loss of 160 crewmembers including 28 Marines. Led by the newspapers of the time on both sides of the Atlantic, there was a loud cry for the U.S. and Spain to enter into war. The battle cry became, “**Remember the Maine.**” The U.S. recognized the independence of Cuba on April 19. In spite of negotiations to prevent hostilities, the U.S. and Spain declared war on each other by the end of April of 1898.

Commandant Heywood was ordered to organize a Marine battalion. Stationed at Key West, the Marines were under the command of **Lt. Col. Robert Huntington**. On board the *Panther*, Huntington and his men were sent to Guantanamo Bay, Cuba where they set up camp at Fisherman’s Point on June 10. The day after their arrival, they were attacked and the lives of two Marines were lost. After other attacks on the following two nights, the Marines decided to take action.

Lieutenant Colonel Huntington determined that the Spanish troops could not maintain their positions if they were denied access to fresh water. A Marine force accompanied by some Cuban rebels was sent out on a mission to capture the well at Cuzco about six miles away.

When the Marines attacked the six companies of Spaniards defending Cuzco, the cruiser *Dolphin* began giving support fire from off shore. However, the Marines were in direct line of fire. While everyone else dove for cover, **Sgt. John H. Quick** took his blue polka dot bandana

and improvised a signal flag. Standing with his back to the enemy, and in spite of being the target of their fire, Quick signaled the *Dolphin* to stop firing. When the shelling stopped, Quick and the rest of the unit attacked the Spanish troops. The Marines captured the well at Cuzco and a signal station that was there. Quick received the Medal of Honor for his actions. The Marines stayed in Cuba until the end of hostilities, leaving Guantanamo on August 5, 1898. The activities at Guantanamo were the first instance of a Marine force being used for expeditionary reasons and landing in an amphibious operation with the idea of holding advanced bases.



QUICK, John Henry
Sergeant, U.S. Marine Corps
G.O. Navy Department, No 504
December 13, 1898

In the Pacific, Commodore George Dewey had prepared for the occasion of war by taking the Asiatic Squadron and heading for the Philippines. When war was declared, Dewey slipped into Manila Bay and immediately began firing on the Spanish ships. By the 3rd of May, the Spanish fleet was annihilated. Marines, under the command of Lieutenant Dion Williams, were the first to raise the U.S. flag on Spanish-held territory.

The ending of the Spanish-American War in August of 1898 brought a major change in the way the world looked at the two participating nations. The defeat marked the end of Spain's colonial empire and the beginning of the United States as a global military power. As a result of the Spanish-American War, it became clear that the U.S. must have a two-ocean navy, thus speeding the construction of the Panama Canal.

The most significant aspects of the Marine Corps participation during this war were the speed with which the expeditionary force had been organized and dispatched, and its demonstrated effectiveness on the field of battle. The victory at Guantanamo Bay, 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 advance bases should become the primary mission of the Marine Corps.

The Boxer Rebellion

In the late nineteenth century, European powers had entered China and set up economic and political territories. In the late spring of 1900, a group of Chinese, who called themselves the "Righteous Fists of Harmony," rebelled. The Europeans called them **Boxers**. The Boxers were patriots who tried to rid China of foreign economic, political, and religious influence.

Because of the concern for the safety of the American **legation** (the official headquarters of a diplomatic minister and staff in a foreign country) in the Chinese capital of Peking, **Capt. John T. Myers** and a group of Marines were sent from the Philippines to China. At about this time the Boxers completely encircled the city. Things worsened as the days passed and the frequency of attacks on the foreign legations, places of business, and private residences increased. On

June 24, Captain Myers and his men took up positions on the legation walls. Along the walls, the fighting was heavy and hand-to-hand. The Marines and other foreign troops held their positions. So, the Chinese began an artillery assault. The bombardment forced the evacuation of part of the wall. Myers insisted that the section be defended. Then the Chinese built a tower from which they could fire directly onto the foreign positions.

On the night of July 2, Captain Myers, 30 U.S. Marines, 26 British Marines, and 15 Russian sailors surprised the Chinese and destroyed the tower. Even though Myers was wounded, the other Marines continued to defend the wall. **Pvt. Dan Daly** received the Congressional Medal of Honor for defending an advanced position on the wall for an entire night with only his rifle.

During the next month, reinforcements from the international forces began to arrive. By August there were enough foreign troops in Tientsin and Peking to protect their interests. In effect, the Boxer Rebellion was over and the Marines returned to the Philippines.

The Philippines

During the Spanish-American War, Commodore Dewey returned the rebel leader, Emilio Aguinaldo to the Philippines. Aguinaldo did not agree with the United States about how the Philippines should be run and with his men began a **guerilla** war against the Americans. When the war with Spain ended, the U.S. annexed the Philippines. The Filipinos resisted U.S. control. Two battalions of Marines arrived and were able to push the guerillas back at the Cavite Peninsula. When the Marines secured Cavite and Subic Bay, the situation stabilized, and the Marines were called away to China. They were to return.

The Marines in the Philippines were organized into a brigade of two regiments containing two battalions each. In March of 1901, Aquinaldo was captured and took an oath of allegiance to the U.S. However, the fighting did not stop and in September of 1901, a group called the “**Moros**” attacked C Company, during their evening mess. Brigadier General Jacob Smith, U.S. Army, sent **Major L.W.T. Waller** and his battalion of 14 officers and 300 men to subdue the Moros. The Moros’ resistance was broken by November’s end.

Major Waller was ordered to organize a party and reconnoiter a telegraph route from Lanang to Basey on the west coast of the island. Boats sank in the turbulent river waters, provisions were lost, and Filipino bearers mutinied. Before the march had ended, 10 Marines had died and others were in a poor state of health. Several of the Marines had died of fever or exhaustion. When the Marines returned from Samar, it became the custom to toast the survivors of the battalion with the words, “Stand gentlemen, he served on Samar.”

Panama

The events in Panama revolved around building a canal. At the end of the Spanish American War, it became clear that the U.S. would need a naval presence in both the Atlantic and the Pacific. A canal at the **Isthmus** of Panama would provide the answer. At the time, the area proposed for the construction of a canal was controlled by Colombia. The first attempts at building a canal by the French were met with failure because of the difficulty of the task coupled with the outbreaks of malaria and yellow fever. One estimate puts the death toll from disease at 20,000 between 1878 and 1888. In 1894, another French group attempted to build the canal without

success. The U.S. obtained the rights to build the canal for \$40 million. A treaty was then negotiated by Secretary of State John Hay that would give the U.S. control of a ten-mile wide strip of land at the canal for 99 years at a price of \$10 million dollars down and \$250,000 per year. The Colombians refused that offer wanting \$25 million.

The U.S. supported, some say encouraged, a civil uprising in Panama. On November 3, 1903, the revolutionaries took control of Panama City. The *USS Nashville* arrived and sent a landing party of Marines ashore at Colon. The object of the landing was a show of force, so that the men of the Colombian garrison would not interfere with the actions taking place on the Pacific side at Panama City. President Theodore Roosevelt’s order was that the Marines were to prevent any other force from landing within 50 miles of Panama. Next, the *USS Dixie* arrived with Major John Lejeune and a battalion of Marines. Lejeune went ashore with two companies of Marines. The Colombians boarded a ship and left. President Roosevelt officially recognized the country of Panama the next day. The new government accepted the canal treaty.

Major Walter Reed and others determined that yellow fever and malaria were transmitted by the bite of mosquitoes. Major William Gorgas quickly eradicated the diseases, and the building of the Canal proceeded to completion in 1914. The Panama Canal was a major factor in the growing of the U.S. economy and a cornerstone in its defense strategy for decades to come.

The actions of the U.S. in Latin America were considered by some to be too much of an imposition of its will over others. In what became known as the **Roosevelt Corollary** to the Monroe Doctrine, the U.S. claimed that it had the direct interest and obligation to impose order in the

affairs of Latin American countries. Thus, the Marines were sent in to restore order in several Latin American nations.

Cuba

After the expulsion of the Spanish influence at the end of the Spanish-American War, Cuba was left without a government. After a period of military rule, the Cubans were permitted to write their own constitution and to form a government with U.S. approval. A section called the **Platt Amendment** was added to the Cuban constitution that provided that the U.S. could intervene in Cuban affairs if the freedom of the populace was threatened. The U.S. intervened nine times between 1906 and 1917. Cuba also had to grant U.S. naval bases on the island.

After a controversial election in 1906, a number of Marine detachments were sent to the island. Under orders from President Roosevelt, the Cuban president was forced to resign and a new provisional government was formed with U.S. Secretary of War William Howard Taft as governor. The Marines became part of the Army of Cuban Occupation and were completely replaced by the Army by January of 1909. Once again the Marines had proved that they were a force that could be deployed quickly. The Marine action in Cuba resembled the Advance Base Force concept where the Marines establish the first military presence in an action.

Marine Corps aviation had its beginning when **Lt. Alfred Cunningham** arrived at the Naval Aviation Camp, Annapolis, MD. By August 1, 1912, Cunningham had made his first solo flight. He began to generate ideas concerning Marine Corps aviation for which he became known as the "Father of Marine Corps Aviation."



Nicaragua

Nicaragua was a Latin American hot spot. U.S. Marine troops had been sent there seven times to protect American citizens from violence and revolutions prior to 1910. In 1909, the U.S. decided to support the conservative revolutionaries under Juan Estrada over the dictator Jose Santos Zelaya who owed the U.S. and Europe money. **Major Smedley Butler**, who was stationed at the Panama Canal, made several trips to Nicaragua, but until 1912 the threat of American force was all that was needed to control the situation. In 1912, however, all of Nicaragua was caught up in the revolution, and the U.S. legation at Managua was attacked. Butler was called in again to help restore order. Butler was told to open the rail line from Managua to Granada. About halfway to Granada, his Marines came under attack from two hilltop forts. He marked the position of the forts for further attention and fought his way through. Butler then hooked up with Col. Joseph Pendleton and returned to the rebel forts. Against an estimated 1,000 rebels, the Marines moved up the hill, holding hands to keep contact in the darkness. At dawn the assault began, and within an hour, the battle was over. The Marines had suffered 18

casualties. Butler again returned to Panama and by January of 1913, all of the Marines had left Nicaragua.

Mexico and Haiti

Between 1914 and 1916, the Marines became engaged in battles in Mexico and Haiti. In Mexico, Colonel John Lejeune was called into action with the Advance Base Force. They landed at Vera Cruz in response to information that the Germans were sending weapons to General Victoriano Huerta who had taken control of the Mexican government. Huerta had alienated the US Navy when crewmembers from the *Dolphin* in search of supplies were arrested. Even though Huerta released the crew and apologized, Rear Admiral Henry Mayo demanded a 21-gun salute to the American flag. Huerta refused to comply with this demand. The U.S. attacked and within four days Vera Cruz was under control. By the summer, Huerta had fled the country, and the US installed the Carranza government and relations were once again friendly. The effective use of the Marine Advance Base Force was an important part of this objective and would prove to be an important part of future Marine actions.

In Haiti, the government was in economic and political disarray. The US was concerned about the condition of American property. When the offer by the US to help with resolving the economic problems was rejected, the Marines were sent in to remove the Haitian treasury for “safe-keeping.” When revolutions ousted two presidents, the US sent in more Marines to quell disturbances by the “**Cacos**,” as the rebels were called. Under the leadership of Colonel L.W.T. Waller and Major Smedley Butler, the rebels were brought under control and a government acceptable to the U.S. was firmly put in place.

Major Butler and Gunnery Sergeant Dan Daly earned their second Medals of Honor in the efforts of the Marines to stabilize Haiti. Butler was faced with taking a fort perched atop a 4,000-foot long wall. He led his men into the fort and with bayonets, swords, and clubs the Marines prevailed. Daly received his commendation for retrieving, under fire, a machine gun that had been lost during the crossing of a stream.

Unrest in Haiti continued in 1918. The Marines were called in to put down a large-scale labor revolt. By 1922, the situation had calmed down. The Marines gained valuable experience in Haiti.

Conclusion

Between the end of the Civil War and the beginning of World War I, the United States became much more involved in events occurring in the Western Hemisphere. Implementing the provisions of the Monroe Doctrine to ensure stability on the North and South American continents was a cornerstone of Marine activity. The development of the Panama Canal, after the war with Spain, added to the U.S. sphere of influence around the world. It became clear that the United States and its Marines would be a force to reckon with from this time forward. ❖

The War to End All Wars

PURPOSE

At the beginning of the twentieth century, three factors led to the start of The Great War (WW I). The first of these is imperialism. The second is nationalism. And the third is the system of alliances. The war itself was precipitated by the assassination of Archduke Ferdinand of Austria by a Serbian nationalist. But, that was only the immediate cause. A series of events and circumstances made the conflict inevitable. Once the war began, it became apparent that the U.S. would have to choose sides. Woodrow Wilson, the President of the U.S. at the time, tried to stay neutral, but the isolation was impossible. Eventually, the U.S. decided to join the side of the countries that were most democratic in nature. Wilson pledged the U.S. to fight the war to make the world safe for democracy.

Introduction

During the latter part of the nineteenth century, Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, and Russia were the great nations of Europe. As these nations became more and more industrialized, they sought world markets for their manufactured goods. They became more and more involved in the affairs of other nations, and they competed for greater influence. The need for greater economic influence fueled their tendency to control other nations – or be imperialistic. Likewise other countries sought to become independent of this outside control. They were nationalistic because they felt that their countries

deserved to control their own destinies and not be influenced by outside nations. Finally, the fear of one European nation becoming too powerful led to a series of secret treaties or alliances between the various countries. Germany was allied with Austria-Hungary and Italy, called the Triple Alliance. Great Britain and France were allied with Russia, called the Triple Entente. Russia was tied to Serbia. These alliances became more and more tangled as tensions between countries increased.

Austria-Hungary became engaged in a conflict with Serbia and Russia when it annexed Bosnia. Bosnia was ethnically tied to both Russia and Serbia. It put into motion events that would lead to the greatest international conflict in the world's history. A Serbian nationalist assassinated the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria-Hungary on June 28, 1914. Ferdinand was heir to the Austrian throne. An angry Austria-Hungary made demands on Serbia that she could not meet. Russia mobilized its army on the Serbian border prepared to defend its ally. The Germans threatened war if the Russians did not demobilize, and actually declared war on Russia the next day, August 1. The Germans asked France to remain neutral. When she refused, Germany declared war on France and moved into neutral Belgium's territory, which caused Britain to declare war on Germany. Since the countries that were allied with each other had secretly agreed to declare war on nations that declared war on their allies, a full-scale war was in place in Europe. Because the countries involved had territories in Africa and elsewhere, the war was truly worldwide. Eventually, the two sides were divided into the **Central Powers** including Germany, Austria-Hungary, Turkey, and Bulgaria; and the **Allies** including 27 nations -- France, Britain, Russia, Italy, and the U.S. among them.



The U.S. Enters the Great War

Even though the war in Europe began in 1914, the U.S. was able to stay out of the war until 1917. Though the American people wished to remain neutral, the U.S. found itself moving closer and closer to entering the war on the side of the Allies. The German navy was able to control the shipment of goods to the Allies by using their submarine fleet – called **U-Boats** – to torpedo merchant, military, and passenger vessels. This blockade of England began in February of 1915. Germany insisted that any boat approaching England was considered a legitimate target. In some instances, the ships carried American citizens. One such British passenger liner, the *Lusitania*, carried 128 Americans. It was sunk in May of 1915. The U.S. demanded that these attacks cease. In 1916, after sinking the passenger liner, *Sussex*, Germany made the **Sussex Pledge** and agreed to stop unrestricted submarine warfare.

There were a number of factors that pulled the U.S. into World War I. The Germans decided to break the Sussex Pledge in February of 1917. Trade with Great Britain and France had increased greatly during the war. Germany was a dictatorship and Great Britain and France were not. The British ran an effective propaganda campaign in the U.S. against the Germans. Perhaps, the single most important factor in putting the U.S. into the war in Europe was the

announcement by Great Britain that they had intercepted and decoded a telegram from German Foreign Minister Arthur Zimmerman to the German Minister in Mexico. It authorized him to ask the President of Mexico to join the German cause. In return for war against the U.S., Mexico would receive Texas, Arizona, and New Mexico. The United States declared war on Germany on April 6, 1917.

By the end of the Great War, 8.6 million men in uniform would be dead and 21 million wounded. Americans accounted for 116,000 of the dead and 243,000 of the wounded. The Marines had grown to a force of 2,462 officers and 72,639 enlisted men. They fought under the slogan “First to Fight.”

The Devil Dogs of Belleau Wood

Because of a German offensive, there was a four-kilometer hole in the French lines. This gap was located in an area near Bois de Belleau (**Belleau Wood**). This area became the site of the first engagement for the Marines. It was important because if captured by the Germans, it could mean the loss of Paris.

The Marines approached the woods from across a wheat field in four waves. The Germans allowed them to get very close before they opened fire. The first waves were slaughtered. German machine guns were placed so that when one was assaulted, the next gun mowed them down. With Major Berton Sibley leading them on, the Marines stayed low, hurled their grenades and went forward. The Marines were able to shoot the German sharpshooters out of the trees. Much of the fighting was hand-to-hand combat. The

fighting was intense. One platoon was reduced from 58 to 5 in 40 minutes. It was during this battle that **First Sergeant Dan Daly** led a charge with the words, “Come on, you @\$%!, Do you want to live forever?”

One of the unique aspects of this war was called trench warfare. In this type of fighting, troops dug in and the battles were primarily machine guns and rifles firing across fields at troops firmly dug in. Or target practice as first one side then the other mounted an attack. With artillery shelling troops on both sides, the casualties were tremendous. U.S. troops were unused to digging trenches, conducting and repelling trench raids, hand-grenade throwing, and the use of the gas mask. However, the Marines soon learned. Their goal was to protect the line when the Germans moved into Belleau Wood. When the French had pulled back on June 4, they told the Marines that Belleau Wood was free of Germans. But the Germans were there. The Marines were supposed to take Hill 142. When they attacked shortly before dawn, machine guns destroyed them. By late afternoon, the hill was taken and the Marines prepared to move into Belleau Wood.

The Marines kept moving, but as they reached Bouresches, they found themselves running out of ammunition. **Second Lieutenant William Moore** and **Sergeant Major John Quick** received the Distinguished Service Cross and the Navy Cross for their heroism by driving through German artillery fire to bring ammunition to the troops at Bouresches.

The Marines dug in and repulsed a counter-attack. Replacement troops came and went, but by June 26th the troops in the woods were completely made up of Marines. The Germans were themselves running out of replacements. Eventually, they were pushed back

to the north edge of Belleau Wood. The Germans so respected the Marines that they called them “Teufelhunden” or “Devil Dogs.”

The price for Belleau Wood was high. The Marines suffered 126 officers and 5,057 enlisted men dead and wounded. General Pershing wrote of the battle, “You stood like a wall against the enemy advance on Paris.” The French parliament declared July 4 a national holiday in honor of Americans fighting in France. The French general commanding the Sixth Army renamed the woods, “Bois de la Brigade de Marines.” or the Woods of the Marine Brigade.

Soissons

On July 15, the German army crossed the Marne River again moving toward Paris. However, the Allies were now a much stronger fighting force. The German armies were no longer able to reinforce their troops as they had when the Russians stopped fighting on the Eastern Front. Meanwhile, Americans were reinforcing the Allies in great numbers. A million Americans had joined the French troops, and after two days of terrible fighting, the Germans were pushed back across the Marne. Under the leadership of Colonel Neville, the Marine Brigade joined General Foch in an effort to counter-attack. The objective was to cut the Mauberge highway between Chateau-Thierry and **Soissons**. The troops were placed into the Retz Forest south of Soissons.

The attack against the Germans was especially note worthy because of the great losses inflicted on the Marines. German artillery and machine guns took a heavy toll. The lead battalions lost 50% of their men. In just two days, the Marine Brigade lost 2,015 men killed and wounded. But, they continued to fight on. Foch’s attack had pushed the Germans back from the Marne to the Vesle River. Heroic actions were the

order of the day. In one case, Sgt. Louis Cukela earned a Medal of Honor for single handedly taking out a German machine gun nest. He killed or drove off its crew with his bayonet. He picked up German hand grenades and destroyed two other machine guns. He even took four prisoners.

St. Mihiel and Blanc Mont Ridge

In the autumn of 1918 with the war winding down, Marshall Foch planned a massive offensive against the Germans at **St. Mihiel**. For two years there had been little fighting there. The Germans had pushed out from the fortress city of Metz on the Moselle River. The Germans knew what was coming and pushed back to the Hidenburg Line. At 1 o'clock a.m., 3,000 guns began firing at the Germans. Four hours later, the troops began to roll in. Because of the artillery fire and the German retreat, casualties were light. Still, the Marines endured 132 dead and more than 500 wounded. The Germans expected the Americans to go on to Metz, but Foch wanted to move between the Meuse River and the Argonne Forest. The offensive would reach all the way to the North Sea.

Even though the Americans outnumbered the Germans eight to one, the Germans were fighting defensively and had the terrain on their side. The Germans fought hard and did not withdraw until the U.S. 2nd Division took **Blanc Mont Ridge**. By that time, 1,000 lives had been lost. Major General John LeJeune, who commanded the Marines, insisted that his troops could take Blanc Mont Ridge. Winning the ridge would free the city of Reims. Early on the morning of October 3, French and American troops attacked. With the assistance of French

tanks, the 2nd Battalion captured the German main line of resistance.

In a remarkable display of bravery, Cpl John Pruitt, who saw his comrades being cut down by machine gun fire, attacked two machine gun nests, killed the gunners and destroyed the guns. He then captured 40 Germans in a nearby dugout. Shortly thereafter he was killed at the age of 22. Pvt. John Kelly attacked another machine gun nest, killed the gunner with his grenade, shot another with his pistol, and took eight men prisoner. Both Marines earned the Medal of Honor.

Still the Marines had not taken Blanc Mont Ridge. When they postponed their attack until morning, the Germans had the opportunity to reinforce their troops. The next day was the bloodiest of the war for the Marines. The Germans fired at the attacking Marines from all sides. By day's end 1,100 were killed or wounded. The next day with artillery support, the Marines attacked the German strongpoint and captured 65 machine guns and more than 200 Germans. By the eighth of October, the last Marine unit was down to less than 300 men, but the Germans were in retreat. In a week of continuous combat, the Marines had lost 494 dead and 1,864 wounded.

Sgt. Dan Daley, called by General Lejeune “the outstanding Marine of all time” was one of the wounded at Blanc Mont Ridge. He is one of only two men to win the Medal of Honor on two separate occasions for actions at Peking and in Haiti. He also was awarded the Navy Cross and the Army Distinguished Service Cross for heroism at Belleau Wood where he put out an ammunition dump fire and single handedly captured a machine-gun nest with grenades and an automatic pistol.

Conclusion

The last great battle of World War I took place in November at Argonne. In it nearly one million Americans lined up against 470,000 strongly fortified Germans. Americans suffered 117,000 casualties. All the while, Germans had asked for an **armistice**, while the Allies wanted unconditional surrender. It took a while to come to terms, but one day after the Marine Corps birthday, on November 11 at 11 minutes after 11 o'clock in the morning, the war was finally over. Between May and November, 1918, the Marines suffered 12,179 casualties including 3,284 deaths. Marines fought in France on the Western Front and earned a reputation as warriors that would stay with them to the present day. From 1918 until 1954, the signing of the armistice was commemorated as a national holiday called Armistice Day. In 1954, the name was changed to Veteran's Day to remember those who served their country in any war. The War to End All Wars did no such thing, but it did establish the U.S. Marines as the foremost fighting unit in the armed services. ❖

The Eleven General Orders

PURPOSE

This lesson introduces the eleven general orders. You will learn about each general order and the difference between general orders and special orders.



Introduction

Navy Secretary Edwin Denby, a former Marine, issued one of the most stirring guard orders ever received by U.S. Marines on November 11, 1921. The nation was in the grip of a crime wave, which had been highlighted by armed robberies of the U.S. Mail. Four days before Secretary Denby penned his letter of instruction, the president had directed that the Marine Corps take over the job of safeguarding the mails, and fifty-three officers and twenty-two hundred enlisted Marines were already on watch in post offices, railway mail cars, and postal trucks throughout the country. "To the Men of the Mail Guard," wrote Edwin Denby:

I am proud that my old Corps has been chosen for a duty so honorable as that of protecting the United States mail. I am very anxious that you shall successfully accomplish your mission. It is not going to be easy work. It will always be dangerous and generally tiresome. You know how to do it. Be sure you do it well. I know you will neither fear nor shirk any duty, however hazardous or exacting.

This particular work will lack the excitement and glamour of war duty, but it will be no less important. It has the same element of service to the country.

I look with proud confidence to you to show now the qualities that have made the Corps so well-beloved by our fellow citizens.

You must be brave, as you always are. You must be constantly alert. You must, when on guard duty, keep your weapons in hand, if attacked, shoot and shoot to kill. There is no compromise in this battle with the bandits.

If two Marines, guarding a mail car, are suddenly covered by a robber, neither must hold up his hands, but both must begin shooting at once. One may be killed, but the other will get the robber and save the mail. When our men go in as guards over mail, that mail must be delivered or there must be a Marine dead at the post of

duty.

To be sure of success, every Marine on this duty must be watchful as a cat, hour after hour, night after night, week after week. No Marine must drink a drop of intoxicating liquor. Every Marine must be most careful with whom he associates and what his occupations are off duty. There may be many tricks tried to get you, and you must not be tricked. Look out for women. Never discuss the details of your duty with outsiders. Never give up to another the trust you are charged with.

Never forget that the honor of the Corps is in your keeping. You have been given a great trust. I am confident you will prove that it has not been misplaced.

I am proud of you and believe in you with all my heart.

– Edwin Denby

Mail robberies ceased within a matter of days after Secretary Denby penned his order, and not a single piece of mail was lost to a robber while Marines stood watch.

Guard Duty

In the Marine Corps and Navy, the safety and good order of the entire unit depend on those who stand guard. The importance of guard duty is underscored by the fact that sleeping on watch can be punished by death in time of war and in peace by heavy penalties.

The Marine Corps is the combat security force for the naval establishment and is not only responsible for the good order and protection of its own posts but also of all stations and ships where Marines are assigned.

Marines maintain four kinds of guard: an exterior guard ashore, an interior guard ashore, a ship's guard afloat, and special guards.

An exterior guard is maintained only in combat or when danger of attack exists. An exterior guard protects the command against

outside attack and is organized and armed according to the tactical mission.

Interior guards have three primary missions. They are to protect life, preserve order and enforce regulations, and safeguard public property.

Ships' guards carry out the same general missions afloat as interior guards do ashore, but differ in details of organization and duty because of shipboard conditions.

Special guards include all guards organized for special purposes (for example, train or boat guards and so on). In addition, most posts having custody of special weapons have a separate main guard for that purpose alone, leaving other normal security functions at the post to the station main guard.

Any Marine on guard, whether officer or enlisted, represents the commanding officer. In the execution of orders or the enforcement of regulations, the Marine guard's authority is complete.

General Orders

The universal respect accorded a U.S. **Marine sentinel** is based on that person's high military efficiency and the fact that he or she is habitually armed and prepared to defend his or her post and person in the execution of orders. A sentinel's duties are to carry out the **general orders** for a sentinel on post, as well as **special orders** applicable to the particular post. Every Marine officer or enlisted must know the general orders by heart. The general orders are as follows:

1. *General Order 1:* To take charge of this post and all government property in view.
2. *General Order 2:* To walk my post in a military manner, keeping always on the alert, and

observing everything that takes place within sight or hearing.

3. *General Order 3:* To report all violations of orders I am instructed to enforce.
4. *General Order 4:* To repeat all calls from posts more distant from the guardhouse than my own.
5. *General Order 5:* To quit my post only when properly relieved.
6. *General Order 6:* To receive, obey, and pass on to the sentinel who relieves me, all orders from the commanding officer, officer of the day, and officers and noncommissioned officers of the guard only.
7. *General Order 7:* To talk to no one except in line of duty.
8. *General Order 8:* To give the alarm in case of fire or disorder.
9. *General Order 9:* To call the corporal of the guard in any case not covered by instructions.
10. *General Order 10:* To salute all officers and all colors and standards not cased.
11. *General Order 11:* To be especially watchful at night, and, during the time for challenging, to challenge all persons on or near my post, and to allow no one to pass without proper authority.

Special Orders

Special orders prescribe special duties not found in general orders and required for special purposes. In addition to the general orders, guard personnel must also understand and comply with special orders. For example, when guards are organized for a specific purpose, then special orders are required.

Conclusion

During this lesson, you have learned about different kinds of guards in the Marine Corps, the eleven general orders and the difference between general orders and special orders. As a MCJROTC cadet, you may have an opportunity to put into practice some of the general orders.❖

Interior Guard – Organization

PURPOSE

This lesson provides you with the organization and duties of the Interior Guard. It explains the specific duties of the Commander of the Guard, Sergeant of the Guard, Corporal of the Guard and the Sentry.

Introduction

Interior guards have the threefold mission of protecting life, preserving order and enforcing regulations, and safeguarding public property. The interior guard gets its authority directly from the commanding officer. The daily routine of an interior guard varies according to the wishes of the commanding officer and the size and missions of the post.

Interior Guard Tour of Duty

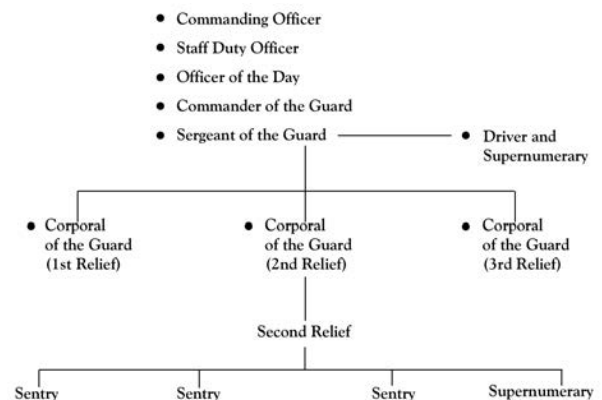
The normal tour for interior guards is twenty-four hours. Anyone detailed for guard duty must report and be ready for duty at least four hours before the tour of duty begins.

The guard's watch routine includes execution of Colors, posting and relief of sentinels, supervision of meal formations, and rendering of honors to the commanding officer, visiting officers, and civilian dignitaries.

Each relief stands watch for four hours before turning over to the next relief. Thus, in a twenty-four hour tour, each relief stands a total of eight hours on watch—four by day and four by night.

Organization of the Guard

The chart below shows the organization of a typical interior guard. The guard is composed of a main guard, and, when needed, special guards.



The interior guard organization is normally comprised of the following positions:

- **Commanding Officer**
- Staff Duty Officer
- **Officer of the Day**
- **Commander of the Guard**
- **Sergeant of the Guard**
- Driver and **Supernumerary**
- **Corporal of the Guard** (1st, 2nd, and 3rd Relief)
- **Sentry** and Supernumerary

Commanding Officer

The **Commanding Officer (CO)** is responsible and accountable for the security of the command. Authority may be delegated to

subordinates for execution of details but the Commanding Officer is still responsible.

The CO establishes the guard and sees that it functions properly. Either the Commanding Officer or a representative receives the daily reports from and relieves the officers of the day, examines the guard book, and issues any special instructions.

Staff Duty Officer

The Staff Duty Officer may be required on a large post where subordinate commands maintain separate guards. The staff duty officer coordinates subordinate guards, and acts for the post commander in an emergency.

Officer of the Day

The Officer of the Day (OD) is the direct representative of the commanding officer. The OD supervises the main guard, executes all orders that pertain to the guard, and is responsible for the guard performing effectively. Specifically, the OD:

- Inspects the guard according to instructions or as often as necessary.
- Acts immediately to protect life and government property and to preserve order in case of alarm.
- Keeps the command of the guard informed of his or her location at all times.
- Maintains an OD log that contains a concise account of his tour of duty.

Commander of the Guard

The Commander of the Guard, a staff NCO, is responsible for the proper instruction, discipline and performance of the guard. A

commander of the guard is usually required only for a large guard. Specifically, the commander of the guard:

- Obeys the orders of the commanding officer, officer of the day, and in emergencies, the senior line officer present only.
- Ensures all members of the guard are correctly instructed in their orders and duties and that they understand and properly perform them.
- Inspects the guards and ensures that personnel, arms and equipment are in proper condition and that any special orders are posted in proper locations.
- Keeps the sergeant of the guard informed of his or her location at all times.
- Details personnel to raise and lower the national flag at Morning and Evening Colors and ensures the serviceability of the flag.
- Ensures that reliefs are posted on schedule.
- Keeps the OD informed.
- Maintains a commander of the guard log that contains a concise account of his or her tour of duty.
- Performs other duties as required.

Sergeant of the Guard

The Sergeant of the Guard is the senior NCO of the guard. The sergeant of the guard assists the commander of the guard in ensuring proper instruction, discipline, and performance of duty. Specifically, the sergeant of the guard:

- Supervises the enlisted members of the guard.
- Ensures that the property charged to the guard is properly cared and accounted for.

- Assigns members of the guard to reliefs.
 - Ensures posting of reliefs.
 - Ensures that corporals of the guard understand and execute their duties promptly and efficiently.
 - Keeps the corporal of the guard informed of his or her location at all times.
 - Keeps the commander of the guard informed.
 - Maintains the sergeant of the guard log that contains a concise account of all important and pertinent events which transpire during his or her tour of duty and which affect the guard. He/she exercises care in preparing the log, which is an official record of the command.
 - Performs other duties as required.
- Instructs each member concerning his or her orders and duties.
 - Posts the sentries.
 - Supervises unloading of weapons (if loading has been authorized), collects guard property (if necessary) and dismisses old relief.
 - Secures his or her post.
 - Responds immediately to any sentry who calls.
 - Reports to the sergeant of the guard all violations of regulations and unusual occurrences.
 - Awakens the corporal of the guard of the next relief in time to form his or her relief, and post it at the proper time.
 - Relieves the sentry when he calls “Relief” and posts a supernumerary or a member of the off-duty reliefs, if he determines relief is necessary.
 - Performs other duties as required.

Corporal of the Guard

Marines on guard duty are organized into three **reliefs**, each of which includes a **sentinel/sentry** for each post and one supernumerary and is commanded by a Corporal of the Guard.

The corporal of the guard instructs and supervises the members of the guard assigned to his or her relief, which takes its successive turn on guard throughout the tour of duty. Specifically, the corporal of the guard:

- Assigns sentries on relief to posts.
- Understands every special order of every sentry on relief.
- Forms relief in sufficient time to: issue guard property, inspect appearance, fitness for duty, condition of arms, issue ammunition, and supervise loading of weapons (if authorized).

Sentry and Supernumerary

The sentry is the workhorse of the guard. The universal respect accorded a U.S. Marine sentinel is based on that person's high military efficiency and the fact that he or she is habitually armed and prepared to defend his or her post and person in the execution of orders. A sentinel's duties are to carry out the general orders for a sentinel on post, as well as special orders applicable to the particular post. Every Marine must know the general orders by heart.

All members of the guard must memorize, understand, and comply with the general orders for sentries. In addition, they must know and comply with the regulations relating to general orders and with any special orders applying to their particular posts.

Supernumeraries are additional sentries on standby to replace anyone who must be relieved. The supernumerary must understand the special orders for all posts on which they could be posted, and comply with those for the particular post, if posted as a sentry.

Members of the guard who are not on post will remain in the immediate vicinity of the guardhouse. The commander of the guard may grant permission to leave but only in case of necessity.

Conclusion

During this lesson, you have learned about the organization and duties of the interior guard. You should be able to describe the organization, positions, and duties of the interior guard. As a MCJROTC cadet, you may have an opportunity to witness and/or experience being on guard.❖

Introduction to the Military Map

PURPOSE

Maps provide you with information on the existence and location of ground features, such as populated areas and routes of travel and communication. They also indicate variations in terrain, heights of natural features, and the extent of vegetation cover. With the Marine Corps dispersed throughout the world, it is necessary to rely on maps to provide information to our combat elements far from our shores. Therefore, all operations require a supply of maps; however, the finest maps available are worthless unless you know how to read them. In this lesson, you will be introduced to the contents of military maps and the supporting marginal information.

Marginal Information on a Map

A map can be compared to any other piece of equipment. Before you use it, you must read the instructions. Map instructions are placed around the outer edge of the map and are called **marginal information**.

A **topographical map** is defined as a type of map that portrays terrain features, as well as the horizontal positions of the features represented. The vertical positions, or relief, are normally represented by contour lines.

Not all maps are the same; so every time you use a different map, examine the marginal

information carefully. Figure 1-1 on the next page shows a reduced version of a topographic map. The circled members indicate the key elements of marginal information that you need to know. They correspond to the following items:

a. Sheet Name (1). A map is named after the most prominent cultural or geographical feature. Whenever possible, the name of the largest city on the map is used. The sheet name is found in two places: the center of the upper margin and either the right or the left side of the lower margin.

Example: **MARGARITA PEAK**

b. Sheet Number (2). The sheet number is used as a reference number for that map sheet. It is found in two places: the upper right margin and the lower left margin.

Example: **SHEET 2550 IV**

c. Series Name (3). The map series name is found in the upper left margin. It usually includes a group of similar maps at the same scale and/or the same sheet lines designed to cover a particular geographical area. The name given a series is that of the most prominent areas.

Example: **CALIFORNIA**

d. Scale (4). The scale note is a representative-fraction that gives you the ratio of a distance on the map to the corresponding distance on the earth's surface. For example, the scale note

U.S. MARINE CORPS. JROTC
 Category 5 – General Military Subjects
 Skill 11 – Land Navigation

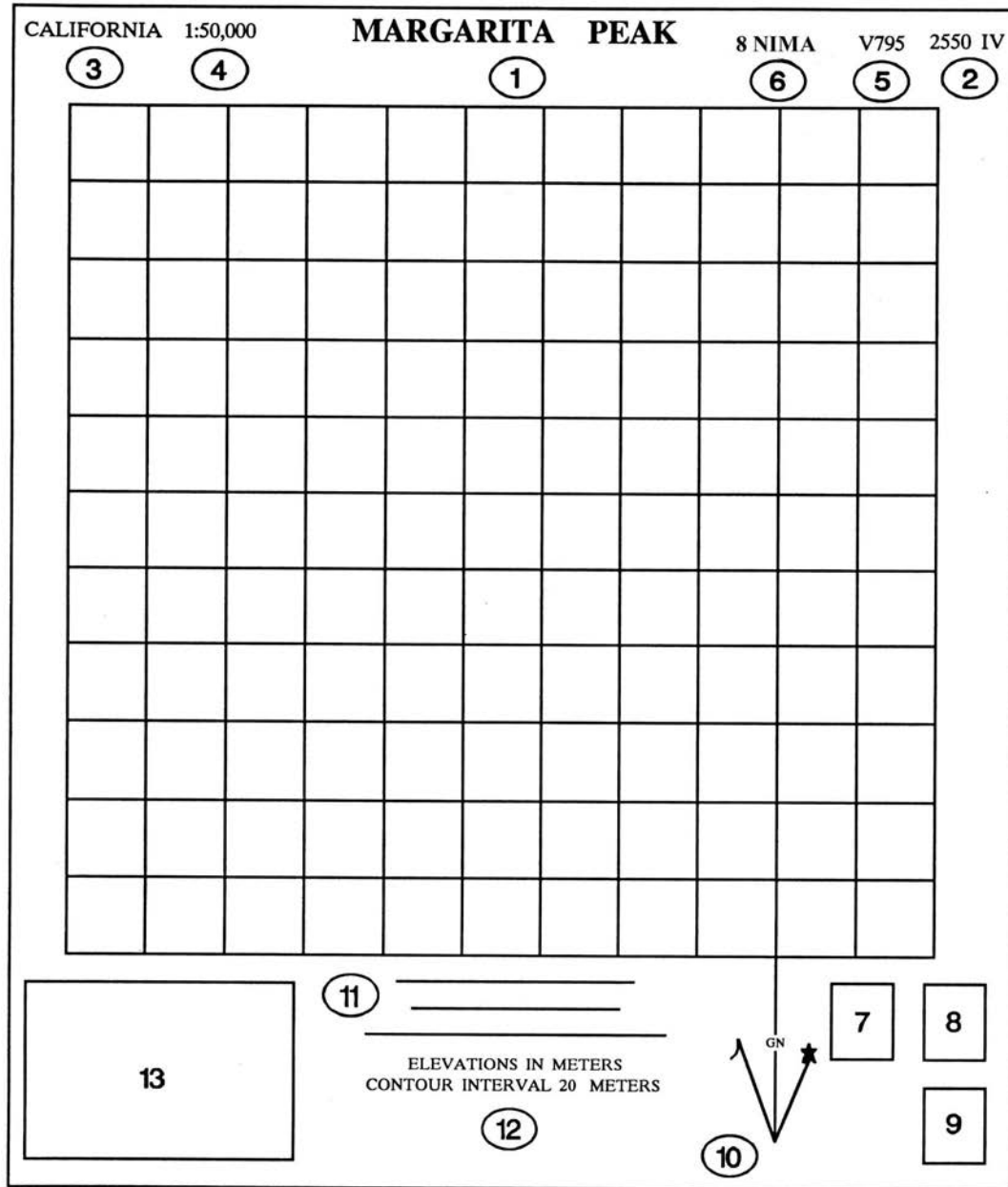


Figure 1-1

1:50,000 on your California Series map indicates that one inch on the map equals 50,000 inches on the ground. Maps with different scales will display different degrees of topographical

detail. For example, a map with a scale of 1:25,000 will give more detail than a 1:50,000 map because one inch on the map represents only 25,000 inches on the ground, rather than the 50,000

inches of the 1:50,000 map. The scale is found both in the upper left margin after the series name and in the center of the lower margin.

Example: **1:50,000**

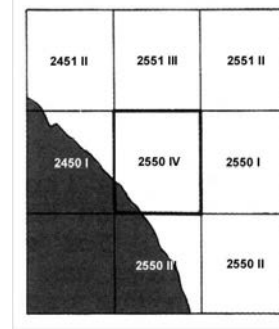
e. Series Number (5). The Series number is a sequence reference expressed either as a four-digit number (1125) or as a letter, followed by a three or four-digit number (M556; N3341). It is found in both the upper right margin and the lower left margin.

Example: **SERIES V795**

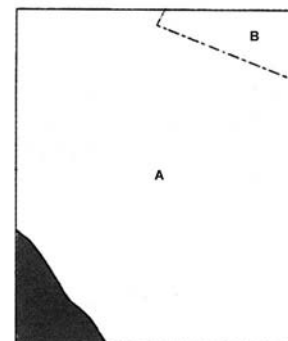
f. Edition Number (6). The edition number represents the age of the map in relation to other editions of the same map and the agency responsible for its production. For example, EDITION 5-DMATC indicates the fifth edition prepared by the Defense Mapping Agency Topographic Center. EDITION 6-DMA indicates the sixth edition prepared by the Defense Mapping Agency. Edition numbers run consecutively. A map bearing a higher edition number is assumed to contain more recent information than the same map bearing a lower edition number. It is found in the upper right margin and in the lower left margin.

Example: **8-NIMA**

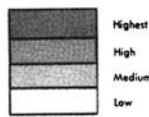
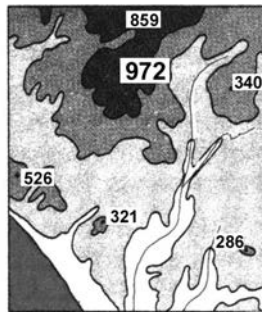
g. Index to boundaries (7). The index to boundaries diagram, which is a miniature of the map, shows the boundaries that occur within, the map area, such as county lines and state boundaries. The index of boundaries diagram appears in the lower right margin of all map sheets.



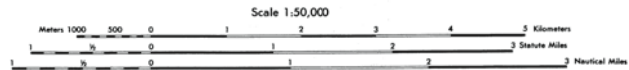
b. Adjoining Sheets Diagram (8). Maps contain a diagram that illustrates the adjoining map sheets. The adjoining sheets diagram usually contains nine rectangles, but the number may vary depending on the locations of the adjoining sheets. Their sheet numbers identifies all represented sheets. The diagram is found in the lower right margin of all map sheets.



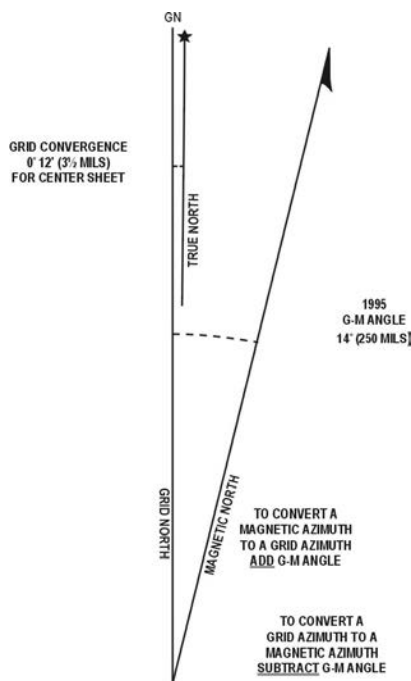
i. Elevation Guide (9). The elevation guide is a miniature characterization of the terrain shown. The terrain is shown by bands of elevation, spot elevations, and major drainage features. The elevation guide helps you rapidly identify major landforms. It is normally found in the lower right margin.



k. *Bar Scales (11)*. Bar scales are used to convert map distance to ground distance. Maps may have three or more bar scales, each in a different unit of measure. Exercise care when using the scales, especially in the selection of the unit of measure. The bar scales are located in the center of the lower margin.



j. *Declination Diagram (10)*. This indicates the angular relationships of true north, grid north, and magnetic north. Recent edition maps have a note indicating how to convert azimuths from grid to magnetic and from magnetic to grid next to the **declination diagram**. The declination diagram is located in the lower margin.



l. *Contour Interval Note (12)*. The **contour interval** note states the vertical distance between adjacent contour lines on the map. When supplementary contours are used, the interval is indicated. In recent edition maps, the contour interval is given in meters instead of feet. This note is found in the center of the lower margin normally below the bar scales.

Example:

**ELEVATIONS IN METERS
 CONTOUR INTERVAL 20 METERS
 SUPPLEMENTARY CONTOURS 10
 METERS**

m. *Legend (13)*. The legend illustrates and identifies the topographic symbols used to depict some of the more prominent features on the map, such as railroad tracks, buildings, and swamps. The symbols are not always the same on every map. Always refer to the legend to avoid error when reading a map. The legend is located in the lower left margin.

Colors on a Map

To help you identify features on a map, topographical and cultural information is usually printed in different colors. These colors may vary from map to map. On a standard map, the colors used and the features they represent are shown on the next page.

Black indicates manmade features, such as buildings and roads.

Blue identifies hydrography or water features, such as lakes, swamps, rivers, and drainage.

Green identifies vegetation with military significance, such as woods and orchards.

Reddish-Brown on newer maps, have been combined from red and brown to identify all cultural features (boundaries and major roads) and elevation (contour lines). When using a red lens light source, this color is easier to see than the brown used on older maps. Note: On older edition maps, the colors brown and red are usually used instead of reddish-brown.

Brown identifies all relief features and elevations, such as contour lines.

Red classifies cultural features, such as populated areas, main roads, and boundaries.

Topographic Map Symbols

The mapmaker uses symbols to represent the natural and manmade features of the earth's surface. These symbols resemble, as closely as possible, the actual features themselves as viewed from above. They are positioned in such a manner that the center of the symbol remains in the true location. An exception to this rule is the position of a feature next to a major road. If the width of the road is exaggerated, then the feature is moved from its true position to preserve its relation to the road.

There are several hundred standard topographic map symbols. You are not required to memorize all of these symbols, but you must be able to identify those features which are used on your Margarita Peak map. By the completion of this course, you will be able to recognize most of

ROADS		
Divided highway with median strip		
Primary, all weather, hard surface		
Secondary, all weather, hard surface		
Light duty, all weather, hard or improved surface		
Fair or dry weather, unimproved surface		
Trail		
Route markers: Interstate; Federal; State		
Bridge		
RAILROADS (Standard gauge 1.44m. – 4'8½")		
Single track		
Multiple track		
Nonoperating		
Railroad station: Location known; Location unknown		
Car line		
Railroad bridge		
Tunnel: Highway; Railroad		
BOUNDARIES		
National, with monument		
State, territory		
County, parish		
Civil township, town		
Incorporated city, village, town		
Reservation: National; State; Military		
Power transmission line		
Buildings		
Structures		
Church: School		
Power substation		
Windmill; Watermill		
Well; Tank		
Mine shaft		
Open pit mine or quarry		
Horizontal control station		
Bench mark, monumented		
Bench mark, non-monumented		
Spot elevations in meters		
Levees, rims, dikes		
Bluffs, cliffs		
Woodland		
Scattered trees; Scrub		
Vineyard; Orchard, plantation		
Intermittent lake: Dam: Earthen; Masonry		
Stream: Perennial; Intermittent		
Marsh, swamp		
Small falls; Large falls		
Small rapids; Large rapids		

these topographic symbols without referring to the legend. Until that time, be sure to refer to the legend. Note: Now that you are familiar with the layout of your map, you will want to fold it properly for storage and easy access.

Conclusion

This lesson introduced you to how a topographical map is set up, as well as the colors and symbols used on these maps. ❖

The Grid System

PURPOSE

Many people have difficulty understanding the grid coordinate system. If you understand it, then it seems easy--just READ RIGHT, THEN UP! Because of the number of people who have difficulty with grid coordinates, we will teach you grid coordinates using two different analogies.

Introduction

The first way to explain grid coordinates involves basic algebra. If you have never taken algebra, then don't worry. We will explain grid coordinates a second time using non-algebraic methods. We will also show you how to use a coordinate scale.

The Military Grid Reference System

To navigate, you have to know how to find your location on a map. The map has lines running north, south, east and west. These lines (which are called grid lines) form small squares, 1,000 meters on each side, called grid squares. The lines that form grid squares are numbered along the outside edge of your map. The precision of a point location is shown by the number of digits in the coordinates; the more digits, the more precise the location. A 4-digit **grid coordinate**, such as 8872, identifies an area on the map that is 1,000 meters x 1,000 meters. A 6-digit grid coordinate, such as 885727, identifies an area that is 100

meters x 100 meters. How big an area do you think an 8-digit grid coordinate identifies? That's right, 10 meters x 10 meters. Note that grid lines are identified by a set of digits. The NORTH-SOUTH grid lines increase in value from west to east. The EAST-WEST grid lines increase in value from south to north.

Algebra Analogy

a. *Plotting numbers on a quadrant.* In algebra, you are often required to plot numbers, such as (3,2) and (10,11), in a quadrant (fig 1-2).

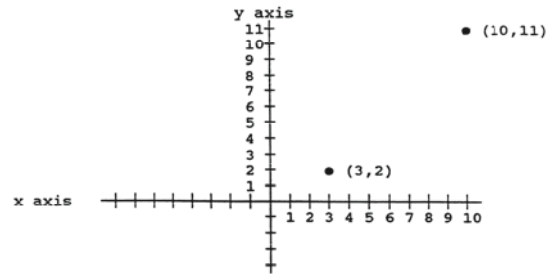


Fig. 1-2

In case you have forgotten, the first number in the point that you are trying to plot is the "x" number. In our second example --(10,11)-- the number plotted on the "x axis" is "10." In other words, you went 10 spaces to the right. The second number, in this case "11," is plotted on the "y axis." In other words, after you found the proper position for the "x" (10 spaces to the right), you went 11 spaces up. If you did this properly, then guess what? You plotted the point by **READING RIGHT, THEN UP**. This is one of the cardinal rules in map reading.

b. *Algebra and 4-digit grid coordinates.* The only major differences in locating grid coordinates on a map and plotting points on a quadrant in

algebra are that in algebra, the points are surrounded by parentheses and the "x" and "y" numbers are separated by a comma! There are a few minor differences. On a map, you only deal with the "upper right hand quadrant." The x axis and y axis are rarely shown on a map (thus, the origin, point (0,0), will rarely be shown).

Single digit numbers, such as 4 and 9 have a "0" placed in front of them as a "place holder" (thus being expressed as "04" and "09"). Finally, grid lines are drawn on a map to help you locate your points. To locate the point 5892 on a map, go **RIGHT** to space 58 on the "x axis" and go **UP** to space 92 on the "y axis" (fig 1-3). Remember, this will identify an area that is 1,000 meters x 1,000 meters (a grid square). You now know how to plot a 4-digit grid coordinate.

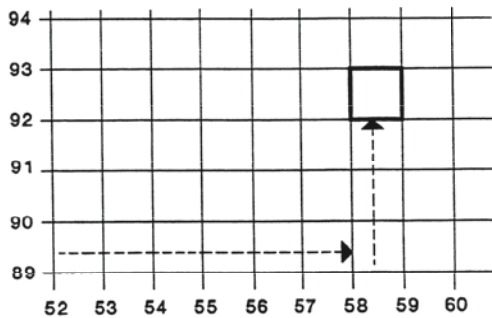


Fig. 1-3.

c. Algebra and 6-digit grid coordinates.

Suppose that you needed to get a little more precise when plotting a point on a quadrant. Instead of plotting (30,50), suppose you had to plot (30 3,50 7). How would you do it? That's right. Instead of going **RIGHT** to space 10, you would go to space 30 and 3/10th. Instead of going **UP** to space 50, you would go to space 50 and 7/10th (fig 1-4). To write the algebraic point (30.3, 50.7) as a grid coordinate, simply take out the parentheses, the coma, and the decimal points.

When you do that, it is written 303507. Remember, a 6-digit grid coordinate identifies an area that is 100 meters x 100 meters.

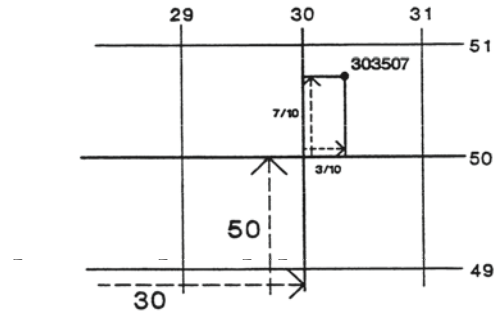


Fig. 1-4

d. Algebra and 8-digit grid coordinates. An 8-digit grid coordinate is done the exact same way. For grid coordinate 46898376, the first four numbers, 4689, apply to the "x axis." Move 46 and 89/100th spaces to the right. The second set of four numbers, 8376, apply to the "y axis." Move 83 and 76/100th spaces up. An 8-digit grid coordinate identifies an area that is 10 meters x 10 meters.

In the following paragraphs we will teach grid coordinates again, without using the algebra analogy.

4-Digit Grid Coordinates

Let's say that you want to determine the grid coordinates of hill 450 to the nearest 1,000 meters.

First, identify the grid square in which it is located. The cardinal rule of map reading is **READ RIGHT, THEN UP**. In other words, looking at the numbers at the bottom of the map, read from left to right until you identify the last

north-south grid line before arriving at hill 450. This is grid line 11. Write "11" down on a piece of paper. Now look at the numbers on the side of the map and read UP until you identify the last east-west grid line before arriving at hill 450. This is grid line 43. Write "43" down right beside the "11." The identity of the grid square is 1143. Note that the point where these two grid lines intersect is in the lower left hand corner of the grid square. In other words, grid squares are identified by the grid lines that intersect in their lower left hand corner.

You have, therefore, located a point to the nearest 1,000 meters by using a 4-digit grid coordinate (fig 1-5).

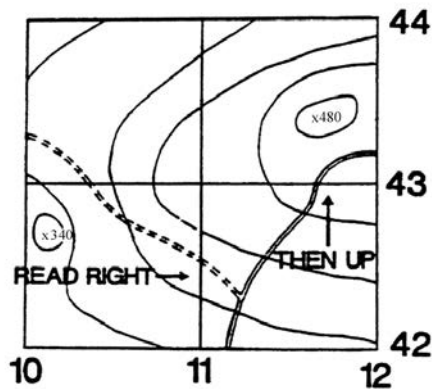


Fig. 1-5.

6-Digit Grid Coordinates

Next, you need to know how to locate points within grid squares. Imagine dividing the grid square into 100 smaller squares. The coordinates of a point in such a grid square will have six digits (numbers). Each of the grid squares in figure 1-6 is 1,000 meters long and 1,000 meters high. One of the grid squares is divided into 100 smaller squares--each 100 meters long and 100 meters high. Note that the lines within the grid square also read RIGHT, then UP. In a 6-digit grid coordinate, such as 284936, the first 3

numbers are the "read right" part of "read right, then up;" whereas, the last 3 numbers are the "then up" part.

To locate point C in grid square 3050 (fig 1-6), you should use the following procedure:

1. Read right to vertical line 30. Note that point C is 3/10 of the distance toward the vertical line 31. Write the vertical coordinate for point as 303.

2. Read up vertical line 30 to horizontal line 50. Note that point C is 7/10 of the distance toward the horizontal line 51. Write the horizontal coordinate of point C as 507.

3. To write the 6-digit coordinate that locates point C, simply combine the two readings--303507. The vertical reading is ALWAYS placed before the horizontal reading.

Do not actually draw the lines within the grid square (fig. 1-6), since such lines would obstruct other information. You can determine a 6-digit grid coordinate by approximation, or by using your coordinate scale on a protractor. Use of the coordinate scale is explained in the next paragraph.

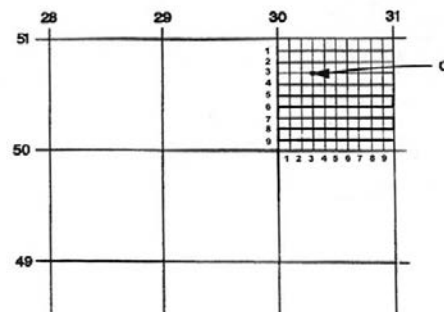


Fig.1-6.

Use of the Coordinate Scale

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If you require a more accurate 6-digit grid coordinate than can be obtained by estimation, you should use a **coordinate scale** (fig 1-7).

point is to the **BOTTOM RIGHT** of the scale (fig 1-8).

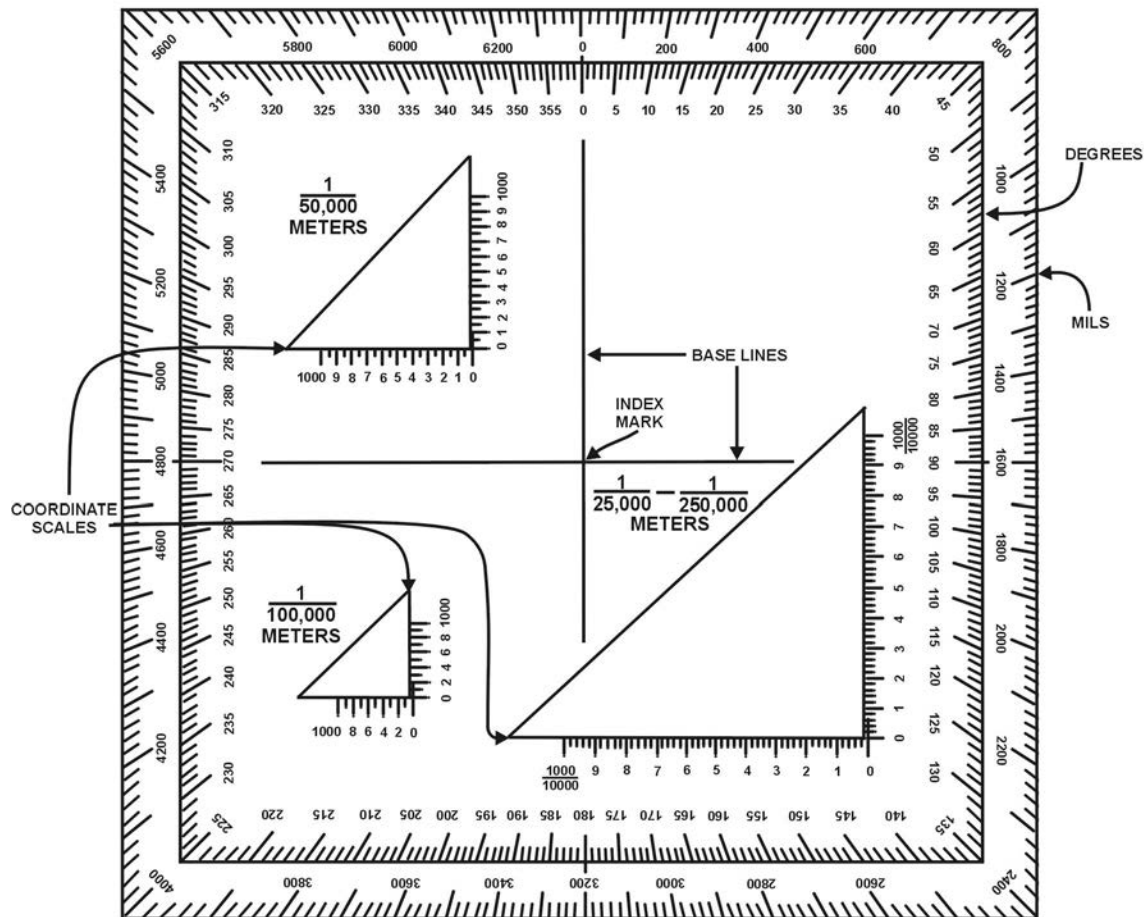


Fig. 1-7.

There are three coordinate scales located on your protractor: 1:100,000, 1:50,000, and 1:25,000. Use the one that corresponds with the scale of the map you are using. In most cases this will be 1:50,000. To locate point C in grid square 3050 using the coordinate scale on your protractor, use the following procedures:

- a. Place the proper coordinate scale of your protractor on the map so that the zero-zero

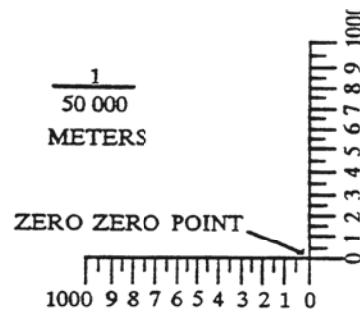


Fig. 1-8.

b. Place the zero-zero point at the LOWER LEFT hand corner of grid square 3050 (fig 1-9).

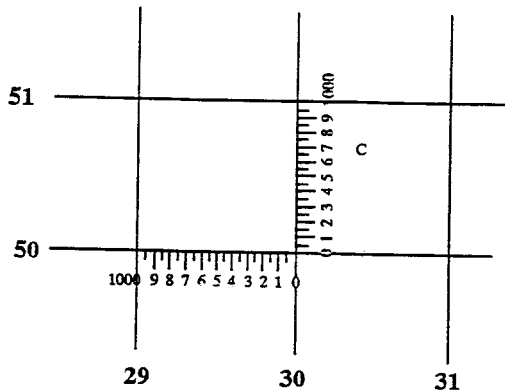


Fig. 1-9.

the complete UP reading of 507 (fig 1-10). When determining both your right and up reading, round your value to the closest number on your coordinate scale.

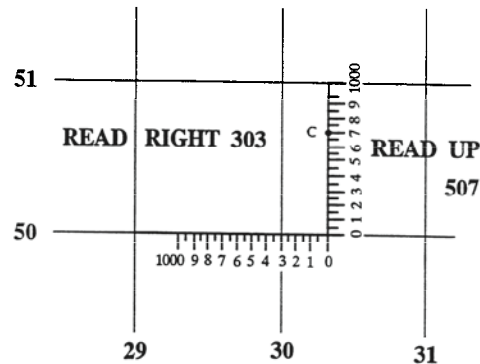


Fig. 1-10.

c. Keeping the horizontal line of the scale directly on top of the east-west grid line (in this case, grid line 50), slide it to the right until the vertical line of the scale touches the point (point C) for which the coordinates are desired (fig 1-10).

d. Examine the two sides of the coordinate scale to ensure that the horizontal line of the scale is aligned with the east-west grid line, and the vertical line of the scale is parallel with the north-south grid line.

e. Determine your **RIGHT reading** by first reading the value of the grid line to the left of point C (30). Add to this value the number which tells how far into the grid square point C is. In this case, it is 300 meters (fig 1-10). You now have the complete RIGHT reading of 303.

f. Next, determine your UP reading by first reading the value of the horizontal grid line below point C (50). Add to this value the number which tells how far point C is up in the grid square. In this case it is 700 meters. You now have

with the UP reading (507), you have accurately determined that the 6-digit grid coordinate of point C is 303507.

Locating Points on a Map

You have learned how to determine the grid coordinates of a given point on a map to within 100 meters (6-digits). Next you need to know the method of locating a point on your map when given a 6-digit grid coordinate. To locate a point on the map, using the coordinate scale on your protractor, use the following procedures:

a. Locate the correct grid square. To locate the correct grid square, determine the 4-digit grid coordinates from the given 6-digit grid coordinates.

Split your 6-digit coordinates into two parts. For example, the grid coordinates 025672 would be split to read 025 for your **RIGHT** reading, and 672 for your UP reading.

Determine the vertical (north-south) grid line. It is the first two numbers of your **RIGHT** reading.

02

Determine the horizontal (east-west) grid line. It is the first two numbers of your **UP** reading.

67

Determine your 4-digit grid coordinates. Combine the **RIGHT** with the UP reading.

02 + 67 = 0267

b. Plot the 6-digit coordinates. The procedures for plotting your grid coordinates are listed as follows:

Place the proper coordinate scale of your protractor with the zero-zero point at the lower left hand corner of the grid square 0267, keeping the horizontal line of the scale directly on top of the east-west grid line.

Examine the two sides of the coordinate scale to ensure that the horizontal line of the scale is aligned with the east-west grid line, and the vertical line of the scale is parallel with the north-south grid line (fig 1-11).

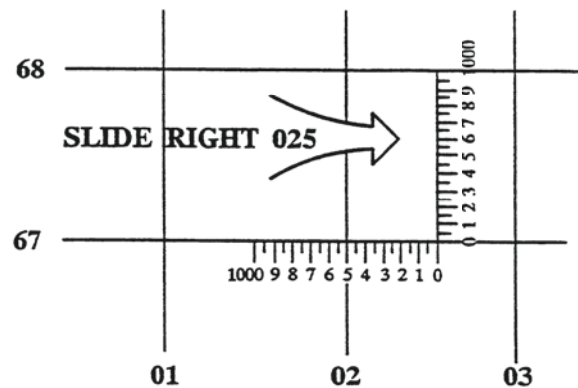
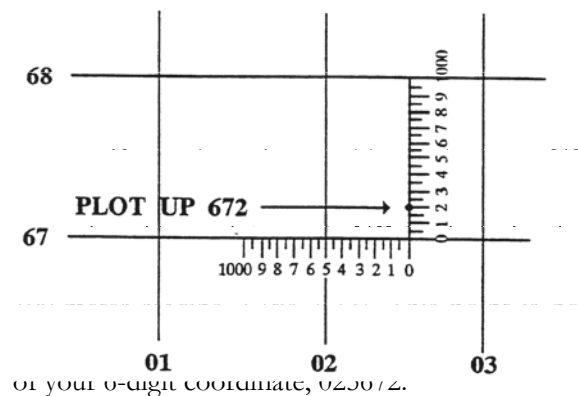
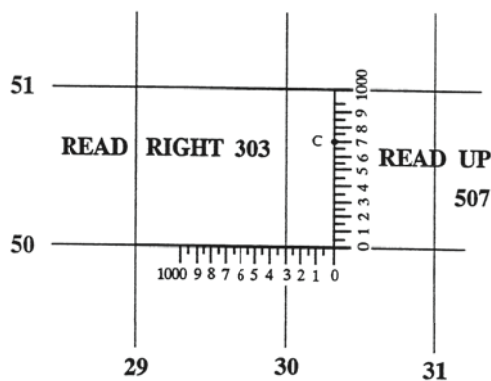


Fig 1-12. Slide coordinate scale to the right.



go back and review this lesson, as it is very important. ❖

Fig 1-13. Plot UP reading.

Fig. 1-13.

c. Through accurate plotting you have located the position of your 6-digit grid coordinate 025672. Remember, because this point is only accurate to within 100 meters, the actual point that you are trying to locate on the map may be up or down, or on one side or the other of your plot.

8-Digit Grid Coordinates

In some mapping situations, it is desirable to further divide a 100-meter grid square into 10-meter grid squares. This is done in the same manner as dividing a 1,000-meter grid square into 100-meter grid squares, either through estimation or by use of a coordinate scale. The result is an 8-digit grid coordinate which identifies a point on the map to within 10 meters. However, 6-digit grid coordinates, when accurately determined, should meet all your needs for effective land navigation. Therefore, in this course you will only be concerned with 4-digit (1,000-meter) and 6-digit (100-meter) grid coordinates.

Conclusion

During this lesson, you learned about grid coordinates, a simple concept that gives many people a difficult time. If you are still having problems with grid coordinates or if you have problems with the following lesson exercise, then

Determining Distance

PURPOSE

How far have you traveled since leaving your last checkpoint? How fast must you move to reach your next checkpoint before nightfall? How long will it take to reach the next source of water shown on your map? During this lesson, you will learn how to answer these questions and many others pertaining to time, rate, and distance so that you can successfully navigate to your objective.

Preparing to Measure Distance

There are several techniques of determining distance, each involving several considerations or steps. Regardless of which technique you use, accuracy is essential. Errors resulting from carelessness will be magnified thousands of times on the actual terrain. Each centimeter of error on a 1:50,000 scale map will reflect an error of 500 meters on the ground. Such errors will ultimately result in missed checkpoints and failure to successfully navigate to your objective. While all aspects of land navigation deserve particular attention, this is especially true when determining distance. You should take the following precautions when measuring distances:

- a. Isolate yourself to avoid being disturbed.
- b. Put the map on a flat surface and remove all the wrinkles.
- c. Use the most accurate measuring devices available, such as the bar scale at the bottom of your map.

- d. Keep the sharpest point possible on your pencil.
- e. Erase tick marks made on the map as soon as they have served their purpose.
- f. If you are using a piece of paper to tick off distance, erase the old tick marks or use a different side of the paper for each new measurement taken.
- g. Do not trust your memory. As soon as a measurement is made or distance determined, record and identify it on a separate sheet of paper.
- h. Take your time. Look straight down at the map to ensure that the tick marks and measuring devices are positioned correctly.
- i. Recheck your work. If possible, have another qualified person check it.

The Metric System of Measurement

In most foreign countries, the metric system of measurement is used. Since Marines must be able to operate in "any clime and place," it is essential that you learn the metric system of measurement and how it applies to land navigation. While completely understanding the metric system may be beneficial, there are only two units of measurement, which you need to be concerned with to navigate successfully - the **meter** and the **kilometer**.

- a. The meter is commonly used to express ground distances. It contains 39.37 inches or, when compared to the yard, it is 1.094 yards.

For practical purposes, you can visualize the meter as being slightly larger than a yard.

- b. The kilometer is used to express greater ground distances than would be practical to express in meters. Compared to the mile, the kilometer is equal to .621 of a mile. For practical purposes, you can visualize a kilometer as being slightly larger than 1/2 a mile. 1,000 meters = 1 kilometer.
- c. Often it is necessary to convert from meters to kilometers or kilometers to meters. This is accomplished by simply moving the decimal point the proper number of places and in the proper direction.
 - I. To convert meters to kilometers, move the decimal point three places to the **LEFT**.
 - II. Example: 1,250 meters = 1.250 kilometers

- III. To convert kilometers to meters, move the decimal point three places to the **RIGHT**, adding zeros when necessary.

Example: 3.41 kilometers = 3,410.00 meters

Graphic Scales

The coordinate scale you have been issued (fig 2-1) may also be used to determine distances of 1 kilometer or less. If a coordinate scale is used to determine ground distance, ensure it is the same scale as your map.

The straightedge of the **lensatic compass** is engraved with a graphic scale (fig 2-2). This graphic scale represents 6,000 meters of ground distance on a map with a scale of 1:50,000. This scale is divided by lines, into 100-meter increments.

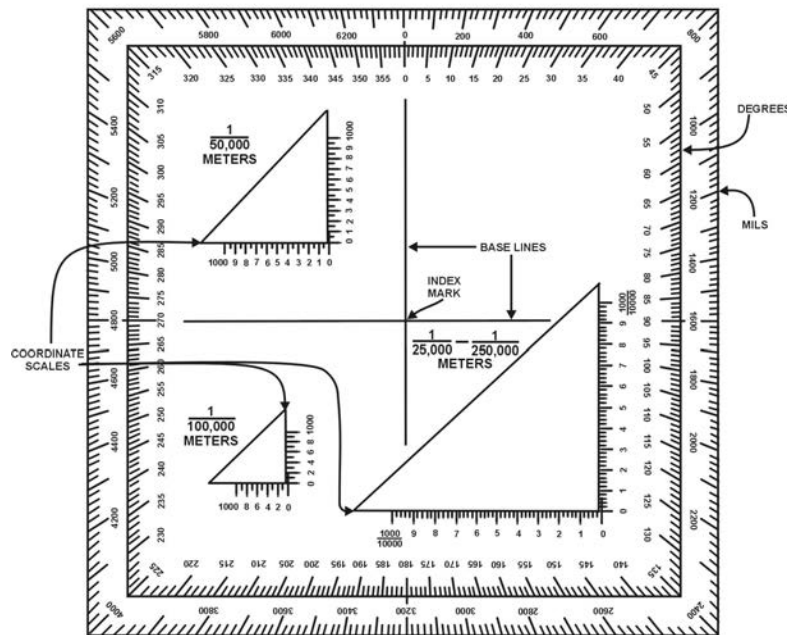


Fig 2-1.



Fig 2-2.

You may use the bar scale on your map to convert distances on the map to actual ground distances (fig 2-3). The bar scale is divided into two parts. To the right of the zero, the scale is marked in full units of measure and is called the primary scale. To the left of the zero, the scale is divided into tenths and is called the extension scale. Most maps have three or more bar scales, each using a different unit of measure. Be sure to use the correct scale for the unit of measure desired. The bar scale is the preferred technique for measuring distances over 1 kilometer (1,000 meters).

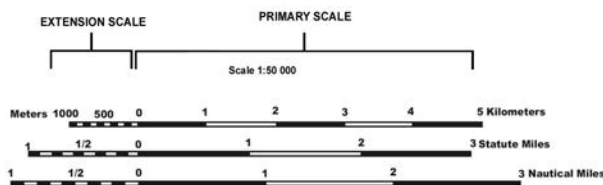


Fig 2-3.

Your choice of which graphic scale to use when determining ground distances is unimportant. If properly used, they will all produce the same results.

Determining Straight-line Distance

To determine straight-line distance between two points on a map, lay a straight-edged

piece of paper on the map so that the edge of paper touches both points and extends past them. Make a tick mark on the edge of the paper at each point (fig 2-4). Remember that the center of the topographic symbol accurately designates the true location of the object on the ground. Measure all map distances from the center of the topographic symbol.

To convert map distance to ground distance, move the paper down to the appropriate unit of measure on the graphic bar scale, and align the right tick mark (b) with a printed number in the primary scale so that the left tick mark (a) is in the extension scale (fig 2-5).

In this case the right tick mark (b) is aligned with the 3,000-meter mark in the primary scale, thus the distance is at least 3,000 meters. To determine the distance between the two points to the nearest 10 meters, look at the extension scale. The extension scale is numbered with zero at the right and increases to the left. When using the extension scale, always read **RIGHT TO LEFT** (fig 2-5). From the zero to the end of the first shaded square is 100 meters. From the beginning of the white square to the left is 100 to 200 meters; at the beginning of the second shaded square is 200 to 300 meters. Remember, the distance in the extension scale increases from right to left. To determine the distance from tick mark (a), estimate the distance inside the squares to the closest tenth. As you break down the distance between the squares in the extension scale, you will see that tick mark (a) is aligned with the 950-meter mark. Adding the distance of 3,000 meters determined in the primary scale, we find that the total distance between (a) and (b) is: $3,000 + 950 = 3,950$ meters.

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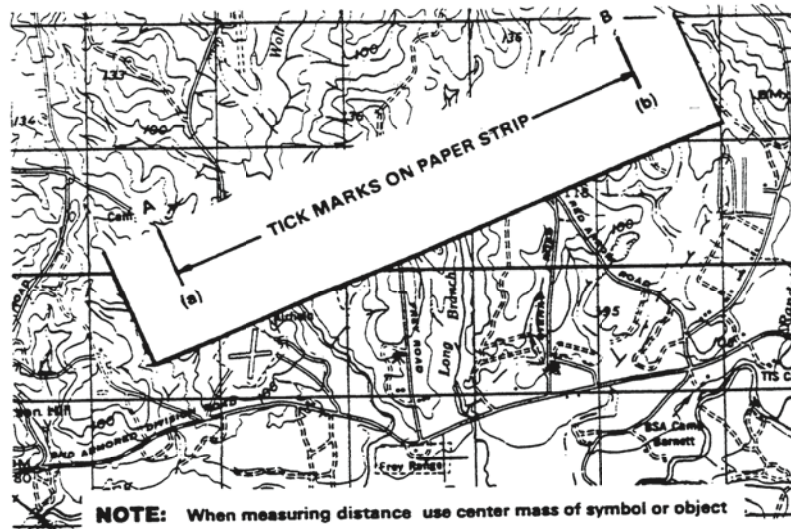


Fig 2-4.

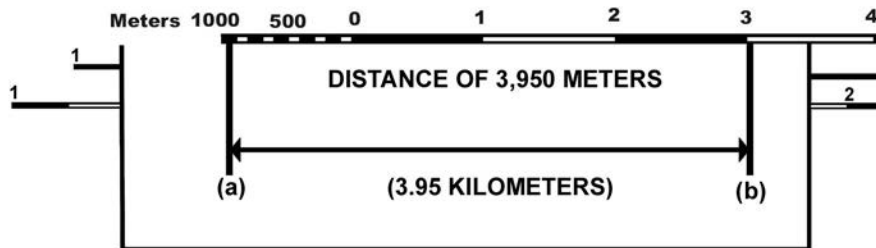


Fig 2-5.

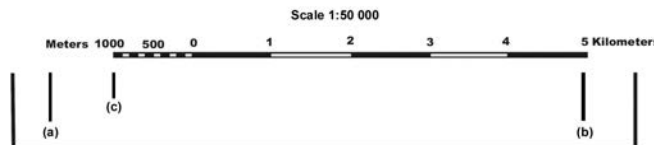


Fig 2-6.

There may be times when the distance you measure on the edge of the paper exceeds the graphic scale. One technique you can use to determine the distance is to align the right tick mark (b) with a printed number in the primary scale, in this case 5 kilometers (fig 2-6). You can see that from point (a) to (b) is more than 6,000

meters. To determine the distance to the nearest 10 meters, place a tick mark (c) on the edge of the paper at the end of the extension scale (fig 2-6).

You know that from point (b) to (c) is 6,000 meters (5,000 from the primary scale and 1,000 from the extension scale). Now, measure the distance between points (a) and (c) on your

sheet of paper the same way you did in paragraph 2104b, only use point (c) as your right hand tick mark (fig 2-7). The total ground distance between start and finish points is 6,420 meters.

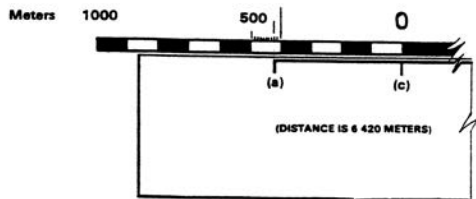


Fig 2-7.

One point to remember is that distance measured on a map does not take into consideration the rise and fall of the land. All distances measured by using the map and graphic scales are flat distances. Therefore, the distance measured on a map will increase when actually measured out on the ground (fig 2-8).

Determining Irregular Map Distance

To measure distance along a winding road, stream, or other curved line, you still use the straight edge of a piece of paper. In order to avoid confusion concerning the starting point and the ending point, a six-digit coordinate, combined with a description of the topographical feature, should be given for both the starting and ending points. Place a tick mark on the paper and map at the beginning point from which the curved line is to be measured. Place a paper strip or other material with a straightedge along the center of the irregular feature (fig 2-9), and extend the tick mark onto the paper strip. Because the paper strip is straight and the irregular feature is curved, the straightedge will eventually leave the center of the irregular feature. At the exact point where this occurs, place a tick mark on both the map and paper strip.

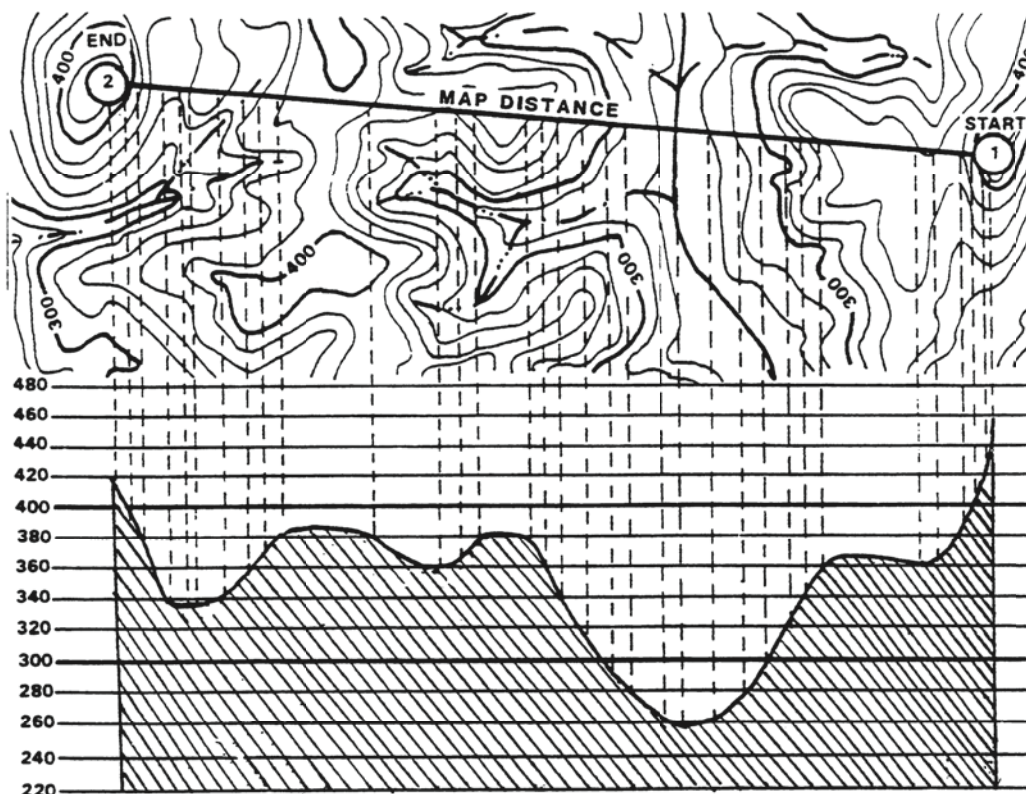


Figure 2-8.

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Keeping both tick marks together (on paper and map), place the point of the pencil close to the edge of the paper on the tick mark to hold it in place and pivot the paper until another straight portion of the curved line is aligned with the edge of the paper. Repeat this procedure while carefully aligning the straightedge with the center of the feature and placing tick marks on both the map and paper strip each time it leaves the center until you have ticked off the desired

distance (fig 2-10).

Place the paper strip on a graphic bar scale and determine the ground distance measured (fig 2-11).

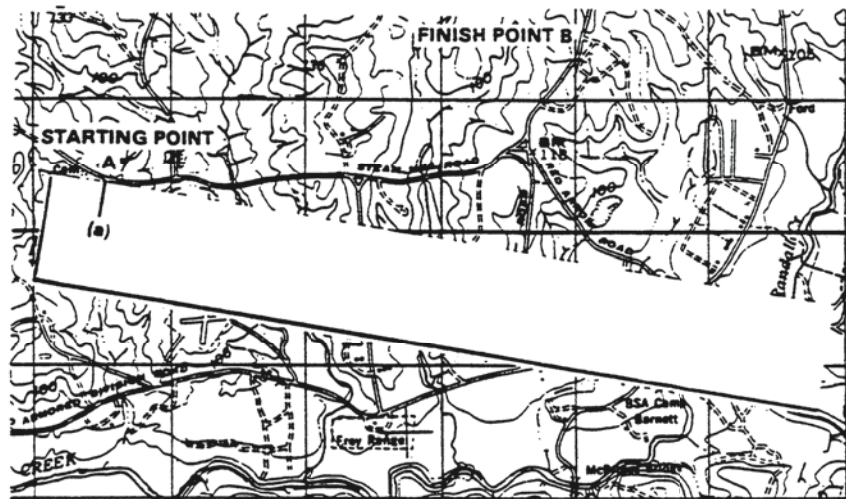


Figure 2-9.

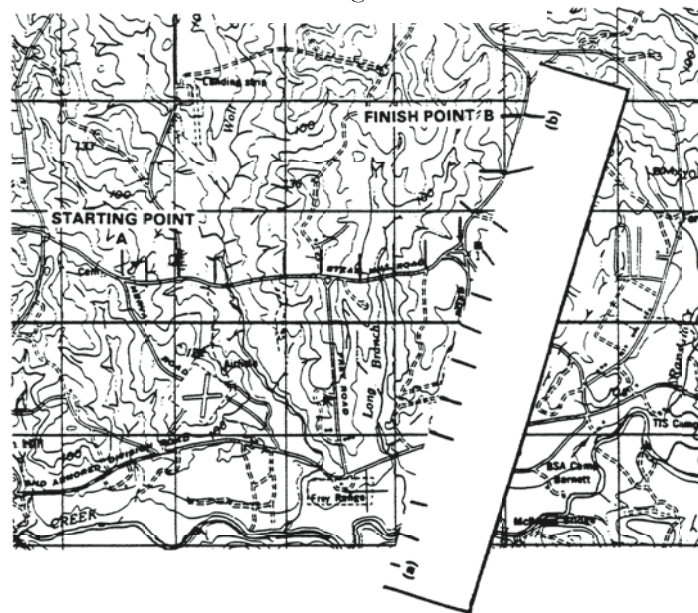


Figure 2-10.

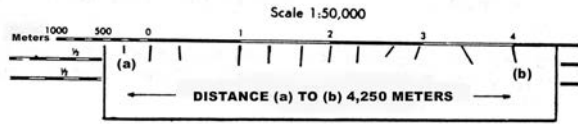


Figure 2-11

Time, Rate, and Distance

In practically every aspect of land navigation, you will ask questions dealing with time, rate, and distance. How long should it take me to reach my next checkpoint? How far must I travel? How far have I gone? Your success will often depend on how accurately you answer these and many other questions pertaining to time, rate, and distance. Time, rate, and distance--if you know two of these three factors, you can easily determine the third. Ensure that you express each factor in the proper units and exercise care in carrying out the calculation.

Time must be expressed in hours. If minutes are involved, convert them to a decimal part of an hour: to convert minutes to a decimal form, simply divide the number of minutes by 60 (the number of minutes in an hour).

Example: To convert 15 minutes to a decimal fraction, divide 15 by 60.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \underline{.25 \text{ hour}} \\
 60 \overline{)15.00} \\
 \underline{12 \ 0} \\
 3 \ 00 \\
 \underline{3 \ 00} \\
 0
 \end{array}$$

When you solve for TIME, the minutes portion will come out in decimal form. You may

want to convert this decimal fraction to minutes. To do so, multiply the decimal fraction by 60.

Example: To convert .35 hour to minutes:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 .35 \\
 \times \underline{60} \\
 \hline
 21.00 \text{ minutes}
 \end{array}$$

Express rate in miles per hour (mph) or kilometers per hour (kph). If a fraction of this rate is involved, express it in decimal form. To convert a common fraction to a decimal fraction, simply divide the bottom number (denominator) into the top number (numerator).

Example: To convert 1/4 kph into decimal form:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \underline{.25 \text{ kph}} \\
 4 \overline{)1.00} \\
 \underline{8} \\
 20 \\
 \underline{20} \\
 0
 \end{array}$$

The normal rate of march for foot troops over normal terrain is 4 kilometers per hour (2.5 mph).

Normal Terrain: 4 kph

When traveling through thick jungle, swamps, or other restrictive terrain, the normal rate will vary. As a rule of thumb when traveling through such terrain, assume your rate to be no more than 1/2 the normal rate, or 2 kilometers per hour.

Restrictive Terrain: 2 kph

At times when speed is essential, troops may greatly exceed the normal rate of march and approach a rate of 8 kph.

Speed is Essential: 8 kph

If you must estimate the rate at which you have been moving, use 4 kph as a basis. If you feel you have been moving faster or slower than the normal rate, adjust your estimation accordingly.

Distance must be expressed in miles or kilometers. If a part of a mile or kilometer is involved or a lesser unit of measure is used, it must be expressed as a decimal part of a mile or kilometer. To convert a part of a mile or kilometer expressed as a common fraction to a decimal fraction, divide the bottom number (denominator) into the top number (numerator).

Example: To convert 3/4 of a kilometer to a decimal fraction:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \underline{.75} \text{ km (kilometer)} \\
 4 \overline{)3.00} \\
 \underline{28} \\
 20 \\
 \underline{20} \\
 0
 \end{array}$$

Time, Rate, and Distance Problems

In the previous section you learned how to convert time, rate, and distances measurements into the proper units of measurement. In this section you will learn how to solve time, rate, and distance problems.

To determine time required. If you know the average speed at which you will be moving (rate) and how far you are going (distance), you can find out how long it will take to travel that distance by dividing the **DISTANCE** by the

RATE where T = Time, D = Distance, and R = Rate:

$$T = \frac{D}{R} \quad \text{OR} \quad \frac{T}{R} = \frac{D}{R}$$

Example: How long will it take to travel 16 1/4 km at a rate of 5 kph?

Solution:

(1) Convert 16 1/4 to a decimal fraction: If 1/4 = .25, then 16 1/4 = 16.25

(2) Following your formula T = D/R, divide the Distance (16.25) by the Rate (5).

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \underline{3.25} \text{ hours} \\
 5 \overline{)16.25} \\
 \underline{15} \\
 12 \\
 \underline{10} \\
 25 \\
 \underline{25} \\
 0
 \end{array}$$

To determine rate required. If you know the distance you must travel and how much time you have to travel it in, you can determine how fast you must travel (rate) in order to arrive at your objective at the prescribed time by dividing the **DISTANCE** by the **TIME**. Where T = Time, D = Distance, and R = Rate:

$$R = \frac{D}{T} \quad \text{OR} \quad \frac{R}{T} = \frac{D}{T}$$

Example: You have 2 hours and 15 minutes to travel 6 3/4 kilometers At what rate must you travel?

Solution:

(1) Convert the distance to a decimal form: $6 \frac{3}{4}$
= 6.75 km.

(2) Convert the minutes involved in the time into decimal form: 15 min = .25 hr, therefore 2 hr 15 min = 2.25 hr.

(3) Following your formula $R = D/T$, divide the distance (6.75) by the time (2.25).

$$\begin{array}{r} \underline{\quad} 3 \text{ kph} \\ 2.25 \overline{)6.75} \\ \underline{6.75} \\ 0 \end{array}$$

You must travel at a rate of 3 kph to cover $6 \frac{3}{4}$ kilometers in the allotted time of 2 hours and 15 minutes.

To determine **distance** involved. If you know the average rate at which you have been traveling and for how long you have traveled at that rate, you can determine the distance you have traveled by multiplying the TIME by the RATE. Where T = Time, D = Distance, and R = Rate:

$$\mathbf{D = T \times R}$$

Example: You have been moving at an average rate of 4 kph since 0630 this morning. It is now 1300. How far have you traveled?

Solution:

(1) Determine the number of hours involved:
0630 to 1300 = $6\frac{1}{2}$ hr = 6.5 hrs.

(2) Following your formula $D = T \times R$, multiply the time(6.5 hrs) by the rate (4 kph).
 $6.5 \times 4 = 26.0$ km

Conclusion

During this lesson you have learned about the metric system, measuring straight and irregular distances on a map, and solving time, rate, distance problems. During the next lesson, you will learn about azimuths. ❖

Azimuths

PURPOSE

There are many ways of expressing direction, such as the clock system used to designate the wind direction on the rifle range, and the “right front,” “left front,” used in target designation. While these and other means are sometimes used in land navigation, the most accurate, most reliable, and the most often used method of expressing direction is in terms of an **azimuth**. In this lesson, we will teach you how to determine azimuths.

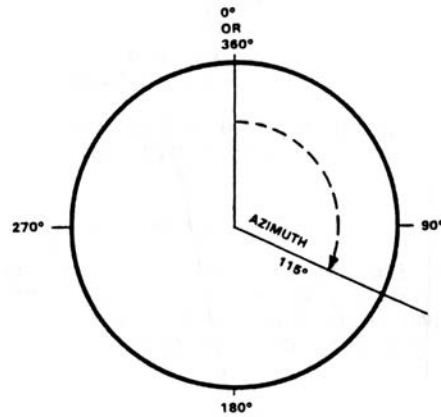


Figure 2-12

Azimuth Defined

An azimuth is a straight line from one point to another. This definition, however, leaves much to be desired in understanding the complete meaning of the word azimuth as it applies to land navigation. Therefore, the following definition is required: an azimuth is an angle measured in a clockwise direction from a predetermined base line. Before attempting to determine or follow an azimuth in the field, you must have a clear understanding of each part of this definition:

An azimuth is an angle . . . which means that it is part of a circle. But just how much of a circle does each azimuth represent? If a circle were divided into 360 equal “slices of pie” each slice would be one degree (fig 2-12). Additionally, each degree can be broken down into 60 “minutes.” Just as there are 60 minutes in an hour, there are also 60 minutes (60’) in a degree. Thus, an azimuth can be expressed as 5° 15’ (5 degrees, 15 minutes).

. . . Measured in a clockwise direction . . .

When we say that an azimuth is an angle measured in a clockwise direction, we mean that each of the angles discussed above must have a starting point and from there progress in numerical value in a clockwise direction around the circle until it returns to the starting point. The starting point has a value of 0°, or (since it is also the final direction line) 360°. It may be expressed as either 0° or 360°. Since the degree value of azimuths always progresses in a clockwise direction, all azimuths between 0° and 180° will be on the right side of the imaginary circle and all azimuths between 180° and 360° will be on the left side of the circle (fig 2-12).

Keep in mind that there are only 360° in a circle. When working map problems, if you mathematically arrive at a figure exceeding 360°, then you have gone completely around the circle and started over again. For example, if you add 15° to 350°, it would be expressed as 5°, NOT 365°.

. . . *From a predetermined base line...* When we say that an azimuth is an angle measured in a clockwise direction from a predetermined base line, we mean that it is a certain number of degrees measured in a clockwise direction from some sort of reference point. It is this portion of the definition that causes the most misunderstanding, confusion, and often loss of direction in the field. This reference point or base line we are referring to is north. There are three base lines--**true north**, **magnetic north**, and **grid north** (fig 2-13). The most commonly used are magnetic and grid north.

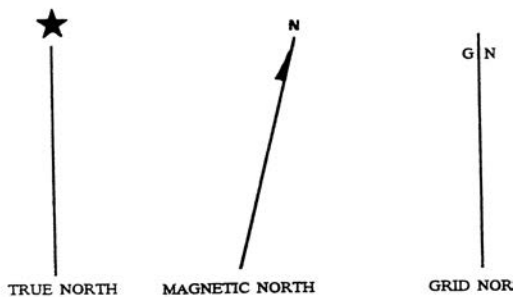


Figure 2-13

(1) *True North.* The true north line is a line from any point on the earth's surface to the North Pole. True north can be found at night by locating the North Star, which always points towards true north (this will be covered in Study Unit 6). True north is usually represented on the declination diagram by a line ending with a star (fig 2-13). True north is used almost exclusively when navigating without a compass.

(2) *Magnetic North.* The earth has a magnetic field that is close to (but not exactly on) the North Pole. The direction to this north magnetic pole is indicated by the north-seeking arrow of your lensatic compass. Magnetic north is usually symbolized on the declination diagram by a line ending with a half arrowhead (fig 2-13). Anytime

you use the compass to plan or follow an azimuth in the field, you must work with azimuths measured from magnetic north.

(3) *Grid North.* This base line is established by using the vertical grid lines on the map. Grid north may be symbolized on the declination diagram by the letters GN (fig 2-13). Anytime you use a protractor in conjunction with a vertical grid line to determine or plot an azimuth on a map, you must work with an azimuth measured from grid north.

When using grid north and magnetic north as base lines, you need to understand the difference between a **grid azimuth** and a **magnetic azimuth**: A grid azimuth is an angle measured in a clockwise direction from grid north. A magnetic azimuth is an angle measured in a clockwise direction from magnetic north.

Determining a Grid Azimuth

There are two methods of measuring grid azimuths from one point to another on the map. Whichever method you use, remember that you are dealing with grid azimuths. A grid azimuth CAN NOT be followed with a compass.

Protractor and string method: To use this method, you must first modify your protractor. Using a needle and piece of thread, punch a small hole through the index mark of your protractor. (The thread should be about 6 inches long). Tie a knot in the thread on each side of the protractor as close to the index line as possible to secure the thread to the protractor. Now you are ready to go. *Step 1:* Place the index mark on your starting point. Ensure that the vertical base line is parallel with a north-south grid line and the horizontal base line is parallel with an east-west grid line. *Step 2:* Holding the protractor firmly against the map with one hand, stretch the piece of thread

with your other hand so that the thread intersects your second point. *Step 3:* The point where the thread intersects the inside scale of the protractor is your azimuth (the outside scale is in mils). This is the grid azimuth from the starting point to the second point.

Protractor and pencil method: Before we get started with the steps for this method, you need to understand something. If you go in a straight line from one point to another, does the azimuth ever change? Of course not. No matter where you are on that line of march, as long as you maintain a straight line, the azimuth never changes.

Remember that when you get to Steps 1 and 3 for this method. *Step 1:* Using a straight edge, draw a line connecting the two points (fig 2-14). This line needs to be at least 4 inches long so that the line reaches the edge of the protractor in Step 4. *Step 2:* Label the two points A and B, with point A being your starting position (fig 2-14). *Step 3:* Place the index mark of your protractor on the line you just drew where that line intersects a vertical grid line. *This point should be as close to point A as possible.* Ensure that the entire vertical base line on your protractor is directly on the vertical grid line that your line intersects. If it is not, then your azimuth reading will be inaccurate. **Note:** The reason for placing the index mark on a point where your line intersects a vertical (or horizontal) grid line instead of directly on point A is so that you get a more accurate reading. Remember, as long as you are on that straight line from point A to point B, the azimuth doesn't change. *Step 4:* The point where the line intersects the *inside* scale of the protractor is your azimuth (the outside scale is in mils). This is the grid azimuth from point A to point B.

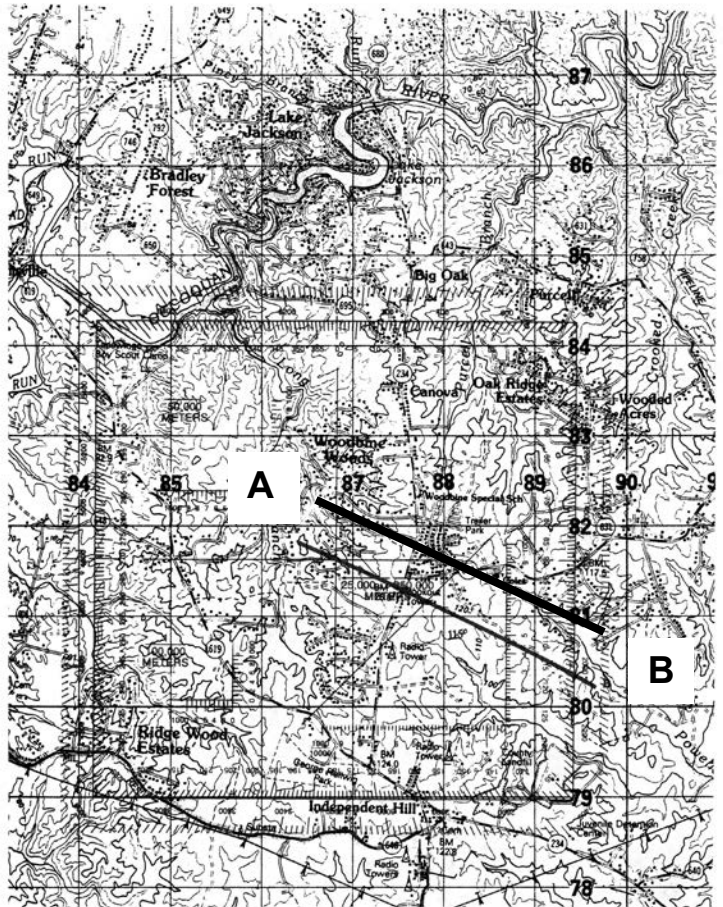


Figure 2-14

Plotting a Grid Azimuth

To plot a grid azimuth on a map, follow these steps (fig 2-15): *Step 1:* Place the protractor on the map with the index mark at center mass of the known point. *Step 2:* Ensure that the protractor's vertical base line is parallel with the closest north-south grid line and the horizontal base line is parallel with an east-west grid line. *Step 3:* Make a mark on the map at the desired grid azimuth. *Step 4:* Remove the protractor and draw a line connecting the known point and the mark on the map. You have now plotted the grid azimuth. *Step 5:* To plot a known distance onto that azimuth, use a piece of paper to transfer the

distance from the scale to the plotted azimuth.

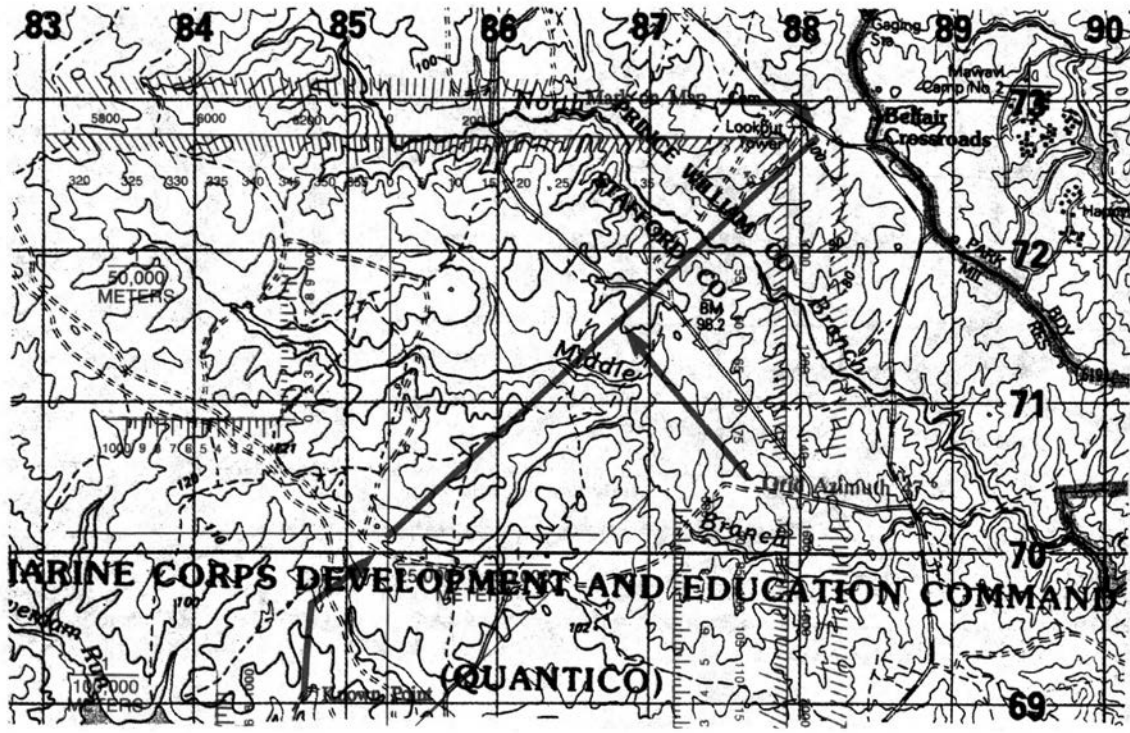


Figure 2-15

Note: Remember, the azimuth you have just plotted is a grid azimuth. It cannot be followed using a compass.

Determining a Back Azimuth

A back azimuth is the opposite direction of an azimuth. It is the same as doing an “about face.”

To obtain a back azimuth from an azimuth, refer to figure 2-16: Add 180° if the azimuth is 180° or less or subtract 180° if the azimuth is 180° or more.

Converting Azimuths

Because there is an angular difference between grid north and magnetic north, a conversion from magnetic to grid or vice versa is needed.

Declination diagram. As previously discussed, azimuths measured with a protractor are grid azimuths (measured from grid north), and azimuths determined with the compass are magnetic azimuths (measured from magnetic north). You cannot follow a grid azimuth with a compass, nor can you plot a magnetic azimuth with a protractor because of the angular difference between grid north and magnetic north.

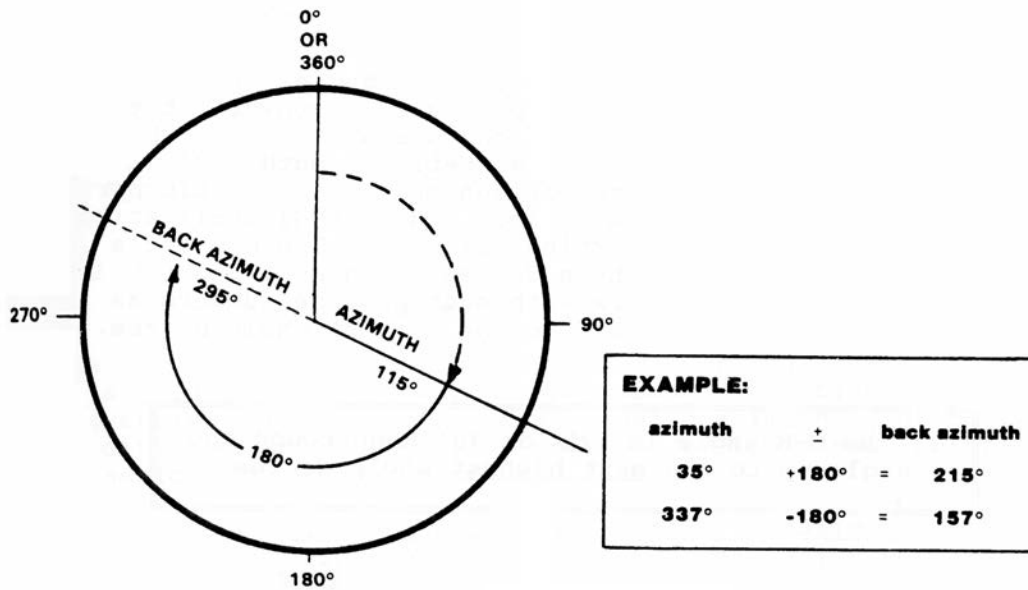


Figure 2-16

This angular difference (between grid north and magnetic north) is called **G-M ANGLE (Grid-Magnetic angle)**. The G-M angle varies for each map.

Because of this angular difference (the G-M angle), before you can plot a magnetic azimuth on a map, you must convert it to a grid azimuth. Likewise, before you can use a grid azimuth to navigate, you must convert it to a magnetic azimuth. Declination diagrams display the difference between grid and magnetic north. A complete set of instructions is included in MOST declination diagrams for your use in converting azimuths. The G-M angle often is not expressed as a whole degree, such as $\frac{1}{2}^\circ$ or $7^\circ 15'$. Since you will not need to work with such precise numbers as minutes, round the G-M angle off to the nearest whole degree. If the G-M angle is $\frac{1}{2}^\circ$ or $30'$, round the angle up to the next highest whole degree.

For example, the G-M angle that you use on your Margarita Peak Map is 14° . What G-M angle would you use if the map's G-M angle was $5\frac{1}{4}^\circ$? That's right, 5° . What if it was $3^\circ 40'$? Right again, 4° . Remember, there are 60' (minutes) in one degree, so 40' is over $\frac{1}{2}^\circ$ so you round up to the next higher degree.

Remember, use 14° as the G-M angle for the Margarita Peak map.

Conversion notes. Refer to the conversion notes that appear with the declination diagrams explaining the use of the G-M angle (fig 2-17). Refer to paragraph c to see how to use G-M angles on maps that do not have conversion notes.

One note provides instructions for converting a magnetic azimuth to a grid azimuth. The other provides instructions for converting a grid azimuth to a magnetic azimuth. The

conversion (addition or subtraction) is governed by the direction of magnetic north relative to grid north.

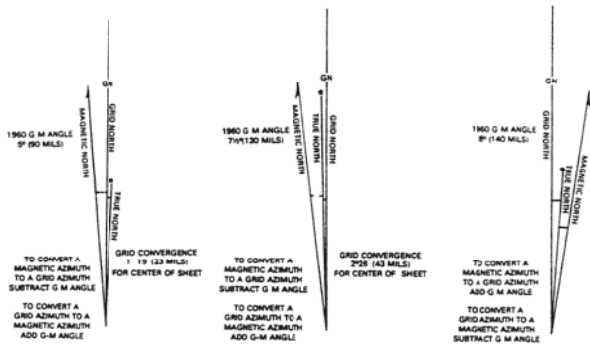


Figure 2-17

Converting grid azimuths to magnetic azimuths.

Examine the declination diagram on your Margarita Peak map. The conversion note states: To convert a grid azimuth to a magnetic azimuth, subtract g-m angle. To convert a 39° grid azimuth to a magnetic azimuth you simply follow the instructions. Subtracting the G-M angle (14°) from the grid azimuth (39°), you get the correct magnetic azimuth of 25°.

Converting magnetic azimuths to grid azimuths.

Again, examine the declination diagram on your Margarita Peak map. The conversion note states: To convert a magnetic azimuth to a grid azimuth, add G-M angle.

Converting G-M angles without conversion notes.

If your declination diagram doesn't have conversion notes, how will you know whether to ADD or SUBTRACT the G-M angle? This is rather simple. Look at the examples of the declination diagrams in figure 2-18. In the declination diagrams on the left and in the middle you will notice that magnetic north is to the left of grid north. In other figures, as in the declination diagram on the right, magnetic north is to the

right of grid north. To convert grid azimuths and magnetic azimuths on declination diagrams that do not have conversion notes, use the simple acronym LARS (Left - Add, Right - Subtract).

To convert a 238° magnetic azimuth to a grid azimuth you simply follow the instructions. Adding the G-M angle (14°) to the magnetic azimuth (238°), gives you the correct grid azimuth of 252°.

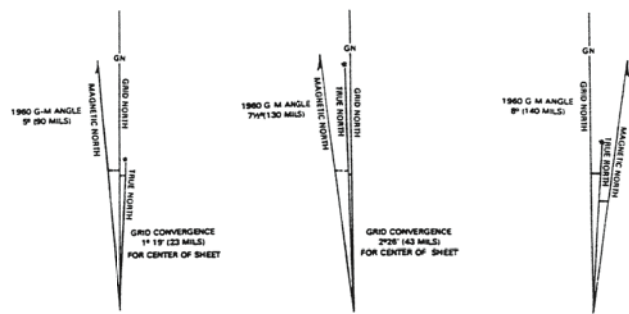


Figure 2-18

Converting magnetic azimuths to grid azimuths.

Look at your declination diagram (any map will work). If you want to convert a magnetic azimuth to a grid azimuth, put your finger on the magnetic north line on the declination diagram. Which way do you have to move your finger to get to the grid azimuth? If you move your finger to the **LEFT**, then ADD the G-M angle to the magnetic azimuth to get the proper grid azimuth. If you move your finger to the **RIGHT**, then SUBTRACT the G-M angle to get the proper grid azimuth.

Converting grid azimuths to magnetic azimuths.

It works the same way for converting grid azimuths to magnetic azimuths. Put your finger on the grid north line on the declination diagram. If you move your finger to the **LEFT** to get to the

magnetic azimuth, then ADD the G-M angle. If you move your finger to the RIGHT, then SUBTRACT the G-M angle to get the proper magnetic azimuth.

Look at the declination diagram on your Margarita Peak map. Without looking at the conversion notes, do you have to add or subtract the G-M angle to convert a grid azimuth to a magnetic azimuth? What do you do when converting a magnetic azimuth to a grid azimuth? Now look at the conversion notes. Did you get it right? Look at the middle declination diagram in figure 2-18. To convert a magnetic azimuth to a grid azimuth do you add or subtract (and what is the G-M angle)? The correct answer is, you SUBTRACT 8°.

Conclusion

During this important lesson, you have learned the difference between the three types of norths and when they are used. You have also learned how to determine and plot grid azimuths using a protractor and how to plot known distances onto plotted azimuths. From there, you learned how to determine back azimuths, how to determine and use the G-M angle, and how to use the acronym LARS to convert grid azimuths and magnetic azimuths. ❖

Terrain Features

PURPOSE

To navigate on land, you must have a clear understanding of the terrain that you and your squad must travel. One way to do this is through a comprehensive map study. You must be able to study a map and understand how the mapmaker shows elevation and relief. This understanding will enable you to visualize the hills, valleys, cliffs, and other terrain features that will affect your navigation. During these next lessons, you will learn about elevation and relief.

Introduction

As you plan and execute land navigation, you must be able to recognize and associate ground forms, which you see or expect to see on the ground with the same features shown by contour lines on the map. Once you can recognize these ground forms and understand their characteristics, you can better use certain terrain features to your advantage and avoid those that might hinder you. The following defines the different types of terrain features.

Hill

Representation. A hill is an area of high ground. From a hilltop, the ground slopes down in all directions. A hill is shown on a map by contour lines forming concentric circles. The inside of the smallest closed circle is the hilltop.

Application to navigation. Your ability to recognize hills on a map will help you greatly in land navigation. You can plan your routes to

avoid unnecessary travel over them. Checkpoints can be chosen on or near a prominent hilltop.

You can use a distant prominent hilltop to guide you. Identifying hilltops on the ground and on the map can help you locate your position accurately (see Handout 1).

Ridge

Representation. A ridge is a series of hills connected to each other near the top. A ridge line may extend for many miles. It may be winding or quite straight. It may have a reasonably uniform elevation along its top or it may vary greatly in elevation.

Application to navigation. A ridge often serves as an ideal reference line during both day and night. If a map study shows that the ridge is constantly on your left, then as long as you can see the familiar characteristics of the ridge silhouetted against the skyline on your left, you know that you are heading in the proper general direction. After passing through thick terrain, if the ridge line is no longer on your left, you know you are heading in the wrong general direction. It is normally easier to maintain direction, observe steering marks, and move with less obstruction by moving along the top of the ridge as opposed to the sides of the ridge (if the tactical disadvantage of being silhouetted against the skyline is not a determining factor, and if the top of the ridge is fairly uniform) (see Handout 1).

Saddle

Representation. This is a dip or low point between two areas of higher ground. A saddle is not necessarily the lower ground between two hilltops; it may be simply a dip or break along a level ridge crest. If you are in a saddle, there is high ground in two opposite directions and low

ground in the other two directions. A saddle is normally represented as an hourglass or by figure-eight shaped contour lines.

Application to navigation. A distinct, unmistakable saddle will often provide a suitable checkpoint or steering mark. Also, if you must cross a ridge, it is normally easiest to cross it at a saddle (see Handout 1).

Finger

Representation. A finger is a short, continuous sloping line of higher ground, normally jutting out from the side of a ridge or hill. A finger is often formed by two roughly parallel draws. The ground slopes down in three directions and up in one. Contour lines on a map depict a finger with the U or V pointing away from high ground.

Application to navigation. A distinct, unmistakable finger may be chosen as a checkpoint or steering mark. In the defense, fingers provide good fields of view for observation posts. During movement, there is a chance of being skylined when traveling on fingers (see Handout 1).

Draw

Representation. A draw is a short, continuous sloping line of low ground, normally cut into the side of a ridge or hill. Often, there is a small stream running down the draw. In a draw, there is essentially no level ground. Therefore, little or no maneuver room exists within its confines. If you are standing in the middle of a draw, the ground slopes upward in three directions and downward in the other direction. Contour lines (see Handout 1) on a map depict a draw with the U or V pointing toward high ground.

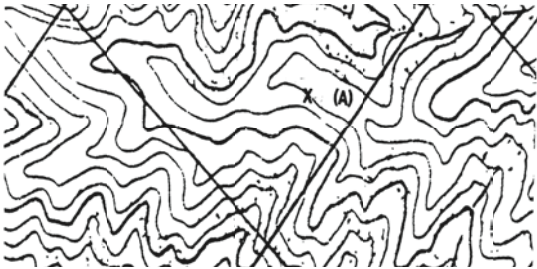
Application to navigation. A draw may or may not be a wise route to follow. The sides of a draw are often steep. The sides of draws are normally steeper than the fingers on both sides of the draw. Fingers normally have convex slopes while draws normally have concave slopes. Therefore, when you must climb a hill, draws provide an easy route at the bottom of the hill, but the route gets more difficult near the top when the sides of draws are normally quite steep. Draws often provide good concealment during movement, but if the draw is covered by an enemy machinegun, it could become a death trap due to its steep sides. A draw can be used to maintain direction.

Distinguishing between draws and fingers. Look at point (a) on the next page. Is it a finger or a draw? If you think it is a finger, you are wrong. If you think it is a draw, you also are wrong. You see, from the amount of information given in the figure, you can not tell what type of terrain feature it is. You MUST look at the surrounding terrain features. If there is a hill in the direction of the open end of the "U," then the feature is a finger; if not, then it is a draw. If there is a stream in the middle of the feature, then is it a finger or a draw? That's right, a draw. Along those lines, here's a trivia question for you - which way does the closed end of the "U" of the contour lines point on a stream, upstream or downstream? You already have enough information to answer this. Which way does the closed end of the "U" of the contour lines point in a draw? And where are streams, in draws or fingers? So the correct answer is that the closed end of the "U" points UPSTREAM.

Valley

Representation. A valley is a continuous line of low ground that normally rests in between two

roughly parallel ridges. Valleys often have streams or rivers running through them (see Handout 1).



Application to navigation. If you are navigating through a valley that has a stream, keep in mind that while the stream bed provides a relatively vegetation-free, easy to-follow route, it will often meander back and forth across the valley floor. During inclement weather, many streams are subject to flash flooding. Additionally, the banks of streams, creeks, and rivers often contain mud flats, marshes, and extremely thick vegetation. During tactical foot movements, keep in mind the need for security and silent movement. Moving silently while wading in water requires a great deal of effort on the part of each Marine. Therefore, while the trace of a stream will often provide an ideal reference line, it is recommended that you move away from the stream and use the valley as a reference point.

Cuts and fills

Representation.

A *CUT* is a manmade feature resulting from cutting through high ground, usually to form a level bed for a road or railroad track. Cuts are drawn with a contour line along the cut line. This contour line extends the length of the cut and has tick marks that extend from the cut line to the roadbed, if the map scale permits this level of detail (see Handout 1).

A *FILL* is a manmade feature resulting from filling a low area, usually to form a level bed for a road or railroad track. Fills are drawn with contour lines along the fill line. This contour line extends the length of the filled area and has tick marks that point toward lower ground. If the map scale permits, the length of the fill tick marks are drawn to scale and extend from the base line of the fill (see Handout 1).

Application to navigation. Prominent cuts and fills can often be used as checkpoints. If the map shows that a road or railroad is punctuated with cuts and fills, it indicates that efforts have been made to eliminate radical changes in slope.

Depression

Representation. This is a low point in the ground or a sinkhole. It is an area of low ground surrounded by higher ground in all directions, or simply a hole in the ground. Usually only depressions that are equal to or greater than the contour interval will be shown. On maps, depressions are represented by closed contour lines that have tick marks pointing toward low ground (see Handout 1).

Application to navigation. Prominent depressions can often be used as checkpoints. Because of the usually steep sides of depressions, bypass them if possible.

Cliff

Representation. A cliff is a vertical or near vertical terrain feature. It is an abrupt change of the land. When a slope is so steep that the contour lines converge into one "carrying" contour of contours, this last contour line sometimes has tick marks pointing toward low ground (see Handout 1).

Application to navigation. Prominent cliffs can often be used as checkpoints. Because of the

steep face of a cliff, it should be bypassed.

Conclusion

During this lesson, you learned about the various terrain features, how they are depicted on maps, and their application to land navigation. During the next lesson, you will learn about the four types of slopes, as well as contour lines and intervals and their military significance.❖

Slope and Contour Lines

PURPOSE

The terrain you navigate will contain wide varieties of ground forms. Each hill may have a combination of different types of slopes, which offer either an advantage or disadvantage to land navigation. To determine the best routes for navigation, you must be able to recognize the characteristics of contour lines used to show these types of slopes on the map.

Introduction

Depending on your mission, you may need to determine not only the elevation of a hill, but the hill's **slope** as well. The rate of rise or fall of a hill is known as its slope.

Types of Slopes

The slope of the ground affects the speed at which equipment or personnel can move. This slope can be determined from the map by studying the contour lines--the closer the contour lines, the steeper the slope; the farther apart the contour lines, the gentler the slope. The four types of slopes that you should be concerned with are:

Uniform gentle slope. Contour lines showing a uniform, gentle slope are evenly spaced and wide apart (see Handout 1). Considering relief only (not vegetation, manmade features, etc), a uniform, gently slope allows the defender to use

grazing fire, while the attacking force has to climb a slight incline.

Uniform, steep slope. Contour lines showing a uniform, steep slope are evenly spaced, but close together. Remember, the closer the contour lines, the steeper the slope (see Handout 1). Considering relief only, a uniform, steep slope allows the defender to use grazing fire, while the attacking force has to negotiate a steep incline.

Concave slope. Contour lines showing a concave slope on a map are closely spaced at the top of the terrain feature and widely spaced at the bottom (see Handout 1). The slope is bowed INWARD. Considering relief only, the defender at the top of the slope can observe the entire slope and the terrain at the bottom, but he cannot use grazing fire. The attacker will have no cover from the defender's observation of fire, and his climb will become more difficult as he goes farther up the slope.

Convex slope. Contour lines showing a convex slope on a map are widely spaced at the top and closely spaced at the bottom (see Handout 1). The slope is bowed OUTWARD. Considering relief only, the defender at the top of the convex slope can obtain a small distance of grazing fire, but he cannot observe most of the slope or the terrain at the bottom. The attacker will have concealment on most of the slope and an easier climb as he nears the top.

Definitions

To fully understand elevation and relief, you must have a clear understanding of certain terms.

Datum Plane. There must be a reference or starting point to measure anything. The starting point for vertical measurement of elevation on standard military maps is the datum plane or mean sea level, the point halfway between high tide and low tide.

Elevation. The elevation of a point on the earth's surface is the vertical distance it is above or below the datum plane (mean sea level).

Relief. Relief is the representation (as depicted by the map maker) of the shape of hills, valleys, streams, or landforms on the earth's surface.

Contour Lines. Contour lines are the most common method of showing relief and elevation on standard topographic maps. A contour line represents an imaginary line on the ground, above or below sea level. All points on the contour line are at the same elevation. The three types of contour lines used on a standard topographic map are as follows:

(1) *Index.* Starting at zero elevation or mean sea level, every fifth contour line is thicker than the other contour lines. These are known as **index contour lines** (see figure 3-14). Normally, each index contour line is numbered at some point. This number is the elevation of that line above mean sea level.

(2) *Intermediate.* The contour lines falling between the index contour lines are called intermediate contour lines (see figure 3-14). These lines are thinner than index contour lines. Intermediate contour lines are only numbered if there are no index contour lines in the area (for example, the intermediate contour line at grid coordinate 588839 on your Margarita Peak map is labeled 40 meters). There are normally four intermediate contour lines between index contour lines.

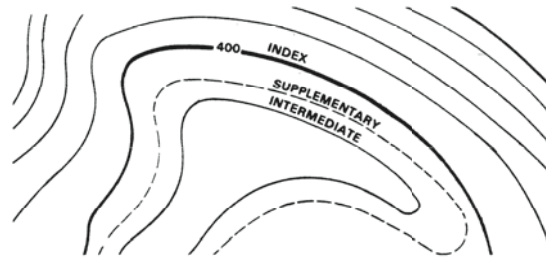


Figure 3-14

(3) *Supplementary.* These contour lines resemble dashes. They show sudden changes in elevation of at least one-half the contour interval (see figure 3-14).

Hachures. Hachures are short broken lines used to show relief. Hachures are sometimes used with contour lines. They do not represent exact elevations, but are mainly used to show large, rocky outcrop areas, and depressions (See figure 3-15).



Figure 3-15

Elevation

Contour Interval. Before you can determine the elevation of a point on the map, you must know the contour interval. This is given in the marginal information of your map (normally at the lower middle portion of the map). The contour interval measurement is the vertical distance between adjacent contour lines. What is the contour interval of your Margarita Peak map? That's right, 20 meters.

Elevation of points located on contour lines. To determine the elevation of a point on the map you must do the following:

(1) *Index contour line.* Find the numbered index contour line nearest the point of which you are trying to determine the elevation (see figure 3-16).

(2) *General elevation.* Determine if your point is at a higher or a lower elevation than the index contour line. This is done by examining the elevations of the index contour lines around your point. If your point lies between index contour lines 400 and 500, then your point must be somewhere between 400 and 500 meters high. In figure 3-16, point (a) is between the index contour lines 500 and 600. The lower index contour line is numbered 500, which means any point on that line is at an elevation of 500 meters mean sea level. The upper index contour line is numbered 600 (600 meters). Going from the lower to the upper index contour line shows an increase in elevation. If point (a) is somewhere between 500 and 600 meters high, and it is on the SECOND intermediate contour line from the index contour line that marks 500 meters, and the contour interval is 20 meters, what is the elevation of point (a)? That's right, 540 meters. That was above easy. But what if your point lies between index contour lines 500 and 500, such as point (b)? This often happens when the point lies between two hills, in a valley, or in a flat area. In this case, you must determine what kind of terrain feature the point lies on. It should be obvious to you that

point (b) lies on either a saddle or in between two hills. In this case, the point is lower than index contour line 500. Since it is on the second intermediate contour line below 500, what is its elevation? That's right, 460 meters.

Look at your Margarita Peak map. What is the elevation of the three buildings at grid coordinate 684851? The correct answer is 40 meters. Are there any contour lines near that point that are labeled with their elevation? (Remember, sometimes intermediate contour lines are labeled). The closest one is located at grid coordinate 692846 with an elevation of 100 meters. Follow it around to the north and west until you reach a point at 686851 where it is 250 meters to the east of your buildings. Now the question is, are your buildings higher or lower than contour line 100? Look at grid coordinate 689851. This terrain feature is obviously a hilltop. Your buildings lie on a contour line below the hilltop. Thus, the contour line that your buildings sit on must be 40 meters in elevation.

To find the elevation of points not located on contour lines:

Hilltop. To determine the elevation of a hilltop, point (c), add one-half the contour interval to the elevation of the last contour line (see figure 3-17). In this example, the last contour line before the hilltop is an index contour line numbered 600. Add one-half the contour interval, 10 meters, to this contour line. The elevation of the hilltop is 610 meters.

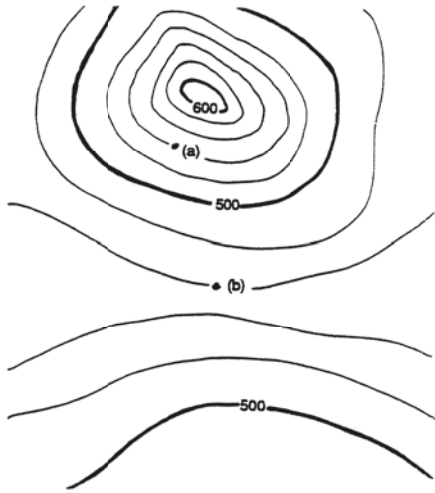


Figure 3-16

Points between contour lines. There will be times when you need to determine the elevation of points falling between contour lines (see fig 3-17). To do this, you must determine how far between the two contour lines the point lies. If the point is LESS than one-fourth or MORE than three-fourths the distance between contour lines, the elevation is the same as the closest contour line. In fig 3-17, the elevation of point (a) is 540 meters. To estimate the elevation of a point between one-fourth and three-fourths of the distance between contour lines, add one-half the contour interval to the last contour line. Point (b) is one-half the distance between contour lines (fig 3-17). The contour line immediately below point (b) is at an elevation of 580 meters. The contour interval is 20 meters; thus one-half the contour interval is 10 meters. In this case, add 10 meters to the last contour line of 580 meters. The elevation of point (b) is approximately 590 meters.



Figure 3-17

Depressions. To estimate the elevation at the bottom of a depression (fig 3-18), subtract one-half the contour interval from the value of the lowest contour line before the depression. The lowest contour line before the depression is 240 meters in elevation. Thus, the elevation at the edge of the depression is 240 meters. To determine the elevation at the bottom of the depression, subtract one-half the contour interval. The contour interval for this example is 20 meters. Subtract 10 meters from the lowest contour line immediately before the depression. The result is that the elevation at the bottom of the depression is 230 meters. The tick marks on the contour line forming a depression always point to lower elevations.

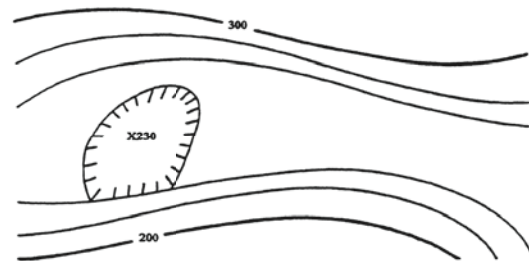


Figure 3-18

Points of known elevation. In addition to the contour lines, **bench marks** and **spot elevations** are used to indicate points of known elevations on the map.

(1) *Bench marks.* Bench marks (the more accurate of the two) are symbolized by a black X, such as “X BM 214” if monumented, or “X 214” if unmonumented. The 214 indicates that the center of the “X” is at an elevation of 214 meters above mean sea level.

(2) *Spot elevations.* Spot elevations are shown by a black “.” and are usually located at road junctions and on hilltops and other prominent terrain features. An example of a spot elevation is “76,” indicating that the center of the “.” is at an elevation of 76 meters above mean sea level. Sometimes an “x” is used to mark spot elevations. Just look at the legend of your map to see which one is being used.

Conclusion

During this lesson, you have learned the four types of slopes and their significance. You have also learned how to determine the elevation of various points on your map. You are now able to determine the elevation of points on contour lines, points in between contour lines, and points of known elevation.❖

The Uniform Code of Military Justice – Why? When? Who?

PURPOSE

The purpose of military law is to promote justice, to assist in maintaining good order and discipline in the armed forces, to promote efficiency and effectiveness in the military establishment, and to strengthen the national security of the United States.

*Military law is organized under the Uniform Code of Military Justice (UCMJ). The UCMJ consists of the **statutes**, or laws, governing the military establishment and regulations issued under it, the Constitutional powers of the President and regulations issued under the Constitution, and the inherent authority of military commanders. Military law includes jurisdiction exercised by courts-martial and the jurisdiction exercised by commanders with respect to **nonjudicial punishment**.*

In this lesson, you will learn the history of military law in the U.S., why it is necessary to have a separate Code of Military Justice, and to whom the Code applies.

Introduction

Since ancient times, military justice has been composed of two distinct branches: laws of the sea, which are fairly consistent from country to country, and have changed very little over the centuries; and military (or Army) laws, which were unique to each land army. The laws varied widely, sometimes even within the same country. When

the United States became independent, our military establishment was patterned on that of Great Britain. The Navy and Marine Corps were given *The Articles of the Government of the Navy*, while the Army operated under a separate set of laws known as *Articles of War*. Before World War II, these systems were amended, modified, and adapted. By World War II, they were a patchwork of **obsolete**, confusing, **contradictory**, and **obscure** rules that were almost impossible to enforce with any degree of fairness.



The Need for a Unified Code

World War II brought a great number of draftees into the service. The result was that the military's differing systems of justice were brought under attack from the outside. Why was there a different system of justice for each service? Why were offenders, sometimes even in the same service, treated differently? Why were punishments often not equal to the offense? **Courts-martial**, trials of military or naval personnel for offenses against the military, often lacked trained legal personnel who were unable or unwilling to give the accused adequate defense or

proper advice. Commanding officers would occasionally influence the outcome of courts, informing members that their career depended on arriving at the proper verdict. To answer these questions and resolve the criticisms, Congress passed the Uniform Code of Military Justice (UCMJ) in 1950. Since that time, the United States Armed Forces have operated under the system developed as a result of that act.

Why Does the Military Need a Different System?

Many factors motivated Congress to provide a separate system of justice for the military. Some crimes are unique to the military and have no match in civilian courts. These include:

- Unauthorized absence
- Disobedience
- Disrespect
- Misbehavior before the enemy
- **Malingering**

The military requires the full cooperation of every member of the service from top to bottom. This cooperation is designed to reinforce leadership and to control the factors that influence the fighting capacity of the force.

Because the armed forces are deployed around the world, military society requires its own justice system. The system must be worldwide in its **jurisdiction**, unlike civilian law, which is usually localized. How, for example, would a case be handled if the offense occurred on a base in Guam, Germany, or Japan?

For these reasons, Congress established the separate justice system for the military. It is called **uniform** because it is evenly applied across

all branches of the U.S. military wherever our forces are stationed, even on board ships at sea.

The purpose of the military justice system is to regulate behavior and promote good order, high morale, and discipline. To accomplish this, it is necessary for military justice to be the same around the world.



From Where Does the Authority for the UCMJ Come?

In Article I, Section 8 of the Constitution of the United States, Congress is granted the authority “To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces.” In 1968, the Military Justice Act revised the UCMJ, originally established in 1950. The Code includes 140 articles that provide the basis for the administration of justice for the United States Armed Forces.

Article 36 of the UCMJ gives the President the authority to issue regulations prescribing the procedure to follow before military tribunals, including the rules of evidence. The President has the authority to establish limits of punishment for most offenses as a result of Article 56. These regulations are issued in the form of the Manual for Courts-Martial, an

Executive Order of the President. Executive Orders have the force and effect of law. The Secretary of the Navy produced the Manual of the Judge Advocates General of the Navy (JAG Manual) that also serves as the primary source of military law that applies to the Navy and Marines.

Jurisdiction

Members of the Armed Forces can be brought before civil or military tribunals if they are accused of a violation of law that is both a civil and a military offense. When an offense violates state, federal, and military law at the same time, the authority that first obtains control over the offender can try him or her. An example of this kind of offense is murder. The use of a writ of **habeas corpus** is the only way that a civil court can interfere with the actions of a military court and vice versa. If a judge grants a writ of habeas corpus, the defendant must be produced along with the cause for which the individual has been taken and held is brought before a court. A member of the Marine Corps accused of an offense against civil authority may be delivered to civil court for trial. In foreign countries, Marines are subject to the laws of those countries and can be tried and punished by foreign authorities. In certain countries, the U.S. has “status of forces agreements” which defines the conditions under which U.S. military personnel can be delivered to local authorities for trial in local courts.

Once a violation of the UCMJ comes to the attention of the proper military authorities, the commanding officer (CO) must investigate the charge to determine the validity of the **allegation**. Based on this investigation, the CO also decides if prosecution is appropriate. After it is decided that a trial will be convened, the results of that trial can be brought to appeal. The review and appeal process followed a military route until August 1,

1984. In the 19th century, civil courts had no power to interfere with courts-martial and court-martial decisions. The U.S. Court of Military Review consists of military judges who hear the appeals. Their decisions may come under appeal to the U.S. Court of Military Appeals that consists of five civilian judges appointed by the President. Finally, Congress gave appeals authority to the Supreme Court on the decisions of the Court of Military Appeals.

Who Is Subject to the UCMJ?

The Uniform Code of Military Justice applies to people active in the Armed Forces, but it also applies to a number of other individuals. According to Article Two of the UCMJ, the military has jurisdiction in the following instances:

1. If you are a member of a regular component of the armed forces, including individuals awaiting discharge after expiration of their terms of enlistment; volunteers from the time of their **muster**, or acceptance into the armed forces; inductees from the time of their actual induction into the armed forces; and other persons lawfully called or ordered into, or to duty in or for training in the armed forces, from the dates when they are required by the terms of the call or order to obey it.
2. Cadets, aviation cadets, and midshipman.
3. Members of a reserve component while on inactive-duty training, but in the case of members of the Army National Guard of the United States or the Air National Guard of the United States only when in Federal Service.
4. Retired members of a regular component of the armed forces who are entitled to pay.

5. Retired members of a reserve component who are receiving hospitalization from an armed force.
6. Members of the Fleet Reserve and Fleet Marine Corps Reserve.
7. Persons in custody of the armed forces serving a sentence imposed by a court-martial.
8. Members of the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, Public Health Service, and other organizations, when assigned to and serving with the armed forces.
9. Prisoners of war in custody of the armed forces.
10. In time of war, persons serving with or accompanying an armed force in the field.

Conclusion

The Constitution provided Congress with the authority to establish the Uniform Code of Military Justice. Because there was too much confusion about how military law was implemented, the UCMJ applies to all branches of the military. It also applies to a variety of other individuals associated with the armed forces. Until 1984, the Supreme Court had no jurisdiction to review the proceedings of a military commission, but Congress has now given appeals jurisdiction on decisions of the Court of Military Appeals.❖

Nonjudicial Punishment and the Rights of the Accused

PURPOSE

Once a member of the military has been accused of a violation of the Uniform Code of Military Justice (UCMJ), the UCMJ provides a method of dealing with the offense. It is the responsibility of the Commanding Officer to investigate the charge and determine if there is a need for prosecution. In some instances, nonjudicial punishment is imposed. In either case, it is important for all individuals subject to the UCMJ to know the "rights of the accused."

Introduction

The United States Constitution outlines the rights of individuals in the first ten amendments called The Bill of Rights. In particular, Amendments IV, V, and VI identify the rights against illegal search and seizure, unlawful arrest, and unfair trials. Article V points out that the calling of a Grand Jury for a serious offense does not apply to cases "arising in the land or naval forces" or "when in actual service in time of War." This phrase does not mean that persons in the armed services do not have some rights? Actually, the Uniform Code of Military Justice under **Article 31** spells out the rights of the accused. If a member of the armed services is accused of an offense, the UCMJ clearly identifies the steps that must be taken to bring the accused to justice while protecting his/her rights. After investigation, an individual may be brought to trial. However, less serious infractions are usually dealt with by imposing nonjudicial punishment.

Procedure for Handling Offenses

It is the policy of the armed forces to handle **allegations** of offenses in a timely manner. It is also the expectation that the offenses be disposed of at the lowest level possible. Generally, offenses are reported to the commanding officer that oversees the investigation of the offense. Each commander in the chain of command has independent ability to take action on reported offenses within the limits of his/her authority.

Many factors are considered including:

- The nature of the offense and the extent of harm caused by the offense, including the effect of the offense on morale, health, safety, welfare, and discipline.
- Possible improper motives of the accuser.
- The availability and **admissibility of evidence**.
- The likelihood that another **jurisdiction** will try the offense.
- Any unusual circumstances surrounding the commission of the offense.
- The character and military service of the accused.
- Any recommendations made by subordinate commanders.
- The interest of justice, the impact of any military situations.
- The affect of the decision on the accused and the command.

The goal is a decision that is warranted, appropriate, and fair.



Commander's Options

The commander has five options to initially dispose of a charge or suspected offense. A commander may decide to:

1. *Take no action on an offense.* A decision to take no action on a case does not prevent later action on the offense.
2. *Take administrative action.* Administrative actions include corrective measures, such as counseling, reprimand, disapproval, criticism, **censure**, extra military instruction, withholding of privileges, etc.
3. *Impose nonjudicial punishment.* A commander may consider the matter according to Article 15, which identifies the disciplinary punishments that may be imposed without a court-martial.
4. *Forward the **disposition**.* A commander may forward a matter concerning an offense to a superior or subordinate authority for disposition.
5. *Refer to court-martial.* If the commander has the authority to convene a court-martial, the commander may dispose of the charges by referring them to trial.

Nonjudicial Punishment

Nonjudicial punishment (NJP) is often referred to as company punishment, Article 15 punishment, “office hours”, commanding officer’s punishment, and captain’s mast. “Mast” originated from the area around the main mast of sailing ships. That location was the center of the vessel, where the ship’s company gathered. The area also served as a place for floggings and other punishment.

In the Marine Corps, the customary name of nonjudicial punishment is office hours. “Office hours” is a hearing by the commander concerning a personal matter of a Marine that has been brought to his/her attention. While nonjudicial punishment may be the reason for the meeting, “office hours” is not always related to Article 15 punishment. In some cases, a Marine will be brought before the commanding officer to be complimented, to be counseled on a personal matter, or to receive a Meritorious Mast. The primary objective of NJP is to correct the offender for minor breaches of discipline without the stigma of a court-martial conviction. Used properly, such authority in the hands of commanders can be an effective tool for promoting discipline within the military.

Non-judicial punishments are imposed for acts or omissions that are minor offenses under the punitive articles of the UCMJ. Whether an offense is minor depends on several factors. What was the nature of the offense? What were the circumstances surrounding the commission of the offense? What is the offender’s age, rank, duty assignment, record, and experience? What is the maximum sentence possible if the accused were to be tried in a general court-martial? Ordinarily, for a minor offense, the maximum sentence possible would not include a dishonorable discharge or

confinement for longer than one year if tried in a general court-martial.

Examples of Nonjudicial Punishments

When an offender accepts a nonjudicial punishment, there is no need for a court-martial. An offender may refuse a nonjudicial punishment and ask for a trial. However, it is worth noting that a court-martial is a federal trial, and conviction could have a lasting impact on the offender's career, benefits, and future opportunities.

A commanding officer may impose nonjudicial punishments that fall into the following categories.

- Restriction to certain specified locations, with or without suspension from duty for a specified period.
- Arrest in quarters for a specified period of time.
- **Forfeiture** of up to $\frac{1}{2}$ of one's pay for a specified period of time.
- **Detention** for a specified period of time.
- Confinement on bread and water or diminished rations for a specified period of time.
- **Demotion** to the next inferior grade.
- Extra duties.



The Rights of the Accused

The rights of the accused under the Uniform Code of Military Justice are based on the Constitution of the United States. These rights are identified in four paragraphs. Under Article 31:

- No person may be made to incriminate him/herself.
- The accused must be informed of the accusation against him/her and advised that he/she does not have to make any statement regarding the offense. The accused also is informed that any statement made may be used as evidence in a trial by court-martial.
- The accused may not be made to make a statement or produce evidence that is not directly related to the offense. This right protects the accused from having to provide testimony that would have a tendency to disgrace the witness or harm their character.
- Article 31 also prohibits the introduction of statements, confessions, and admissions that were not voluntarily given.

Another right provided by Article 31 is that the accused or suspect must be given a warning of his/her rights. This warning is given through a verbatim reading of the Article 31 rights. This reading of the rights is based on the Miranda decision of the U.S. Supreme Court. The typical warning follows:

You are suspected of the offense of _____. You have the right to remain silent. Any statement you make can be used in evidence against you in a trial by court-martial. You have the right to consult with a lawyer, to have a lawyer with you during all questioning, and to seek the lawyer's advice before you answer any questions. If you desire, you may obtain a civilian lawyer at your own expense. If you cannot afford or do not desire a civilian lawyer, a military lawyer can be appointed to you without cost. If you decide to answer questions now without a lawyer present, you will have the right to stop answering at any time. You also have the right to stop answering questions at any time in order to obtain a lawyer.

If a suspect is intoxicated or under the influence of drugs, he/she may not fully understand the warning. Under those kinds of conditions, **interrogation** is postponed until the accused can understand the warning. After the warning has been given, three questions are asked to make certain that the accused understands his/her rights and will waive them. These questions are asked verbatim.

1. Do you want a lawyer?
2. Do you understand that if you should decide to answer questions, you may stop answering questions at any time?
3. Do you want to answer questions and make a statement?

To make certain that a suspect does not claim that the warning was delivered improperly, the accused is asked to read and sign a form acknowledging that the warning was given properly. In addition, whenever possible, a

witness should be present when the warning is administered.

Who Must Be Warned?

Sometimes it is difficult to determine if a person should be warned of his/her rights. Generally, Article 31 prohibits the interrogation or the request for a statement from a suspect without first providing the warning. An interrogation is a question or group of questions designed to make a suspect make a verbal statement. However, sometimes the situation becomes complicated. In the following example, should the suspect been given an Article 31 warning? Should you consider an action the same as making a statement?

A superior of the accused suspects the accused of having marijuana and informs him, "I think you know what I want; give it to me." The Marine points to his shirt where they then discover the marijuana.

In the above example, a judge declared the marijuana inadmissible at trial because an Article 31 warning had not been given. Some physical acts which a suspect performs at the interrogator's request fall within the term verbal statements. On the other hand, an accused can be fingerprinted, photographed, or made to write or speak for the purposes of identification.

Another distinction should be made between the terms accused and suspect. When a Marine is accused, it generally means that formal charges have been made. That person, obviously, should be read his/her rights. However, it is more difficult to determine if a person is a suspect. Simply conducting an investigation of an offense by interviewing a number of individuals does not

make them all suspects. In each of the following examples is the Marine a suspect, and should the Marine be given an Article 31 warning?

Example 1: An investigator finds a Marine's wallet at the scene of a crime. Is the Marine a suspect?

Example 2: Marine A realizes that his watch was stolen. He then reports the crime to his commanding officer, telling him that Marine B was wearing a similar watch. Is Marine B a suspect?

In both cases, the answer is YES. The Marines should be told of their rights before being questioned.

Search and Seizure

A search means the act of looking for incriminating evidence. A seizure means simply taking possession of an item. There are basically two types of legal searches under military law. The first is a search conducted under the authority of a legal search warrant. The second is one that is "incident to a lawful **apprehension**."

Search by Warrant

In the military, a search warrant signed by the commanding officer is required to search a Marine's personal property. Probable cause must be presented in the request, and the object of the search must be stated on the warrant. Probable cause is a reasonable belief that a crime has or is being committed, and is the basis for all lawful searches, seizures, and arrests. It is not true that military authorities can search a Marine's off-base quarters. In the case of off-base quarters, probable

cause must be given to civilian authorities, who will conduct the search if the warrant is given.

Search That Is "Incident to a Lawful Apprehension"

Authorities have the right to search all persons lawfully apprehended or taken into custody. An apprehension is made when a person is clearly notified that he/she is being taken into custody. The law says that a person can be apprehended when there is probable cause to take the person into custody. In other words, there are reasonable grounds to believe that a crime has been committed and that the person apprehended committed it. The search may be made of the apprehended person's body and clothing and the immediate area where the person was taken into custody. The immediate area is limited to one or two steps beside the person apprehended. If during this search incriminating evidence is found, it may be seized.

Conclusion

The Uniform Code of Military Justice applies to all military members worldwide. The UCMJ provides language that identifies the rights of the accused and of suspects. These rights are based on the rights granted in the U.S. Constitution. Like civilians, military personnel who are accused or suspected of a crime have to be told what their rights are before they can be questioned. Military personnel are also subject to nonjudicial punishment for minor offenses. Nonjudicial punishments do not have the effect of a trial by court-martial. It is important to note that Article 31 of the UCMJ protects the military and its personnel.❖

Three Types of Court Martial

PURPOSE

*Once a violation of the Uniform Code of Military Justice (UCMJ) is brought to the attention of the proper authorities, the commanding officer (CO) must investigate the charge to determine if prosecution will be necessary. The investigation may only require a brief review for a short unauthorized absence that results in nonjudicial punishment. However, offenses that are more serious may require extensive investigation. Once the CO determines that prosecution is necessary, it must be determined which of three courts will hear the case. In this lesson, you will learn about the three courts, **summary court**, **special court**, and **general court**.*

Introduction

A Court Martial is convened only when ordered by an authorized military officer. The officer who convenes the court selects the members of that Court Martial. The UCMJ allows certain officers to convene one or more types of courts-martial depending on how severe the violation is. Summary courts deal with the least serious offenses and bridge the gap between "office hours" and special courts. Special courts try cases that are serious, but are not **felonies**. The third court is the general court martial. Its purpose is to exercise justice for cases of a very serious nature.

Members of a Court Martial

Officers, warrant officers, and enlisted personnel are eligible to serve as members of courts-martial. Warrant officers may serve on general and special courts for the trial of warrant officers and enlisted persons. Enlisted personnel may serve on general and special courts for the trial of enlisted person when requested by the individual on trial. Members of the court are best qualified for the duty based on their age, education, training, experience, length of service, and judicial temperament. The accuser, investigating officer, and witnesses for the prosecution may not be members of the court. Court members are usually superior in rank to the accused. Enlisted persons may not sit on a Court Martial trial for another member of their company.



Summary Court Martial

The purpose of the summary court is to administer justice promptly for minor offenses with a simple procedure. The minor offenses include unauthorized absence (UA), disrespect,

and disobedience. A summary court may also try any noncapital offense.

Jurisdiction

Summary courts-martial have jurisdiction to try only enlisted persons subject to the code for any offense that is not **capital** and is punishable by the code. Officers cannot be tried this way.

Convening Authority

A **convening authority** is a person empowered by law to create a Court Martial. The lowest unit commander in the Marine Corps who may convene a summary Court Martial is a battalion/squadron commander. Exceptions to this rule are those officers authorized by Articles 22 and 23 of the Uniform Code of Military Justice (UCMJ) and by commanders designated by the Secretary of the Navy. Anyone who may convene a special or general Court Martial may also convene a summary Court Martial.

Composition

A summary Court Martial is composed of one commissioned officer on active duty. According to Navy policy, the summary Court Martial officer must be a Navy lieutenant or a Marine captain. In some commands, the officer designated must be a major. The officer should be appointed based on age, training, experience, length of service, and judicial temperament. The summary Court Martial officer does not have to be a lawyer. He may carry any MOS. He acts as judge, jury, trial counselor, and counselor for the defense.

Rights of the Accused

A summary Court Martial has the power to **subpoena** witnesses, take **depositions** and punish for contempt of court. All witnesses must testify under oath or affirmation. There are no

challenges in a summary Court Martial. A summary Court Martial is a federal court, and a conviction follows a Marine throughout his remaining military and civilian career. At a summary Court Martial, the accused has the rights to:

- Refuse trial by summary Court Martial.
- Consult with counsel before making decisions about the court.
- Be represented by a civilian counsel at his own expense if such representation would not delay the proceedings.
- Cross-examine witnesses and examine evidence.
- Call witnesses and introduce evidence.
- Remain silent.

Authorized Punishments

Authorized punishments for convictions in summary court include:

1. Confinement for 30 days.
2. Hard labor without confinement for 45 days.
3. Restriction for 60 days.
4. Forfeiture of 2/3 pay for one month.
5. Reduction in grade to the lowest enlisted pay grade.

Note: In the case of sergeants and above, the summary Court Martial may not sentence the accused to confinement or hard labor without confinement. Reduction may only be to the next lower grade.

Special Court Martial

The purpose of a special court is to exercise justice for cases that are serious, but

noncapital, such as desertion, assault, **larceny**, and robbery.

Jurisdiction

Special courts have jurisdiction to try officers and enlisted persons subject to the code for any noncapital offense made punishable by the code.

Convening Authority

Only battalion and squadron commanders or above, and those officers authorized by Articles 22 and 23 of the UCMJ and by commanders designated by the Secretary of the Navy, may convene a special Court Martial.

Composition

The special Court Martial is composed of at least three members and a military judge.

Rights of the Accused

Accused persons appearing before a special Court Martial have the same rights as a person appearing before a general Court Martial. These rights include:

The rights are the same as those of a special Court Martial.

- The accused cannot refuse either a special or general Court Martial.
- When a case is referred to a special or general court, a military counsel must be **detailed** for the accused. The officer assigned must be a graduate of an accredited law school, a member of the bar of a Federal court or the highest court of a state, and certified as a judge advocate by the judge advocate general of the navy.
- If the counsel is available, the accused has the right to have a military counsel of his own

choosing to defend him if the counsel meets the requirements listed in the preceding bullet. This counsel may be at another base.

- The accused has the right to hire a civilian lawyer at his/her own expense. The detailed military counsel may be retained to assist the civilian counsel or may be excused.
- An accused may represent him/herself if the judge decides that the accused is capable of self-representation.
- At a **Bad-Conduct Discharge** (BCD) special Court Martial, a civilian or military personnel who is not a lawyer cannot represent the accused. However, the nonlawyer may be present at the defense table for consultation.
- At a non-BCD special Court Martial, a civilian or a military nonlawyer may represent the accused. There must, however, be authorized representation participating.
- Within 24 hours of pretrial confinement, the accused must be visited by a judge advocate. Within 72 hours, after the beginning of pretrial confinement, the accused must be personally interviewed by the detailed counsel or requested counsel.
- The accused has the right to challenge the members of the court.
 - The accused may **challenge for cause**, which is based on facts, or circumstances that lead the counsel to believe that the court member cannot fairly decide the case. The military judge determines if the challenge for cause is valid. The military judge may be challenged for cause.
 - The accused may also issue a **peremptory challenge** for which there need not be any legal basis for making the challenge. The accused and counsel may simply feel

that the person challenged would not be favorable to their side. Peremptory challenges do not apply to military judges, and the accused is only allowed one peremptory challenge.

- The accused in a special or general Court Martial has the right to choose among three alternatives as to who will sit in judgment of him/her. If the accused is found guilty, the same person or persons try to sentence him/her.
 - The accused may choose a trial by judge.
 - The accused may choose a trial by panel of officers made known to the accused before the trial. There are no fewer than three members on a special court and no fewer than five members on a general court.
 - If the accused enlisted, he/she may choose a panel made up of officers and enlisted personnel. At least 1/3 of the court must be composed of enlisted personnel. The enlisted personnel cannot be from the same unit as the accused and must be senior in rank.

Authorized Punishment

Any punishment is authorized in a special court that is not limited by the code such as: death, dishonorable discharge, dismissal, hard labor without confinement for more than 3 months, more than 6 months confinement, more than 2/3 pay forfeited more than 6 months. The most severe sentence is 6 months' forfeiture of pay, 6 months' confinement, reduction to private, and a bad conduct discharge. This punishment is generally referred to as **"6, 6, and a kick."**



General Court Martial

The purpose of the general court is to exercise justice for cases that are of a very serious nature including capital offenses, such as rape, manslaughter, arson, treason, and mutiny.

Jurisdiction

This court may try officers and enlisted personnel.

Convening Authority

The general Court Martial may be convened only by those flag or general officers in command of units or by any commander designated by the Secretary of the Navy or the President.

Composition

The composition of a general court is made up of at least five members and a military judge. There is no maximum number of members.

Rights of the Accused

The rights of the accused in a general court are the same as those in a special court. See the previous section for that information.

Authorized Punishment

Any allowable punishment may be awarded at a general Court Martial including death, confinement, reduction, forfeiture of all pay, and discharge.

Appeals

If a sentence involves a punitive discharge, confinement for more than one year or more, or dismissal of an officer, the **Court of Military Review** will hear the appeal. This court will also hear appeals based on questions of law and fact. This appeal is automatic unless waived by the accused. Within the military justice system, the **U.S. Court of Military Appeals** is the highest appeals court. It is composed of three civilian judges appointed by the President. They serve for terms of fifteen years. This court decides questions of law and interprets, and if necessary, modifies the UCMJ and other regulations. Since 1983, the U.S. Supreme Court may review certain military cases that have been reviewed by the U.S. Court of Military Appeals.

provides for their fair and equitable treatment. At the same time, the courts promote justice and assist in maintaining good order and discipline in the armed forces.❖

Conclusion

While both the military and civilian courts may try an individual for a crime that violates the law of both, only a Court Martial can try a person for a military law offense. The three types of Court Martial are based on the level of the offense. The least serious offenses are tried in summary courts and the most serious are tried in general courts. Military courts are organized in a way that protects the rights of the accused and

