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Armies of the War of the Pacific 1879–83
Chile, Peru & Bolivia

Gabriele Esposito • Illustrated by Giuseppe Rava

Series editor Martin Windrow
Dedication

To my parents Maria Rosaria and Benedetto, the best parents in the world, for their continuous support in every phase of my life, and for their immense love.

Acknowledgments

Special thanks to the series editor, Martin Windrow, for supporting my projects on South America from the beginning, and for his great help during all the production phases of this book. Another special acknowledgment is due to the artist Giuseppe Rava: a great professional and, most important of all, a real friend.

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Many of the original photographs are in the archives of the Chilean Military History Museum.

Artist's Note

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The Publishers regret that they can enter into no correspondence upon this matter.

Chile: Guardsman of National Guard Regt Valparaíso.
Photographed in Lima during 1881, he wears the new light blue-gray tunic given to Chilean units in 1880, with red trousers and buff-colored desert boots. The képi is entirely red (unusual for a National Guardsman), with a brass star badge between the letters “B” and “V” (slightly out of date, for “Batalión” and “Valparaíso”). The tunic has red collar and cuffs; the three white stripes around the right sleeve indicate the 3rd Division – though this unit had seen heavy combat at Chorrillos and Miraflores as part of the Reserve. The white V-shaped chevron on the left sleeve is a unit tactical sign. This soldier has the equipment typically used during the Sierra campaign: a white canvas haversack; a deep 2-litre tinplate canteen; and double-banked canvas cartridge belts supported by crossed straps over the shoulders, the pockets holding 200 rounds for his M1874 Gras rifle.
INTRODUCTION

The War of the Pacific, fought by Chile against Peru and Bolivia, was the greatest military conflict ever fought in the Andean region, and, together with the War of the Triple Alliance (1864–70), it shaped the destiny of the Latin American nations.

This war was also known as the “Saltpeter War” or “Guano War,” because its initial cause was rivalry over possession of sources for these two highly profitable nitrates. Over centuries, the dry climate of the Peruvian and Bolivian Pacific coasts had permitted the accumulation of vast amounts of these; guano was used as a fertilizer, and saltpeter had a fundamental role in the production of explosives, so both were highly exportable. The greatest amounts were found in the Atacama Desert located between Chile and Bolivia, the possession of which had consequently been a matter of contention since the 1830s.

In 1864 the Andean region was involved in a brief war against Spain. This “Chincha Islands War” or “First Pacific War” was mainly a series of naval actions fought between the Spanish and the allied Chilean/Peruvian fleets after the Spanish occupied Peru’s guano-rich Chincha Islands, the source of almost 60 percent of the Peruvian government’s annual revenue. The conflict had no significant political results, but Chile – shocked by the ease with which a relatively small Spanish fleet had been able to blockade its ports – invested in greatly improved armed services during the next decade.

The military development of the region was influenced both by the internal political struggles of the individual states, and by the increasing economic need to exploit natural resources. Since the 1840s the Bolivian territory of Antofagasta and the Peruvian territory of Tarapacá had been populated mainly by Chileans, and mining in these regions was carried out by powerful Chilean companies. In 1866 a treaty was ratified between Chile and Bolivia to resolve their complex border issues: under its terms, their definitive border was to be the 24th Parallel, while the products of mining in the area between the 23rd and 25th Parallels were to be shared equally.
The economic conquest of Bolivian resources in the Atacama was rapid and very profitable for the Chileans, since initially various Bolivian governments did little more than watch the foreigners taking precious materials from their territories. Over a period of a few years, the increasing extraction and export of nitrates made the Chilean economy one of the richest in the Americas. Another factor was Chile’s internal stability, as it was the only country in the region to enjoy (by the standards of the time) something approaching democratic government.

In 1873 a secret treaty of alliance was signed between Peru and Bolivia; its aim was to counter Chilean economic expansion, which many Peruvian and Bolivian politicians feared (correctly) would one day evolve into a military threat. In 1874 a new Chilean-Bolivian agreement was signed, by which Bolivia was committed to a 25-year moratorium on raising taxes on the Chilean mining companies installed in Bolivian territory.

The three presidents

In 1876, new presidents came to power in all three Andean countries. President Aníbal Pinto Garmendia of Chile was an intelligent man, whose foreign policy was strongly influenced by the powerful mining lobby. Peru’s President Mariano Ignacio Prado Ochoa was elected after a long series of bloody internal struggles between two main political factions, military and civilian. While Prado was a general, his election represented a compromise between the factions, since his political line was less rigid than that of previous military rulers.

By contrast, President Hilarión Daza Groselle of Bolivia was the typical South American “caudillo” of those times. Of humble birth, he had risen through the ranks of the army to command of the Colorados Infantry Battalion, which became his powerbase. When promoted general in 1876, he rose against President Frías; backed by his Colorados, he was able to seize absolute power and to rule as a ferocious military dictator. The first action of his presidency was to use the remnants of the national treasury to pay his “praetorian guard,” and political opponents were killed out of hand. Daza’s rule also saw an increasing Bolivian nationalism, especially against the Chileans who were “robbing” the Bolivian people of their natural resources.

In February 1878 a new tax on the nitrate miners was approved by the National Congress on Daza’s orders, in clear violation of the 1874 treaty between Chile and Bolivia. Predictably, the Chilean companies refused to pay this new tax and appealed to their government. Daza responded with an order to auction off all the nitrate mines that were in Chilean hands; he was sure he could count on the support of Peru thanks to the secret treaty of 1873, and he also believed that Argentina would join the alliance due to the then serious border tensions between Argentina and Chile over the control of Patagonia. However, Argentina remained neutral (and would sign a definitive Boundary Treaty with Chile in 1881).
On February 12, 1879 Chile broke off diplomatic relations with Bolivia. Two days later – on the day that the Chilean mines were due to be auctioned off – Chilean troops led by Col Emilio Sotomayor Baeza landed at Antofagasta, with the aim of seizing control of that strategic port and preventing Bolivian seizure of Chilean assets. On March 1, Bolivia declared war on Chile, and on March 23 a Bolivian probe toward Antofagasta was repulsed at Calama. On April 1, after the failure of a Peruvian attempt at mediation, Chile declared war on both Bolivia and Peru.

**CHRONOLOGY**

**1873:**
February 6  
Peru and Bolivia sign Secret Treaty of Mutual Defense.

**1876:**
May 4  
Hilarión Daza Groselle seizes power as president of Bolivia.

August 2  
Mariano Ignacio Prado Ochoa becomes president of Peru.

September 18  
Aníbal Pinto Garmendia becomes president of Chile.

**1878:**
February 10  
National Congress of Bolivia approves “Ten Cents Tax” on nitrate extraction.

**1879:**
February 14  
Chilean troops land on Bolivian coast and occupy city of Antofagasta.

March 1  
Bolivia declares war on Chile.

April 1  
Chile declares war on Bolivia and Peru.

April 12  
First naval actions between Chilean and Peruvian vessels off Chipana.

The Bolivian dictator Hilarión Daza Groselle (1840–94). This is one of various photos depicting Daza dressed in his ornate parade uniform, very much in the style of Napoleon III. A strong-willed autocrat who seized power in 1876 thanks to the decisive support of the Army, he proved to be a mediocre military leader during the War of the Pacific; in November 1879 he refused to reinforce the Peruvian Gen Buendía before the disastrous Allied defeat at Dolores/San Francisco. A month later Daza was deposed; when he finally returned to Bolivia in 1894 after 15 years’ exile in France, he was assassinated.

A photo of the Chilean Navy at the beginning of the conflict. Chilean naval power was based on the twin warships Cochrane and Blanco Encalada, excellent central-battery ironclads commissioned in Britain in 1874 and 1875 respectively. Chile also had the modern corvettes Chacabuco and O’ Higgins, the older corvettes Esmeralda and Abtao, the gunboat Magallanes (also built in Britain in 1874), and the schooner Covadonga (taken from the Spanish during the Chincha Islands War). These, supported by many auxiliary vessels, made the Chilean Navy – for its size – one of the best in the world.
May 21  Naval battle of Iquique – Peruvian victory breaks Chilean blockade.
October 8  Naval battle of Angamos – Chilean victory; Peruvian ironclad Huáscar captured.
November 5  Chilean troops land and capture Pisagua.
November 6  Cavalry combat of Pampa Germania – Chilean victory.
November 19  Battle of Dolores/San Francisco – Chilean victory.
November 26  Battle of Tarapacá – inconclusive Allied victory.
December 12  Nicolás de Piérola Villena becomes dictator of Peru.
December 28  Hilarión Daza deposed by Bolivian Council of State.

1880:
January 19  Narciso Campero elected president of Bolivia.
March 22  Battle of Los Ángeles – Chilean victory.
May 26  Battle of Alto de la Alianza/Tacna – Chilean victory, followed by occupation of Tacna.

June 7  Battle of Arica – Chilean victory.
June 11  Peru and Bolivia sign declaration of the “United States of Peru-Bolivia,” but Bolivian troops take no further part in war.

December 25  Beginning of Chilean offensive toward Peruvian capital, Lima.

1881:
January 13  Battle of San Juan/Chorrillos – Chilean victory.
January 15  Battle of Miraflores – decisive Chilean victory.
January 18  Chilean occupation of Lima.
March 12  Chileans appoint Francisco García-Calderón as president of Peru.
June 26  Combat of Sangra – desperate Chilean defense against Peruvian irregulars.
July 5  Domingo Santa María becomes president of Chile.
September 28  Lizardo Montero Flores becomes president of Peru, and is endorsed by resistance leaders.

1882:
July 10  Combat of Concepción – local victory by Peruvian irregulars.

December 1882: Miguel Iglesias elected “Regenerating President” of Peru.

1883:
July 10  Battle of Huamachuco – definitive Chilean victory over Peruvian resistance forces under Gen Cáceres.
October 20  Treaty of Ancón concludes peace between Chile and Peru.
October 24  Last Peruvian stronghold of Arequipa surrenders to Chilean troops.

1884:
April 4  Truce signed between Chile and Bolivia – official end of the War of the Pacific.
MILITARY OPERATIONS

THE NAVAL CAMPAIGN

Given the few usable roads and railroad lines, the nearly waterless and largely unpopulated desert of Atacama was a very difficult region to occupy. From the outbreak of the war it was clear that achieving naval superiority would be a determining factor in the development of land operations.

What gave the Chilean Navy superiority over its Peruvian opponents was the high level of discipline and training achieved by its officers and seamen. In theory, there was no great difference between the two navies in terms of the quantity and quality of their warships. In practice, however, the Chilean ironclads had twice the armor protection of the Peruvian ships, and guns of greater range and penetration; their use of the pioneering British armor-piercing Palliser ammunition proved to be decisive in the battle of Angamos. In general terms, the Peruvian fleet was in a poor state at the beginning of hostilities (with the notable exception of the turret-monitor Huáscar). Some ships had serious structural problems, and the training of the crews was inadequate – indeed, many seamen were Chilean deserters, who absconded in great numbers after the outbreak of war. In addition, Peru lacked naval arsenals for repairing damaged ships.

For its part, Bolivia had no navy. On March 26, 1879 President Daza formally offered “letters of marque” to any ships willing to fight for Bolivia; the practice of privateering was very common in South America, given that few countries had military fleets, but on this occasion the announcement had little effect, and the Peruvian Navy would fight alone.

On April 5 the Chilean Navy blockaded the important Peruvian port of Iquique, leading to the first naval encounter on April 12; this indecisive engagement off Chipana involved the Chilean Magallanes against the Peruvian Unión and Pilcomayo. The subsequent battle of Iquique, fought on May 21, also proved to be indecisive. It gave Peru a tactical victory in that it lifted the Chilean blockade of that port, but at the high price of the loss of the Peruvian ironclad Independencia. However, in the following months Adnl Miguel Grau’s exploits with the ironclad monitor Huáscar did more than just uphold Peruvian morale. Grau made wide-ranging incursions into Chilean waters; he attacked ports, captured transports, and, while always outnumbered, dictated Chilean naval deployments for six months. Chile needed to achieve naval supremacy prior to invading Peruvian territory, in order to gain the logistic advantage necessary for a land campaign, and until the threat posed by the Huáscar could be removed no attempt could be

Andrés Avelino Cáceres (1833–1923). During the first land campaign he was a divisional commander in Peru’s Army of the South, taking part in the battles of Pisagua, Dolores/San Francisco, and Tarapacá. During the second campaign he fought with great courage at Alto de la Alianza/Tacna, having two horses killed under him. During the Lima campaign he led IV Corps at the battle of Chorrillos; at Miraflores he commanded the 5th Div on the Peruvian right flank, launching the opening surprise attack and being badly wounded. Following the Chilean occupation of Lima, civil war erupted between the supporters of Cáceres and those of the Chilean-backed President Iglesias (known respectively as “Reds” and “Blues” from the colors of their headgear). Cáceres attacked Lima unsuccessfully in 1884; he then retired once more into the Sierra, where in 1885 he defeated Iglesias, who was deposed soon afterward. Cáceres was elected President of Peru in 1886, and again in 1894.

Miguel Grau Seminario (1834–79) was Peru’s greatest national hero during the War of the Pacific. As captain of the corvette Unión, he had fought in the naval combat of Abtao during the Chincha Islands War. In 1867 he was given command of the monitor Huáscar and, in 1877, of the Peruvian fleet. While the Chileans conducted a blockade of Peruvian ports in 1879, Grau took the initiative. Peruvian incursions led by the Huáscar delayed the Chilean ground invasion for six months, forcing Chile to shift its naval effort from the blockade to the hunt for Grau. Since his death in action at Angamos in October 1879, Grau has been celebrated as Peru’s leading historical naval personality.
made to disembark troops. Finally this was achieved on October 8, 1879 at the battle of Angamos, where the Huáscar was captured after being severely damaged.

Despite this major loss the Peruvian Navy still had some successes, particularly during the two naval battles of Arica in 1880, but eventually all its remaining warships were confined in the port of Callao by the Chilean blockade. When the Peruvian capital Lima fell, the fleet was scuttled to prevent its capture by the Chileans.

**THE FIRST LAND CAMPAIGN:**

**Pisagua**

On November 2, 1879 a fleet of 16 Chilean warships and transports landed 10,000 soldiers on the Peruvian coast at and south of Pisagua. The coast was defended by 1,200 Allied soldiers, of whom 250 were
Peruvians and 950 Bolivians. The Allied defensive positions in the area were quite strong, with two artillery forts ready to protect Pisagua Bay, but the Chilean warships silenced most of their guns. The first wave of Chilean troops then landed, and after two hours’ fighting the Peruvian high command left Pisagua. Some Allied troops still held the nearby heights of Hospicio, but after another three hours’ fighting these positions were in Chilean hands. The Chileans had thus secured a beachhead in enemy territory and a supply port for future operations.

On November 6, some 180 Chilean cavalrymen of the Cazadores a Caballo under LtCol José Francisco Vergara almost annihilated 90 Allied hussars under LtCol Sepúlveda in a clash at Pampa Germania.

**Dolores/San Francisco**

Some days later a column of about 6,000 Chileans moved out, leaving Pisagua city under the command of Col Sotomayor. Learning that an Allied force of some 9,000 troops under Gen Buendía was approaching, Sotomayor occupied the twin hills of San Francisco near the village of Dolores with 34 cannon, two Gatling guns, and infantry units including the 3rd and 4th Line, Atacama and Coquimbo Battalions. Early in the afternoon of November 19 the more numerous Allies attacked the Chilean positions, and in some sectors were initially successful, only finally being repulsed by the gunners of a vital hilltop battery in face-to-face fighting.

The Chilean positions were reinforced with reserve units, and subsequently the main Allied attack against their center was halted; in this phase the superiority of the Chilean artillery was decisive, practically destroying Allied battalions by means of a heavy crossfire. Soon after the assault was checked, two Chilean battalions launched a counterattack and drove the Allies off the hill at the point of the bayonet. The Allied cavalry fled the battlefield without covering the general retreat, which consequently became a rout. The Allies suffered some 300 battle casualties and another 3,000 men missing, and lost large amounts of weapons, ammunition, and matériel, while the Chileans recorded about 200 killed and wounded. The defeat was a severe blow for the Peruvian Army of the South, and the Bolivian Army fell back in complete disarray.

**Tarapacá**

General Buendía managed to regroup only a small number of his troops, whom he led to join another Peruvian force located in the city of Tarapacá. While he was there some
reinforcements arrived from Iquique, bringing his force up to about 4,500 men. The Chileans underestimated Peruvian strength in the city, and sent Gen Luis Arteaga against them with a force of only 2,000. The subsequent battle was fought on November 27, 1879 in the ravine of San Lorenzo de Tarapacá. Arteaga divided his advancing troops into three tactical columns, hoping to surprise the enemy, but the Peruvians soon spotted them and attacked first. The fighting on the steep hillsides was cruel, with no quarter asked or given by either side, and control of the ravine changed hands several times. Eventually a charge by Chilean cavalry forced the attacking Peruvians to retire and regroup, but during a temporary truce Gen Buendía reorganized them. They soon fell upon the Chileans once again, taking them by surprise and forcing them to abandon their positions; their fragmented force was obliged to retire toward Dibujo, leaving the field in Peruvian hands. The Peruvians had achieved their first victory of the war, at the cost of about 500 casualties; the Chileans had lost 700 men and 10 guns. However, during the following night the Peruvians wearily marched off to Arica, leaving possession of Tarapacá to the Chileans; they thus threw away any territorial advantage gained by their victory.

The last months of 1879 were to prove decisive for the internal politics of both Bolivia and Peru. In Bolivia a Council of State with popular support deposed the dictator Daza, and appointed the liberal Gen Narciso Campero president and commander-in-chief. In Peru, a coup replaced the absent President Prado with Nicolás de Piérola.

THE SECOND LAND CAMPAIGN:

Tacna

By February 1880 the Chilean Army was ready to launch another seaborne landing operation. On February 24 a force of about 13,000 men sailed from Pisagua aboard 19 transports escorted by the Blanco Encalada, Magallanes, and two torpedo boats. After they arrived off Punta Coles, near Ilo, several days were needed to complete the landings, but the Chileans
met no resistance. An Allied army 15,000 strong, under the command of the Peruvian Adml Lizardo Montero, was grouped around the city of Tacna, but he declined to attack the Chilean beachhead.

On March 22 a Chilean task force of 4,400 men led by Gen Manuel Baquedano assaulted a Peruvian stronghold based on supposedly impregnable positions on Los Ángeles hill, defended by 1,400 troops. This attack was made in order to protect the Chilean left flank during a subsequent advance to Tacna. After some bitter fighting a Chilean bayonet charge drove the defenders out of their positions; Chilean losses numbered 50, Peruvian losses 145. This small-scale victory was nevertheless important: it not only boosted Chilean confidence, but resulted in the promotion of Baquedano to command the entire army – a central factor in Chile’s final victory.

On May 26, 1880 a decisive battle was fought at Alto de la Alianza east of Tacna, where the Allies were entrenched in strong defensive positions. The attack by 10,000 Chileans was successful, but losses were heavy on both sides: Baquedano lost 2,000 men, and the Allies 5,000. The political consequences of Alto de la Alianza proved to be significant: with this battle, the Peruvian-Bolivian alliance was definitively broken. The Bolivian troops withdrew into the Andes, and took no further part in the war. (Peace between Bolivia and Chile was not formally concluded until...
1884, but for all practical purposes Bolivia had been eliminated as a combatant.) After this defeat the Peruvians retreated to Arequipa, while the Chileans secured possession of Tacna and its surroundings as far as the Pacific coast.

**Arica**
The Peruvian garrison of 2,000 men in the fortified city of Arica was cut off from the rest of the retreating army, and left to its own devices. This last Peruvian bastion in the area was finally taken on June 7, 1880, after hard fighting involving a force of 4,000 Chileans. Following these Allied defeats, peace negotiations started on October 22, encouraged by the United States. These talks, known as the “Lackawanna Conference” from the name of the US warship on which they took place, came to nothing after five days. Chile’s demand that Peru hand over Tarapacá province as indemnity for its war expenses was refused, and the hostilities were quickly resumed.

**THE THIRD LAND CAMPAIGN:**

**The landings south of Lima**
The Chilean government was quite satisfied with the practical territorial gains its forces had made up to that point – the southern Peruvian departments of Tarapacá, Tacna, and Arica. In addition, the armies of Peru and Bolivia were both in such bad condition that they no longer represented a threat to these newly conquered territories. However, the strong pressure of public opinion, and the expansionist ambitions of the political parties in Congress, obliged President Pinto to continue the war until “complete extermination of the enemy,” and he ordered a campaign to capture the Peruvian capital, the city of Lima.
On November 19, 1880, the first 8,800 of Gen Baquedano’s troops, shipped from Arica, landed at Pisco about 320km (200 miles) south of the capital. They were reinforced on December 2; and on December 14, another 14,000 troops sailed from Arica. Baquedano marched only his 1st Division across country; he re-embarked the rest to sail to beaches close to Chilca, 45km (28 miles) south of Lima, where they landed on December 22. Meeting no serious resistance, the army halted in the valley of Lurín just 15km (9 miles) from the capital.

San Juan/Chorrillos and Miraflores
Meanwhile, President Piérola of Peru had mobilized at least 20,000 men and more than 100 (often elderly) artillery pieces. The decisive battle of San Juan/Chorrillos took place on January 13, 1881, on the Peruvian outer defensive line, which curved roughly 16km (10 miles) along a series of heights inland from Marcavilca Hill on the coast. It was held by perhaps 10,000 troops, in I–IV Corps commanded by Cols Miguel Iglesias, Andrés Cáceres, Justo Pastor Dávila, and Belisario Suárez (central reserve). General Baquedano had some 23,000 Chilean troops under command, with 1st–3rd Divisions led by Navy Cdre Patricio Lynch and Cols Emilio Sotomayor and Pedro Lagos. Since the Peruvian defenses were thinly stretched Baquedano chose to attack all along the line, to prevent the shifting of defending units between sectors, and in hard uphill fighting his troops achieved three breakthroughs, leading eventually to complete victory. The town of Chorrillos was sacked and put to the torch; many of those responsible for the killings and destruction were Chinese and other slaves freed by the defeat of their masters. This defeat cost the Peruvians more than 4,000 killed and wounded and about the same number captured (including Col Iglesias, plus all their artillery), against Chilean casualties of 3,100, the majority being in Lynch’s 1st Division.

Many Peruvian battalions were destroyed and others greatly reduced, but the survivors stiffened the militia holding Lima’s inner defensive line. A truce was declared while negotiations took place; the Chileans wished to avoid another battle before entering Lima, but the talks quickly broke down. Piérola’s second line of defense, about 12.5km (7.75 miles) long, ran inland from the beach between Barranco and Miraflores, being divided into three main sectors built around a total of ten redoubts. In the event, it seems that only some 3,000 soldiers and 2,500 militia on the right and in the center, between Redoubts Nos.1 and 6, were actually engaged.

The battle of Miraflores opened at about 2pm on January 15 with a surprise attack launched by Cáceres’s right-wing units against the dangerously advanced Chilean left. There Lagos’s 3rd Div was only partly deployed, with his 2nd Bde exposed north of Barranco, while units from 1st and 2nd Divs were making only slow progress coming up on his right. After initial Peruvian success both sides fed reinforcements into this sector, and eventually Chilean 1st and 2nd Div units came up to extend the line to the east. The Chileans achieved several breakthroughs; at about 5.15pm President Piérola fled the field, and the defense collapsed. Like Chorrillos, the town of Miraflores was looted and burned, by both Chilean troops and Peruvian stragglers and slaves. The Peruvians had lost about 3,200 men, but Chilean casualties numbered some 2,500, of which the 3rd Div suffered 1,130.
The Peruvian regular army no longer existed, since only a few weak and poorly organized groups survived these two battles. Lima itself fell victim to violent riots and looting, and the mayor soon requested that Gen Baquedano enter the city and restore order. On January 17, 1881 Lima opened its gates, and Chilean troops took complete possession of the city and of the strategic forts of Santa Catalina and San Cristóbal. The conventional war had ended – but now the conflict would enter its longest phase.
Orders of battle, San Juan/Chorrillos & Miraflores, January 13 & 15, 1881

CHILEAN
1st Division (Patricio Lynch)
1st Brigade (Juan Martínez): Regts 2nd Line, Atacama, Talca, Colchagua, Artillería de Marina (fighting as inf)
2nd Bde (Amunátegui): Regts 4th Line, Chaclacayo, Coquimbo; (plus, at Miraflores) Bns Quillota, Melipilla
2nd Division (Emilio Sotomayor)
1st Bde (Gana): Regt 1st Line “Buin,” Esmeralda, Chillán
2nd Bde (Barbosa): Regt Lautaro; Bns Curicó, Victoria
3rd Division (Pedro Lagos)
1st Bde (Urriola): Regt Aconcagua; Bn Navales
2nd Bde (Barceló): Regts 5th Line “Santiago,” Concepción; Bns Buhes, Caupolicán, Valdivia
Reserve (Arístides Martínez): Regts 3rd Line, Valparaíso, Zapadores

PERUVIAN at San Juan/Chorrillos
I Corps (Miguel Iglesias)
1st North Div (Noriega): Bns No. 1 Guardia Peruana**, 3 Cajamarca**, 5 “9 diciembre”**
2nd North Div (Manuel Cano): Bns No. 7 Tarma*; 9 Callao*; 11 “Libres de Trujillo”**
3rd North Div (Arguedas): Bns No. 13 Junín**; 15 Ica*; 21 “Libres de Cajamarca”**
II Corps (Belisario Suárez)
4th North Div (Aguirre): Bns No. 17 Huánuco**; 19 Pucapampa; 23 Jauja
5th North Div (Benígo Cano): Bns No. 25 Ancash*; 27 Concepción, 29 Zapata (“Zuavos”)**
III Corps (Justo Pastor Dávila)
3rd Center Div (Caveyra): Bns No. 67 Plura**; 69 “23 diciembre,” 71 “Libertad”**
5th Center Div (Moreno): Bns No. 85 Caçadores de Cajamarca, 87 Unión*, 89 Caçadores de Junín
Light Div (Bustamante); Urban Guard Companies A, B, C, D & E
IV Corps (Andrés Cáceres)
1st Center Div (Ayarza): Bns No. 61 Lima, 63 Canta, 65 “28 julio”
2nd Center Div (Pereira): Bns No. 73 Pichincha, 75 Píëro, 77 La Mar
4th Center Div (Lorenzo Iglesias): Bns No. 79 Arica, 81 Manco Cápac, 83 Ayacucho

Note:
*Unit suffered heavy losses at San Juan/Chorrillos; **unit destroyed.

THE FOURTH LAND CAMPAIGN:

Sierra
The campaign of “La Breña” or “Sierra” derived its name from the great Peruvian mountain range. From April 1881 to July 1883, Chilean battalions fought a punishing campaign amid the mountain plateaus of the Peruvian Andes against the remaining resistance forces. The Chilean occupation of Peru was directed from Lima by the recently appointed Adm Patricio Lynch.

After the January 1881 defeats and the occupation of the capital, many Peruvian officers escaped into the mountains, where they organized resistance. Among them was Col (later Gen) Andrés Cáceres, who soon gained the sympathies of the local farmers and of the Quechua Indians living in the central Andes. Cáceres, who spoke the Quechua language fluently, earned respect and even affection from the Indians, whose support was to be fundamental to his continuing resistance.

In February 1881, Adm Lynch decided to launch a first campaign against the guerrillas active in Junín province. This 700-strong expedition, led by Col Ambrosio Letelier, soon degenerated into savage looting of villages and widespread abuse of civilians. Such harsh repression naturally inflamed the hostility of the mountain Indians, provoking frequent attacks during the Chilean column’s eventual retreat toward Lima. (In one famous combat on June 26 at the village of Sangra, only 15 of Capt José Araneda’s 80-man detachment from 1st Line Bn “Buin” survived many hours of attacks by hundreds of Peruvians.) On their return to the capital in early July, Letelier and his officers were court-martialed (though for embezzlement, rather than for committing atrocities). The failure of this expedition gave Cáceres more time to gather and organize resistance forces.
Political confusions
Meanwhile, on March 12, 1881 the Chileans had formed a new Peruvian government led by Francisco García-Calderón, which was supposed to administer all the territories under Chilean occupation. In practice, however, its authority was very limited, since President Piérola’s men still controlled large areas of the country. On September 28, 1881 the Chileans decided to remove García-Calderón for his failure to cooperate, but before his arrest he named Adml Lizardo Montero as his successor. At the same time President Piérola stepped down, and, after some confusion, his followers and those of Gen Cáceres combined in support of Lizardo Montero. The latter then moved to Arequipa, assuming command of the local garrison.

The 1882 campaign
To eliminate Cáceres and his invigorated resistance forces, in January 1882 Adml Lynch initiated an offensive by 5,000 Chilean troops, at first toward Tarma and then southeast toward Huancayo. The operation was led by Col Estanislao del Canto, with orders to maintain control in the Junín region and to find and eliminate Cáceres’s forces. Del Canto’s division was scattered throughout the southern Peruvian Andes, divided into small groups stationed in various towns and villages. They endured severe shortages of supplies and provisions, and heavy losses from mountain sickness, frostbite, and typhus. When the situation became desperate, Col del Canto traveled to Lima to request authorization to retreat, but receiving permission to do so was only the start of a difficult withdrawal. The plan was to evacuate the division by gathering up the scattered garrisons successively as the column left the mountains. One of these, numbering just 77 men at the town of La Concepción, was completely wiped out on July 9, 1882.

On April 1, 1882 Miguel Iglesias, minister of defense under Piérola, who was convinced that the war had to be brought to an end before Peru was completely destroyed, had issued a manifesto calling for peace.
In December 1882 a convention of representatives from the seven Peruvian northern departments elected Iglesias as “Regenerating President” of Peru. He soon gained recognition from the Chileans, at the head of a co-operative government.

The 1883 campaign
Under pressure of imminent peace negotiations, Adml Lynch decided to send a larger force against Cáceres. This comprised three well-armed, well-equipped divisions under the command of Cols García, del Canto, and Arriagada. The Chileans had learned the lessons of previous forays into the high Andes, and this time they planned to keep their columns concentrated to surround and corner the Peruvians in order to force them into a conventional battle. On May 30, 1883 the Peruvian army arrived at Cerro de Pasco, with the Chilean divisions under Cols del Canto and García in close pursuit. The Peruvians continued to retreat into the high mountains, but by the third week of June they were almost cornered. On June 22 Gen Cáceres ordered a new retreat via the Llankanuku Pass, at an altitude of over 6,000m (19,700ft), and by this risky maneuver he managed to evade the main Chilean force once again.

Huamachuco
After many more hardships, on July 5 the Peruvian army arrived at Tulpo near Huamachuco. There Gen Cáceres learned that the Chilean Col Alejandro Gorostiaga was occupying that town, isolated from the main Chilean forces, but that another enemy force was advancing to reinforce Gorostiaga, resupply him with ammunition, and help push the Peruvians toward Cajamarca. Cáceres decided to try to destroy this column before it could reach Gorostiaga, but the Chilean scouts were on the alert and the surprise failed. At that point the Peruvian general called a council of war, and the decision was taken to stop retreating and to try to destroy the Chilean force occupying Huamachuco.

As soon as he saw the Peruvians on the surrounding hills, Gorostiaga immediately gathered all his troops and evacuated the town to take up positions on Sazón hill; this was good defensive terrain, with some Inca ruins that could be used as parapets. The Peruvian assault went in during the early hours of July 10, and after four hours’ fighting Cáceres could see victory in his grasp, since the Chileans had been forced to the very summit of the hill. But at that moment the Peruvians started to run out of ammunition, and Gen Cáceres made a fatal mistake: he ordered his artillery to relocate into the valley facing the hill, in order to deal a final blow to the Chilean positions among the ruins.

Gorostiaga saw this tactical error, and ordered a cavalry charge that annihilated the unescorted Peruvian artillery on the move: seven cannon were lost and all of the gunners were either dispersed or killed. Meanwhile, the Chileans quickly reorganized themselves and launched a massed downhill counterattack. The Chileans were outnumbered, but the Peruvian soldiers were almost out of ammunition, and since many lacked bayonets they could only defend themselves with their rifle-butts. The Peruvian lines broke, and started to flee; they lost some 800 men, including many officers.

Although the wounded Gen Cáceres was able to evade capture, this battle effectively ended Peruvian resistance in the Andes. Iglesias’s government signed the Treaty of Ancón with Chile on October 20, 1883,
Sketch map showing the great territorial gains made by Chile thanks to victory in the War of the Pacific (modern frontiers). Practically the whole present-day northern region of Chile was acquired by conquest, and loss of the vertically shaded territory transformed Bolivia into a landlocked country. The exploitation of the southern strip of territory had been awarded to Chile by Bolivia under the prewar treaty of 1874. The Bolivian province of Antofagasta and the Peruvian province of Tarapacá were obtained under the Treaty of Ancón following victory in 1883. The Peruvian provinces of Arica and Tacna were administered by Chile from 1883 to 1929; Tacna was then awarded to Peru, and Arica to Chile, by the 1929 Treaty of Lima. (Map by JB Illustrations)

the day after the Chilean occupiers left Lima. Lizardo Montero tried to resist in Arequipa with his garrison of 4,000 men, but when 3,000 Chilean troops arrived the garrison and the civilian inhabitants rebelled and allowed them to occupy the town on October 24. Montero fled to asylum in Bolivia, and all military operations came to an end.

THE AFTERMATH

Under the terms of the Treaty of Ancón, Peru ceded the province of Tarapacá to Chile, and the Chileans were also to occupy the provinces of Tacna and Arica for the following 10 years, after which a plebiscite was to be held to determine the nationality of the two provinces. For decades thereafter the two countries failed to agree on the terms of the plebiscite. Finally, in 1929, US mediation led to the Treaty of Lima, by which Chile kept Arica and Peru re-acquired Tacna; but it was to be 1999 before Chile and Peru at last agreed to implement the treaty in full, thus providing Peru with access to port facilities in Arica.

In 1884, Bolivia signed a truce that relinquished the entire Bolivian coast, and the province of Antofagasta with its nitrate, copper, and other
mineral resources. The Treaty of Peace and Friendship signed by the two countries in 1904 made this arrangement permanent. In return, Chile agreed to build a railroad connecting the Bolivian capital of La Paz with the port of Arica, and guaranteed freedom of transit for Bolivian commerce through Chilean territory and ports. For Bolivians, the loss of the Litoral (coast) remained a deep psychological and practical wound, and popular belief attributed many of the country’s problems to its landlocked status. Over many years, numerous Bolivian presidents have pressured Chile in order to obtain sovereign access to the sea, but without success, and anti-Chilean sentiment in Peru and Bolivia is still significant today.

From a military point of view, victory brought Chile hegemony over the Pacific coast of South America and, in the following decades, over much of the west of the continent (balanced by that of Brazil and Argentina on the Atlantic side). In 1885, Hptm Emil Körner and 36 other Prussian officers and NCOs were appointed to train officer cadets in the Chilean Military College; as a result, in the years that followed the Chilean Army adopted Prussian-style uniforms (with the dress regulations of 1898), training, and discipline. The Chilean Army and Navy became the best in Latin America, and were considered a model by all the other armed forces on the continent. During these years, many other Latin American military forces were entering a new phase of professionalism, and Chilean military missions were sent to train and reform the armies of El Salvador (1901), Ecuador (1903), Colombia (1907), and Venezuela (1910). Through Chilean influence all these countries adopted Prussian-style uniforms and military doctrine. It was not until World War II that US military influence became predominant in the region.

THE CHILEAN ARMY

In 1879 the Chilean Army was not prepared for a large-scale conflict. Small in numbers, it had previously been deployed only to fight against the Mapuche Indians in the southern Araucanía region bordering Patagonia. However, the Chilean regulars were better equipped and trained than their Peruvian and Bolivian equivalents. The cavalry, in particular, had acquired great experience during the long years of war against the Indians, and was famous for the high quality of its horses.

Organization

Before the war the Army had only 2,995 men of all ranks, of whom 401 were officers. It comprised 4 line infantry battalions, plus 1 of naval infantry; 2 regiments of cavalry (each with 5 squadrons of 160 men); 1 regiment of artillery (with 2 batteries); plus 1 battalion of naval artillery and 1 of combat engineers (Zapadores), both of which would later fight as infantry:

Line Infantry Battalions: 1a “Buín,” 2a, 3a, and 4a; Bn Navales

Cavalry Regiments: Granaderos a Caballo, Cazadores a Caballo

1st Artillery Regt; Bn Artillería de Marina, Bn Zapadores de la Frontera

As soon as military operations began the regular army formed three new units: Line Inf Bn “Santiago” (later numbered 5th), Cavalry Regt
Carabineros de Yungay, and 2nd Artillery Regiment.

After the occupation of Lima at the beginning of 1881 the infantry were completely reorganized. The veteran National Guard Bn Esmeralda was absorbed into the regular army as the 7th Line Inf Bn, and volunteers from disbanded units of the National Guard allowed the formation of new 6th, 8th, and 9th Line Battalions.

National Guard

The National Guard was certainly the most important component of the Chilean land forces during the War of the Pacific. When the conflict started, Chilean regular
units were too few to confront the enemy, and many were incomplete; but since gaining independence from Spain, Chile, unlike Peru and Bolivia, had developed an efficiently organized National Guard. Before the war the existing units trained every weekend, practicing evolutions in the field and tactical formations, under experienced regular-army instructors. In 1877 the National Guard had 24,287 soldiers; shortly before the war commenced it had actually been reduced in size for economic reasons to just 6,687 men, but as soon as war broke out in 1879 it was swiftly reconstituted and reorganized. Its units were now divided into two categories: Mobilized (Guardia Nacional Movilizada) and Static (Guardia Nacional Estática). The former were attached to the field army and received the same weapons and training as the regulars; the latter continued in their traditional peacetime functions, and were mostly equipped with older rifles.

The expansion of the National Guard during 1879 was impressive; new units were formed in all the provinces and existing ones were expanded, and that year the Guard mustered 49,550 soldiers. Of these, 14,550 formed 2 regiments and 19 battalions of Mobilized infantry, plus 3 squadrons of cavalry. The Static force, with 35,000 men, had 40 battalions, 24 brigades, and 5 companies of infantry; 11 battalions, 13 brigades, and 1 company of artillery; plus 1 regiment, 10 squadrons, and 2 companies of cavalry. The performance of Mobilized units in the field was generally good; with modern weapons, competent officers, and solid basic training, there was practically no difference between them and the regular battalions. Experienced soldiers from the National Guard were frequently
used as a source of manpower for the regular battalions, in order to stiffen younger recruits.

At the peak of its expansion the Mobilized National Guard deployed 20 regiments and 15 battalions of infantry, 1 brigade of artillery, plus 6 squadrons of cavalry. The following infantry units took part in the 1880–81 Lima campaign:

National Guard Infantry Regiments:
Aconcagua, Atacama, Colchagua, Concepción, Coquimbo, Curicó, Chacabuco, Chillán, Esmeralda, Lautaro, Talca, and Valparaíso

National Guard Infantry Battalions:
Bulnes, Caupolicán, Melipilla, Quillota, Valdivia, and Victoria

After the conquest of Lima the majority of National Guard units returned to Chile and were disbanded, but some of the best ones continued to fight in Peru until the end of the war.

**Tactics and performance**

The Chilean armed forces performed well from the beginning of hostilities, and the key to their success was the coordination between naval and land forces. Once naval supremacy was achieved, sea-mobile forces were fundamental for the Chilean operations on the long Atacama Desert coastline. Ground forces were landed in small numbers to raid, or in strength to drive the defenders from enemy positions. Usually the Chilean forces operated just a few miles inland and in easy contact with their fleet, while the Peruvians and Bolivians found themselves hundreds of miles from home. The Allies were obliged to fight a defensive war while moving long distances overland, and relying (where possible) on land or coastal fortifications. To confront such defenses, the Chileans employed an effective form of amphibious warfare that coordinated land, naval, and specialized units.

The first amphibious assault of the war, at Pisagua, was an example of this method. On November 2, 1879 the Chilean Navy bombarded the beach defenses for several hours; this proved effective, and was soon followed by the landing of infantry and sapper units from open rowing boats into waist-deep water. The outnumbered first landing wave came under heavy enemy fire and was checked on the beach, but second and third waves were able to overcome resistance and move inland. By the end of the day an expeditionary army of 10,000 soldiers had disembarked at a relatively low cost in casualties.

For the Lima campaign of 1880–81 the Chilean Navy transported about 20,000 men, with their horses, artillery, and equipment, 500 miles north, and they proved to have learned from experience. During the landing operations near Chilca they used purpose-built, flat-bottomed landing craft that delivered troops into the shallows close to the beach. Once ashore, Chilean tactics focused mainly on mobility and superior firepower. As soon as objectives were taken, part of the troops garrisoned the captured territory while the fighting moved north. During the invasion the Chileans systematically destroyed Peruvian infrastructure, including the railroads and telegraph lines.

The operations that took place during the occupation of Peru in 1881–83 were completely different: the theater of war was now the Peruvian Sierra, where enemy units were helped by the local population and had
easy access to resources and supply centers located far from the sea. The occupying Chilean force was split into small detachments, so could devote only part of its strength to hunting down Peruvian resistance in the Sierra. The Chilean soldiers had little knowledge of the terrain, and, for the first time, they suffered from a lack of regular supplies. Their uniforms and footwear were totally inadequate for a campaign in the high central Andes, and they suffered heavy losses from sickness.

The prolonged counterinsurgency campaign was very costly for Chile. Nevertheless, small groups of Chileans were frequently able to defend their positions against larger guerrilla forces thanks to their superior weapons. Gradually they mastered this mountain warfare, though they usually preferred defensive tactics and formations. The Chilean common soldier was courageous and disciplined, loyal to his officers and to his nation. Acts of heroism were common during the Sierra campaign, on both sides.

**Weapons**

The War of the Pacific was fought to a great extent with single-shot, large-caliber, breech-loading rifles taking (generally rather flimsy) brass cartridges filled with black powder; stronger drawn-brass cartridges and “smokeless powder” would not appear until after the war.

Chilean units were probably the best armed in South America when the War of the Pacific began. A mission led by Col Emilio Sotomayor had been sent to Europe in 1872 to buy new rifles for the Army, and the model chosen was the excellent Belgian 11mm falling-block Comblain. However, the factory was able to produce only 5,180 Comblains during the war, and the needs of their expanding forces obliged the Chileans to purchase other weapons. A total of 21,799 French 11mm M1874 Gras bolt-action rifles were bought, manufactured by the Steyr factory in Austria. These were modified to take the same cartridge as the Comblains, in order to avoid the difficulties of supplying different ammunition types (a common problem among most South American armies). In addition to the Gras the Chileans bought 9,964 Dutch 11mm M1871 Beaumont bolt-action rifles, which were issued to the National Guard infantry. The cavalry were well armed with Winchester and Spencer repeating carbines, though some single-shot Remingtons were also in use; the former gave the cavalry a considerable superiority during encounters with mounted enemy units. In total, 4,868 M1873 Winchester carbines were purchased. Chilean officers used a variety of revolvers, the Lefaucheux being very popular.

Before the war the Chilean artillery had just 16 modern pieces: 12x 6cm M1872 Krupp mountain guns, and 4x 7.85cm M1872 Krupp field
guns. In addition, some older M1858 La Hitte guns had been bought from France in 1868, and others were produced locally. In 1879, Chile purchased another 8 of the Krupp field guns. During the conflict many other artillery pieces were bought: 6x 7.5cm M1879 and 32x 7cm M1880 Krupp mountain guns; 29x 7.5cm M1879 and 24x 8.7cm M1880 Krupp field guns, and 6 each Armstrong field guns and mountain guns. The artillery also had 8 Gatling machine guns and some Nordenfeldts.

THE PERUVIAN ARMY

Peru had been one of the most important states in South America since independence from Spain. It had a larger population than many neighboring countries, and this had allowed the various Peruvian presidents and dictators to maintain strong military forces. However, the Army had suffered greatly during the frequent civil wars that ravaged the country, and in 1879 it had serious problems regarding the supply of uniforms and modern weapons.

Organization
At the beginning of the war the Peruvian Army numbered 6,160 men of all ranks, of whom 25 were generals and no fewer than 2,654 were officers of lesser ranks. The troops were organized in 8 infantry battalions, 3 regiments of cavalry, and 2 regiments of artillery:

(Continued on page 33)
CHILEAN LINE INFANTRY & ARTILLERY
1: Corporal 1st Class, 3rd Line Bn, 1879
2: Private, 2nd Line Bn, 1879
3: Private, 2nd Line Bn, 1882
4: Gunner, 1st Artillery Regt, 1879
CHILEAN CAVALRY
1: Trooper, Granaderos a Caballo, 1879
2: Trooper, Cazadores a Caballo, 1879
3: Trooper, Carabineros de Yungay, 1881
CHILEAN NATIONAL GUARD & SUPPLY CORPS
1: Guardsman, National Guard Bn Atacama, 1879
2: Guardsman, National Guard Bn Cazadores del Desierto, 1879
3: Guardsman, National Guard Bn Antofagasta, 1879
4: Private, Intendencia, 1880
PERUVIAN LINE INFANTRY
1: Private, Bn Huancayo, 1881
2: Private, 1st Line Bn Pichincha, 1879
3: Soldier, 3rd Line Bn Ayacucho, 1879
4: Private, Bn Guardia Peruana, 1880
PERUVIAN CAVALRY
1: Trooper, Cazadores del Rímac, 1880
2: Volunteer, Morochucos de la Muerte, 1880
3: Lieutenant, Húsares de Junín, 1879
PERUVIAN GUERRILLAS, NATIONAL GUARD & VOLUNTEERS

1: Quechua “Breñero,” 1883
2: Guardsman, National Guard Bn Vengadores de Grau, 1879
3: Private, Infantry Bn Cazadores del Misti, 1879
4: Volunteer, Legión Garibaldi, 1880
1: Infantry captain, 1879
2: Grenadier, 1st Inf Bn Daza/"Colorados," 1877
3: Sergeant, 2nd Inf Bn Sucre/"Amarillos," 1879
4: Private, 3rd Inf Bn Illimani/"Verdes," 1879
BOLIVIAN CAVALRY
1: Trooper, Cavalry Sqn Libres del Sur, 1880
2: 2nd Lt, Line Cav Sqn Escolta/1a Coraceros, 1879
3: Capt, Line Cav Sqn Escolta/Guías, 1879
Line Infantry Battalions:
1a Pichincha, 2a Zepita, 3a Ayacucho, 4a Callao, 5a Cazadores del Cuzco, 6a Cazadores de Puno, 7a Cazadores de la Guardia, and 8a Lima

Line Cavalry Regiments:
1a Húsares de Junín, 2a Lanceros de Tórata, and 3a Guías

Artillery Regiments:
1a “2 de Mayo”, and 2a

These formed the Ejército del Sur (Army of the South), which was deployed in the field during the first two land campaigns in 1879–80. After the first land campaign in 1879 the regular army began a program of expansion to 16 infantry battalions, supplemented by a sizable National Guard. During the second land campaign in 1880 the infantry comprised the following units:

Line Infantry Battalions:
Zepita, Ayacucho, Cazadores del Rímac (not to be confused with the cavalry unit), Victoria, Pisagua, Lima, Huáscar, Cazadores del Mistí, Guardias de Arvíquia, Granaderos del Cuzco, Provisional de Lima, Tarapacá, Arica, Artesanos de Tacna, Granaderos de Tacna, and Iquique

National Guard Infantry Battalions:
Canchis, Canas, Cazadores de Piérola, Granaderos del Cuzco, Grau, Nacionales de Tacna, and Vengadores de Grau

National Guard Infantry Columns:
Agricultores de Para, Artesanos, Guardia Civil de Moquegua, Mollendo, and Policía de Tacna.

On January 10, 1880 President Piérola ordered the creation of a naval brigade of six companies designated the Guarnición de Marina, to provide the Peruvian Navy with men capable of manning ships’ guns but also of fighting on land.

After losing his best units at Tacna and Arica, from June 1880 President Piérola initiated a complete reorganization of the Army in order to defend Lima from the imminent Chilean offensive. He mobilized the capital’s active and sedentary reserves: all able-bodied men aged from 16 to 60 were enlisted and given basic military training. To ensure that people would not flee from the city the government required a passport from anyone wishing to leave Lima province, the only exceptions being those involved in the transportation of foodstuffs.

All able-bodied men were ordered to register for service in the new Army of the Reserve of Lima. This was composed of ten infantry “divisions,” organized on the basis of the recruits’ civilian employment. Daily training was compulsory, and any who did not obey the summons or failed to register could be arrested and inducted into the ranks immediately. By these methods, Piérola mobilized 20,000 men for the defense of Lima – but this was an army in name only, being badly supplied and for the most part entirely inexperienced. On paper, this Army of the Reserve numbered 30 infantry battalions, 41 National Guard infantry units, and some cavalry units both regular and irregular.

**Resistance forces**

After the occupation of Lima a certain number of officers and some soldiers managed to escape into the central Andes, where the resistance
forces were being recruited. In this task Gen Cáceres received support from
the Peruvian Church, and after a few months he was able to muster some
3,000 men in what he called the Ejército del Centro (Army of the Center).
Around a small number of veteran regulars, these were mostly irregular
guerrilleros recruited from the mountain Indians (these Quechua people
were commonly known as breñeros, “mountaineers”). The Quechua-speaking
Cáceres was popular with the Indians, who called him Taita (“Father”); they
proved to be very loyal, and fierce fighters. Cáceres grouped them in small
units, formed according to their communities of origin and to the kind of
weapons they carried, each commanded by a regular Army officer or civil
representative. The Quechua fought mainly to defend their own villages,
and so could seldom be employed as a maneuver force outside the particular
valleys where they lived.

In 1882 President Lizardo Montero named Miguel Iglesias “Supreme
Political and Military Chief of the North,” where Iglesias had his own estates
and powerbase. He soon assembled a small force, composed of some veteran
units stationed in the north plus new recruits from the areas around his
personal properties. This Ejército del Norte (Army of the North) briefly
launched a series of local operations against the Chileans in the department
of Cajamarca, but after some initial successes this area was occupied by the
Chileans. After becoming “Regenerating President” Iglesias reorganized his
Army of the North, and, following his signature of the Treaty of Ancón, he
was the first to reoccupy Lima after the Chileans left the capital city. This
new regular Peruvian Army was formed to reconstruct the country, and the
Chileans gave it the assistance necessary to achieve an effective peace.
**Tactics and performance**

In general terms, Peruvian units fought courageously throughout the war, and some of them achieved significant results on the field of battle, although the Peruvian common soldier had inferior training, equipment, and weapons compared with his Chilean opponent. At the very beginning of the war the Peruvians were able to deploy greater numbers in confrontations with the Chilean Army, but this numerical superiority was soon countered by the rapid expansion of the Chilean National Guard. Unlike some Chileans, the Peruvian regulars had no combat experience against an external enemy, and the majority of the Peruvian battalions were soon destroyed during the first two land campaigns. Generally speaking, the Peruvian National Guard units were not comparable to those of their Chilean equivalent.

The same could generally be said of Peruvian mounted units, which had horses of indifferent quality and elderly weapons. The only exception was the *Húsares de Junín*, which fought valiantly during all phases of the conflict. This unit, the most important in the history of the Peruvian Army, had been formed in 1821 during the campaign for the liberation of Peru guided by José de San Martín. The regiment had distinguished itself at the important battle of Junín (1824), and received its name from Simón Bolívar himself.

Another cavalry unit with an unusual history was the *Cazadores del Rímac*. On July 23, 1879 the Chilean transport ship *Rímac* was captured by the Peruvian vessels *Huáscar* and *Unión* near the port of Antofagasta. It was transporting the cavalry regiment *Carabineros de Yungay*, with a total of 258 men and 215 horses plus quantities of weapons, ammunition, and equipment. This capture was used to equip a new Peruvian cavalry regiment, formed on March 26, 1880; these *Cazadores del Rímac* received the excellent horses, weapons, and uniforms of the *Carabineros de Yungay*. However, the new regiment was short-lived: it was completely destroyed by the Chilean Bn *Curicó* in a night ambush at El Manzano on December 27, 1880.

The quality of the Peruvian troops recruited for the defense of Lima at Miraflores was very patchy; some were regulars, others conscripted Indians or peasants from large state or private *haciendas*, and most proved to be unreliable due to their superficial training. Some units on the right wing fought bravely, but this makeshift force had no chance of victory against Chilean veterans.

The small core of the forces organized by Cáceres was provided by veterans of previous campaigns, but the real key to the Peruvian successes in the Sierra were the bands of guerrillas recruited from the Quechua Indian villages, who naturally had the advantage of intimate knowledge of the terrain. Being mountaineers born and bred, they could walk for enormous distances and climb to great altitudes; unlike the Chileans sent into the Andes, they were unaffected by the cold or by the *puña* (altitude sickness). They were lethally effective fighters (particularly when under
Naval infantryman, Bde Guarnición de Marina, 1880. This unit was formed from chalacos (the nickname for the inhabitants of Callao) who had participated in night attacks with small boats against Chilean warships blockading their port. Led by Capt Juan Fanning, they fought bravely at Miraflores, taking part in Cáceres’s first surprise attack on the Chilean left and losing some 400 out of 540 men. Officers wore Navy uniforms of distinctly British appearance. Colors: dark blue shako with yellow-metal Peruvian coat of arms; pompon halved in national colors (white and red). Dark blue tunic with red collar, cuffs, and frontal edging. Blue collar patches with brass anchor badge; brass shoulder loops and buttons. White trousers with red stripe, worn over white leggings and black leather shoes. Black leather belts and ammunition pouches, Comblain rifle. Gray blanket roll on brown knapsack; white canvas haversack with red trim and brown leather sling; white-metal canteen on brown leather sling. (Drawing by Benedetto Esposito)

Castañón to Europe to buy more Comblains, but the manufacturers were already fully stretched by their production for Brazil and Chile. Castañón agreed with the Bonmüller factory in Germany for the production of a new “Castañón” or “Peruvian model” rifle – in fact, a Chassepot converted to take the same 11mm brass cartridge as the Comblain. The 5,000 substandard Belgian Chassepots were shipped to Europe for this purpose, but in the end only 2,000 of them were converted.

When war broke out in 1879, Peru still had 1,417 M1866 Snider-Enfield rifles in use (0.577in breech-loading conversions of the Pattern 1853 Enfield), but most of the Army’s rifles were in bad condition and many were defective. During the conflict many other rifles were purchased, creating further confusion by their variations in ammunition. These included thousands of Peabody-Martinis (presumably the 0.45in M1874 ordered by Turkey, virtually identical to the British Martini-Henry Mk I), and Spanish 11mm M1871 rolling-block Remingtons; another 5,000 Egyptian Remingtons were sent by Costa Rica as payment for an old debt, and 1,500 more were supplied by Honduras. The cavalry had a variety of carbines, including Remingtons, and 0.44cal Winchester of both 1866 and 1873 models. Peruvian officers used many different revolvers, including Lefaucheux and Colts.

At the beginning of the war the artillery had 28 pieces, all British-made Blakely mountain guns in various calibers; most of these had been bought in 1866 for the Chincha Islands War. The artillery also had a good number of machine guns, and others (Claxtons, the influence of alcohol), and their heroic resistance to the invaders is still remembered with patriotic pride today.

Weapons

During 1868–70, Peru had bought 5,000 French M1866 Chassepot paper-cartridge rifles, although manufactured in Belgium by the Gillion factory. These soon turned out to be of poor quality; consequently, the government decided in 1870 to order new metal-cartridge Chassepots of the 1869 model which was then in prototype, and also 2,000 Comblain rifles. (The Franco-Prussian War naturally prevented the production of updated Chassepots.) In 1873 the government sent Col
Gardners, Nordenfeldts, or Gatlings) were purchased during the war. President Prado bought 12 Krupp mountain guns, but these were blockaded in Argentina and did not reach Peru before the end of the war. By the end of 1879 the Peruvian government had started its own production of guns in Lima, under the supervision at first of John White and, the following year, of Juan Grieve. The 80 “White” guns produced were copies of the Vavasseur M1871, while the 32 “Grieves” were copies of the 6cm Krupp mountain gun. Old coastal guns from the port of Callao were also used during the defense of Lima.

THE BOLIVIAN ARMY

Since achieving independence in 1825, Bolivia had lived in a continuous state of civil war under the rule of corrupt military dictators. This political instability had badly affected the organization of the armed forces, which were particularly neglected by President Daza (with the notable exception of the Colorados Bn, which had enabled him to seize power). As a result, in 1879 the country had severe deficiencies in weapons and other military equipment.

Organization
Before the outbreak of the War of the Pacific, the regular Bolivian army consisted of only seven units:

1st Line Infantry Battalion Daza (aka 1a Granaderos de la Guardia, or Colorados)
2nd Line Inf Bn Sucre (aka 2a Granaderos de la Guardia, or Amarillos)
3rd Line Inf Bn Illimani (aka 1a Cazadores de la Guardia, or Verdes)
Line Cavalry Squadron Escolta (aka 1a Coraceros)
Line Cav Sqn Bolivar (aka 1a Húsares)
Line Cav Sqn Escolta (aka Guías)
Line Artillery Regt Santa Cruz.

In total the army numbered just 2,975 men, of whom the ridiculous number of 810 were officers. The nicknames of the three infantry battalions derived from the color of their uniforms, respectively “reds,” “yellows,” and “greens.” As is clear from the denominations of the units, of which five out of seven were called “Guard” or “Escort,” this was a very personal army strongly linked to the caudillo, Daza. Since the regulars were far too few in number to confront the Chileans, many National Guard units were raised soon after the outbreak of hostilities.
After the disastrous defeats of the first land campaign and the subsequent fall of Daza, the Bolivian Army was completely reorganized for the second campaign, acquiring a more distinct national identity and abolishing most of the old unit titles given by Daza. For example, his loyal Colorados became the Bn Alianza; and the 3rd Line Inf, destroyed during the first campaign, was re-formed with soldiers from the National Guard Bn Columna Loa and was thus renamed Loa. All the remnants of the National Guard infantry were absorbed into the regular army to form seven new infantry battalions. The cavalry unit known as the LEGIÓN BOLIVIANA, formed for the first campaign, was split into three squadrons, each having its own title: Libres del Sur, Murillo, and Vanguardia. The new Bolivian Army was organized as follows:

Line Infantry Battalions:
1a Alianza, 2a Sucre, 3a Loa, 4a Aroma, 5a Viedma, 6a Padilla, 7a Tarija, 8a Chorolque, 9a Grau, plus Bn Columna Zapadores

Line Cavalry Squadrons:
Escolta (aka 1a Coraceros), and Guías

National Guard Cav Sqns:
Libres del Sur, Murillo (aka Rifleros del Norte), and Vanguardia

Line Artillery Regt Santa Cruz.

After the defeat at Alto de la Alianza/Tacna in May 1880 the Bolivian troops retired from the theater of operations, and played no further part in the war.

Tactics and performance

The best unit of the Bolivian Army was the Colorados (“Red”) Bn, which had been raised in 1821 during the War of Independence from Spain. Since 1857 it had been converted into an elite unit famous for its rigid discipline and intensive training, becoming a sort of “praetorian guard” which helped various Bolivian dictators in their rise to power and during their subsequent rule. For this reason the Colorados always enjoyed preferential treatment from the current caudillo, receiving better equipment and weapons, and enlisting taller and stronger men than the Indios who made up the bulk of the Bolivian rank and file. During Daza’s presidency the majority of the unit’s soldiers were his relatives or friends; of 593 men, 370 held ranks above that of common soldier and thus received higher pay. However, the “Reds” were not so pampered that they could not fight. At the battle of Alto de la Alianza they defeated, in succession, the Chilean battalions Santiago, Navales, Esmeralda and Chillán; they then captured six enemy guns (including a machine gun), and resisted a strong cavalry charge by forming a defensive square. In commemoration, May 26 is Bolivia’s “Infantry Day.”

The 2nd or Sucre Bn (the “Yellows,” formed in 1876) was also a good unit. The 3rd Illimani Bn were officially designated as Cazadores (light infantry), but despite their green uniform and brass bugle-horn badge they were in all other respects simply line infantry. These “Greens” also fought well until they were annihilated at the battle of Dolores/San Francisco, but the new 3rd Bn formed for the second campaign was not of the same quality.

The National Guard infantry generally performed quite poorly, due to their lack of proper equipment, weapons, and training. The same was
true of the line cavalry, who, despite their denominations and flamboyant uniforms as Cuirassiers, Hussars, and Guides, were always short of men. The mounted units of the National Guard were mostly formed with young volunteers armed at their own expense; they rode to the field of battle but then dismounted to fight. The quality of some of them, such as the *Libres del Sur*, was quite good. The Bolivian artillery was very poor, having only superficial training and a very limited number of guns.

In general terms, the Bolivian common soldier had the potential to be a good campaigner, because he was accustomed to walking for miles in harsh terrain and had great resilience. But he had poor uniforms and weapons, no motivation, and bad leadership. The majority of the recruits were Indians; they had no idea why they were fighting, and were unable to understand a single word of the Spanish language spoken by their officers. Ineptitude and corruption were widespread in the wholly politicized officer corps, who were unable to train or lead their men properly. As noted above, the disproportion between the number of officers and men was almost incredible: at the beginning of the war there was one officer for every three or four soldiers.

**Weapons**

At the outbreak of the war the majority of the Bolivian infantry were armed with old percussion or even flintlock muskets. The exception were the *Colorados*, who had been issued the excellent Spanish 11mm M1871 Remington rolling-block rifle. During 1879 a total of 3,000 Remingtons were purchased, and all three regular battalions received them. Another common weapon (especially for National Guard units) was the M1866 Snider-Enfield rifle, and any Comblain rifles that might be acquired from the Peruvians were gratefully received. Peru also supplied a certain number of Castañon (modified Chassepot) and Peabody-Martini rifles. The Bolivian cavalry were frequently short of sabers (reportedly, a factor in their defeat at Pampa Germania), but contemporary French models were issued to some regulars. Cavalry units used a variety of carbines, including Martini-Henrys, Winchesters, M1871 Remingtons, and M1860 Spencers. Before the outbreak of war the artillery had just two 12-pdr muzzle-loading Blakely guns, and four machine guns; six 6cm Krupp mountain guns were purchased in 1879.
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PLATE COMMENTARIES

A: CHILEAN LINE INFANTRY & ARTILLERY
Since 1852 the Chilean Army had been dressed in smart French-style uniforms, as prescribed by the regulations of 1852, 1858, and 1878. The last, issued shortly before the War of the Pacific, introduced elegant uniforms which were in some cases almost identical copies of contemporary French models; no other army in South America showed such a strong French influence, or was as well dressed. (The prewar uniforms of Chilean regulars were manufactured in France by Alexis Godillot of Paris, and were thus of good quality.) The severity of the Atacama Desert's climate obliged the Chilean high command to provide new uniforms which could withstand the extremes of daytime heat and subzero temperatures at night. This was made possible thanks to the efforts of the General Supply Corps, formed in 1879. These new 1880 field uniforms, made of light blue-gray material, were introduced after the second land campaign and became increasingly widespread.

A1: Corporal 1st Class, 3rd Line Battalion, 1879
This was the service dress prescribed by the 1878 regulations. The dark blue, forward-tilted shako has red piping, and a red tuft rising from a national cockade. The long, double-breasted, dark blue tunic is piped red at the collar, cuffs, and front edge. The battalion number is displayed on the front of the shako band, the collar, and the buckle-plate of the waist belt. Rank is shown by two red inverted chevrons on both forearms. Note the French garance trousers with a blue stripe, universally worn by the Chilean infantry (in this case with white spat-type leggings). The rifle is an Austrian-made French M1874 Gras. This battalion fought at Dolores/San Francisco in 1879; at Miraflores in 1881, they and the Regt Valparaíso would be the first units from the Reserve to come up on the right flank of the hard-pressed 3rd Division.

A2: Private, 2nd Line Battalion, 1879
The Chilean campaign dress during the first two campaigns was simple and comfortable. The red képi has a bottom band and piping in dark blue, and bears the unit number. The short, single-breasted, dark blue jacket called the guerrera has red piping to the cuffs and front edge. The same trousers are worn as with the service uniform, either with white leggings or simply loose over the black leather shoes. The rifle is a Belgian 11mm M1870 Comblain; this had a lever action operated by rotating the spring-loaded trigger-guard forward and down, which gave a crisp ejection of the empty cartridge. Another effective feature was a chamber longer than the cartridge, which much reduced jams caused by black-powder fouling after repeated firing.

A3: Private, 2nd Line Battalion, 1882
The 2nd Line had seen heavy fighting in January 1881 at both Chorrillos and Miraflores, in the 1st Bde of 1st Division. This illustration shows the new 1880 light blue-gray uniform, though officers continued to wear their old dark blue and red uniforms. The képi might be entirely white-covered or just have a white neck-curtain. The new tunic had a red collar and cuffs but no front-edge piping, and might also be worn with either white or red trousers. This soldier wears the very widely issued buff-colored, calf-length desert boots. Note the canvas cartridge-pocket belt holding 100 rounds for the Comblain rifle, supported by two crossed straps passing up and over the shoulders. Campaign equipment includes a canvas haversack and the universal 2-litre tinplate canteen. The Comblain's bayonet was similar to that of the French Chassepot.

A4: Gunner, 1st Artillery Regiment, 1879
Chilean artillery had service uniforms following the cavalry pattern, but on campaign the gunners wore the same guerrera as the infantry. This soldier wears an entirely dark blue outfit with red-striped and piped trousers, but simple red trousers were also in use. The artillery badge, of crossed cannon-
barrels beneath a flaming shell, was worn on the képi and the buckle-plate of the waist belt. Artillerymen used the same equipment and weapons as cavalry troopers, including the high boots and the M1866 Winchester lever-action repeating carbine. At the battle of Dolores, a vital battery was successfully defended with the gun crews’ personal weapons.

**B: CHILEAN CAVALRY**

Each of the three Chilean cavalry regiments had a distinctive color and unit badge, as illustrated here on the shabraques: for the Granaderos a Caballo, dark blue and a flaming grenade; for the Cazadores a Caballo, green and a bugle-horn; and for the Carabineros de Yungay, light blue and a crossed carbine-and-saber. For formal duties the parade dress prescribed by the 1852 regulations was sometimes still worn: a dark blue jacket with a large frontal plastron in the regiment’s color, and red trousers. Many observers judged the Chilean cavalry to be the best in South America, for their training, discipline, mounts, and equipment. The superior quality of their horses and pack animals was a significant factor in their success on campaign.

**B1: Trooper, Granaderos a Caballo, 1879**

The 1878 service dress is similar to that of contemporary French hussars. The red shako has a dark blue bottom band and piping, with a dark blue tuft fixed over the national cockade, and a brass flaming-grenade badge. The black piping to the collar, cuffs, and front and bottom edges of the dark blue jacket is hardly visible. The regiment’s flaming grenade is displayed on the collar, and black cord frogging unites the three rows of brass buttons. The red trousers with a blue stripe are worn with calf-length black leather boots. This French M1839 Chatellerault saber was in general use by the Chilean cavalry. On campaign, entirely white summer uniforms were sometimes worn as an alternative to the usual guerrera stable jacket.

**B2: Trooper, Cazadores a Caballo, 1879**

The campaign uniform issued to cavalry by the 1878 regulations was comfortable but smart. The short dark blue stable jacket is faced at collar and cuffs, and piped at front and bottom, with the regiment’s distinctive color (here, green), also seen in the trouser side-stripe. The képi is red, with the bottom band and piping in the unit color; it was sometimes fitted with a white neck-curtain. The regiment’s brass bugle-horn badge is repeated on the front of the képi and the collar. A dark brown sling supports the classic Chilean caramañola water bottle, not visible here (see Plate C2). The weapon (just visible hanging beside his leg) is a Spencer carbine, the most common alternative to the Winchester; officers frequently had Lefaucheux revolvers. Again, the saber is a French M1839 Chatellerault.

**B3: Trooper, Carabineros de Yungay, 1881**

This unit was formed on May 8, 1879, soon after the beginning of the war. Like the other two cavalry regiments, for the 1880 Lima campaign it received new light blue-gray campaign uniforms. Here the képi is entirely white-covered, including the peak (visor). Note that the jacket has three rows of brass buttons, and – virtually invisible against the blue-gray – the regiment’s distinctive light blue collar, cuffs and piping to front edge. The use of white trousers suggests that it is worn here as a summer
uniform. In addition to the cavalry’s usual divided pouch-and-carbine belt for the M1866 Winchester, the Carabineers wore on campaign an infantry-style cartridge-pocket belt around the waist; note, too, the low desert boots. Typically for this unit, the saber is an old stirrup-hilted British model.

**C: CHILEAN NATIONAL GUARD & SUPPLY CORPS**

At the beginning of the war the National Guard battalions sometimes had diverse uniforms, but as it progressed their dress was gradually adapted to the standards of the regulars. Blue and red were the colors most used before the introduction of the new light blue-gray cloth during 1880. The most notable difference between regulars and National Guard was in the képi: the regular Army’s cap was red with a blue bottom band and piping, while the National Guard’s was in reversed colors.

**C1: Guardsman, National Guard Battalion Atacama, 1879**

This battalion was formed in Copiapo, mainly from miners; it took part in some of the most important actions of the war, including Dolores/San Francisco, and earned a high reputation. The unit was initially dressed at the expense of the people of Copiapo, with uniforms and equipment supplied by local businesses. During the first two campaigns this long black tunic and trousers were worn, with red collar and cuffs. On the front of the black képi are the bronze letters “B” and “A” (for “Batallón” and “Atacama”), each side of a brass five-point star. The rifle is a Comblain. For the 1881 Lima campaign the unit, by then designated a regiment, received the blue-gray jacket, which they wore with red trousers. At Miraflores, this was one of six battalions from 1st Div that came up to attack in the center of the line at about 3pm.

**C2: Guardsman, National Guard Battalion Cazadores del Desierto, 1879**

This unit was initially known as Legion Extranjera (“Foreign Legion”), because the majority of its 600 soldiers were French volunteers; this was soon changed to “Desert Light Infantry” after complaints from the French Embassy in Santiago, who wished to avoid any impression that France had sent troops to support Chile. The white cover of the képi bears the black letters “CdD” on the front. The uniform is quite unusual but very simple: a light gray double-breasted tunic with green collar and cuffs, white trousers, and the usual buff desert boots. The rifle is an M1874 Gras.

**C3: Guardsman, National Guard Battalion Antofagasta, 1879**

This unit was formed in Antofagasta soon after the Chilean occupation of the city, being recruited mainly from Chilean workers in the nitrate mines. The battalion never went to war; it remained in garrison in the occupied province of Antofagasta, but also served as a source of combat replacements. It wore captured Prussian-style Peruvian Pickelhaube helmets; these had been confiscated by Chilean customs officers and were originally worn by the National Guard Bn Chacabuco, but when that unit adopted the képi its helmets were given to the Antofagasta Battalion. Officers, by contrast, wore white cork helmets with brass chinscales and a number “1” on the front. This unit’s khaki uniform was distinctive, the long single-
breasted tunic having red collar, cuffs, and shoulder straps. The rifle is again an M1874 Gras; and note also the leather-trimmed haversack.

C4: Private, Intendencia, 1880
The Supply Corps had the same double-breasted tunic as the regular infantry, but in light brown with red collar and cuffs. Their job on the battlefield was to deliver ammunition to the fighting units by means of mules, which could carry about 2,000 rounds in each load. This man has additional equipment in the form of a double-banked cartridge belt around his waist with two-pocket covers, supported by shoulder braces. The inverted red chevron on both upper sleeves is a tactical sign; note, too, the single white band around his right arm, identifying Navy Cdre Patricio Lynch’s 1st Div of the Chilean Army. He is armed with a Comblain rifle.

D: PERUVIAN LINE INFANTRY
Until 1872 Peruvian soldiers were dressed in the French style, with blue jackets and red trousers. By the end of the Franco-Prussian War the government had decided to dress its Army in the style of the Prussian winners, complete with the Pickelhaube. (Many officers retained their French-style uniforms, which were considered more elegant.)

During the first two campaigns, fought in the Atacama Desert, the Peruvian infantrymen of the Ejército del Sur wore all-white tropical uniforms of very simple cut. On July 12, 1880 President Piérola decreed new dress regulations for the Army of the Reserve of Lima; these prescribed a simple double-breasted tunic entirely in dark blue. The few regular infantrymen who followed Cáceres in the Sierra used any kind of clothing they had or could find.

D1: Private, Battalion Huancayo, 1881
This unit, the second of infantry to be formed for the defense of Lima, was one of the few to survive that action, and marched into the central Andes to continue resistance. General Cáceres’s Army of the Center was very short of uniforms and equipment: with his limited funds, Cáceres bought some blue calico to make simple uniforms like this one. The all-red képi was the only item of dress used throughout Cáceres’s army, in order to distinguish its units from those of Iglesias’s Army of the North, which had all-blue caps. Note the poncho wrapped around the waist; a very common practice in the Peruvian and Bolivian armies. Armed with a Snider-Enfield rifle, this soldier is playing the charango, a traditional instrument popular among the Quechua Indians.

D2: Private, 1st Line Battalion Pichincha, 1879
This soldier has the light gray “Prussian” uniform prescribed by the 1872 regulations, piped on collar, cuffs, and front edge with the distinctive light blue color of the regular infantry. The Pickelhaube is an imported German M1867; by the outbreak of the war some of these had yet to have their Imperial Eagle plates replaced with the Peruvian national shield. The rifle is an M1866 Chassepot.

D3: Soldier, 3rd Line Battalion Ayacucho, 1879
At the beginning of the war Peruvian uniforms presented a motley appearance, because some units were dressed in
gray while others still had the old “French” blue tunic. The majority of those who were still dressed in the French style replaced the old red trousers with new gray ones or – as in this case – with blue; officers continued to wear red trousers. Note the light blue collar, cuffs, front piping, and trouser stripe; brass battalion numbers were worn on the képi and collar. The képi was frequently replaced with a local copy of the bonnet de police called a cristina or coscacho, made of blue cloth with white piping and tassel. This soldier has white leggings, and is armed with a Castaño rifle.

D4: Private, Battalion Guardia Peruana, 1880
This was the first unit of the line formed during Piérola’s Army reorganization for the defense of Lima, and thus displays a brass number “1” on the front of the shako; note that this has narrow red top and bottom bands. The white uniform is piped in the infantry’s usual light blue. Cartridge belts of this type were commonly used by all the combatant armies; this one has six canvas pockets each holding 10 cartridges for the Comblain rifle.

E: PERUVIAN CAVALRY
The 1872 regulations prescribed a parade dress for the Peruvian cavalry with the Pickelhaube and an entirely dark blue uniform of Prussian cut. Apparently, however, this uniform was issued only to the Lanceros de Torata, because other units such as the Húsares de Junín retained uniforms clearly inspired by contemporary French patterns.

E1: Trooper, Cazadores del Rímac, 1880
Formed on March 26, 1880, this regiment had two squadrons, one of mounted fusiliers and the other of lancers. The regiment was completely turned out as the Chilian Carabineros de Yungay, with that unit’s clothing and equipment from the captured transport ship Rimac. The only prescribed difference from the original Chilean uniform was a brass bugle-horn badge that should have been worn on the képi and collar to replace the Carabiners’ crossed carbine-and-saber, shown here. The red képi had the bottom band and piping in light blue; the dark blue stable jacket had a light blue collar, cuffs, and frontal piping; and the red trousers had a light blue stripe. The weapons were an M1866 Winchester carbine on the usual Chilean divided pouch belt, and an old-model British saber. The lancer squadron had ponnets in the Peruvian national colors of red over white.

E2: Volunteer, Morochucos de la Muerte, 1880
This irregular unit was raised for the defense of Lima from “morochucos,” the Peruvian name for gauchos. These cowboys – famous for their boldness and hard riding – were mestizos (of mixed Indian and Spanish descent) from the high Andes of central Peru. After a month of training in Ayacucho, they went to Lima in November 1880 commanded by the famous Col Miota. Their clothing was made by the women of Ayacucho from a fabric called jerga, of gray or black color, and they usually wore either sombreros or fur caps; the most traditional element of their outfit was the colorful poncho. Some had sabers, but the majority were armed only with lances; these had ponnets chosen (like the unit’s name) by Col Miota, of either red with a white skull-and-crossbones, or white with the same motif in black.

E3: Lieutenant, Húsares de Junín, 1879
This regiment, the best in the Peruvian cavalry, took part in some of the most important actions of the war. Its very French-style uniform was similar to that of the Chilean Granaderos a Caballo, and this sometimes led to confusion on the battlefield. The red képi with a blue bottom band has gold piping and chinstrap for officers, and here a buttoned-on white neck-curtain. The tunic-length dark blue jacket has a red collar, red piping to the front and cuffs, gold sleeve knots, and red and gold epaulet-loops. Enlisted men of this unit wore a short stable jacket, like E1. The red trousers have double dark blue side-stripes. The plate on the broad white pouched belt displays the Peruvian coat of arms in yellow metal, and the waist belt plate an “Inca” gold sun and the number “1” – the Junín Hussars were the 1st Regt of the Peruvian line cavalry. In addition to his saber, the officer is armed with one of the popular Lefaucheux revolvers.

F: PERUVIAN GUERRILLAS, NATIONAL GUARD & VOLUNTEERS
Peruvian National Guard infantry battalions had simple uniforms similar to those of the Line; some of the battalions were absorbed into the regular army, but most of them were short-lived and were soon disbanded. During the campaign of Lima some corps of local volunteers were raised, such as the “Garibaldi Legion.” Among the units formed in Lima there was also an Urban Guard formed by citizens and resident foreigners. With all the capital’s garrison troops deployed to the defensive lines south of the city, each community or nationality organized a company of troops under officers chosen from amongst their leading citizens. Uniforms were influenced by the military dress of their respective countries of origin, notably in the Spanish company.

F1: Quechua “Breñero,” 1883
The majority of Cáceres’s men had no uniforms and wore civilian or Indian clothes, in this case a traditional Quechua poncho worn over a simple white shirt, short trousers, and leather sandals (though many of them went barefoot). For recognition purposes Cáceres ordered the “mountaineers” to wear a red band around their hats, and as operations progressed many adopted the distinctive red képi of his Army of the Center. The small bands of Indian guerrilleros were armed with a variety of weapons including traditional Quechua spears, javelins, and slings, but also agricultural tools used as improvised weapons: axes, pitchforks, and machetes. This breñero is an exception in having received a Peabody-Martini rifle; his equipment is limited to a small leather bag for ammunition.

F2: Guardsman, National Guard Battalion Vengadores de Grau, 1879
This unit took the name “Avengers of Grau” in memory of the Peruvian naval hero who had died at Angamos. Although short-lived, the battalion had one of the neatest uniforms worn by the National Guard: a plain dark blue képi; a red short jacket with light blue collar, pointed cuffs, and frontal piping; and white trousers with a light blue side-stripe. The rifle is a Belgian Comblain.
F3: Private, Infantry Battalion Cazadores del Misti, 1879
This kind of white uniform was universally worn during the Atacama campaigns, and some other battalions whose uniforms were similar to this included the Granaderos del Cuzco and the Cazadores de Piérola. Many battalions in the Peruvian infantry were officially designated as cazadores, but none was true light infantry; weapons and training were the same as in other units, and they were distinguished only by some light-infantry features of their uniforms. In this case, note the green color of the képi, collar, and cuffs, and the brass bugle-horn badges on the képi and collar. The Peruvian national coat of arms is reproduced on the buckle of the waist belt. This soldier carries an M1871 Remington rolling-block rifle.

F4: Volunteer, Legión Garibaldi, 1880
The Italians living in Lima formed a company of ex-firemen numbering around 200 volunteers, called the Garibaldi Legion in honor of the famous Italian hero, who had been very active and popular in South America. They wore this simple black tunic and red trousers; the képi might be either black or blue, and bore a red patch on the front with the name “GARIBALDI” in large gold letters. The rifle is a Castaño – a Chassepot converted by a German factory to take metal cartridges.

G: BOLIVIAN INFANTRY
Since the presidency of José Ballivián Segurola (1841–47) the colors of the national flag (red, yellow, green) were the most used in Bolivian uniforms, in a variety of different combinations. Some peculiar features of Bolivian infantry uniforms were the profusion of buttons on the sleeves; the enormously deep, slanting cuffs; and the common use of leather bags trimmed with multicolored wool as haversacks.

The three regular battalions had smart uniforms and good equipment, while the National Guard battalions formed later in the war wore simpler dress, with gray as the dominant color. As the war progressed, many of these units suffered greatly from a lack of uniforms and modern weapons.

G1: Infantry captain, 1879
The privately purchased uniforms of Bolivian officers frequently differed from those of their soldiers, being mostly dark blue and cut to a French style. The dark blue shako has a cockade and tuft in national colors, a brass bugle-horn badge, triple gold rank lace, and a gilt frontal button. Rank is also displayed by three gold inverted chevrons above the cuffs, which are piped red like the collar and front of the frock coat. Note the many buttons running up the rear seam of the coat sleeves, and the gold epaulet-loops on the shoulders. The dark blue trousers, cut wide in the leg, are gathered at the ankle over black half-boots, and bear a broad gold side-stripe. The sword has a gold-braid fist-strap and knot.

G2: Grenadier, 1st Infantry Battalion Daza/“Colorados,” 1877
The “Reds” were the most privileged unit of the Bolivian Army, but fought hard in some of the important early actions of the war. Each of the three regular infantry battalions was uniformed in one of the country’s national colors; the Colorados, who were styled as a grenadier battalion, wore this extraordinary parade dress shortly before the war. The double-breasted jackets were manufactured by the French firm of Guillot, which established a branch in La Paz. The collar and cuffs are black, piped white, the former with flaming-grenade badges; the frontal piping is black. The massive bearskin bonnet has a bottom band in the national colors, a flaming-grenade badge, a tricolor plume, and gold tasselled cords; the chinstrap is fur-covered in order to resemble a beard (considered a distinctive feature of grenadiers). On campaign the usual headgear was a black shako, and the jacket was single-breasted like those of G3 and G4. This unit received M1871 Remington rifles.

G3: Sergeant, 2nd Infantry Battalion Sucre/“Amarillos,” 1879
The 2nd Line Inf Bn had yellow uniforms with red facing color and frontal piping, and white collar and cuff piping. Here the shako has a complete white campaign cover; and note the white scarf with red stripes – a particular feature of the three regular battalions. Rank is shown on both sleeves by two gold inverted chevrons. The white trousers have a narrow stripe in the unit’s facing color (as for the other two battalions). Note also the traditional Bolivian decorated leather bag carried as a haversack. He is armed with a Snider-Enfield rifle.

G4: Private, 3rd Infantry Battalion Illimani/“Verdes,” 1879
The 3rd Line Inf Bn or “Greens” were designated as cazadores, and wore a bugle-horn shako badge. Again, a common feature of campaign dress for troops throughout the Andean region was the traditional poncho worn wrapped around the waist under the belt. Blue trousers were often substituted for white, and in the field this unit often wore protective covers of coarse cloth which allowed air to circulate while still protecting the top of the feet from the desert sun. This soldier also wears the popular and comfortable bullhide ojotas sandals. Again, his rifle is an M1871 Remington.

H: BOLIVIAN CAVALRY
Bolivian cavalry uniforms were the most exotic and colorful outfits seen during the War of the Pacific, being basically of French style but with bright colors and some peculiar features. The three cavalry units existing before the war had elegant parade dress and relatively good equipment, while soldiers of the new volunteer units formed thereafter had to provide uniforms, weapons, and equipment at their own expense. For this reason their dress tended to be quite simple; some units, e.g. the Franco Tiradores, were largely dressed in civilian clothes and armed with a variety of firearms.

H1: Trooper, Cavalry Squadron Libres del Sur, 1880
This, one of the three squadrons composing the Legión Boliviana, was also known as the Ríferos del Sur; they were a unit of mounted riflemen made up of young volunteers who were armed and mounted at their own expense. They usually rode into action but dismounted to fight. This is the second uniform used by the unit, commissioned from French tailors
by President Daza himself; the first had been a simpler gray jacket worn with white trousers. The jacket of fine dark blue cloth has a red collar, cuffs, and edging; three rows of buttons are set on red bands across the front, and the back was also trimmed with red lace. The three red inverted chevrons on the upper sleeves are not rank insignia but purely decorative, like the triple side-stripes on the trousers. The weapons are an M1871 Remington rifle carried on the saddle, and a French saber. The other squadrons of the Legión Boliviana had similar uniforms but in different colors: the Murillo wore black with green facings, and the Vanguardia gray with red facings and six lines of cord frogging.

H2: 2nd lieutenant, Line Cavalry Squadron Escolta/1a Coraceros, 1879
This elite squadron provided Daza’s personal escort; as well as the designation 1st Cuirassiers it bore several vainglorious nicknames — “The Tigers of Bengal,” “The Immortals,” or “The Tenth Legion of Caesar.” The parade uniform was the most elaborate in the Bolivian Army, and was designed (like the unit itself) on the model of Napoleon III’s Cent-Gardes. The steel helmet has a brass crest, visor, and chinscales, a brass “Inca sun” front plate, black mane, and red tuft and plume. The cuirasses were bought as surplus from the French Army and were then modified. The steel breastplate and backplate are joined by brown leather shoulder straps, with white metal buckles attached to the brass decorations; they flank a larger central sun emblem. The protective “fraise” lining of red cloth under the cuirass is partly visible. The yellow jacket has green collar and cuffs, the collar piped in yellow. Rank is shown by a gold fringed epaulet on the left shoulder and a fringeless gold contre-epaulet on the right. The trousers are made of light gray cloth with darker gray vertical lines, and have red side-stripes. The French-style saber has a triple-bar hilt, and the fringed lance pennant is in the Bolivian national colors of red, yellow, and green.

H3: Captain, Line Cavalry Squadron Escolta/Guías, 1879
This officer of the Guides squadron from Daza’s mounted escort wears a simple but elegant field uniform: a green képi with red bottom band, gold chinstrap and triple rank lace, and gilt front button; a short double-breasted red jacket with green collar, cuffs, and lapels worn partly opened; and white trousers with triple stripes – a common feature of Bolivian cavalry uniforms. Despite being an officer, he is armed only with an M1860 Spencer repeating carbine.

Studio portrait of Irene Morales Infante, the most famous Chilean cantinera of the war, posing with her keg and a Peabody-Martini rifle. She took part in the landings at Pisagua and the battle of Dolores/San Francisco with the 3rd Line Inf Bn, and for her great courage and compassion Gen Baquedano in person made her a sergeant. Cantineras had many duties on campaign, and some of them even took up arms in emergencies. Usually they dressed in blue jackets and red skirts of some quasi-military cut, though this lady clearly had a fondness for plaid.
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