Journal of the Arkansas Academy of Science

Volume 8 Article 21

1955

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Recommended Citation

Breymann, Walter N. (1955) "Cientificos and the Collapse of the Diaz Regime: A Study of the Origins of Mexican Revolutionary Sentiment, 1903-1910," Journal of the Arkansas Academy of Science: Vol. 8, Article 21. Available at: http://scholarworks.uark.edu/jaas/vol8/iss1/21

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THE CIENTIFICOS AND THE COLLAPSE OF THE DIAZ REGIME A STUDY IN THE ORIGINS OF MEXICAN REVOLUTIONARY SENTIMENT 1903-1910

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The problem of social change has long fascinated students of society. Historians, sociologists, political scientists, and philosophers have directed their efforts toward a better understanding of this intriguing phenomenon. The results of this labor have been varied. Some, and the names of Spengler, Sorokin, and Arnold Toynbee come immediately to mind, have approached the problem in the grand manner and produced broadly philosophical interpretations of the dynamics of social change and of the life histories of civilizations and cultures. Others, in somewhat more modest fashion, have confined their attention to revolutions as a single aspect of social change, and have sought to expose the "anatomy" and reveal the uniformities or "pattern" discernable in violent social upheavals.

These studies, stimulating in their own right for the panoramic breadth of vision which they impart, are doubly valuable if they provide insights, concepts, or tools of analysis which can profitably be applied to the study of a single revolution, in a particular country, within a strictly limited period of time. This paper is concerned with the application of Arnold J. Toynbee's concepts of Creative and Dominant Minorities to the role of the Cientificos in the genesis of the Mexican Revolution of 1910 which destroyed the thirty-four year regime of President Porfirio Diaz.

To be sure, the Mexican Republic, taken alone, does not constitute a civilization in any sense comparable to Toynbee's use of the term. Nor is it certain that Western Christian Civilization, of which Mexico is a part, is in that process of disintegration with which the ascendency of Dominant Minorities is associated. 3 However, if attention is shifted from the macrocosm of civilization and focused on the microcosm of this particular revolutionary movement, one is impressed by a series of striking and perhaps useful parallels.

Dominant Minorities, according to the hypothesis proposed in A Study of History, are characterized by a lack of creative energy and original thinking, qualities which are the hallmark of a Creative Minority's contribution to a growing civilization. Instead, Dominant Minorities tend to degenerate to a static, defensive posture of social andmental fixity, in which an attempt is made to retain by force a position of inherited privilege which they have ceased to merit on the basis of creative accomplishment. This attempt to dominate a situation in which it no longer commands the initiative causes the recalcitrant minority to become a rigid, closed corporation refusing to hand over to other aspirants a share in the oligarchy's jealously guarded privileges. Assuming the role of predatory plutocrats, they become a bureaucracy obsessed with traditionalism and past accomplishments, and affecting a detached, superior aloofness which alienates them from the rest of society and further decreases their ability to adjust to the realities of changing conditions.

¹ See Oswald Spengler, The Decline of the West (2 vols.; New York, 1926-1928), Piterim Sorokin, Social And Cultural Dynamics (4 vols.; New York, 1941), especially Vol. III, Fluctuation of Social Relationships, War, and Revolution, and Arnold J. Toynbee, A Study of History (6 vols.; London, 1934-1939).

² See the bibliography on the study of revolution in Crane Brinton, The Anatomy of Revolution (New York, 1952), 297-315.

³ Creative Minorities, according to Toynbee, are associated with growing civilizations while Dominant Minorities are characteristic of civilizations in the process of disintegration. Toynbee, A Study of History, IV, 280.

⁴ For a discussion of Dominant Minorities see Toynbee, op. cit., V. 26-40.

⁵ Ibid., 31-32, 47, 390.

The evidence suggests that the Cientificos followed a similar evolution in their transformation from a Creative to a Dominant Minority in Mexican political life between 1892 and 1910. From the inception of the group as the Union Liberal in 1892 up to the sixth election of Diaz in 1903, the Cientificos had constituted a constructive minority of creative thinkers and reformers, strongly influenced by the currently popular Positivist Philosophy, and making a significant contribution to Mexican political development through their open criticism of the Diaz regime and consistent efforts to bring to Mexico the benefits of enlightened and scientific administration. As men of exceptional ability, they were responsible for much that was accomplished during the most productive period of the Diaz regime. Even their detractors were forced to admit that they were the intellectual aristocracy of the country, and should be credited almost exclusively with the great strides made in Mexican economic development.

Then, about 1903, the group abdicated its position of critical opposition, abandoned its reform program, was absorbed into the administration, began to share in the spoils of the regime, and, as selfish defenders of a profitable status quo, assumed a role characteristic of Dominant Minorities. Evidences of this transition are not difficult to find. While Diaz did not immediately surrender the administration into the hands of his former critics, the "anti-Cientifico" complex which had characterized his earlier administration was quietly abandoned. In December of 1902, Bernardo Reys, Minister of War and a violent opponent of the Cientificos, was removed from his post by the President at the insistence of the Cientificos. Of A year later, in 1903, came another indication of the increasing dominance of the Cientificos in the administration. Both in 1896, and in 1900 Diaz had turned to the National Porfirista Circle, enemies of the Cientificos, to promote his reelection. Recalling the critical Cientifico program of 1892, he had been careful to prevent another convention of the Union Liberal. Now, however, the situation had changed to such an extent that Diaz turned to the Cientificos to promote his sixth reelection, and a second Union Liberal Convention was permitted to convene in Mexico City in June of 1903.

As further compensation for having made their peace with the dictator, on May 6, 1904, the Cientificos were granted another of their long-standing demands. On that date Diaz permitted the reestablishment of the office of vice-president, a move which he had consistently opposed in the past, since vice-presidents had often been a source of intrigue against the chief executive. The election of Ramon Corral, a Cientifico ally and Minister of Gobernación since 1903, was a clear-cut victory for the group. 12

This change in the policy of Diaz toward the Cientificos is due in large measure to the changed attitude of the Cientificos themselves. Abandoning their liberal, reforming impulse and their original ideal of social progress for the good of the nation, they became increasingly materialistic, and turned their talents to converting their influential position within the administration into personal financial gain. 13 This shift from political reform to the harmless con-

While references to the Gientificos as the sinister 'brain trust" behind the Diaz regime are numerous, no reasonably complete account of their activities has appeared in English. See Charles C. Cumberland, Mexican Revolution, Genesis under Modero (Austin, Texas, 1952), 10-12, and Howard F. Cline, The United States and Mexico (Cambridge, 1953), 52-56, 433-434.

Testimony of Henry Lane Wilson, United States Ambassador to Mexico. U. S. Congress, Senate, Investigation of Mexican Affairs. Preliminary report and hearing of the Committee on Foreign Relations, 66th. Congress, 2nd. Session, on Senate Resolution 106 (2 vols.; Washington, 1920), II, 2255; Ricardo Garcia Granados, Historia de Mexico desde la restauración de la republica en 1867 hasta la caída de Porfirio Diaz (Mexico, 1911), 266.

⁸ Luis Cabrera, Obras Políticas delLic. Blas Urrea, recopilación de escritos publicados durante los años de 1909, 1910, 1911, y 1912 (Mexico, 1921), 3-8; Jose Lopez-Portillo y Rojas, Elevación y caída de Porfirio Días (Mexico, 1921), 263.

⁹ F. Vasquez Gomez, Memorias Políticas, 1903-1913 (Mexico, 1933), 11ff.

¹⁰ Ramon Prida, De la Dictadura a la Anarquia. Apuntes para la historia política de Mexico durante los ultimos cuarenta y tres años (El Paso, Texas, 1914), 96-97, 156, 165.

¹¹ Lopez, Elevacion y caida, 248-254.

¹² Prida, Dictadura a la Anarquia, 264; Vasquez Gomez, Memórias Políticas. 14.

¹³ Lopez, Elevación y Caida, 261.

cerns of influence peddling was more to the dictator's liking. Willing to overlook their economic opportunism, Diaz saw them now as a group whose talents could be useful to his administration without being a source of embarrassment. Their very success in these new intrigues, however, ultimately caused them to fall into the disrepute which is so universally associated with this group in the literature of the Mexican Revolution. ¹⁴

Under these conditions it is not surprising to find in the final years of the Diaz administration the development of a system known as cientificismo. The system can hardly be described in the usual terms of a political party seeking its share of patronage and spoils. Party politics as such scarcely existed in Mexico at the turn of the century. Toynbee suggests that Dominant Minorities typically detach themselves from the rest of society and affect a detached, almost snobbish aloofness which alienates them from the public generally. The Cientificos reveal this same esotericism. They had little voluntary connection with the people, did not seek popular support or converts, did not represent the aspirations of the masses of the Republic, had little interest in affairs beyond their personal advancement, and, after abandoning the reform program of 1892, had no established platform of guiding principles. 16

The Cientificos became, in short, a sort of intra-governmental clique, "brain trust," or corporation directed by a small group of admittedly capable men -- a bureaucratic brotherhood held together by the cohesive power of public plunder and dedicated to the exploitation of the resources of the country, not by means of actual crime, but by official and quasi legal means. Toynbee's description of a "discreetly predatory plutocracy" as representative of Dominant Minorities seems to catch the spirit of cientificismo with remarkable precision. 17

Many of the Cientificos were lawyers. Their influence in government circles enabled them to arrange or "fix" matters in the national palace, legislative chambers, courts, and public offices. Laws were enacted and enforced with careful attention to the individuals involved. ¹⁸ Outsiders competing with the oligarchy were in a position of relative inferiority, and were unable to arrange and organize the large-scale enterprises and monopolies which were Cientifico specialties. As a result, they were in great demand by foreign companies to arrange concessions of all types. As a financial and political oligarchy, the Cientificos recognized their vested interest in the government of President Diaz and were obsessed by the desire to preserve the existing order. ¹⁹

In their efforts to maintain an advantageous status quo and prevent intrusion upon their preserve, the Cientificos were obliged to become aclosed clique. Their distrust of the masses and their consequent policy of exclusiveness provoked popular references to "elocarro completo" -- the full car. There were no seats, not even standing room. Obven though the bureaucracy had grown tremendously and by 1910 included most literate Mexicans, these lesser civil servants were allowed no voice in shaping the cientifico-dominated policies of the administration. The rising generation of educated creoles was excluded from the

¹⁴ U. S. Congress (Senate), Investigation of Mexican Affairs, 88, 2254-2255. See also Henry Lane Wilson, Diplomatic Episodes in Mexica, Belgium, and Chile (New York, 1927), 199.

¹⁵ Toynbee, A Study of History, IV, 233-234, V, 390.

¹⁶ Lopez, Elevación y Caida, 272-273.

¹⁷ Toynbee, A Study of History, V, 40. Representative accusations against rampant cientificiano can be found in E. D. Trowbridge, Mexico, Today and Tomorrow (New York, 1919), 98; Edward I Bell, The Political Shame of Mexico (New York, 1914), 22, and Lopez, Elevación y Caída, 273.

18 Frank Tannenbaum, Peace by Revolution, An Interpretation of Mexico (New York, 1933), 100-101.

¹⁹ Luis Cabrera (Blas Urrea), Veinte Años Despues (Mexico, 1937), 259; Roque Estrada, La Revolución y Francisco I. Madero (Guadalajara, 1912), 25.

²⁰ Trinidad Sanches Santos, Editoriales de "El País" en 1910, 1911, y 1912, compiled by M. L. Sanchez (Mexico, 1923), 78. Editorial of July 21, 1910, "El Enigma." See also Francisco Bulnes, The Whole Truth About Mexico (New York, 1916), 214.

²¹ Carleton Beals asserts that virtually all literate middle class Mexicans were on the government payroll in some capacity or other. Carleton Beals, Perfirio Diaz, Dictator of Mexico (Philadelphia, 1932), 231.

truly important public posts where their more liberal views might have tempered or moderated the harsh Positivism of the Diaz regime. 22 This unwillingness to admit younger men and absorb fresh ideas gradually transformed the administration into an old man's government, hopelessly out of touch with the changing spirit of the times.

At the head of this gerontocracy was a dictator already past 80 years of age. Of the 8 cabinet members, 2 were past 80 and the youngest was 55. of 20 state governors, 2 were past 80, 6 past 70, and 17 past 60. Government office was looked upon as an asylum for loyal patriarchs. These men, reelected and reappointed over a period of 30 years, "owned" their posts with the consent of Diaz and allowed no younger men to trespass. Because of the number of mummies they contained, journalists flippantly referred to the government offices as "the Pyramids of Teotihuacan."

Luis Cabrera summarized the extent of Gientifico domination by 1910 by asserting that both the Senate and Chamber of Deputies were effectively dominated, though often indirectly, by the Gientificos. 23 Of 51 senators, 25 were Gientificos. Of 230 deputies, 118 were tools of the Gientificos. In the supreme courand other high offices the same situation prevailed. After 1900 these bodies were converted into mere subsidiaries of the central Gientifico machine. Cabrera concludes that 75 per cent of the public employees retained their position only through Gientifico influence. 24

Thus, it can be seen that after 1903 the Cientificos adopted another of the expedients characteristic of Dominant Minorities: the tendency to degenerate into a rigid, static, closed corporation seeking to retain their position by force and influence alone. ²⁵ Though Mexico was changing, their philosophy of outdated Positivism and economic materialism had assumed the legendary rigidity of the unchanging laws of the Medes and Persians. Although the peripheral membership of the group did increase, the privileged inner circle of the oligarchy refused to admit other and younger aspirants to a share in the direction of Mexico's social and political development. ²⁶ The resistence to change expressed in the "full car" psychology is evidence of the degeneration of a Creative Minority into a merely dominant bureaucracy inimical to continued creativity.

The efforts of a recalcitrant minority to retain its hold on the country by direct and forceful means are revealed in the Cientificos' willing use of the strong arm of the dictator to crush outspoken opponents, and in their resort to a controlled press in an effort to prevent embarrassing criticism. Through Reyes Spindola, owner and editor of El Imparcial, the Cientificos controlled the leading daily newspaper of Mexico City. As the "semi-official organ" of the Cientificos, the paper prospered accordingly. 27 Numerous charges were made that El Imparcial received a handsome government subsidy and that, in addition, the Cientifico paper monopoly raised the price of newsprint for opposing papers. 28 In addition to El Imparcial, El Debate, the mouthpiece of Vice-president Ramon Corral, and El Diario, controlled by Cientifico Enrique Creel, were used by the group to further their interests. Editors who were too critical and outspoken were forced to lead a precarious opposition existence.

By virtue of their dominant position in the administration, the members of the oligarchy were able to exploit the routine functions of government for their personal benefit. Through the Treasury, they were able to dominate the other government departments by means of a law giving Minister of Finance Jose Limantour, a Cientifico, surveillance over their budgets. 29 Through the medium of the

²² Cumberland, Mexican Revolution, 27-29; Tannenbaum, Peace by Revolution, 132-133.

²³ Cabrera, Obras Políticas, 87-116.

²⁴ Ibid

²⁵ Toynbee, A Study of History, V, 26-31.

²⁶ Toynbee, op. cit., V, 32-33.

²⁷ Walter F. McCaleb, "The Press in Mexico," Hispanic American Historical Review, III (1920), 444-445.

²⁸ Cabrera, Obras Políticas, 59-68; Carlo de Fornaro, Mexico Tal Quel Es (International Publishing Company, 1909), 119.

²⁹ Lopez, Elevación y Caida, 267.

Compañía Bancaría de Obras y Bienes Raices, government manipulators were provided with a convenient cloak for their fiscal intrigues. Through the Bancaría, officials were able to conceal their identity and to take government contracts or obtain government concessions without undesirable publicity. 30

Of the many areas of Científico activity, the most significant in arousing anti-Científico sentiment was the matter of concessions and monopolies. In the case of foreign concessions, the complaint was that the concessions were excessively favorable and that the Científicos received scandalous fees for arranging them. Then too, the Científicos were guilty of securing for themselves monopolies of all kinds in violation of Article 28 of the Constitution prohibiting exclusive monopolies. Special protective legislation was enacted to cover their particular products and to guarantee exorbitant profits to the favored few. In legislation relating to banking, tariffs, taxation, land policy, and the nationalization of railways, the public was convinced that it could see the hand of the Científico manipulators. Rumor and scandal were widespread in spite of the fact that many concessions were not nearly as profitable and many administration programs hardly as scandalous as was popularly believed. 32

A catalog of Cientifico misdeeds could be extended to considerable length. The literature of the Revolutionary Era is filled with accusations. The figures and data are seldom dispassionate and are often unreliable. The would be naive to assume that the Cientifico oligarchy was free of guilt. It is beyond question that various members of the group did take advantage of their favored position to grow immensely wealthy. On the other hand, the manipulations of some were popularly credited to the entire group, and cientificismo became synonomous in the public mind with the manipulation of public affairs for private plunder. The contraction of the contraction of public affairs for private plunder.

That many of these accusations were false did not serve to change the popular stereotype or still the public clamor. In every instance <code>Cientifico</code> motives were assumed to be of the worst. Their dealings as representatives of foreign interests led to the popular impression that they were mere tools of foreign powers, and they became the focus of a rampant anti-foreign sentiment. The armed supression of anti-foreign demonstrations by the government was interpreted as clear evidence of a simister relationship between the <code>Cientificos</code>, the government, and foreigners. The properties of the philosophy of the original <code>Cientificos</code>, that of importing a foreign brand of scientific progress through a use of foreign capital and talent, only added to the growing sentiment that the <code>Cientificos</code> were responsible for making Mexico the mother of foreigners and the stepmother of Mexicans."

The Cientificos of the dominant period, however, were not themselves concerned with their former stature and ideals as a creative minority. Their pride, their arrogance, their contempt for all outside the oligarchy, fed a constantly growing wave of anti-Cientifico sentiment. Under the circumstances, a clash between them and the masses was inevitable. The unsavory details of the past ten years were not easily ignored nor forgotten. From all quarters came the symptoms of a growing discontent.

The Creelman Interview of 1908 had done much to arouse the smouldering resentment. Madero's La Succession Presidencial en 1910 published late in 1908 made him a rallying point for the opposition. Rival political parties began to campaign openly. Books and pamphlets aimed at the oligarchy appeared in increasing numbers. In 1909 Andres Molina Enriques published his Los Grandes Problemas

³⁰ Bell, Political Shame of Mexico, 7.

³¹ W. H. Calcott, Liberalism in Mexico, 1857-1929 (Stanford, 1931) 140. Typical of the accusations are the statements made by Pedro Gonzales-Blanco, De Porfirio Diaz a Carranza (Madrid 1916), 38.

³² U. S. Congress (Senate), Investigation of Mexican Affairs, I, 1444.

³³ See Cline, The United States and Mexico, 433-434.

³⁴ Francisco Madero who led the revolution to overthrow Diaz and cientificismo admits that many of the rumors and claims are unfounded and exaggerated. Francisco I. Madero, La Sucesión Presidencial en 1910 (Mexico, 1911), 123ff.

³⁵ Papers Relating to the Foreign Relations of the United States, 1911 (Washington, 1918), 353-354.

Nacionales in which, with telling effect, he revealed the extent of Cientifico domination. The regime was able to assure its return to office in 1910 only by resorting to that characteristic device of the Dominant Minority, crude and forceful supression of the opposition.

The campaign of 1910 should have furnished Diaz and the Gientificos with ample warning of the approaching storm. The events of that year certainly provided ammunition for the opponents of the oligarchy. It made little difference to the people whether or not all the charges and accusations made against the minority were true or whether their complicity in all the scandals credited to them could actually be established. The significant point was that the public believed the things they heard, and it was this belief that swelled the ranks of maderistas. They knew that the door of opportunity was closed to them because of the "full car" policy. They could not speak, write, or publish with impunity. They could not enter politics because the events of the last campaign indicated that in reality politics still were not permitted. They could not hold offices, these were preempted by the Cientifico gerontocracy.

Thus, one of the causes of the revolt that dethroned Diaz was hatred of dominant cientificismo, a hatred revealed in the revolutionary battle cry, "Death to the Cientificos'." The revolution was not simply against Diaz as a tyrant, but against the Cientificos who surrounded him. 36 It was a revolt against the social and mental fixity of the closed corporation, against the business monopoly of dominant cientificismo, against the rigid preservation of a system of special privilege, and finally, against a philosophy of government, once creative and constructive, but now purely negative and little more than an elaborate rationalization to justify the continued ascendency of the Dominant Minority. It was, in short, the Mexican repudiation of those qualities which, according to the Toynbee thesis, are universally characteristic of Dominant Minorities.

A letter of American Ambassador Henry Lane Wilson to his government dated November 26, 1910, points up the special vengeance of the masses for the Cientificos, even greater, perhaps, than their dislike of the dictator himself. He reports, "there is deep animosity on all hands...to the Cientifico group which surrounds the President, and in my opinion, it is only respect and fear of the President which restrains a formidable movement." 37

Even as Wilson wrote of a "formidable movement," the revolution was already in progress. Francisco Madero had already issued his Plan of San Luis Potosi calling the people to arms. In spite of the President's last-minute offers of liberal reforms, the revolution spread rapidly, moved beyond control, and triumphed. On May 25, 1911, Diaz resigned the Presidency, and with his fall, cientificismo as the institutionalized expression of a Dominant Minority ceased to exist.

One may well conclude that the role of the Gientificos in the long Diaz administration was an important one indeed. The picture of Pre-revolutionary Mexico can hardly be understood without constant reference to that unique group. Much of the controversey and misunderstanding surrounding the Gientificos stems from a failure to emphasize the distinction between the group as a truly Creative Minority, and, later on, as a merely Dominant Minority.

It is in helping to point up this contrast that the Toynbee concepts seem helpful. It is granted that any extremely literal application of these concepts to the specifics of the Mexican case is out of the question.

37 Papers Relating to the Foreign Relations of the United States, 1911, 367-368.

³⁶ Jose Fernandez Rojas, De Porfirio Diaz a Victoriana Huerta, 1910-1913 (Mexico, 1913), 129.