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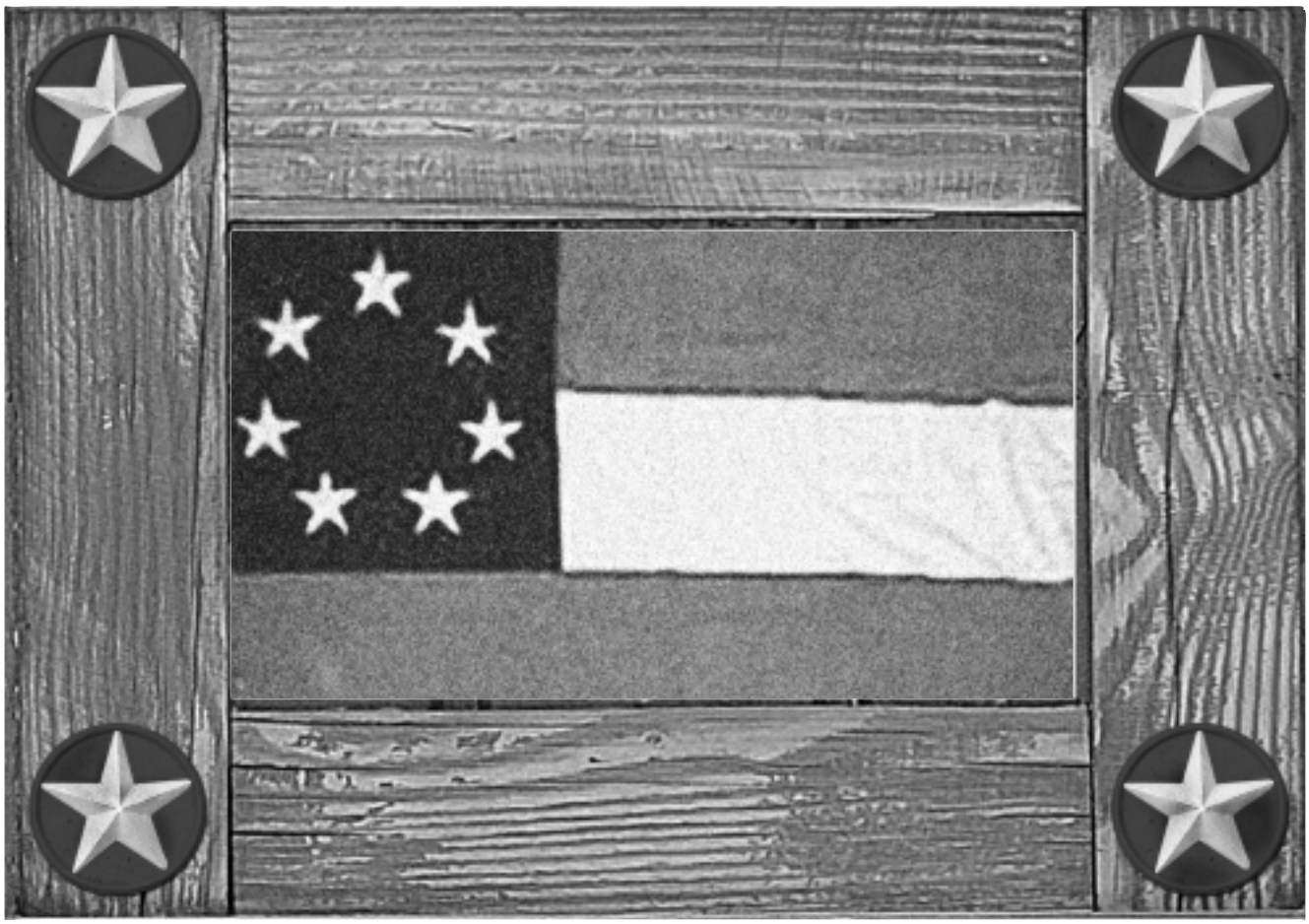


UNIT ONE

THE PERIOD OF CIVIL WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

Lessons 1 – 8

More books have been written about the Civil War than about any other period in American history. This four-year conflict, fought between the eleven states that seceded from the Union and the twenty-three states that remained, marked a major turning point in the history of the United States. It brought to an end the southern agrarian way of life that was largely dependent on slavery for its success, and it answered the question as to whether a state could leave the Union. The defeat of the Confederacy by the Union army in 1865 ensured that the United States would continue as one undivided nation. However, the end of the war also left a legacy of bitterness that even today has not completely disappeared.

During the first half of the nineteenth century, the United States had developed into a nation of three distinct sections with very different interests.

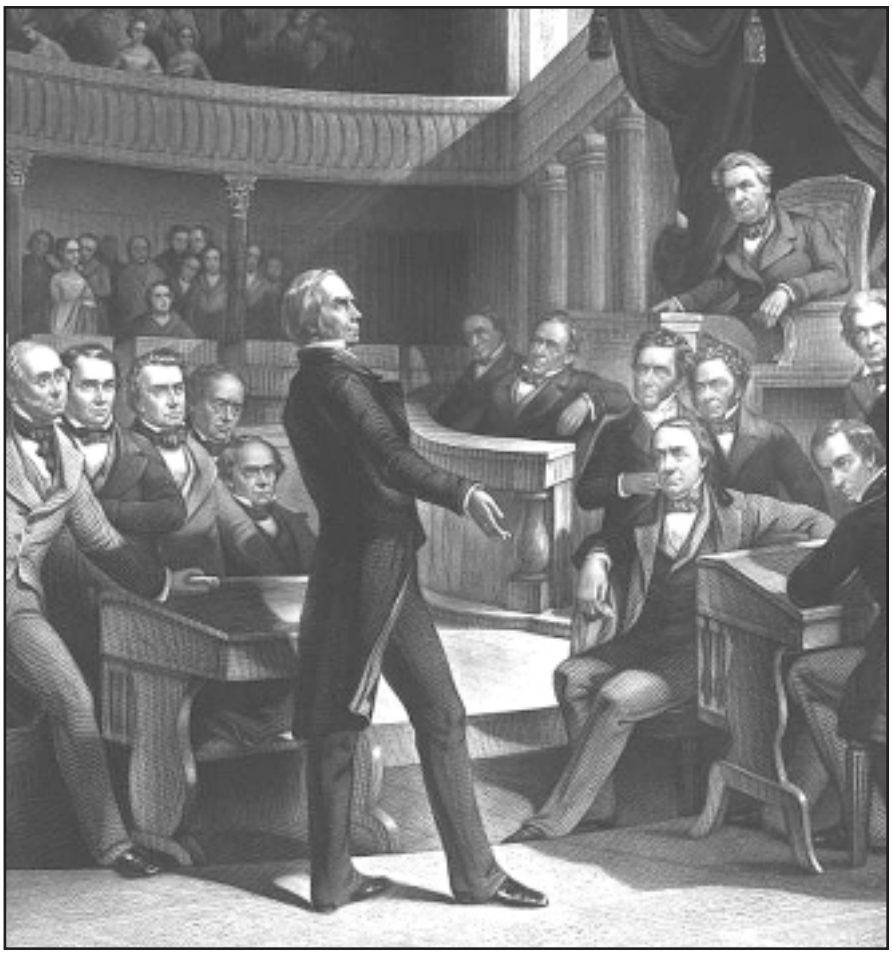
- The North (New England and the Mid-Atlantic states) had an economy based on industry and commerce. Slavery had died out here. Many large towns and cities had grown up, and a thriving farm system fed the region's ever-increasing population. These states were insistent that the federal government pass protective tariffs to help their industries and trade.

- The South had a cotton- and tobacco-based agricultural economy that depended on slavery. By 1861, there were more than four million slaves in the South. The region had a white population of less than six million, relatively little industry, and few cities of any size. These states were insistent that no measures be passed that threatened slavery.

- The West had an agricultural economy that was more diversified than the agricultural economy in the South and led to a natural trade relationship with the North. As new territories formed in the West and applied for statehood, the question arose as to whether they would enter the Union as "slave states" or "free states." Maintaining an equal number of "slave" and "free" states became a matter of great significance in the young nation. The West was insistent that the federal government provide aid for roads and other improvements in this growing region.

By the 1850s, there had developed a heated economic rivalry between these three sections, especially between the North and the South. Each section demanded special laws favoring its needs. At the same time, many southern leaders strongly supported the doctrine of nullification and states' rights. According to the doctrine of nullification, an individual state could declare null and void within its own borders any federal law that it considered to be unconstitutional. In 1832, South Carolina had actually passed an ordinance that nullified the tariffs of 1828 and 1832 and forbade collection of those tariffs in the state. John C. Calhoun, representing South Carolina in the U.S. Senate, explicitly argued for a state's right to secede from the Union, if necessary. Many southerners agreed with Calhoun. They viewed the United States as a union of largely independent states, with each state having the legal right to withdraw from that union. By 1861, eleven southern states, ready to act on this belief, had decided to secede from the United States of America.

All American History



LESSON 1

Prelude to the Civil War . . . . . 1820 — 1861 A.D.

ATMOSPHERE

GROWING DISUNITY IN THE UNITED STATES AND POLITICAL FALLOUT

For more than forty years before the Civil War began, the United States was anything but united. Two different societies had grown up in the young republic—one dependent on slavery (the South) and one not (the North). During these years the nation's political parties—at that time, primarily the Whig Party and the Democratic Party—tried to cope with the differing outlooks and needs of these two regions. Two major compromises concerning slavery, one in 1820 and the other in 1850, were negotiated in the hope of bringing resolution to the growing tension. However, these compromises ultimately satisfied neither the North nor the South. Eventually, the Whig Party fell apart as a result of the stress; and the Democratic Party barely survived.

HISTORY OF SLAVERY IN THE UNITED STATES FROM 1787 – 1820

The Constitution of the United States, written in 1787 and ratified by all thirteen states by 1790, did not abolish slavery. The importation of slaves into the United States was prohibited in 1808, but this federal

Slave Auction
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-2582]

legislation was only half-heartedly enforced in the South. After 1808, slavery continued to prosper in the South, while dying out in all states north of Maryland. The buying and selling of slaves became big business in the South, and the nation's capital, Washington, D.C., served as the center of the American slave market.

At the beginning of the history of the new American republic, it had been assumed by many that a nation founded on the principles of human freedom and individual liberty would not long tolerate the immorality of slavery. However, since the economy of the South depended on slave labor, many in the South began to insist that slavery was a benefit for black Americans — that it was an institution that cared for them and made their survival possible. Although abolitionist societies spoke out against slavery during the early years of the nineteenth century, they were not well organized in promoting their cause.

COMPROMISE OF 1820 (THE MISSOURI COMPROMISE)

In 1818, the Union consisted of an equal number of free states and slave states. Since each state was given two U.S. senators by the Constitution, this meant that representation in the Senate was also equally divided between free and slave states. From this point on, until the Civil War began in 1861, Congress was faced with the difficult task of maintaining this delicate balance. The first test occurred in 1818 when Missouri applied for admission to the Union as a slave state. Those opposed to slavery were fearful that allowing Missouri to enter as a slave state would lead to the spread of slavery in the remainder of the territory that had been obtained in the Louisiana Purchase. Heated debate ensued in the U.S. Congress concerning this issue.

Henry Clay, known as the "Great Compromiser" in the U.S. Senate, helped to negotiate a way to address this controversy. The result was the Missouri Compromise of 1820, which allowed Missouri to enter the Union as a slave state if Maine came in as a free state. This compromise left the free state/slave state balance unchanged, but it did ban slavery from the Louisiana Purchase north of the southern border of Missouri — 36°30'N latitude (except, of course, in Missouri). Clay's compromise was seen as a helpful solution by some. However,

others believed it to be only a temporary and uneasy truce that established a division between North and South that could never be erased. As a result of the debate surrounding the 1820 Compromise, the abolitionist movement was re-energized.

[pic1-2: A depot on the Underground Railroad]

CIVIL DISOBEDIENCE — THE UNDERGROUND RAILROAD

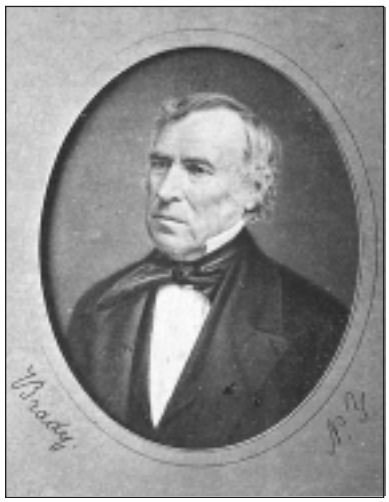
For over 150 years, there existed a secret network in the United States by which fugitive slaves could attempt to travel to freedom. In the 1830s, this loosely organized system of escape began to be known as the Underground Railroad. The houses, barns, and boats where runaway slaves were hidden and helped on their way to freedom in the North or Canada began to be referred to as "stations," slaves traveling this route were called "passengers," and those leading them to safety were known as "conductors."

Historians will never know exactly how many slaves tried, and failed, to escape by means of the Underground Railroad — and how many actually succeeded. However, they have estimated that between one hundred thousand and two hundred thousand fugitive slaves found their way to freedom by the beginning of the Civil War, with approximately 80 percent of that number being men ages sixteen to forty. The largest proportions of successful escapes were made from Maryland, Virginia, and Kentucky.

Runaway slaves were vigorously pursued by federal agents and bounty hunters, and many were recaptured. Harsh punishment awaited them upon their return to their masters. Although most individuals working for the Underground Railroad were not famous, a few were well-known authors and lecturers. Perhaps the best known of all the conductors was Harriet Tubman, a legendary ex-slave nicknamed "Moses." Many other freed slaves played a prominent role in the Underground Railroad, as did Quakers.

Working for the Underground Railroad required a willingness to face great personal danger — the risk of stiff fines, arrest, even death — for helping fugitive slaves, who were considered legally to be their masters' possessions. The Underground Railroad was one of the most striking examples of mass civil disobedience ever to occur in the United States.

Harriet Tubman
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-DIG-ppmsca-0290]



Zachary Taylor
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EVENT

WEAK PRESIDENTIAL LEADERSHIP — FIRST STEP TO WAR

From 1849 until 1861, the American presidency was occupied by four, one-term chief executives—Zachary Taylor, Millard Fillmore, Franklin Pierce, and James Buchanan—all of whom were unable to deal effectively with the sectional issues threatening to tear the Union apart.

Zachary Taylor (1849 - 1850)

In 1848, the Whigs nominated Zachary Taylor as their presidential candidate. They hoped to repeat their 1840 "winning formula" — nominate a popular general ("Old Rough and Ready"), emphasize his military achievements (service in the War of 1812, Black Hawk War, Seminole War, and Mexican War), and avoid making a commitment on any controversial issues (especially slavery). Although Taylor was a plantation owner with one hundred slaves, he did not publicly defend slavery or southern sectionalism. His forty years of serving the nation in the U.S. military also appealed to northerners. Thus, the general seemed to be an acceptable "compromise candidate" to both southerners and northerners.

Taylor ran against Lewis Cass, the Democratic nominee, who favored allowing the residents of a territory to decide for themselves (popular sovereignty) whether they wanted slavery. Northern Democrats who opposed the extension of slavery formed a third party, known as the Free-Soil Party, and ran former president Martin Van Buren as their candidate. With the Democratic vote split, Taylor was elected president, the fourth president of the United States who had commanded men in battle (Washington, Jackson, and Harrison had preceded him).

Zachary Taylor was born into a prominent family in Virginia. When Taylor was an infant, his family moved to Kentucky, and he grew up on a plantation there. He received little formal education and had almost no knowledge of the way the federal government worked. In fact, Taylor had never voted. However, he was a straightforward, honest man who was hard-working and strong-minded.

As he began his term in office, Taylor favored respecting the rights of slave owners in the fifteen states where slavery was legal while not jeopardizing the Union by supporting the extension of slavery. However, during Taylor's short term in office (only sixteen months), debates raged over whether the territories taken from Mexico after the Mexican War should be opened to slaves. To end this dispute, Taylor urged settlers in California and New Mexico to go ahead and draft constitutions, bypassing the territorial stage and applying directly for statehood. Southerners were opposed to this plan because they knew that both of these state constitutions were not likely to permit slavery. Taylor's solution also ignored a couple of important side issues — the South's demands for a stricter fugitive slave law and the North's dislike of the slave market in the District of Columbia.

In the winter of 1850, Taylor held a conference with southern leaders who were threatening to secede from the Union. He stood firm against their threats, declaring that he would personally lead an army to enforce the law if they decided to leave the Union. As Congress debated what would become the Compromise of 1850, Taylor continued his stand against appeasing the South. However, in the middle of this ongoing controversy, the president became ill after participating in a swelteringly hot Fourth of July ceremony dedicating the cornerstone of the Washington Monument.

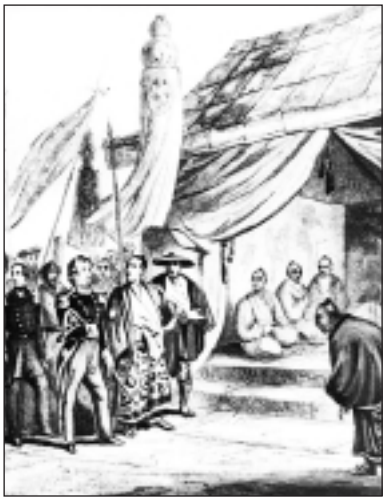
As Taylor lay dying, one newspaper editor wrote, "President Zachary Taylor lies ill in the nation's capital tonight; and although we have criticized his actions while in office, we pray for his recovery. With or without a rifle, this man is a quality soldier and a hero of this nation."[1] On July 19, 1850, President Taylor died. If he had lived, he would most likely have vetoed the Compromise of 1850, and war might have resulted.

Zachary Taylor on his deathbed
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-DIG-ppmsca-0290]

Millard Fillmore
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-13013]

Millard Fillmore (1850 - 1853)

When Taylor died unexpectedly, his vice president, Millard Fillmore, assumed the presidency. As vice president, Fillmore had presided over the Senate during the months of stressful debate concerning the Compromise of 1850. When he suddenly became president, Fillmore



Commodore Perry's trade mission to Japan
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Franklin Pierce
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-13014]

immediately allied himself with the moderate Whigs, who favored the Compromise, and quickly signed into law the bills that comprised the Compromise of 1850. Northern Whigs became angry with Fillmore for signing the Fugitive Slave Act and worked to prevent him from receiving the 1852 presidential nomination.

Born and raised on a farm in New York, Millard Fillmore was a dignified conservative lawyer, who had worked hard to build Whig Party unity. He served in the New York state senate and in the U.S. Congress, where he was known as a man of solid character — courteous, kind, and diplomatic. When Fillmore became president and signed the 1850 Compromise into law, sectional frictions in the United States began to recede; and the nation entered a period of booming industrial development and economic expansion.

President Fillmore believed that the federal government should encourage and help business at home and abroad. In 1852, he sent four warships under the command of Commodore Matthew Perry on a trade mission to Japan. A year after Fillmore left office, the United States signed the Treaty of Kanagawa with Japan, which opened to American trade two Japanese ports that had been closed for two centuries. Fillmore was also the first president to approve federal aid for the building of railroads.

Franklin Pierce (1853 - 1857)

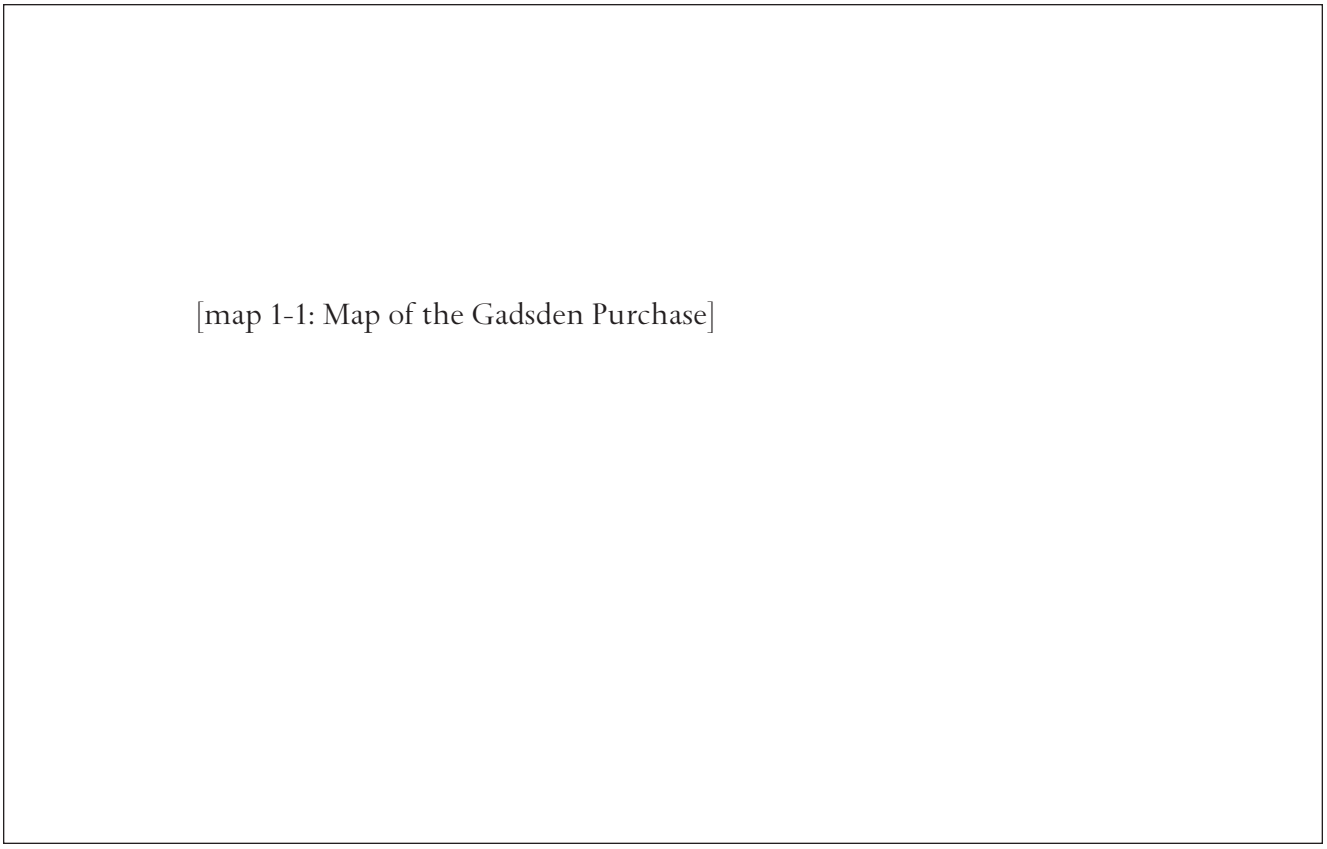
In the 1852 election, the northern Whigs succeeded in gaining the presidential nomination for their antislavery candidate, General Winfield Scott. Although Fillmore was forced to sit out this race, he would run again for president as the Know-Nothing (or American) Party candidate in 1856. Franklin Pierce, the Democratic "dark horse" candidate, won the election over Scott and a Free-Soil candidate.

Pierce was a powerful Democratic lawyer in his home state of New Hampshire, but he was not a well-known national figure. He had actually served in the Mexican War under the command of Winfield Scott and had been elected to the U.S. House and then the U.S. Senate. Franklin Pierce was the first U.S. president born in the nineteenth century and the youngest president elected up to that point in American history.

When Franklin Pierce became president, the United States seemed to have made it through another sectional crisis. Pierce hoped to maintain the peace by following the recommendations of his southern advisors. Although a New Englander, Pierce was a firm believer in states' rights and in the constitutional sanction of slavery. Angry northerners accused Pierce of being a pawn used by southerners eager to extend slavery into other areas.

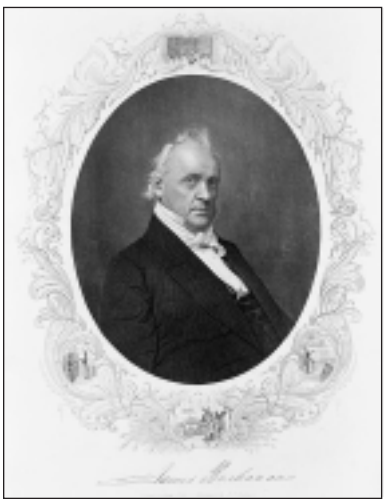
Although a charming and attractive individual, Franklin Pierce was an inexperienced national leader who seemed to be easily influenced by others. He and his wife also suffered from great personal grief during his term in office. Their only surviving child, an eleven-year-old son, had been killed in a train accident in the period of time between Pierce's election and inauguration.

The Gadsden Purchase



The greatest controversy to arise during Pierce's presidency was the Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854, which in essence repealed the 1820 Missouri Compromise. This created quite a stir in Kansas, resulting in armed conflicts between proslavery and antislavery proponents. These episodes became known as the "Bleeding Kansas" controversy. While this turmoil continued in Kansas, Secretary of War Jefferson Davis had persuaded President Pierce to send James Gadsden to Mexico to purchase land for a southern transcontinental railroad. The land that he bought in 1853 for ten million dollars, which became known as the Gadsden Purchase, comprised southern Arizona and part of southern New Mexico. Pierce also tried unsuccessfully to acquire Hawaii and Alaska and to persuade Spain to sell Cuba. In 1854, he signed the Treaty of Kanagawa with Japan, and he also signed a treaty with Britain obtaining fishing rights off Newfoundland for Americans.

Despite his efforts to achieve a strong foreign policy, Pierce's inability to deal successfully with the "Bleeding Kansas" controversy assured his failure to be renominated by the Democrats as their candidate in 1856. They preferred to run a less controversial nominee, James Buchanan.



James Buchanan
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James Buchanan (1857 - 1861)

As president of a rapidly dividing nation, Buchanan failed to grasp the political realities of the day. He believed that the growing crisis would disappear if he were able to maintain a sectional balance in his appointments and if he could persuade the American people to accept constitutional law as the Supreme Court interpreted it.

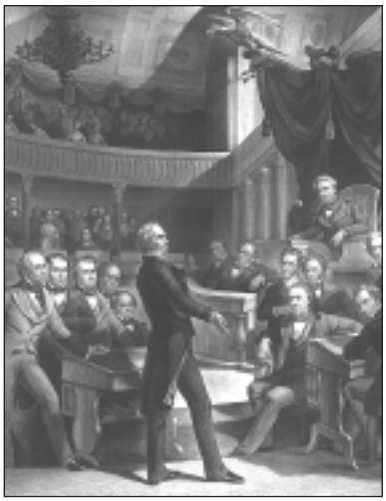
Unfortunately, two days into his administration, the Supreme Court delivered a very controversial judgment in *Scott v. Sandford*. This decision, which Buchanan had hoped would bring some resolution to the Kansas issue, only increased the rift between North and South.

At the beginning of his term in office, James Buchanan, the only bachelor president in American history, had announced that he would be a one-term president in an effort to put himself above party politics. Born in Pennsylvania, Buchanan had a distinguished forty-

year career as a public servant—serving as a state legislator, member of the U.S. House of Representatives, U.S. minister to Russia, member of the U.S. Senate, secretary of state under President James Polk, and U.S. minister to Great Britain. Buchanan had expected to conduct a vigorous foreign policy, but Congress opposed his efforts to purchase both Cuba and Alaska. A greater problem, however, was the Panic of 1857, which brought the nation's economic boom to an end.

By 1860, the Democratic Party had split into northern and southern factions, with each nominating its own presidential candidate. A third party of conservative southerners and northerners, the Constitutional Union Party, also ran a candidate. The Republicans, assured of victory because of the divisions in the Democratic Party, chose as their nominee Abraham Lincoln. The platform of the Republican Party opposed the expansion of slavery into the territories and called for a protective tariff, which pleased northern business interests. It also endorsed a transcontinental railroad, liberal land distribution in the West, and further development of national roads.

When Lincoln's election seemed assured, southern states immediately began talking about secession. President Buchanan denied their legal right to secede but held that the federal government could not legally prevent them from doing so.



Henry Clay and the Compromise of 1850
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COMPROMISE OF 1850 — SECOND STEP TO WAR

Just as he had negotiated the Missouri Compromise in 1820, Henry Clay also negotiated the heavily debated Compromise of 1850. The terms of this agreement allowed California to enter the Union as a free state. The Utah and New Mexico territories would be organized without mention of slavery and allowed to choose for themselves (a process known as popular sovereignty) whether to enter as free states or slave states. Slave trade in the District of Columbia was prohibited, which pleased abolitionists and angered southerners. However, the Fugitive Slave Act was undeniably the most controversial component of the 1850 Compromise. This law required federal marshals and other officials to arrest anyone suspected of being a runaway slave or be subject to a one-thousand-dollar fine. All U.S. citizens were

required to assist in the recovery of alleged fugitive slaves who, once apprehended, were denied the right to a jury trial.

Titus and "Bleeding Kansas" in Lawrence Kansas
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-92043]

KANSAS-NEBRASKA ACT OF 1854 — THIRD STEP TO WAR

In proposing what eventually became the controversial Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854, Senator Stephen Douglas was at least partly motivated by his desire to promote a railroad from Chicago to California through Nebraska. It provided for the organization of western territories through which the railroad might run and allowed the residents of these territories to decide the slavery question for themselves. The Kansas-Nebraska Act made slavery legally possible in two territories (Kansas and Nebraska) in which it had already been prohibited by the 1820 Compromise.

After the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Act, opponents and supporters of slavery soon poured into Kansas and began engaging in armed conflicts with one another. Many northerners accused the South of precipitating a civil war to force slavery upon "bleeding Kansas." Two governments came into being in Kansas — a proslavery one supported by Pierce at Lecompton and an antislavery one at Topeka, which Pierce ordered to disband. Although President Pierce sent troops to Kansas to enforce his orders, they were not successful in restoring order or in forcing the Topeka government to disband. In 1856, when the legislature of the territory of Kansas voted to enter the Union as a free state, a mob of eight hundred people from Missouri proceeded to destroy the town of Lawrence, Kansas.

POLITICAL PARTY SHIFTS AND FORMATION OF THE REPUBLICAN PARTY — FOURTH STEP TO WAR

By 1856, the Whig Party had split into northern and southern factions as a result of the Kansas-Nebraska Act and did not field a candidate that year. However, a new political party had developed as a result of the controversy — the Republican Party.

Founded in Ripon, Wisconsin, in 1854, the Republican Party was strictly a sectional party, having no base in the South. It was composed of abolitionists, former Free-Soilers, and pro-business former Whigs,

and it stood for a strong federal government, limited states' rights, and an immediate end to slavery. In the 1856 election, John C. Frémont served as the Republican nominee for president, James Buchanan represented the Democrats, and the Know-Nothings ran their last candidate, Millard Fillmore.

SCOTT V. SANDFORD (THE DRED SCOTT CASE) — FIFTH STEP TO WAR

Dred Scott was a slave who had sued for his freedom based on seven years of residence in a free state and a free territory. Early in 1857, the Supreme Court ruled that Scott could not legally bring suit in a federal court because he was of African ancestry and therefore not considered by the Constitution to be a U.S. citizen.

[1B]The high court went on to declare the Missouri Compromise to be unconstitutional, stating that it violated the Fifth Amendment, which prohibits Congress from depriving persons of their property without due process of law. Of course, this decision delighted many southern leaders and angered abolitionists. President Buchanan tried unsuccessfully to end the controversy in Kansas by urging its admission as a slave state.

Dred Scott
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-5092]

IMPACT

- New states that were added to the Union from 1850 to 1861: California (1850), Minnesota (1858), Oregon (1859), and Kansas (1861).

- For more than forty years before the Civil War began, the United States was divided into two different societies — one dependent on slavery (the South) and one not (the North). The U.S. Constitution had not outlawed slavery, but legislation in 1808 had abolished the importation of slaves into the United States.

- The Underground Railroad, a loosely organized system of escape for fugitive slaves, was one of the most striking examples of mass civil disobedience ever to occur in the United States.

- The Missouri Compromise of 1820 sought to keep a balance between free and slave states in the Union. Missouri entered as a slave state, and Maine came in as a free state.

- From 1849 until 1861, the office of the American presidency was occupied by four, one-term presidents who were unable to deal effectively with the sectional issues threatening to tear the Union apart.

- During Zachary Taylor's short term in office, the legislation comprising the Compromise of 1850 was heatedly debated in Congress. If Taylor had not died unexpectedly, he would have most likely vetoed this compromise.

- When Millard Fillmore assumed office, he quickly signed into law the bills comprising the Compromise of 1850. He also sent Commodore Matthew Perry on a trade mission to Japan and became the first president to approve federal aid for the building of railroads.

- The Compromise of 1850 allowed California to enter the Union as a free state, organized the Utah and New Mexico territories without mention of slavery (allowing them to choose for themselves), prohibited slave trade in the District of Columbia, and enacted a very strict fugitive slave act.

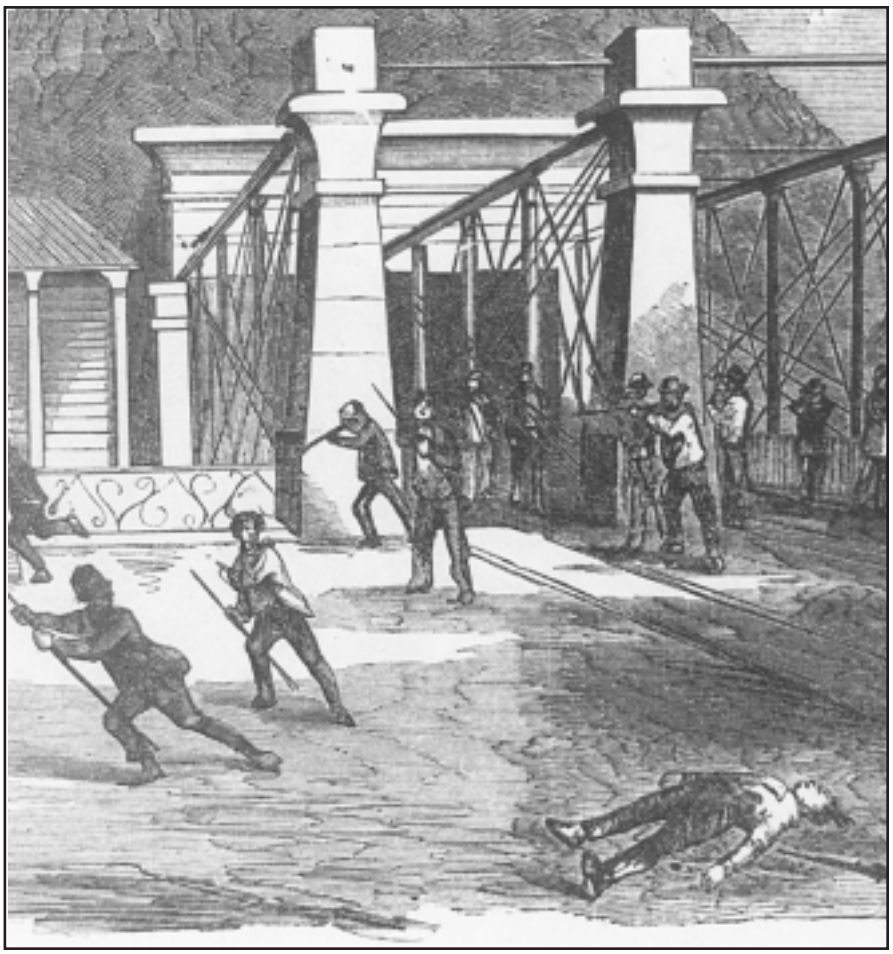
- The greatest controversy during the administration of Franklin Pierce was the Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854, which in essence repealed the Missouri Compromise of 1820. This act provided for the organization of western territories through which a proposed railroad from Chicago to California might run and

allowed the residents of these territories to decide the slavery question for themselves. The passage of this act led to armed clashes between proslavery and antislavery supporters in Kansas.

- Founded in Ripon, Wisconsin, in 1854, the Republican Party was strictly a sectional party, having no base in the South. It was composed of abolitionists, former Free-Soilers, and pro-business former Whigs, and it stood for a strong federal government, limited states' rights, and an immediate end to slavery.

- Two days into the presidency of James Buchanan, the Supreme Court announced its decision in *Scott v. Sandford*. The high court decided that Dred Scott, a slave who had sued for his freedom, could not legally bring suit in a federal court because he was of African ancestry and not a U.S. citizen. It also declared the Missouri Compromise of 1820 to be unconstitutional.

- The Republican candidate, Abraham Lincoln, was assured of victory in the 1860 presidential election because of the divisions in the Democratic Party. The Republican Party platform opposed the expansion of slavery into the territories and called for a protective tariff. Southern states began talking about secession.



LESSON 2

The Civil War Begins . . . . . 1860 A.D.

ATMOSPHERE

UNCLE TOM'S CABIN

On June 5, 1851, the *National Era*, an antislavery newspaper in Washington, D.C., published the first of forty weekly installments of a story written by an abolitionist named Harriet Beecher Stowe. This series, which dramatized the evils of slavery, appeared under the title *Uncle Tom's Cabin; or, Life Among the Lowly*. Week after week, the *Era* sold out, and the story soon appeared in book form. The first edition of five thousand copies sold out in two days, and fifty thousand more were sold within a few months. By 1852, two million copies of *Uncle Tom's Cabin* had been sold in the United States, and the book had been translated into a half dozen other languages.

Harriet Beecher Stowe became an international celebrity, and her dramatization of the evils of slavery most definitely fanned the flames of the nation's growing conflict over this issue. In fact, when President Lincoln first met Stowe, he remarked, "So you're the little woman who wrote the book that made this great war."[2]

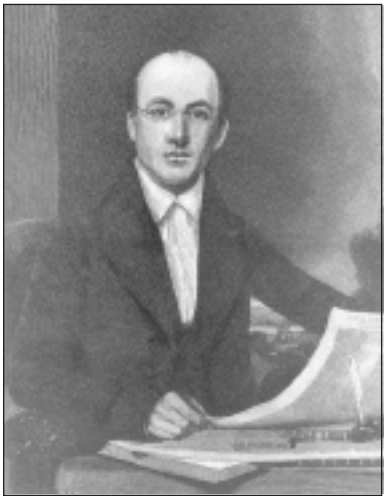
Promotional Poster for *Uncle Tom's Cabin*
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-107587]

Harriet Beecher Stowe
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-11212]

Excerpt from *Uncle Tom's Cabin*:

> "No; I mean, really, Tom is a good, steady, sensible, pious fellow. He got religion at a camp-meeting, four years ago; and I believe he really did get it. I've trusted him, since then, with everything I have — money, house, horses — and let him come and go round the country; and I always found him true and square in everything....
>
> "Well, Tom's got the real article, if ever a fellow had... Why, last fall, I let him go to Cincinnati alone, to do business for me, and bring home five hundred dollars. 'Tom,' says I to him, 'I trust you, because I think you're a Christian — I know you wouldn't cheat.' Tom comes back, sure enough; I knew he would. Some low fellows, they say, said to him — 'Tom, why don't you make tracks for Canada?' 'Ah, master trusted me, and I couldn't...'"

The story of Uncle Tom, a long-suffering Christian slave, and Howe's other fictional characters inflamed the passions of northerners opposed to slavery. The saga of their struggles put the issue of slavery into human, personal terms. Outraged southerners, on the other hand, considered *Uncle Tom's Cabin* to be a distortion of the southern way of life. They complained that the novel turned slaves into saints and their owners into devils. "Anti-Tom" novels were written that described healthy slaves in the South, well treated by their kind masters, and free blacks in the North, paid starvation wages and living in terrible housing conditions.



William Lloyd Garrison
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-46335]

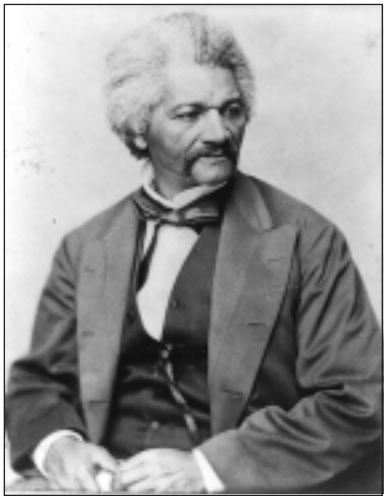
PROMINENT ABOLITIONISTS

In addition to *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, the writings of other abolitionists, such as William Lloyd Garrison, continued to keep the debate over slavery hot in both the North and the South. Garrison, editor of an abolitionist newspaper called *The Liberator*, became famous for burning a copy of the U.S. Constitution in public because he believed that it protected slavery.

All kinds of people were moved to join the abolitionist movement — men and women, wealthy and poor, religious and nonreligious. A

number of freed slaves played a prominent role; the most well known of these were Frederick Douglass and Sojourner Truth. Many abolitionists wrote books and newspaper articles and traveled many miles to speak for the cause at churches and various other meetings.

Of course, most southerners resented these abolitionists, who called for an end to slavery but would never have to deal with the economic disaster that the abolition of slavery would bring upon the South. Slave owners feared that abolitionist activities would stir up their slaves and lead to slave rebellions. In reaction to these fears, southern states began passing laws limiting freedom of speech and freedom of the press. Abolitionist newspapers were often burned there also. By the 1850s, most southerners perceived the abolitionist message as posing a major threat to their way of life.

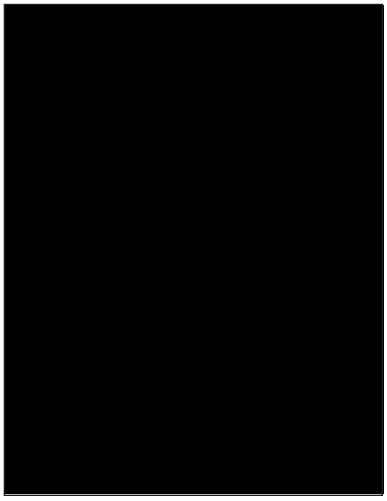


Frederick Douglass
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-15887]

JOHN BROWN'S RAID

Southern fears seemed to be confirmed on October 16, 1859. On that day John Brown, a fanatical abolitionist, rode into Harpers Ferry, Virginia, with about twenty men of both races and captured the army post. His plan was to seize the weapons at the arsenal, get them into the hands of slaves, and start a slave rebellion that would sweep across the South.

However, Brown was captured by a battalion of U.S. Marines and militiamen under the command of Colonel Robert E. Lee. He was then tried and hung for treason. John Brown's death made him a martyr to abolitionists, whereas southerners saw him as a monster. After Brown's Harpers Ferry raid, many southerners believed that those in the North might do anything to bring about the abolition of slavery. Brown and his raid were immortalized by the song "John Brown's Body," which became a favorite Union marching song during the Civil War.



Sojourner Truth
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZC4-7646]

EVENT

ELECTION OF 1860 AND THE CONFEDERATE STATES OF AMERICA — SIXTH STEP TO WAR

Lincoln's election as president on November 6, 1860, polarized the

John Brown's Raid at Harper's Ferry
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-90728]

North and South. As a candidate of the Republican Party, he represented those who were opposed to the extension of slavery and in favor of protective tariffs. Yet, Lincoln did want to keep the Union together and to prevent war.

On December 20, 1860, however, South Carolina seceded from the Union. By early February of 1861, South Carolina had been joined by Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, and Texas. That same month, six of these states met in Montgomery, Alabama, to establish the Confederate States of America. They adopted the Confederate Constitution on February 8, and on February 9, they elected Jefferson Davis to serve as their president. Although some in the North argued that these southern states should be allowed to leave peacefully, most northerners saw slavery as a moral and social evil and believed that the Union should be preserved.

Abraham Lincoln (1861 - 1865)

The sixteenth president of the United States was born in a log cabin in Kentucky on February 12, 1801. The son of a humble frontiersman, Lincoln received little formal schooling during his childhood. However, he was determined to educate himself and to read whatever books he could find. In his teen and early adult years, he worked on a farm splitting rails for fences and as a storekeeper. During the mid-1830s, Lincoln was admitted to the Illinois bar and was elected to several terms in the Illinois legislature. In 1845, he was elected to the U.S. House of Representatives, where he served one term. In 1858, he ran for the U.S. Senate against Stephen A. Douglas and lost. However, Lincoln's debates with Douglas concerning slavery made him a nationally known public speaker.

Abraham Lincoln
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-130959]

A tall, gangly man, Abraham Lincoln became known for his great intelligence and personal integrity. He had a strong sense of justice and remained true to his political convictions. Lincoln's election to the presidency in 1860 marked one of the most amazing rises to power in American history. Although Lincoln was not a war hero, a prominent political leader, or a wealthy man, he became the first Republican candidate elected president of the United States. During

the five years he served in office, Lincoln was known for his sharp wit and warm humor, his straightforward leadership style, and his consummate skills at writing and delivering speeches.

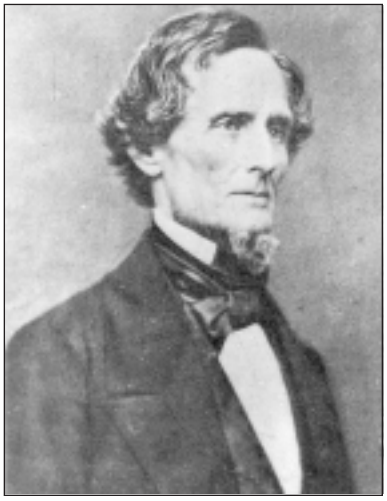
However, President Lincoln certainly had his critics. Democrats accused him of acting like a dictator when he suspended the writ of habeas corpus in 1862, making it possible to hold known secessionists and disloyal individuals without a trial. Many people also blamed Lincoln for the great amount of bloodshed and destruction caused by the war. They criticized him for his determination to continue the fighting until the Confederacy was totally defeated and the Union restored. Lincoln received numerous letters from people threatening to kill him, but he paid little attention to the possible conspiracies against his life.

Depiction of Lincoln's inauguration
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-331]

Lincoln's First Inaugural Address

As early as 1858, Lincoln had publicly declared, "A house divided against itself cannot stand. I believe that this government cannot endure permanently half slave and half free."[3] Now, as the nation stood poised to fulfill this prophecy, Lincoln delivered his first inaugural address on March 4, 1861.

In this speech the new American president stood firmly against secession and offered friendship to the seceding states if they returned to the Union. Lincoln assured the South that he had no intention of interfering with slavery where it already existed or of using American troops to invade the South. However, he also declared that he would use military power to protect federal arsenals and military installations in the states that had seceded. Following Lincoln's inauguration, Confederate forces began seizing United States forts, naval yards, post offices, and other buildings in the South. In order to avoid bloodshed, federal troops at first turned over these facilities without a fight.



Jefferson Davis
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ61-139]

Jefferson Davis (1861 - 1865)

The newly chosen president of the Confederate States of America, Jefferson Davis, was born in Kentucky in 1808. A graduate of West Point, Davis had a distinguished military and political career. In 1845, he was elected to the U.S. House of Representatives, but he resigned after a

Editorial depiction of Pierre G. T. Beauregard and Jefferson Davis
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ61-139]

year to fight in the Mexican War. Two years later, Davis was elected to the U.S. Senate from Mississippi. During the administration of President Pierce, Jefferson Davis served in his cabinet as the secretary of war. After Pierce left office, Davis re-entered the Senate, where he remained until resigning in January of 1861. Known for his intelligence and giftedness as a speaker, Davis also had a reputation for not being able to delegate or handle personal interactions with subordinates well.

SIEGE OF FORT SUMTER AND THE FIRST SHOTS OF THE CIVIL WAR — SEVENTH STEP TO WAR

The Civil War can easily be measured in five Aprils. The fighting began on April 12, 1861, and ended on April 9, 1865. The first shots of the war were fired by Confederate forces upon Fort Sumter following a one-month siege of this U.S. fort located in Charleston harbor and held by sixty-five Union soldiers. The decision to shoot first cast the Confederacy in the role of the aggressor, as Lincoln had wanted. He could now appeal to the nation to move ahead to put down an armed insurrection in the South.

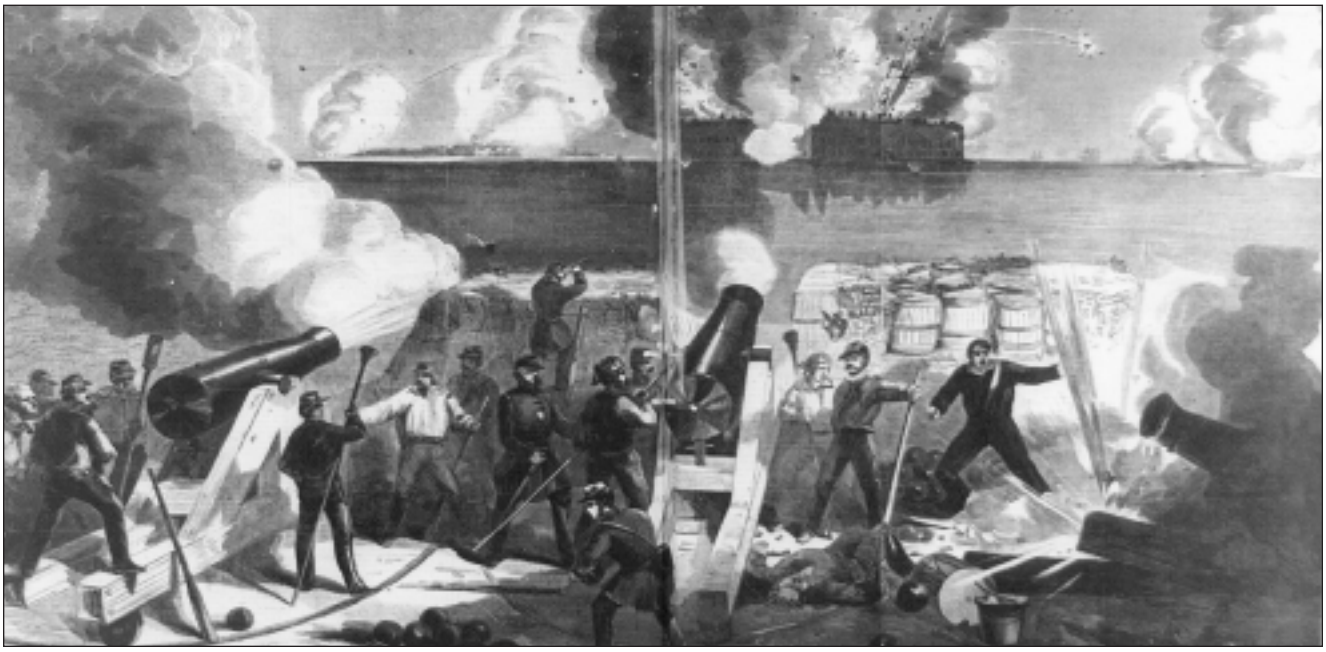
When Union rations became low during the siege, the Confederate government refused to provide more food supplies. Brigadier General Pierre G. T. Beauregard, commander of the Confederate forces at Charleston, demanded that the Union troops at Fort Sumter surrender. Major Robert Anderson, the U.S. Army officer in charge of the fort, would not agree to surrender and sent a request for help to President Lincoln, who soon had relief supplies on the way to the fort.

On April 12, Confederate forces opened fire on Fort Sumter. Seventy guns, manned and supported by more than ten thousand Confederate soldiers, bombarded Fort Sumter for thirty-four hours. Men, women, and children in Charleston stood on their rooftops or lined the shores of the harbor to watch the bombardment. Because Anderson and his men were protected by the fort's stone walls, they suffered few serious injuries during the assault. However, when Union soldiers surrendered to the Confederates, they fired a fifty-gun salute to the American flag, and a cannon exploded prematurely. One Union soldier was killed, and at least three were wounded.

After surrendering on April 13, the Union troops at Fort Sumter were allowed to evacuate and sail north on a federal steamer. Beauregard, an expert artillery man, became an instant southern hero, and Fort Sumter became a visible symbol that war had really begun. War fever gripped both the Union and the Confederacy, with both sides having dreams of a quick, easy victory—not visions of four years of bloodshed and horror. Union troops planned to force the Confederate states back into the Union, and the Confederacy expected to make the Union recognize its independence. Each hoped to accomplish its goal in about three months.

A CALL TO ARMS

On April 15, two days after the surrender of Fort Sumter, President Lincoln declared the South to be in a state of insurrection, and he called upon state governors to raise seventy-five thousand militiamen to serve for ninety days in order to put down the rebellion. At that time, the army of the United States had only between sixteen and seventeen thousand soldiers, with most of those stationed in the West.



Confederate attack on Fort Sumter
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-90258]

Lincoln's call was eagerly answered, with nearly every northern state sending more than its quota of men.

Jefferson Davis had been authorized by the Confederate Congress on March 6 to call for one hundred thousand volunteers to establish a provisional army for the new Confederate nation.

Confederate Capitol
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-110421]

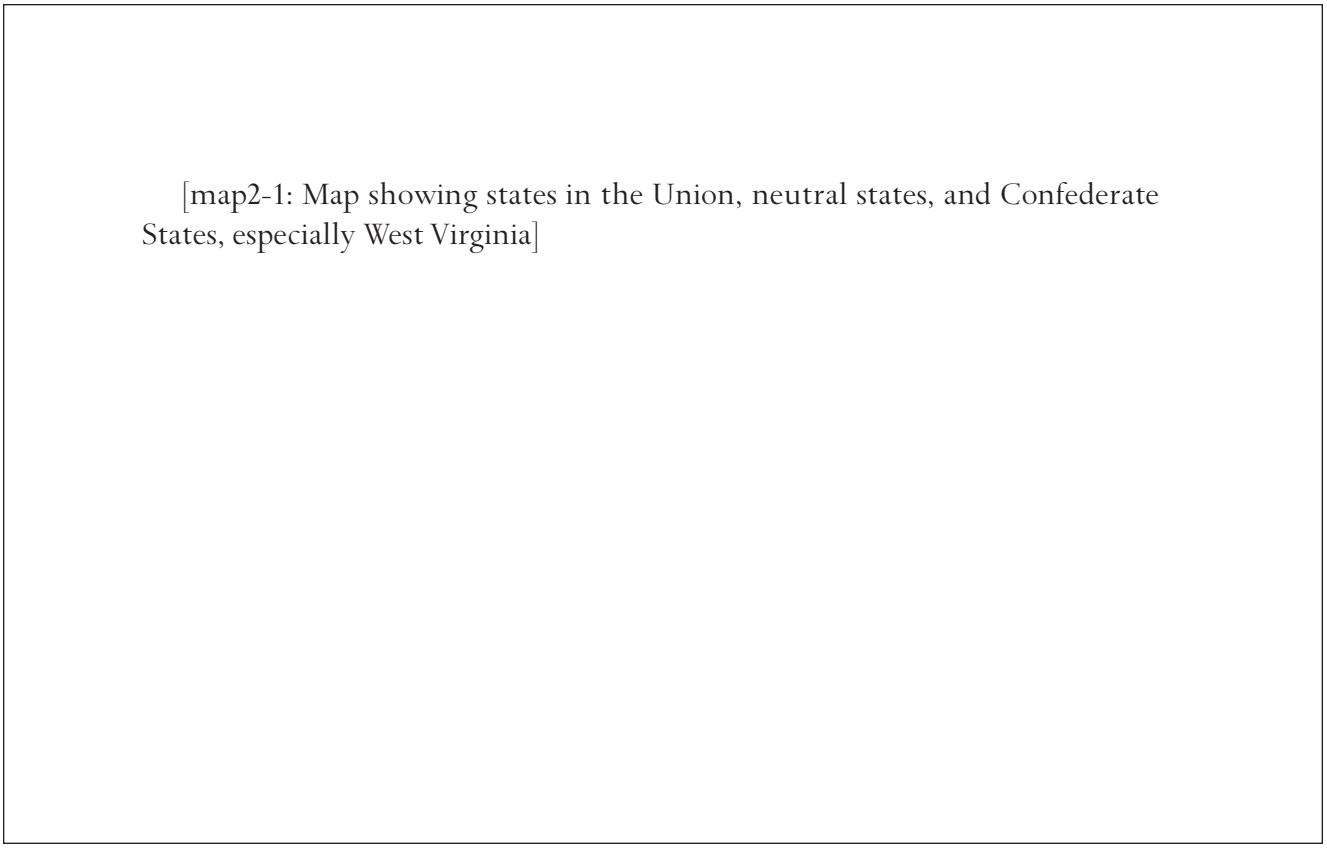
MORE STATES SECEDE AND A NEW CONFEDERATE CAPITAL

On April 17, Virginia seceded from the Union. Two days later, on April 19, Lincoln declared a naval blockade of the ports of all the seceding states. Any vessel found interfering with U.S. merchant shipping would be treated like a pirate under international law. This blockade limited the ability of the South to stay well supplied in its war against the industrialized North. Blockade running became a huge private business in which large fortunes could be made.

On May 29, the capital of the Confederacy was moved from Montgomery, Alabama, to Richmond, Virginia. By early June, three more states had joined the Confederacy — Arkansas, Tennessee, and North Carolina. Thus, by the summer of 1861, there was a new eleven-state Confederate nation that consisted of Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, Louisiana, and Texas. Twenty-three states remained in the Union — Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Kentucky, Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, Kansas, Oregon, and California. The territories of Colorado, Nevada, New Mexico, Utah, Dakota, Washington, and Nebraska also fought on the Union side. In 1861, the people in western Virginia decided to pull away from the rest of the state; they entered the Union as the state of West Virginia in 1863. Nevada was admitted to the Union in 1864. During the war, none of the stars representing the seceded states were removed from the Union flag, the Stars and Stripes.

Both the Union and the Confederacy included several states in which some of the people supported the North and others supported the South. Some of the heaviest fighting of the war occurred in these border states. On the northern side, they included Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky, Missouri, and West Virginia. On the southern side were Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Arkansas. Many families in both the North and the South were torn by divided loyalties, and close relatives often fought against each other. Soldiers who attended military school together or who fought together in the Mexican War had to choose whether to fight for the Union or the Confederacy. Thus, Civil War military leaders were often faced with the interesting situation of being well acquainted with the strengths and weaknesses of the men commanding the troops fighting against them.

Map



Union flag as of 1861
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-89319]

The First official flag of the Confederacy
Public Domain

UNION AND CONFEDERATE RESOURCES COMPARED

A comparison of the resources available to the Union and Confederacy as the war began indicates that the Union definitely seemed to have more advantages.

- Population: There were approximately 22 million people in the Union, as compared to 9 million in the Confederacy (with one-third of those being slaves). The Union had 4 million men available for military service, whereas the Confederacy had only about 1.1 million.

- Financial Resources: The Union had far greater financial resources than the Confederacy.

- Railroad Mileage: The Confederacy had a far less developed railroad system than the Union. In 1861, three-fourths of the thirty thousand miles of railroad tracks in the United States lay in Union territory.

- Factories: The Union had a strong system of one hundred thousand manufacturing plants used to make weapons and uniforms, as well as other supplies for Union troops. The Confederacy had little industry and had to import many of its military supplies.

- Military Strength/Leadership: In addition to a larger and more established army, the Union had a navy of ninety ships. The Confederacy had almost no navy to defend its coast against the Union blockade. Of the eight military colleges in the United States, all but one were in the South. Also, more southern men were familiar with riding horses and using hunting weapons than were northern men, who more often grew up in cities and worked in shops or factories.

- Psychological Advantage: The Confederacy had the psychological advantage of defending its homeland. Although the Union seemed to possess more advantages, many believed that the Confederacy might win the war if it could inflict a major defeat on the Union or capture Washington, D.C., quickly.

IMPACT

- New states that were added to the Union during this time: West Virginia (1863) and Nevada (1864).

- Harriet Beecher Stowe's novel, *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, dramatized the evils of slavery and fanned the flames of the nation's growing conflict over this issue. The writings of another abolitionist, William Lloyd Garrison, kept the debate over slavery hot. Freed slaves, such as Frederick Douglass and Sojourner Truth, also played a prominent role in the American abolitionist movement.

- John Brown's raid on the federal arsenal at Harpers Ferry, Virginia, in October of 1859, confirmed the South's growing fears that abolitionist activities would lead to slave rebellions.

- Although Abraham Lincoln was not a war hero, a prominent political leader, or a wealthy man, in 1860 he became the first Republican candidate to be elected president. He was a man known for his integrity, intelligence, and strong sense of justice. However, he was also criticized by some for suspending the writ of habeas corpus during the Civil War and for the great amount of bloodshed and destruction caused by the war.

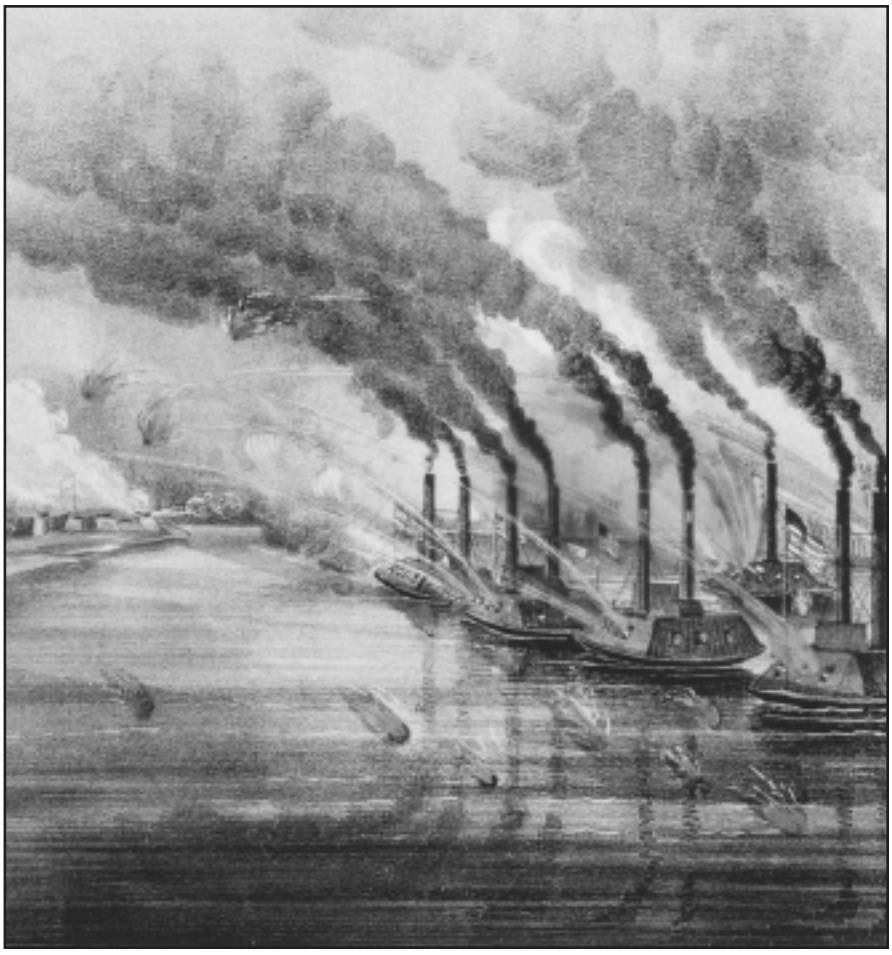
- Following Lincoln's election as president in November 1860, South Carolina seceded from the Union. By early February 1861, six other states had joined South Carolina to form the

Confederate States of America. Jefferson Davis was elected president of the new Confederate nation.

- Confederate forces began seizing U.S. forts, naval yards, post offices, and other federal buildings found in the seceded states. On April 12, 1861, the first shots of the war were fired by Confederate forces upon Fort Sumter, located in Charleston harbor.

- War fever gripped the Union and Confederacy, with both sides believing that they would win a quick and easy victory in three months. In April 1861, Lincoln ordered a naval blockade of the ports of all the seceding states; by early June, four more states had seceded from the Union and joined the original seven in the Confederacy.

- The Union seemed to have distinct advantages over the Confederacy—a larger population, greater financial resources, a more developed railroad system, a strong system of manufacturing plants, and a larger and more established army and navy. However, the Confederacy had the psychological advantage of defending its homeland.



LESSON 3

First Year of the Civil War . . . . . 1861 — 1862 A.D.

ATMOSPHERE

A TWO-FRONT WAR

The Civil War was fought on two principal fronts — an eastern front and a western front. The eastern front extended east of the Appalachian Mountains to the Atlantic coast. The western front lay between the Appalachians and the Mississippi River. Most Civil War history has concentrated on the battles and generals of the eastern theater. However, battles in the Civil War were fought as far west as Arizona, New Mexico, and Texas. The following is a list of the states in which Civil War battles were fought, as well as the number of battles fought in each state:

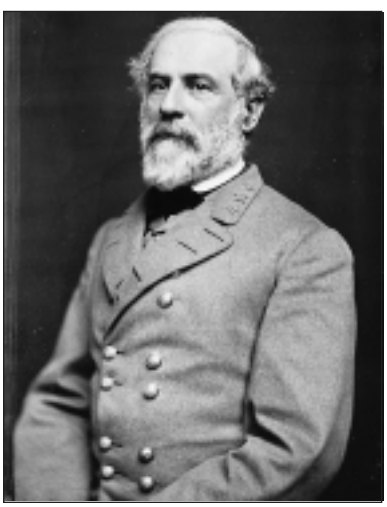
Alabama – 7	Arkansas – 17
Colorado — 1	Florida – 6
Georgia – 31	Idaho – 1
Indiana – 1	Kansas – 4
Kentucky – 11	Louisiana – 23
Maryland – 7	Minnesota – 2
Mississippi – 16	Missouri – 27
New Mexico – 2	North Carolina – 20
North Dakota – 5	Ohio – 2

Bayonet Fight
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-77930]

Oklahoma – 7
South Carolina – 11
Texas – 5
West Virginia – 15
Pennsylvania – 2
Tennessee – 38
Virginia – 123

The Union and the Confederacy usually used different names for the same Civil War battle. Confederates generally named battles for names of towns, whereas Union armies named them for nearby bodies of water. For example, the Confederacy called the Battle of Bull Run (Creek) the Battle of Manassas, and the Union called the Battle of Sharpsburg the Battle of Antietam (Creek).

Most battles in the Civil War were fought "old style." The majority of Civil War generals had graduated from West Point and had learned battle strategy from studying old battles. Consequently, in most of the battles fought during the Civil War, the opposing armies faced each other in lines. The defending army lined up its forces in two rows—the front row kneeled with guns in position, and the second row stood ready to shoot over the heads of the front row. Generals, usually on horseback, led the charge of the attacking army. Because they provided such good targets, many generals were killed in battle. Great waves of men charged into battle on foot, shoulder to shoulder. When the opposing lines met, the survivors of the charge fell upon each other with their rifle butts and bayonets.



Robert E. Lee
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-DIG-cwpb-04402]

EVENT

CONFEDERATE STRATEGY AND LEADERSHIP

Confederate armies were named for states, such as the Army of Northern Virginia and the Army of Tennessee. General Robert E. Lee, who was eventually named the supreme commander of all Confederate forces in the field, served as commander of the Army of Northern Virginia. At the beginning of the war, Robert E. Lee was offered field command of the Union army. Although Lee loved the Union and even believed slavery to be a moral evil, he felt that his first

loyalty was to his native state of Virginia. Thus, he felt the call of duty and made the difficult choice to resign his commission from the U.S. Army on April 20, 1861.

Arlington, Virginia, April 20, 1861

My Dear Sister: I am grieved at my inability to see you. I have been waiting for a more convenient season, which has brought to many before me deep and lasting regret. Now we are in a state of war which will yield to nothing. The whole South is in a state of revolution, into which Virginia, after a long struggle, has been drawn; and though I recognize no necessity for the state of things, and would have forborne and pleaded to the end for redress of grievances, real or supposed, yet in my own person I had to meet the question whether I should take part against my native State.

With all my devotion to the Union, and the feeling of loyalty and duty of an American citizen, I have not been able to make up my mind to raise my hand against my relatives, my children, my home. I have, therefore, resigned my commission in the Army, and save in defense of my native State (with the sincere hope that my poor services may never be needed) I hope I may never be called upon to draw my sword. I know you will blame me, but you must think as kindly as you can, and believe that I have endeavored to do what I thought right.

To show you the feeling and struggle it has cost me I send you a copy of my letter of resignation. I have no time for more. May God guard and protect you and yours and shower upon you everlasting blessings, is the prayer of your devoted brother...

—from Robert E. Lee at Arlington House to his sister, Anne Marshall

A graduate of West Point, Robert E. Lee had served under General Winfield Scott in the Mexican War. During the first year of the Civil War, Lee led troops in western Virginia and in South Carolina. Then, in 1862, Lee was called to Richmond to become President Davis's top

Robert E. Lee on his horse, Traveller
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-51832]

General Ulysses S. Grant
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZC4-7646]

military advisor. When Joseph E. Johnston was wounded that May, Davis asked Lee to assume command of the Army of Northern Virginia. Lee's appointment as supreme commander of all Confederate forces came in February of 1865, just months before the end of the war.

A natural field commander and a brilliant strategist, Lee displayed impressive bravery and boldness in battle, as well as an uncanny ability to anticipate his opponent's next move. In fact, his daring tactics put him among the ranks of the world's greatest generals. Riding into battle on his horse, Traveller, he personally directed his troops and won the devotion of his officers and soldiers. A humble and courteous leader, Robert E. Lee succeeded in transforming a ragtag, outnumbered army into a fighting force that held the Union at a standstill for almost four years. In many battles he beat stronger and better-equipped Union forces. As he led his men, Lee always sought to do what he thought to be right.

President Jefferson Davis believed that the Confederacy could win the war by simply holding its own and staying put until the Union became weary of the war. Thus, neither Davis nor Lee had worked out a long-range Confederate strategy. The main strength of the Confederate army was concentrated in front of Richmond, and little was done to forestall the Union drive down the Mississippi Valley. As a result, the state of Virginia became a major battleground of the war. At the beginning of the war, the Confederacy had high hopes of receiving support from Great Britain and France because of the demand for cotton and tobacco in Europe. However, Europe turned to India and Egypt for cotton, and this support never materialized.

UNION STRATEGY AND LEADERSHIP

Union armies were usually named for rivers, such as the Army of the Potomac and the Army of the Tennessee. During the early years of the war, President Lincoln experimented with several different commanders for the Army of the Potomac in the East. All these generals disappointed the president because they favored delay, believing that the Union soldiers needed more training to be welded into a cohesive

fighting force. The generals Lincoln selected to command the Union armies on the western front were less well known than those in the East, and most of them also failed to meet the president's expectations.

However, a Union military leader finally emerged who was ready to fight aggressively enough to lead the Union armies to victory. That man was General Ulysses S. Grant. A graduate of West Point, Grant had fought in the Mexican War but had quit the army for seven years before the Civil War started. Although he began the war in charge of the 7th District Regiment from Illinois, Grant was soon promoted to commander of the Army of the Tennessee. A relentless, aggressive warrior, he willingly seized the initiative in battle, tenaciously pursued his enemy, and understood that he must be willing to take heavy casualties in order to win. Upon hearing criticisms of General Grant's aggressive leadership, President Lincoln responded, "I cannot spare this man. He fights."[4]

The original Union strategy, known as the Anaconda Plan, was named after a snake that squeezes its victims to death in its coils. This plan was developed by General Winfield Scott, who served as the first general-in-chief of all Union forces. It called for a naval blockade of the South, the sealing off of the South's inland borders, and an advance into the South by means of the four great rivers — the Mississippi, the Ohio, the Tennessee, and the Cumberland. Scott maintained that it would take three hundred thousand Union soldiers and two to three years to crush the South's rebellion and insisted that time should be taken to train volunteers properly. At first, Scott's plan was dismissed as unnecessary, but eventually, by 1863, the Union was following it.

Editorial depiction of General Winfield Scott and the Anaconda Plan
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZC4-7646]

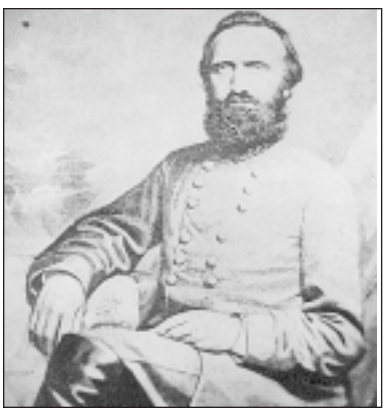
FIRST BATTLE OF BULL RUN, OR FIRST BATTLE OF MANASSAS (JULY 21, 1861)

This first major battle of the opposing armies in Virginia occurred twenty-five miles southwest of Washington, D. C., at a railroad junction near Manassas, Virginia. The Union hoped to disrupt this vital junction linking the Confederate capital at Richmond with the grain-producing Shenandoah Valley. On July 16, an untrained Union army

The Battle of Bull Run
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-DIG-ppmsca-0290]

Brig. Gen. Irvin McDowell
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-BH82-4109]

Brig. Gen. Joseph E. Johnston
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-103202]



Maj. Gen. Thomas "Stonewall" Jackson
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-DIG-ppmsca-0290]

under the leadership of Brigadier General Irvin McDowell began marching from Washington, D.C., toward Manassas. Meanwhile, an untried Confederate army under Brigadier General Pierre G. T. Beauregard was drawn up behind Bull Run Creek. The Union troops believed that they would easily defeat these Confederate troops.

Just before the battle began, Confederate Brigadier General Joseph E. Johnston, who was located in the Shenandoah Valley, received a telegram from President Davis commanding him to slip away and join his forces with Beauregard's. The order was based on information that Davis had received from an efficient Confederate spy network concerning the strength and direction of McDowell's forces. When Johnston and his men arrived, they were assigned to block the main road and the rail routes from Manassas to Richmond.

On July 21, the Union troops launched several assaults against the Confederates. Fighting raged throughout the day. During one of the Union attacks, Confederate Major General Thomas Jackson received his nickname "Stonewall" because he led his men in standing their ground so firmly. Brigadier General Barnard Bee, just before he died, supposedly exclaimed, "There is Jackson standing like a stone wall. Rally behind the Virginians."[5] After halting several Union assaults, Beauregard finally counterattacked; the tired Union troops broke and fled in wild retreat.

Hundreds of politicians, reporters, and sightseers from Washington, D.C., traveled to Manassas in wagons, carriages, and buggies. They brought food in hampers and expected to picnic and watch the Union forces easily defeat the Confederate army. As the Union troops began to retreat, these people decided that it was time for them to go, also, which created even greater pandemonium and panic. Although victorious, the Confederate forces were too disorganized to pursue the Union soldiers fleeing in the rain.

The first Battle of Bull Run convinced the Lincoln administration that the war would not be over in ninety days but would be long and costly. President Lincoln relieved McDowell of command of the Army of the Potomac on July 27 and replaced him with Major General George McClellan, who began reorganizing and training Union troops. On November 1, 1861, upon the resignation of the elderly

Winfield Scott, Lincoln appointed McClellan to be general-in-chief of all Union forces. Although the Confederate victory at Manassas gave the South's cause a boost in confidence and prestige, it also left Confederate forces battered and disorganized.

Maj. Gen. George McClellan
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-16405]

BATTLES OF FORT HENRY AND FORT DONELSON (FEBRUARY 6, 1862, AND FEBRUARY 16, 1862)

Union troops struck early and hard in the West in the hope of seizing control of the Mississippi River. If they could succeed in accomplishing this goal, the Confederacy would be split into two parts. During February of 1862, Union troops under Brigadier General Ulysses S. Grant captured Fort Henry on the Tennessee River and Fort Donelson on the Cumberland River. With the surrender of these two forts, the Confederate positions in Kentucky and western Tennessee collapsed. Two major water transportation routes, the Tennessee and Cumberland rivers, could now be used by the Union to move troops and supplies.

Map

[map3-1: map showing the location of the Battles of Bull Run, Fort Henry, Fort Donelson, and Shiloh as well as the naval battle of Monitor vs. Merrimack]

The capture of Fort Henry
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-14001]

The Battle of Fort Donelson
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-15605]

At Fort Donelson, the Confederate commander, Brigadier General Simon Bolivar Buckner, asked Grant for his best terms of surrender. Grant's reply to Buckner, who had been his close friend before the war, was that he would accept no terms but unconditional and immediate surrender. After winning these two key Union victories, Grant became known as "Unconditional Surrender" Grant and received a promotion to major general. He was also given overall command of Union operations in the area.

THE *MONITOR* AND THE *MERRIMACK* (MARCH 8 – 9, 1862)

The Confederacy had raised a sunken Union ship, the *Merrimack*, at Norfolk and covered it with iron plates. This Confederate ironclad, which they renamed the *Virginia*, attacked two wooden Union ships

at Hampton Roads on March 8, 1862, and destroyed both of them. The following day, when the *Virginia* returned, it found the *Monitor*, a Union ironclad, waiting for it. The battle that followed ended in a draw, and the two ships never fought again.

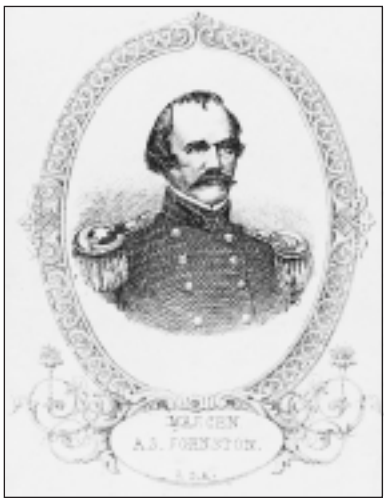
However, the *Virginia* did prevent General McClellan from using the James River, the best route to Richmond, in his campaign to capture the South's capital. The *Monitor*, in turn, prevented the *Virginia* from sinking any more Union warships. Naval warfare was changed forever; wooden ships were now obsolete. The *Virginia* was burned to avoid capture in May of 1862, and the *Monitor* was sunk on the high seas in December of 1862.

The Monitor and the Merrimack
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-15167]

BATTLE OF PITTSBURG LANDING, OR BATTLE OF SHILOH (APRIL 6 – 7, 1862)

After the Confederates lost Fort Henry and Fort Donelson, General Albert Sidney Johnston was forced to give up Confederate control of Kentucky and much of middle and western Tennessee. Moving further south, Johnston chose Corinth, Mississippi, an important railroad junction, as the staging area for a Confederate offensive against Major General Ulysses S. Grant and his Army of the Tennessee. Johnston was joined by Brigadier General Pierre G. T. Beauregard and his forces.

Meanwhile, Grant had moved a force of Union soldiers to Pittsburg Landing, Tennessee, which was located on the west bank of the Tennessee River, about twenty-two miles east of Corinth. When Johnston and Beauregard received the news of Grant's arrival, they decided to move ahead to strike at his forces before Union reinforcements from the Army of the Ohio arrived. On April 6, Confederate forces surprised the Union army near an abandoned Methodist church named Shiloh. On this first day of the battle at Shiloh, Confederate troops almost succeeded in smashing Grant's forces. However, the Union soldiers managed to hold their lines. Then, the following day, Grant received reinforcements that enabled his men to force the Confederates to retreat to Corinth.



Gen. Albert Sidney Johnston
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-121084]

After the Battle of Shiloh, Confederate hopes of recovering western and middle Tennessee were dashed. Another blow to the Confederacy was the death of General Albert Sidney Johnston in this battle. Even though the Union forces were victorious at Shiloh, both the Union and the Confederate armies suffered huge losses. Many people in the North urged Lincoln to replace Grant because of the high number of Union casualties at Shiloh, but Lincoln refused. The Confederate surprise attack at Shiloh spoiled Grant's plans for a quick victory in the West.

The Battle of Shiloh
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-3579]

IMPACT

- The Civil War was fought on two fronts — an eastern front and a western front. The Union and the Confederacy usually used different names for the same battle. Most battles in the Civil War were fought "old style."

- Confederate armies were named for states. General Robert E. Lee served as commander of the Army of Northern Virginia and eventually as the supreme commander of all Confederate armies in the field. He succeeded in transforming a ragged and outnumbered army into a fighting force that held off the Union army for almost four years, but neither he nor President Davis developed a long-range Confederate strategy.

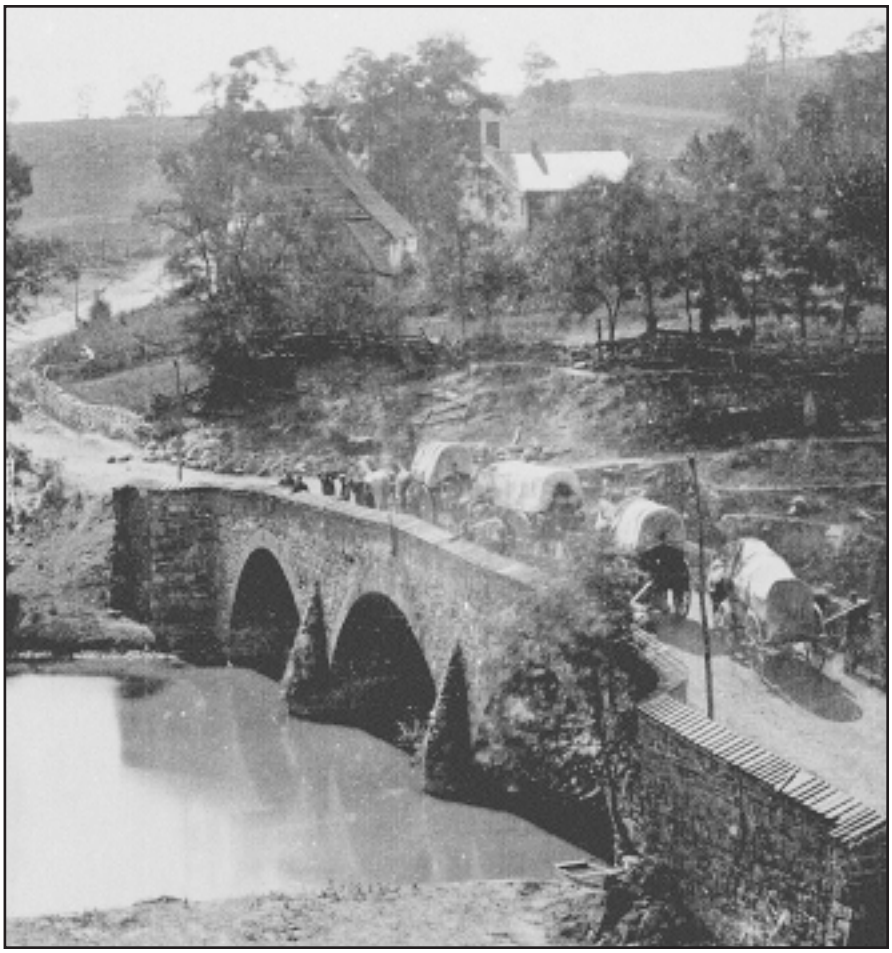
- Union armies were usually named for rivers. The generals who commanded the Union armies on the western front were less well known than those in the East, and most of them also failed to meet the president's expectations. Lincoln finally appointed General Ulysses S. Grant as commander of all Union armies because he had proven himself willing to fight aggressively enough to lead Union forces to victory. The strategy eventually followed by the Union was known as the Anaconda Plan.

- The first major battle of the Civil War was at Bull Run (Manassas) on July 21, 1861. A Confederate victory convinced the Lincoln administration that the war would be long and costly. The president replaced Irvin McDowell, commander of the Army of the Potomac, with George McClellan.

- In February of 1862, Union troops commanded by Ulysses S. Grant captured two Confederate forts — Fort Henry on the Tennessee River and Fort Donelson on the Cumberland River. Two major water transportation routes were now available to the Union for moving troops and supplies.

- The battle of the Confederate ironclad ship, the *Virginia*, and the Union ironclad ship, the *Monitor*, in March of 1862, ended in a draw. However, the *Virginia* did prevent McClellan's forces from using the James River in their campaign to capture Richmond. Naval warfare was forever changed in the shift away from wooden ships.

- In April of 1862, Confederate forces under Albert Sidney Johnston and Pierre G. T. Beauregard surprised Union forces under Grant near an abandoned Methodist church named Shiloh. The Confederate troops almost succeeded in smashing the Union army, but the Union soldiers held their lines and forced the Confederates to retreat. This battle dashed Confederate hopes of recovering western and middle Tennessee, but it also spoiled Grant's plans for a quick victory in the West.



LESSON 4

Second Year of the Civil war . . . . . 1862 — 1863 A.D.

ATMOSPHERE

RECRUITMENT OF UNION AND CONFEDERATE SOLDIERS

The majority of soldiers who fought in the Civil War were farmers between the ages of eighteen and thirty. They usually had received little formal education and only very superficial military training, if any. In the early months of the war, there was an enthusiastic rush to enlist in both the Union and the Confederate armies, and all enlistment quotas were easily surpassed. By 1863, however, both the Union and Confederacy had been forced to pass conscription acts, which provided for the drafting of soldiers for their armies. Each draftee was allowed to pay a substitute to serve in his place, which led to resentment on the part of many who were not wealthy. In cities such as Chicago and Boston, draft riots broke out, leading to the deaths of more than a thousand people.

[pic4-2: Showing boys as soldiers, especially Confederates]

In the early years of the war, both the Union and the Confederacy had rules prohibiting boys younger than eighteen from enlisting in the army and fighting. However, a tall fourteen- or fifteen-year-old might easily blend into a crowd of men and not be questioned. In addition, there were no standard forms of identification to verify

Confederate Soldier
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-B8184-10693]

Union Soldiers
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-96476]

African-American Regiment
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-B8171-7890]

someone's birth date if a question about age was asked. According to one story, a boy wanting to join the army wrote the number "18" on a piece of paper and put it in his shoe. This, he felt, allowed him to answer truthfully that he was "over eighteen" when asked his age. Later in the war, laws were passed allowing younger boys to enlist, and boys as young as eleven joined. These young boys served as drummer boys, buglers, barbers, and messengers.

Many African Americans served in the Union army. However, the Union did not allow African Americans to enlist until 1863, when there were no longer enough white soldiers to serve. Eventually, the Union army had 140 African American regiments, with approximately 180,000 African American soldiers. However, black soldiers were not treated as the equals of white soldiers. They were paid less, given poor equipment and inferior uniforms, not allowed to become officers, and kept separated in all-black regiments. At first they were delegated to labor details, but several black regiments did eventually see action. The all-black 54th Massachusetts Regiment saw heavy action, and twenty-three African American soldiers earned the Medal of Honor for bravery.

Confederate troops regarded black Union soldiers as escaped slaves. Thus, when southern soldiers took African Americans as prisoners of war, they often executed them to set an example. As Union armies drove into the South, many slaves ran away to enlist or to ask for their protection. Union forces ended up returning many of them to their masters because of the great difficulties involved in providing for them. Southern slaves worked diligently during the war as drivers, blacksmiths, agricultural laborers, and builders of fortifications that protected many of the South's ports. Just before the end of the war, the Confederate army was so desperately short of soldiers that President Davis signed a law allowing several black companies to be raised. However, no African American infantryman ever actually fired a shot for the Confederacy.

Thousands of men from Great Britain, France, Germany, Spain, and Italy also fought in the Union army and navy. Not as many Europeans served in the Confederate army, and many of those who

did were Frenchmen. A number of Native Americans served in the Confederate army, and some also enlisted in the Union army.

The Role of Women

A number of women disguised themselves as men in order to fight in the Civil War. Several dozen of them were discovered by doctors only after being wounded because soldiers slept in their clothes and rarely took baths. Some women were eager to fight side by side with their husbands, and some soldiers brought their entire families with them to the front. Women also did quite a bit of spying during the war, with their large hoop skirts providing the perfect place to smuggle secret papers, weapons, and other contraband.

As the war dragged on, women on both sides risked their lives to nurse the wounded. At first, both the Union and the Confederacy widely discouraged women from serving as nurses, not wanting to expose them to the horrors of battle. However, by 1862 this position had changed. The U.S. Surgeon General agreed to permit one-third of the Union army's hospital nurses to be women, and the Confederate government also began allowing women to join its nurse corps.

The kindness and bravery of one Civil War nurse became legendary. Clara Barton traveled from battlefield to battlefield, caring for wounded and dying Union soldiers. Even when many doctors fled, she stayed, often operating on the men herself. Barton also was very involved in collecting and delivering supplies to the Union army on the battlefield. This Civil War nurse would survive the war and go on to found the American Red Cross.

Pauline Cushman, actress and Union spy
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-DIG-cwpbh-02836]

Clara Barton
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-108565]

EVENT

BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS (APRIL 24 – 25, 1862)

A Union naval squadron of seventeen ships under the command of Admiral David Farragut sailed to the mouth of the Mississippi River from the Gulf of Mexico. It steamed through the weak Confederate

Admiral David Farragut
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-DIG-cwpbh-03121]

defenses located there and captured the city of New Orleans, the South's greatest seaport.

BATTLE OF SEVEN PINES, OR BATTLE OF FAIR OAKS (MAY 31 – JUNE 1, 1862)

In March of 1862, Brigadier General George McClellan landed his Army of the Potomac on the Virginia peninsula between the York and James rivers. This marked the beginning of what became known as McClellan's Peninsula Campaign. The Army of the Potomac occupied Yorktown and began advancing along the York River. By late May, McClellan and his men were located only six miles away from the Confederate capital at Richmond. On May 31, Brigadier General Joseph E. Johnston led a Confederate attack against McClellan's forces at Seven Pines and nearly defeated them. However, Johnston failed to follow up and fell back toward Richmond. Both sides claimed victory, but in actuality the battle ended in a tactical draw.

Johnston was badly wounded in the fighting and was replaced as commander of his troops by Robert E. Lee, who renamed them the Army of Northern Virginia. As Lee took over, he faced a difficult situation — a large, well-equipped Union army was located within just a few miles of Richmond, which was poorly fortified and defended by a poorly coordinated Confederate army of demoralized men. Lee took charge of the situation immediately and in three weeks had strengthened defense lines near Richmond, improved the organization and morale of his troops, and brought in reinforcements.

Meanwhile, between early May and early June of 1862, Major General Stonewall Jackson and his Confederate troops had been advancing up the Shenandoah Valley. Jackson's forces became known as the "foot cavalry" because they marched so quickly. Jackson hoped to make Union commanders think that he was going to attack Washington, D.C. His troops defeated Union forces in several skirmishes and prevented the U.S. government from sending reinforcements to McClellan from Washington. Then Jackson and his men joined Lee at Richmond.

THE SEVEN DAYS' BATTLES (JUNE 25 – JULY 1, 1862)

In late June of 1862, six battles took place over a seven-day period near Richmond, as Lee led a series of attacks against McClellan's forces. Both the Union and the Confederate armies suffered heavy losses. Although the advantage shifted from side to side, McClellan eventually became unnerved and believed that his troops were outnumbered by the Confederates. He ordered his forces to retreat to Harrison's Landing, where they camped near the safety of the James River.

The Union army had come within just a few miles of Richmond but had not been able to capture it. Lee had forced a stronger and better-equipped army than his own to retreat. By August, President Lincoln ordered McClellan and his men to evacuate the peninsula and to move to northern Virginia to reinforce Union troops there. The failure of McClellan's Peninsula Campaign cost the Union its best chance to capture the Confederate capital early in the war.

Major General John Pope
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-DIG-cwpb-06341]

SECOND BATTLE OF BULL RUN, OR SECOND BATTLE OF MANASSAS (AUGUST 29 – 30, 1862)

With the end of McClellan's Peninsula Campaign, Lee moved rapidly northward from Richmond to Manassas to attack Union forces led by Major General John Pope. In the first year of the war, Pope had commanded the Army of the Mississippi with some success and had been brought east to take charge of the newly formed Army of Virginia. Lee hoped to defeat Pope's troops before reinforcements led by McClellan could arrive, and he sent Stonewall Jackson ahead with his men to swing around behind Pope's army.

On August 29, Pope unsuccessfully attacked Jackson's forces. As soon as McClellan's troops arrived by boat from the south, Pope sent them into battle. Lee also arrived with his army to join Jackson's, and Confederate Major General J. E. B. Stuart's cavalry helped to raid Pope's forces from the rear. Both sides suffered heavy casualties, and the day's fighting ended in a stalemate.

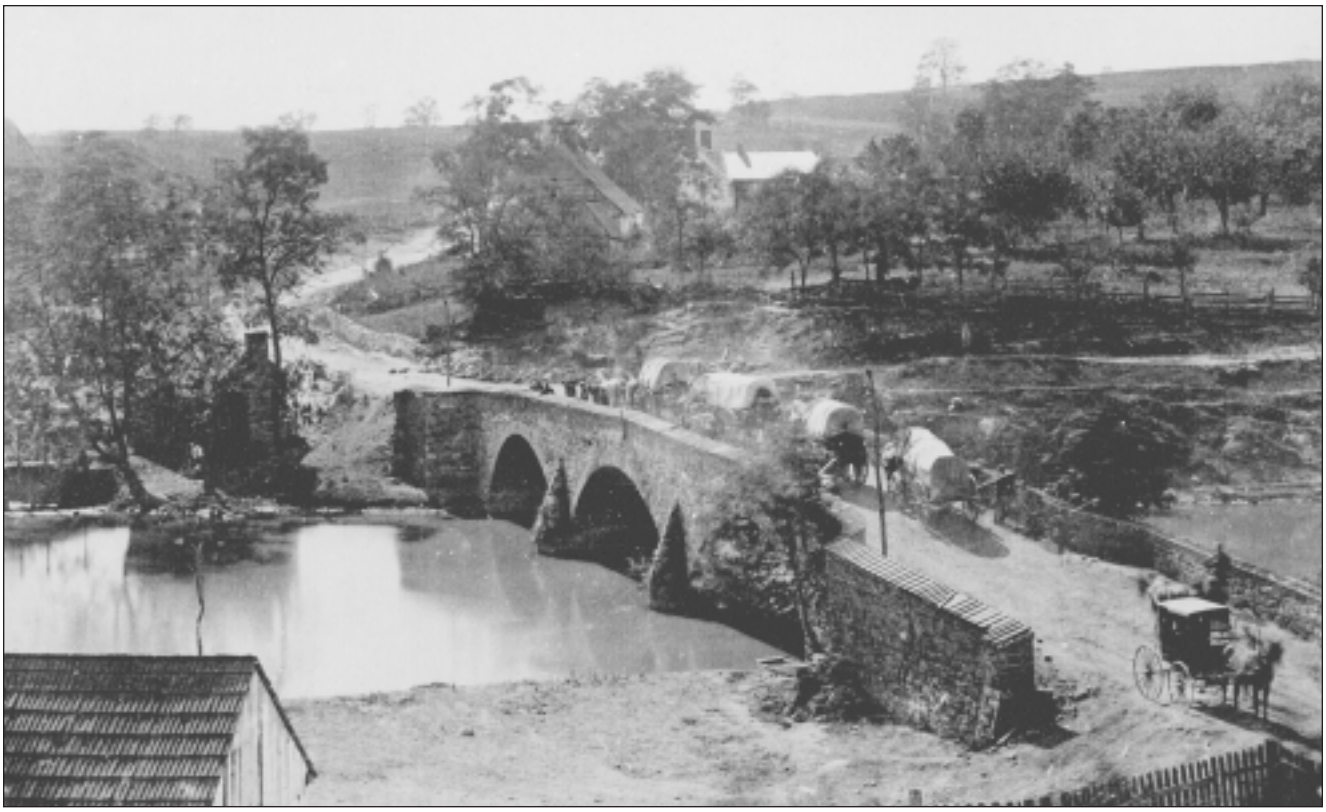
The following day, Union forces under Pope again attacked the Confederates. A Confederate counterattack swept the Union forces from the field, and the defeated Union troops plodded back to

Major General J.E.B. Stuart
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [NARA 64-M-9]

Washington in a heavy rain. A force of fifty-five thousand Confederates had defeated a Union army of seventy-five thousand. The excellent teamwork demonstrated by Lee and Jackson discredited Pope and provided a severe setback for the Union. As a result of this Confederate victory, the South was able to regain almost all of Virginia!

BATTLE OF ANTIETAM CREEK, OR BATTLE OF SHARPSBURG (SEPTEMBER 17, 1862)

After the Confederate victory at the Second Battle of Bull Run, Lee realized that a follow-up attack on Washington, D.C., was out of the question. The U.S. capital was too strongly held. Lee decided, instead, to invade Maryland, where many were sympathetic to the Confederate cause. In early September of 1862, Lee moved from



Soldiers and wagons crossing the Antietam Creek Bridge
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [NARAB-7199]

northern Virginia into Maryland with fifty thousand soldiers in hopes of winning a decisive victory on Union ground. With such a victory, the Union might be prompted to offer peace overtures, since morale on that side was at a low ebb, or one or more European nations might be prompted to recognize and support the Confederacy.

Following the Union defeat at the Second Battle of Bull Run, McClellan had taken over Pope's dislocated formations. The short-lived Army of Virginia was disbanded and its soldiers incorporated into the Army of the Potomac. As Lee moved forward into Maryland, McClellan pursued him with a force of ninety thousand soldiers. On September 13, a Union soldier accidentally stumbled upon a copy of Lee's orders to his commanders wrapped around three cigars at an abandoned Confederate campsite. When Lee learned of this, he decided to take up position at Sharpsburg on Antietam Creek. McClellan waited four days before attacking Lee's forces, wasting his opportunity to seize the initiative.

The Battle of Antietam was the bloodiest single day of fighting in the Civil War and in U.S. military history. By the end of the day, approximately twenty-six thousand men were dead, wounded, or missing. Powerful Union attacks eventually pierced the Confederate center, but Lee and his men had been able to fight an army almost twice the size of theirs to a standstill. Although tactically a draw, strategically Antietam was a Union victory because it doomed Lee's campaign of northern invasion. Having suffered heavy losses, Lee's forces began retreating back to Virginia.

After the Confederate retreat, Lincoln announced the preliminary Emancipation Proclamation on September 22, 1862. This proclamation made slavery illegal in those areas of the country in rebellion and gave the Union side the weight of a moral crusade. The Confederate loss of initiative at Antietam and Lincoln's issuing of this proclamation served to reduce the likelihood of European recognition of the Confederacy.

BATTLE OF FREDERICKSBURG (DECEMBER 11 – 15, 1862)

McClellan did not succeed in winning the decisive victory that the Lincoln administration had expected at Antietam and refused to

Maj. Gen. Ambrose Burnside
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-DIG-ppmsca-0835]

engage his troops in immediate action against Lee's retreating army. Instead, McClellan kept his forces around Sharpsburg for several weeks, rebuilding their strength and replacing equipment and other supplies. Finally, McClellan began moving toward Richmond, but Lincoln had grown impatient with his slowness. In fact, Lincoln told McClellan that if the general did not want to use the army, he (the president) would like to borrow it for a while. On November 7, 1862, McClellan was ordered to hand over his command of the Army of the Potomac to Major General Ambrose Burnside.

Although Burnside was not an obvious replacement, he did have the reputation of being a fighter. There arose widespread protest among the Army of the Potomac when Burnside was appointed, but McClellan urged his troops to extend the same loyalty to Burnside that they had given to him. By November 15, Burnside had hastily reorganized his army and moved south toward Richmond. He planned to cross the Rappahannock River at Fredericksburg and then seize that town and the surrounding heights.

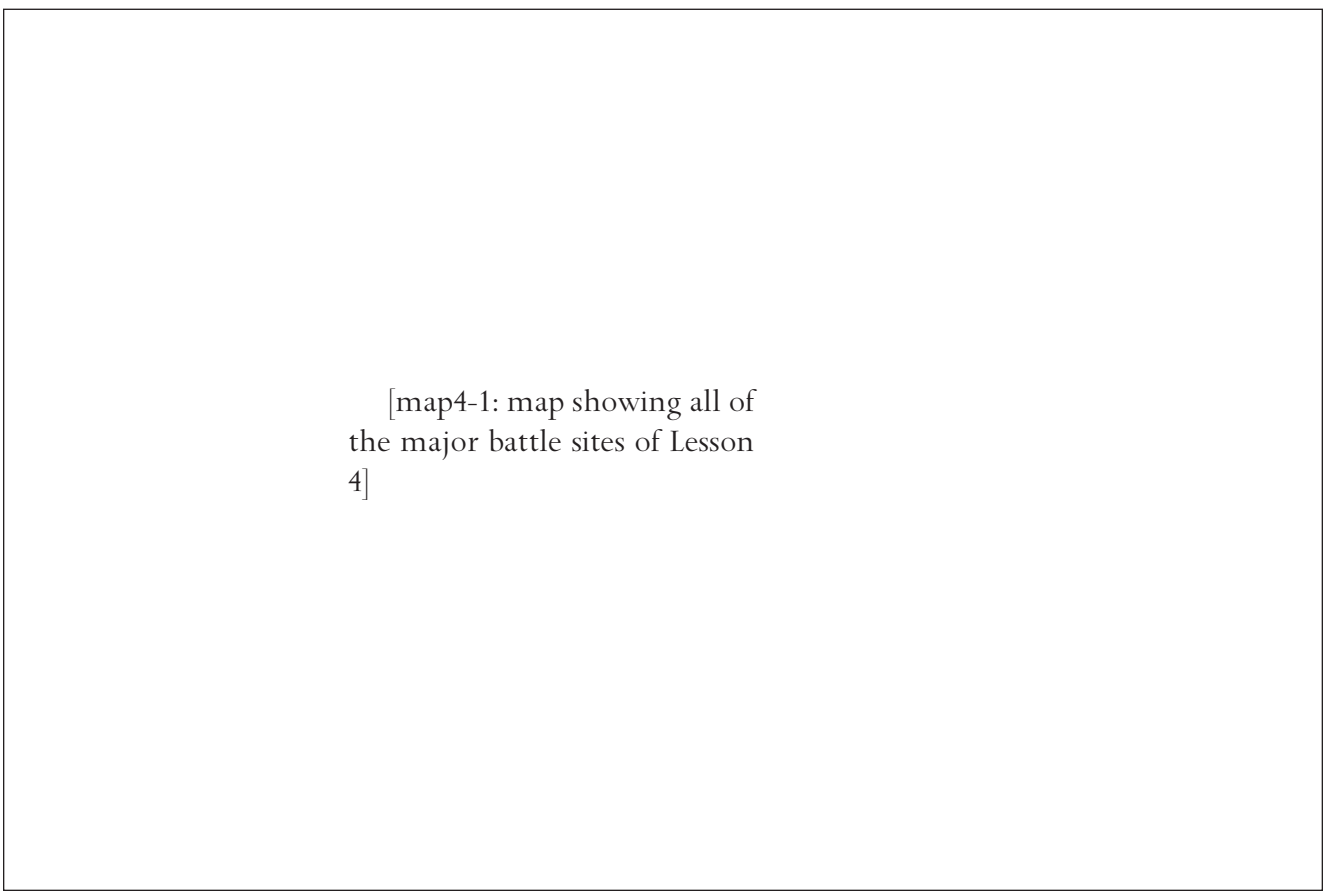
Because civilian bridges over the Rappahannock had been destroyed earlier in the war, Burnside had decided to use pontoon equipment to cross the river. However, because of poor weather, miscommunication, and inefficient army bureaucracy, these pontoons did not arrive for seventeen days. This delay gave Lee and his men plenty of time to prepare for the Union assault. Most of Fredericksburg's civilian population was removed, and the Army of Northern Virginia was spread out in a five-mile crescent across a line of fortified hills behind Fredericksburg.

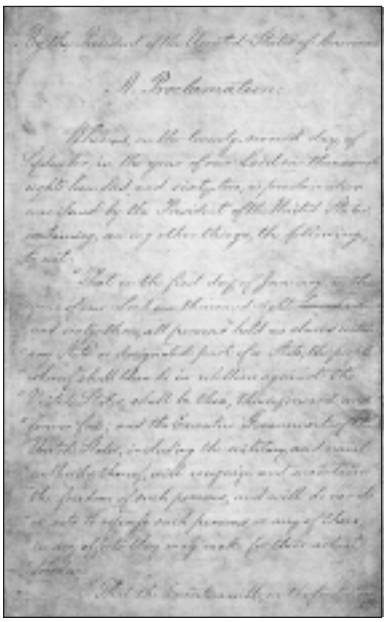
Finally, the pontoon bridges arrived. On December 11, Union troops began shelling Fredericksburg. After setting the town on fire, Burnside's forces crossed the Rappahannock on the pontoons. On the morning of December 13, Burnside and his men began a series of frontal assaults against the Confederate forces. However, their efforts were futile; the Confederates were well entrenched on the heights behind Fredericksburg. After fourteen frontal assaults had failed, Burnside called off the Union offensive on December 15; and the

Army of the Potomac recrossed the Rappahannock River. The Union forces had suffered staggering casualties.

In January of 1863, Burnside initiated a new offensive, which quickly became bogged down in the winter mud that had resulted from torrential rains. After the failure of this "Mud March," Burnside was relieved of command at his request and replaced by Major General Joseph ("Fighting Joe") Hooker, Burnside's bitter rival. As 1863 began, the Union was dispirited — and the outcome of the war seemed to hang in the balance. Due to heavy rains, both armies remained inactive until late spring.

Map





Emancipation Proclamation
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [National Archives]

THE EMANCIPATION PROCLAMATION

On January 1, 1863, President Abraham Lincoln issued the final Emancipation Proclamation. According to this proclamation, all slaves in territories held by the Confederates were now free. Ironically, slavery was still legal in the border states loyal to the Union and in the Confederate states controlled by the Union. Only with the ratification of the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution, in December 1865, would slavery be prohibited throughout the United States.

> Whereas on the twenty-second day of September, A.D. 1862, a proclamation was issued by the President of the United States, containing, among other things, the following, to wit: "That on the first day of January, A.D. 1863, all persons held as slaves within any State or designated part of a State the people whereof shall then be in rebellion against the United States shall be then, thenceforward, and forever free; and the executive government of the United States, including the military and naval authority thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of such persons and will do no act or acts to repress such persons, or any of them, in any efforts they may make for their actual freedom.
>
> — excerpt from Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation

By issuing the Emancipation Proclamation, Lincoln continued to seek to put the war on a moral footing as a struggle for human freedom. He also wanted to discourage European nations from siding with the Confederacy. For the Confederates, the Emancipation Proclamation was final proof that Lincoln had always planned to make them surrender their slaves.

IMPACT

- In the early months of the war, there was an enthusiastic rush to enlist in both the Union and the Confederate armies. By

1863, however, both sides had been forced to pass conscription acts.

- Many African Americans served in the Union army. However, black soldiers were not treated as the equals of white soldiers. The Confederates regarded black Union soldiers as escaped slaves and often executed them if they were captured.

- Thousands of Europeans served in the Union army and navy. Not as many served in the Confederate army; many of those who did were from France. Native Americans enlisted in the armies of both the Confederacy and the Union.

- A number of women disguised themselves as men in order to fight in the Civil War. Women also worked as spies and nurses. The kindness and bravery of Clara Barton, a Union nurse, became legendary.

- On April 24, 1862, a Union naval squadron, under the command of Admiral David Farragut, captured the city of New Orleans, the South's greatest seaport.

- The Battle of Seven Pines, fought in late May of 1862, ended in a tactical draw. Joseph E. Johnston was badly wounded in this battle and was replaced as commander by Robert E. Lee. Between early May and early June of 1862, Stonewall Jackson and his men defeated Union forces in several skirmishes in the Shenandoah Valley.

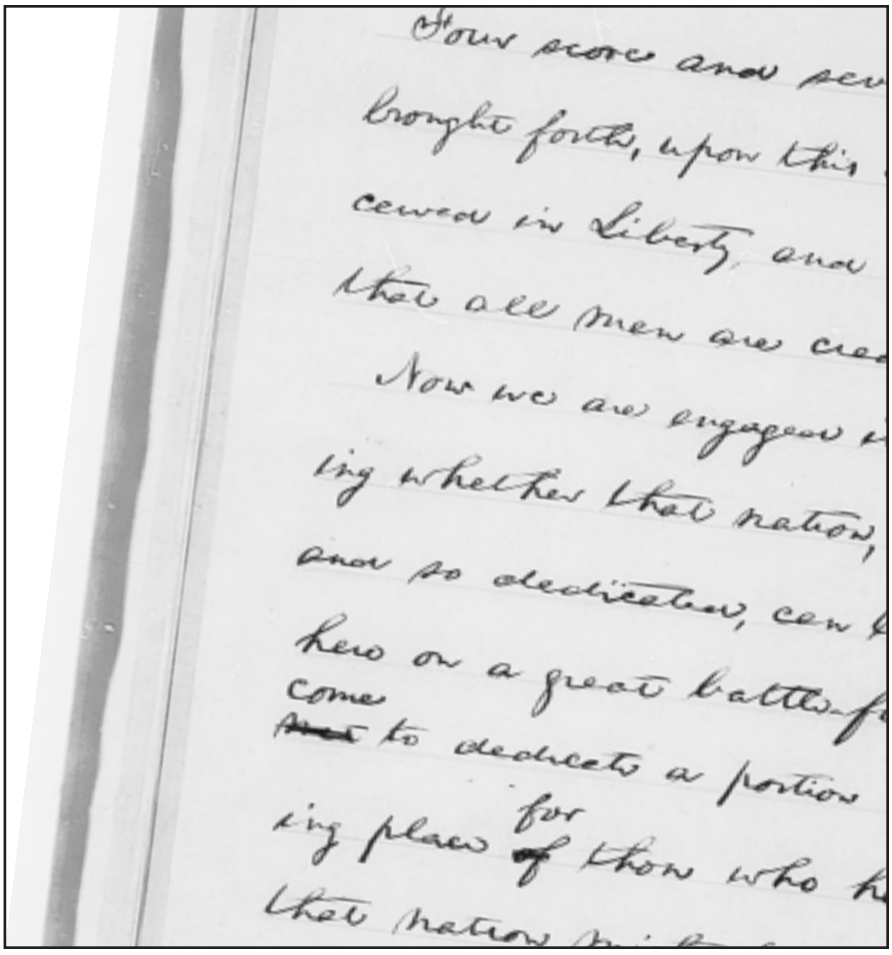
- In late June of 1862, six battles took place over a seven-day period near Richmond. Lee led a series of attacks against McClellan's forces, causing them to retreat. The failure of McClellan's Peninsula Campaign cost the Union its best chance to capture the Confederate capital early in the war.

- The excellent teamwork of Lee and Stonewall Jackson led to the defeat of the Army of Virginia, led by John Pope, at the Second Battle of Bull Run in late August of 1862. As a result of this victory, the Confederacy was able to regain control of almost all of Virginia.

- In September of 1862, Lee decided to invade Maryland in hopes of winning a decisive victory on Union ground. Lee's forces were finally attacked by McClellan's Army of the Potomac at Sharpsburg on Antietam Creek on September 17. This battle was the bloodiest single day of fighting in the Civil War and in U.S. military history. Although tactically a draw, Antietam was strategically a Union victory because it doomed Lee's campaign of northern invasion.

- By early November of 1862, McClellan had been ordered to hand over his command of the Army of the Potomac to Ambrose Burnside. In mid-December, Burnside and his men suffered a disastrous defeat at Fredericksburg, Virginia.

- On January 1, 1863, President Lincoln issued the final Emancipation Proclamation, which set free all slaves in territories held by the Confederates.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LESSON 5

Third Year of the Civil War . . . . . 1863 — 1864 A.D.

ATMOSPHERE

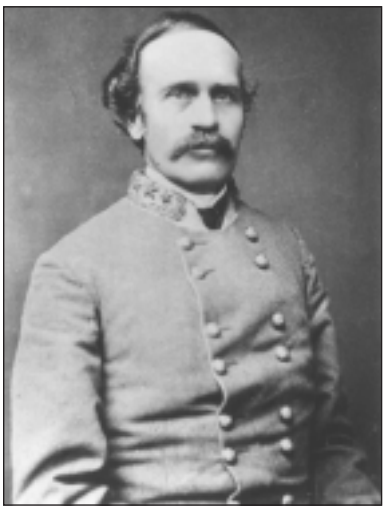
UNIFORMS OF UNION AND CONFEDERATE SOLDIERS

Soldiers on both sides were outfitted in a wide variety of uniforms. Some wore state militia uniforms, others borrowed old Revolutionary War uniforms, and still more wore just regular civilian clothes. This produced a rainbow of colors and styles. Perhaps the most outlandish uniforms were patterned after the celebrated Zouave fighting unit from French Africa. These uniforms consisted of baggy red pants, purple shirts, broad sashes, and red fezzes. Others wore the kilts of the Scottish Highlanders or the peakless caps of the German Hussars. Eventually, these outfits were found to be too fancy for rigorous military duty and so flashy that they made easy targets on the battlefield.

Zuoave uniform
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-B8184-10696]

The Union regulation uniform consisted of dark blue wool trousers (altered to a lighter shade of blue after 1862); a loose-fitting, dark blue flannel sack coat; and a floppy-crowned wool forage cap with a leather visor. Union uniforms were universally of better quality than Confederate uniforms because of the large number of factories in the North that could manufacture wool cloth. Most Confederate soldiers had to make-do with home-dyed and home-

Union uniform
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-132494]



Confederate uniform
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-71561]

made trousers, short-waisted jackets in various hues of gray or butternut (light brown), and a broad-brimmed hat or a gray forage cap with a pompom on the crown. Both Confederate and Union soldiers usually wore cotton shirts and undergarments sent from home. By the end of 1862, Confederate soldiers faced an alarming shortage of shoes; as many as forty thousand men in the Army of Northern Virginia were barefoot.

During the war, church groups and sewing circles transformed themselves into soldiers' aid societies. They knitted socks and sewed clothes for the military. Their production of sewn garments was helped tremendously by the newly invented foot-treadle sewing machine. Robert E. Lee's wife and their three grown daughters sewed continuously for four long years. By May of 1864, they had contributed almost four hundred sets of socks to the Army of Northern Virginia.

EQUIPMENT OF UNION AND CONFEDERATE SOLDIERS

The principal weapon of all Civil War infantrymen was the rifle-musket. The most commonly used rifle-muskets were the U.S. Springfield and the British Enfield. This type of musket was loaded from the shooting end (the muzzle) and was equipped with a barrel that had fine grooves carved inside. The design of the barrel made a bullet spin and travel farther and with more accuracy than bullets shot from a plain barrel. In order to prepare to fire a rifle-musket, a soldier had to perform no fewer than eleven movements. The drill manual demanded that an infantryman acquire a standard of proficiency that would produce three aimed shots per minute (requiring less than two seconds per movement). The principal handgun for cavalrymen during the Civil War was the .36 Colt army revolver.

During the early part of the war, there were not enough weapons available in the United States to arm the rapidly growing Union and Confederate armies. Both governments sent agents to Europe to obtain more weapons. In the meantime, thousands of old-fashioned muskets and flintlocks were used, but they were no match against rifle-muskets. In addition to his musket, a typical soldier carried a car-

tridge box with forty rounds of ammunition, a bayonet, a haversack for rations, a canteen, a blanket roll, half of a sheltered tent, and a change of clothing. As the war progressed, both the Union and the Confederacy experimented with new technologies, such as hand grenades, land mines, machine guns, trench warfare, and observation balloons for spying.

Making caps
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-126969]

EVENT

BATTLE OF CHANCELLORSVILLE (MAY 2 – 5, 1863)

In the spring of 1863, the Army of the Potomac, now commanded by Major General Joseph Hooker, was camped on the north side of the Rappahannock River. Lee and the Army of Northern Virginia still held Fredericksburg. The spirited new Union commander had worked hard to reorganize his troops. By late April, Hooker was confident that he and his men were ready to take the field against Lee's army, which was only half the size of the Army of the Potomac and not nearly as well supplied.

On the morning of April 27, Hooker began moving Union forces around Fredericksburg in an attempt to turn, or change the position of, the Confederate left flank. (A flank is a wing, or side, of a military formation.) Several Union corps crossed the Rappahannock and Rapidan rivers, most of them near the hamlet of Chancellorsville (about ten miles from Fredericksburg). Meanwhile, Lee was working frantically to concentrate his own army. On May 1, Lee left a small force at Fredericksburg and marched with the rest of his troops to confront Hooker and his men at Chancellorsville. Hooker had withdrawn the Army of the Potomac to a defensive position, forcing Lee and his small army to attack his much larger one.

On the evening of May 1, Lee and Stonewall Jackson decided upon a risky plan of attack. They agreed to split their troops, with Jackson and his men striking at Hooker's right flank and Lee and his men attacking in front. The following day, Jackson's troops began their twelve-mile march to reach the Union right, while the Confederate

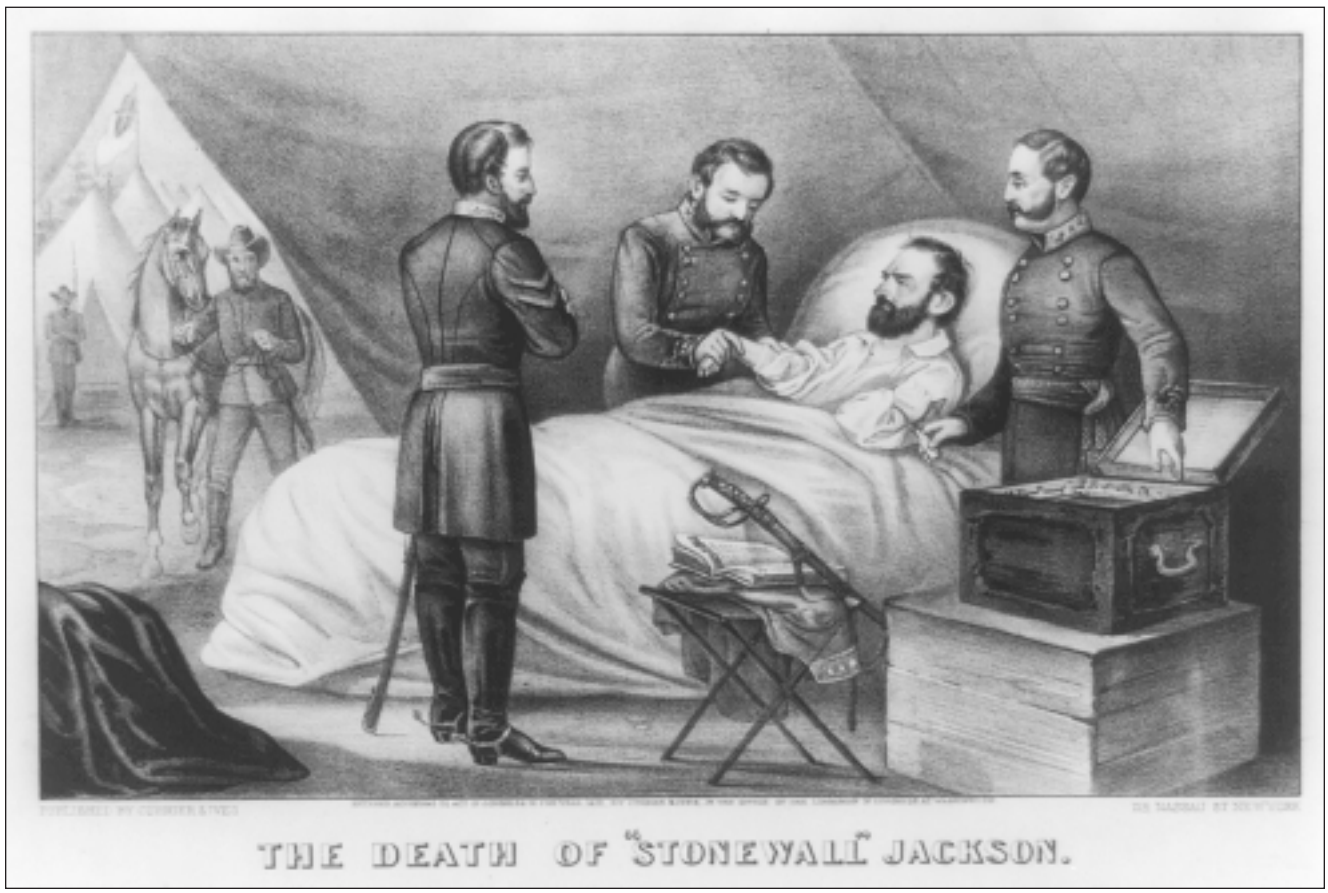
Rifle musket
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-DIG-ppmsca-09877]

Colt revolver
National Portrait Gallery

cavalry under J. E. B. Stuart worked to keep Union forces from spotting them. Finally, in the late afternoon of May 2, Jackson's line surged forward in an overwhelming attack against the Union right. However, the Union troops rallied and resisted. There was disorganization on both sides, and darkness ended the fighting.

Unfortunately for the Confederacy, that evening Stonewall Jackson was hit by friendly fire while out on a night reconnaissance. Jackson had hoped to press the advantage of the Confederate attack before Hooker and his men could counterattack and had ventured out to scout ahead of his corps. The bones of Jackson's left arm were badly shattered by two bullets shot by Confederate soldiers who had not recognized him. Although his injury did not seem to be life

The death of Stonewall Jackson at Chancellorville
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-DIG-ppmsca-0290]



threatening at first, Jackson had to have his arm amputated, and he then developed pneumonia. When Jackson died on May 10, his death was a devastating blow to the Confederacy. According to Robert E. Lee, losing Stonewall Jackson was like losing his right arm.

On May 3, J. E. B. Stuart took over temporary command of Jackson's troops and launched a massive assault against Hooker's forces. After fierce fighting and heavy casualties for both armies, the Confederates captured Chancellorsville the afternoon of May 3. By the evening of May 5, Hooker had begun withdrawing his troops across the Rappahannock River. Lee's devastating defeat of a much larger Union army paved the way for another Confederate invasion of the North. Many historians consider this to be Lee's greatest victory.

SIEGE OF VICKSBURG (MAY 18 – JULY 4, 1863)

In the winter of 1862 - 1863, Major General Grant moved to capture Vicksburg, Mississippi, the key city guarding the Mississippi River between Memphis and New Orleans. Located on a high bluff, Vicksburg stood on a U-shaped bend in the river. Grant moved toward Vicksburg with Union forces from the north and attempted to approach the city several times. However, the ground north of Vicksburg was low and swampy, and Grant's men kept getting bogged down. In April, Union gunboats and supply ships finally succeeded in slipping past the Confederate batteries in the night, and they established a base on the Mississippi River below Vicksburg.

Union gunboats on the Mississippi River below Vicksburg
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZC4-7646]

By mid-May, the Union forces had dug trenches, moved in artillery, and started almost nonstop bombardment of Vicksburg. Their goal was to besiege the city, starving it into submission. The Confederate garrison at Vicksburg held out for six weeks but finally surrendered the day after the battle at Gettysburg was over. With the capture of Vicksburg, the Union controlled the Mississippi River, splitting the Confederacy in half. Grant's successful campaign at Vicksburg enhanced his reputation and ultimately led to his being appointed general-in-chief of the Union armies.

Maj. Gen. George Meade
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-68321]

BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG (JULY 1 – 3, 1863)

After the Confederate victory at Chancellorsville, Lee decided to invade the North once again. He wanted to engage Union forces outside of Virginia to give that war-ravaged state a rest and to capture some badly needed provisions for the Confederate army. In June, Lee began to move the Army of Northern Virginia into Pennsylvania. After the long march north, Confederate troops were spread across a number of towns in southern Pennsylvania, looking for supplies. Meanwhile, on June 28, President Lincoln removed Hooker as commander of the Army of the Potomac and transferred him to the western theater of the war. In Hooker's place, Lincoln appointed Major General George Meade, who became the fifth general to command that army.

Meade and the Army of the Potomac followed Lee northward into Pennsylvania. In the small town of Gettysburg on July 1 - 3, more men fought and died in combat than in any other battle of the Civil War. Sometimes the two armies were only a few feet apart, with soldiers shooting directly into each other's faces. The fighting began the morning of July 1 when Confederate troops fired upon two Union cavalry brigades near McPherson Ridge, west of Gettysburg. Although these Union forces were outnumbered, they managed to hold and even drive the Confederates back. Later in the afternoon, Union troops were overpowered by additional Confederate forces and driven back through town. Thousands of Union soldiers were captured before they could rally on Cemetery Hill.

The "fish hook" and ridges on Cemetery Ridge and Little Round Top at Gettysburg
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-14314]

During the night of July 1 - 2, most of the Army of the Potomac arrived and took up position. By morning, opposing battle lines had been drawn up in two sweeping arcs. The major portions of both armies were located on opposing ridges nearly a mile apart — Union forces in a famous "fish hook" on Cemetery Ridge and Confederate forces on Seminary Ridge. During the second day of fighting, Lee and his men attempted to surround the Union forces, first striking their left flank and then attacking their right flank. By evening, Union troops had repulsed most of the Confederate attacks and had retained Little Round Top, a rocky hill on the southern end of Cemetery

Ridge. This hill, partially cleared of trees and covered in loose rocks, provided the Union forces with a natural position from which to defend their line against the Confederates.

The following day, July 3, Lee ordered Brigadier General George E. Pickett to spearhead a Confederate assault aimed right at the Union center. Pickett and his force of more than twelve thousand men marched across an open field up Cemetery Ridge. Only a few reached the crest of the hill, where they held their ground for a few brief minutes and then fell back with severe casualties. The failure of "Pickett's Charge" dramatically demonstrated the hopelessness of a frontal assault against a strong enemy over open ground. On July 4, Lee began withdrawing his troops, heading back toward Virginia. The Confederate general had lost a third of his army.

After Gettysburg, the Army of Northern Virginia would never again have the strength to undertake a major offensive. With the Confederate defeats at Gettysburg and Vicksburg, the tide of war turned in favor of the Union. However, General Meade made little

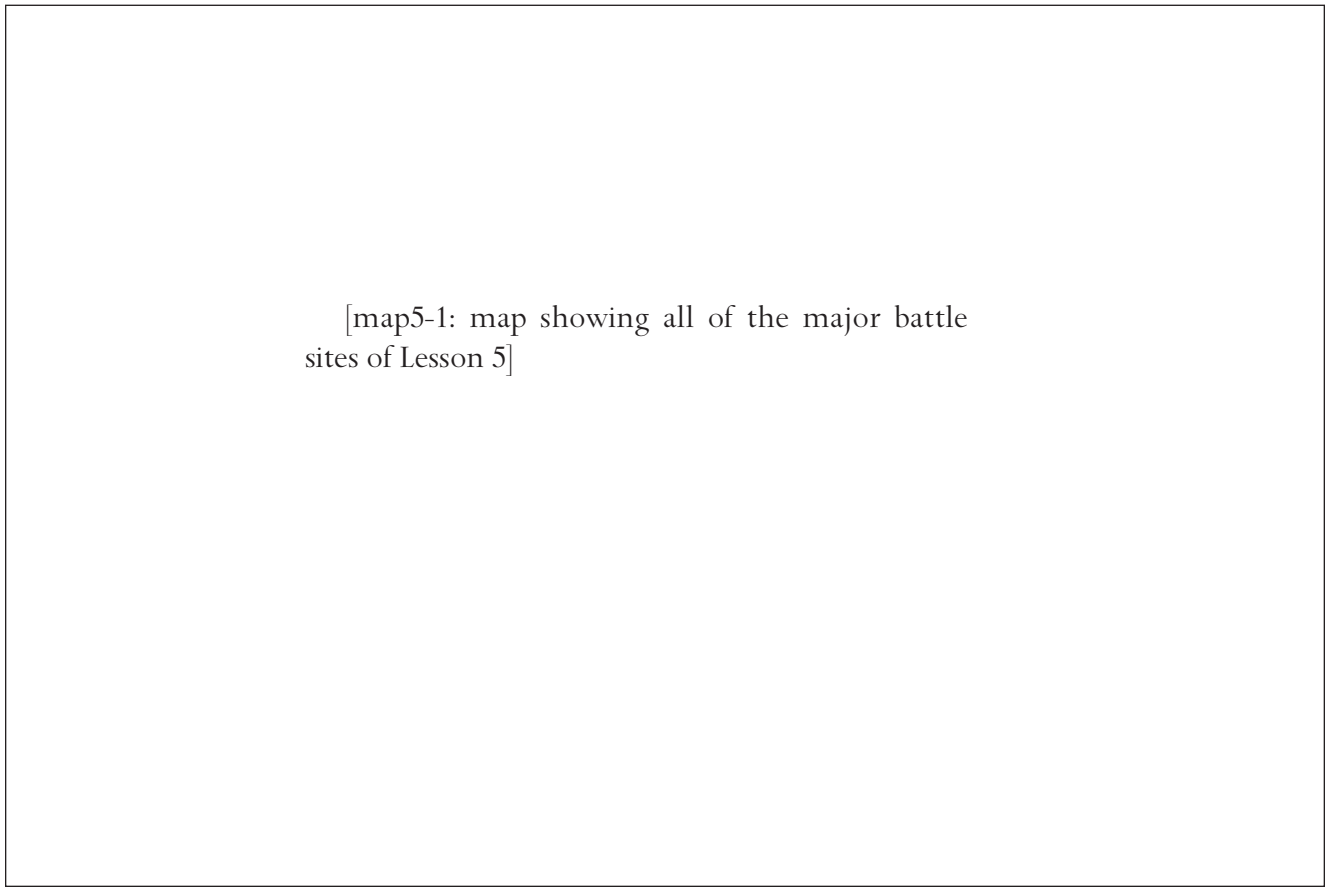
Pickett's charge
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-14378]

effort to follow Lee and his men to crush them decisively, despite repeated telegrams from Lincoln urging him to do so. Meade had only been in command of the Army of the Potomac for a short time, and his men were exhausted. Also, the roads around Gettysburg had been turned to mud by downpours of rain. Despite Meade's failure to follow through, Lincoln retained him as commander of the Army of the Potomac until the end of the war.

BATTLE OF CHICKAMAUGA (SEPTEMBER 19 – 20, 1863)

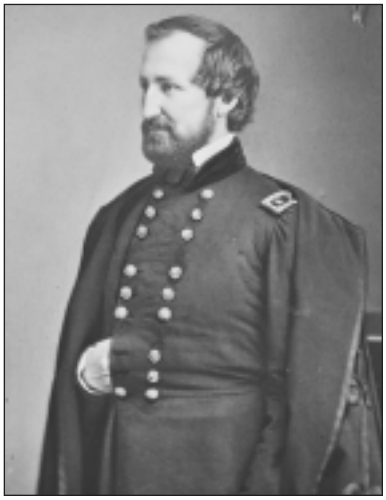
By mid-September of 1863, the Army of the Cumberland, under the command of Major General William Rosecrans, had advanced upon the city of Chattanooga, Tennessee. The Confederates in the

Map



city were forced to evacuate and withdraw into Georgia. Capturing Chattanooga meant cutting the eastern Confederacy's rail links with the West and opening the way for a Union advance into the heart of the Confederacy by way of Georgia.

At dawn on September 19, Union forces under Rosecrans and Confederate forces under General Braxton Bragg clashed near Chickamauga Creek, about twelve miles south of Chattanooga. After savage fighting, Rosecrans and his men were forced to retreat back to Chattanooga, giving the Confederates their greatest victory in the western theater during the war. However, because of heavy casualties, Bragg chose not to follow up with an attack on the retreating Union troops, which gave Rosecrans an opportunity to regroup his panicked men.



Maj. Gen. William Rosecrans
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-DIG-cwpb-06052]

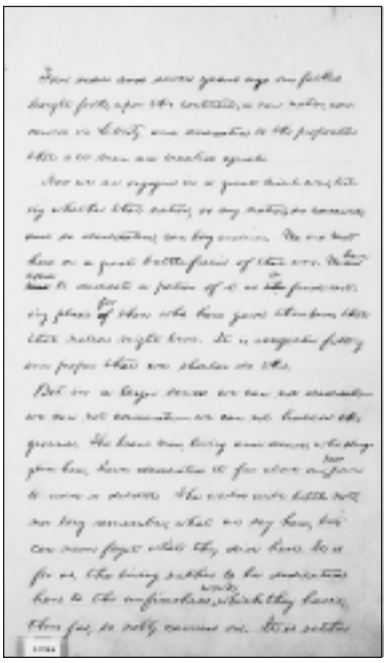
THE GETTYSBURG ADDRESS

On November 19, 1863, ceremonies were held to dedicate the Gettysburg battlefield as a new national cemetery for soldiers of both the North and the South who died there. President Lincoln and his secretary of state rode a special train from Washington, D.C., to Gettysburg for the dedication. During the train ride, Lincoln worked on his notes for the speech that he would deliver at the cemetery, where thousands of people had gathered for the ceremonies.

Edward Everett, the greatest public speaker of the day, delivered a two-hour oration. Lincoln followed Everett's address with a short speech of two minutes — ten sentences of 271 words. According to Lincoln, what he said "fell like a wet blanket" on the crowd.[6] However, Everett wrote Lincoln later that the president had come nearer to the central idea of the occasion in two minutes than he had in two hours. Lincoln's speech would be printed in newspapers all over the country and would become one of the most famous speeches in American history.

Gen. Braxton Bragg
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-DIG-cwpb-07427]

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



Second draft of the Gettysburg Address
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-DIG-ppmsca-0290]

Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battlefield of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field, as a final resting place for those who here gave their lives that that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this.

But, in a larger sense, we can not dedicate — we can not consecrate — we can not hallow — this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here, have consecrated it, far above our poor power to add or detract. The world will little note, nor long remember what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us the living, rather, to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us — that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion — that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain — that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom — and that government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth.

— Lincoln's Gettysburg Address

BATTLE OF CHATTANOOGA (NOVEMBER 23 – 25, 1863)

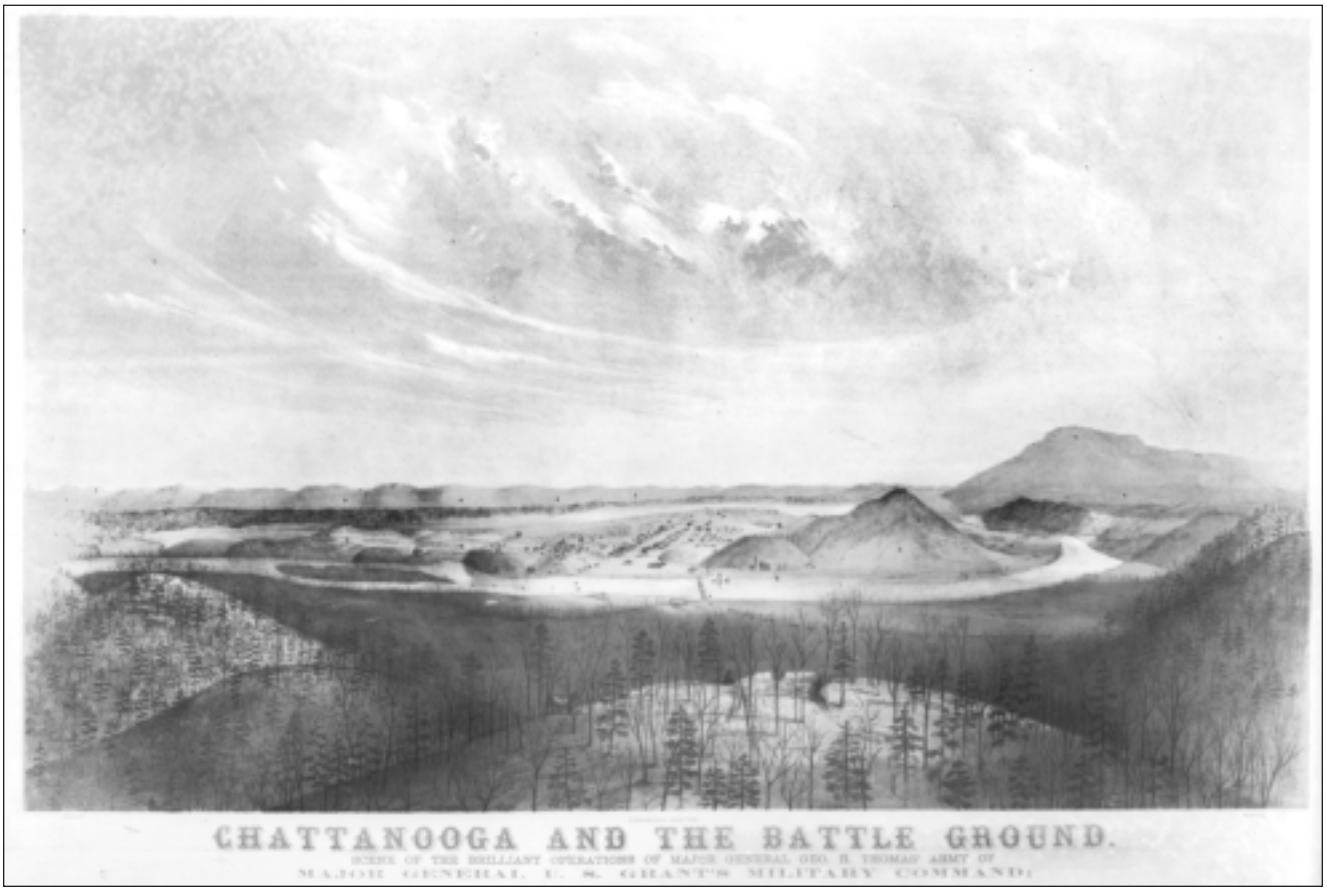
The Confederate commander Braxton Bragg followed up his victory at Chickamauga by advancing and occupying Lookout Mountain, Missionary Ridge, and other heights south of Chattanooga. Because Confederate forces controlled the Tennessee River and the roads that supplied the city of Chattanooga, the Union army was threatened with starvation. Finally, Grant, now commander of all Union operations in the West, advanced to Chattanooga with reinforcements.

On November 24, Union forces began their assault on Lookout Mountain. Fog drifted in and covered this mountain west of the city of Chattanooga. When the fog lifted, the Union troops succeeded in capturing the mountain. The following day, Union forces captured Missionary Ridge, located to the east and south of Chattanooga.

Within days, Union forces had possession of Chattanooga, and the remainder of Bragg's troops had retreated to Dalton, Georgia. Tennessee was now in Union hands. From that base, Union armies would be able to move into Georgia and Alabama and split the eastern Confederacy in half.

By the beginning of 1864, all signs pointed to a Union victory. Confederate resources were giving out, and the Confederate army had seriously dwindled in number due to battle losses and war weariness. The Union now occupied large areas of the Confederacy. However, the Confederacy was still capable of tough resistance and would go on to fight the Union for more than a year before finally surrendering. During this final phase of the war, the Army of the

The Battle of Chattanooga
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-13183]



Potomac, commanded by Meade and accompanied by Grant, would seek to defeat Lee's forces in Virginia and to occupy the Confederate capital of Richmond. Meanwhile, Union troops under Brigadier General William Sherman would advance from Chattanooga into Georgia, seize Atlanta, and embark on a campaign of destruction through the heart of the Deep South.

IMPACT

- Both Union and Confederate soldiers were outfitted in a variety of uniforms. The Union regulation uniform consisted of dark blue wool trousers; a loose-fitting, dark blue flannel sack coat; and a wool forage cap. Most Confederate soldiers made-do with home-dyed, homemade trousers and short-waisted jackets in various hues of gray or butternut (light brown).

- The principal weapon of all Civil War infantrymen was the rifle-musket. The Union and the Confederacy experimented with new war technologies, such as hand grenades, land mines, machine guns, and trench warfare.

- Lee's defeat of a much larger Union army at Chancellorsville in early May of 1863 paved the way for another Confederate invasion of the North. Many historians consider this to be Lee's greatest victory. However, the loss of General Stonewall Jackson at Chancellorsville was a devastating blow to the Confederacy.

- After a six-week siege, the city of Vicksburg fell to Union troops under Grant on July 4, 1863. The capture of Vicksburg gave the Union control of the Mississippi River, splitting the Confederacy in half.

- Lee's invasion of the North led to a showdown between the Army of Virginia and the Army of the Potomac, under its new commander, Major General George Meade. From July 1 - 3, 1863, fighting raged at Gettysburg, Pennsylvania. More men fought and died in this battle than in any other of the Civil War. The Confederate defeat at Gettysburg, along with the fall of Vicksburg, turned the tide of war in favor of the Union.

- In September of 1863, Confederate troops commanded by Braxton Bragg defeated Union forces led by William Rosecrans at Chickamauga Creek near Chattanooga, Tennessee. Union control of Chattanooga would cut the eastern Confederacy's rail links with the West and open the way for a Union advance into the heart of the Confederacy by way of Georgia.

- On November 19, 1863, President Lincoln gave a two-minute speech at the dedication of a new national cemetery at the Gettysburg battlefield. This speech, known as the Gettysburg Address, would become one of the most famous speeches in U.S. history.

- By the end of November 1863, Union forces led by Grant had succeeded in capturing Chattanooga and forcing Confederate troops under Bragg to retreat into Georgia. By the beginning of 1864, all signs pointed to a Union victory, but the Confederacy would go on fighting the Union for more than a year before finally surrendering.

LESSON 6

Fourth Year of the Civil War. . . . . 1864 — 1865 A.D.

ATMOSPHERE

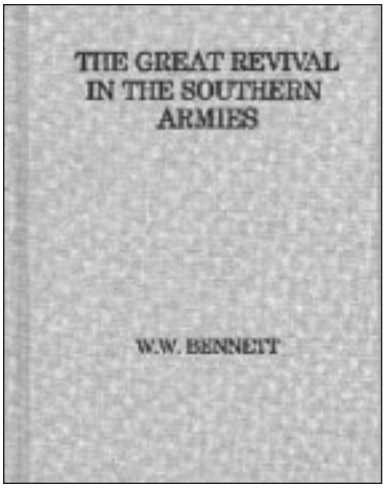
LIVING CONDITIONS OF UNION AND CONFEDERATE SOLDIERS

Because arms and ammunition were scarce, neither the Confederate nor the Union armies spent much time in target practice. Soldiers who did not know how to handle a weapon usually learned how to do so in the heat of an actual battle. Most of their time, when not fighting, was spent in the monotonous exercise of drilling. Favorite recreational activities included card playing, gambling, baseball, swimming, fishing, footraces, storytelling around the campfire, and sleeping. Army bands often played to help lift troop morale. Many times, enemy armies were so close to each other that they could hear the other side's band playing. Favorite songs for either army were "Home, Sweet Home" or "When This Cruel War Is Over."

The Dragon
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-99871]

Dearest Love, do you remember? When we last did meet?
How you told me that you loved me kneeling at my feet.
How proud you stood before me in your suit of blue [grey]
When you vowed to me and country ever to be true?
[nevermore to stray]

Civil War band
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-B8184-4545]



W.W. Bennett's book
Public Domain

A Confederate camp
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-110973]

Weeping, sad and lonely, hopes and fears, how vain!
When this cruel war is over praying then to meet again...

If amid the din of battle, nobly you should fall,
Far away from those who love you, none to hear you call
Who would whisper words of comfort, who would soothe
your pain?
Ah! The many cruel fancies, ever in my brain.
Weeping, sad and lonely, hopes and fears, how vain!
When this cruel war is over praying then to meet again.

But our Country called you, Darling, angels cheer your way;
While our nation's sons are fighting, we can only pray.
Nobly strike for God and Liberty, let all nations see,
How we loved our starry banner, emblem of the free.
Weeping, sad and lonely, hopes and fears, how vain!
When this cruel war is over praying then to meet again.

—excerpted lyrics of "When This Cruel War Is Over"

Soldiers on both sides had to combat loneliness, homesickness, and fear. Receiving letters from home provided comfort and encouragement. Both the Confederate and the Union armies faced the problem of desertion in their ranks. To provide inspiration and encouragement, soldiers were sometimes supplied with Bibles. Although official army chaplains were scarce on both sides, ministers did at times conduct worship services for the troops. In the early months of 1863, a religious revival swept over the Confederate army, and an estimated 150,000 Confederate soldiers professed coming to faith in Christ.

[pic6-4: W.W. Bennett or a picture of his book, Narrative Of The Great Revival Which Prevailed In The Southern Armies During The Late Civil War Between The States Of The Federal Union]

[1B]Filthy water and generally unsanitary conditions, problems for both armies, led to the prevalence of disease. Typhoid, dysentery, malaria, yellow fever, smallpox, pneumonia, mumps, chicken pox,

and measles were common. Soldiers also suffered from fleas and lice. The death rate from disease was very high due to the lack of antibiotics, blood transfusions, and sterile dressings and instruments. In the Union army, disease accounted for seven out of every ten deaths, and historians have estimated that three Confederate men died from disease for every one man killed in battle.

A common complaint among Civil War soldiers was that their food was almost always the same — a never-ending diet of salt pork, dried beef, potatoes, turnips, corn, and beans. Milk, butter, eggs, wheat flour, sugar, and coffee were luxuries that the troops did not often see. Many soldiers contracted scurvy due to the insufficiency of fresh fruit and vegetables in their diet. By the third and fourth years of the war, food shortages and hunger were common in Confederate camps. Although the Union had enough food for its troops, poor organization often directed rations to the wrong place or caused the food to spoil before reaching its destination.

The primary shelters used for the troops in summer quarters were tents. Many soldiers were given a piece of canvas five feet by five feet, which they combined with another soldier's canvas using two forked sticks set six feet apart. Other times twelve soldiers slept in a circle in larger tents. Many Confederate troops were forced to just camp out in the open. In winter quarters both armies sought to construct more solid structures, using trees, discarded crates, barrels, pieces of wrecked wagon, rocks, and mud. Fighting was usually confined to the months of the year when roads were in reasonable condition.

Typical Civil War tents
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-DIG-cwpb-04759]

Typical Civil War "ambulance" or hospital
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-DIG-cwpb-01354]

Typical Civil War POW camp
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-DIG-ppmsca-0931]

FIGHTING CONDITIONS FOR UNION AND CONFEDERATE SOLDIERS

Fighting in the Civil War was extremely savage and costly. An army often lost one out of four men in a major battle. Because of such heavy casualties, Civil War soldiers devised the first "dog tags." Before going into battle, many soldiers wrote their names and addresses on small slips of paper and pinned these tags to their uniforms so that they could be identified if killed in action.

Those who were injured in battle might be left where they fell for forty-eight hours or more. Then they faced a rough ride in a horse-drawn ambulance to a field hospital, where they finally received treatment from overburdened doctors and nurses. Most bone fractures and all joint wounds meant amputation, and surgeons did not really know how to stop hemorrhaging. A serious wound often resulted in death, but only after the soldier had endured weeks of excruciating pain.

Soldiers captured and imprisoned during the Civil War faced miserable conditions — overcrowding, filth, inadequate water, scanty food, disease, and lack of proper medical attention. Between 1861 and 1865, about 150 military prisons sprang up in unused forts, civilian jails, tents, and large commercial buildings. During these years, as many as thirty thousand Union soldiers and twenty-six thousand Confederate soldiers died in these prisons. Among the prisoners of war on both sides were many spies, some of whom became famous for their exploits and daring escapes from prison.

EVENT

BATTLE OF THE WILDERNESS (MAY 5 – 7, 1864)

On March 9, 1864, President Lincoln appointed Grant commander of all the armies of the United States. General William Tecumseh Sherman succeeded Grant as supreme Union commander in the West. In the spring of 1864, there were two major Confederate armies left in the field — the Army of Northern Virginia, led by Lee, and the Army of Tennessee, now led by Joseph Johnston. The drive against Johnston's forces in Georgia would be led by Sherman, and Grant would join Meade's Army of the Potomac in Virginia to direct operations against Lee.

At the beginning of May, the Army of the Potomac began moving into a desolate area west of Chancellorsville, known as the Wilderness. Grant's plan was to march through the Wilderness and turn the right flank of the Army of Northern Virginia, which was in winter position

along the south bank of the Rapidan River. Then Grant would head toward Richmond, forcing Lee to pursue him, and would continue fighting the Confederates until they were defeated. At this point, the Army of Northern Virginia was half the size of the Army of the Potomac.

The Battle of the Wilderness would be the first direct confrontation between Grant and Lee. Grant faced an opponent with amazing flexibility and daring, and Lee faced a commander with iron-willed nerve and determination. On May 5, the Army of the Potomac attacked Lee's forces. Fighting was fierce but inconclusive. Artillery and cavalry proved to be useless in the large jungle area, and soldiers on both sides stumbled blindly through the forest.

The Battle of the Wilderness
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-DIG-cwpb-01211]

Darkness halted the fighting, but it resumed at dawn the following morning. Again, both sides suffered heavy losses. When underbrush in the area caught fire, many men burned to death. Although the battle ended in a tactical draw, Lee did prevent the Union army from turning the Confederate right flank. However, Grant refused to retreat, despite the large number of Union casualties, and continued advancing toward Richmond.

J.E.B. Stuart's gravemarker at the Battle of Spotsylvania Courthouse
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-DIG-cwpb-03369]

BATTLE OF SPOTSYLVANIA COURT HOUSE (MAY 8 – 19, 1864)

Grant marched his men toward Spotsylvania Court House, and Lee and the Army of Northern Virginia followed them. Lee arrived first, and his engineers quickly constructed a strong system of defense trenches that would make it possible for the Confederates to fend off attacks by large numbers of the enemy. By May 8, the two armies were engaged in conflict at this crossroads, located fifteen miles southeast of the Wilderness. The Battle of Spotsylvania Court House dragged on for many days, with brutal hand-to-hand fighting. On May 11, J. E. B. Stuart, the leader of Lee's cavalry corps, was mortally wounded, another enormous loss for the Confederacy.

Although the Battle of Spotsylvania Court House ended in a tactical draw, the Army of Northern Virginia again inflicted enormous casualties on a Union army nearly twice its size. Lee had checked Grant's thrust toward the Confederate capital two times in as many weeks. Yet, Grant refused to give up on his goal of capturing Richmond. Newspapers in the North began calling Grant a butcher and insisting that Lincoln fire him. However, Lincoln refused to give up on Grant, and Grant refused to give up on defeating the Confederacy, whatever the cost. The Union commander would rely on the numerical superiority of his army and their abundance of war materials to wear down the enemy.

BATTLE OF COLD HARBOR (MAY 31 – JUNE 12, 1864)

The Army of the Potomac moved on toward Richmond, and Lee and his men pursued. By the first of June, Grant had reached Cold Harbor,

just a few miles north of Richmond. At this point, Grant made another attempt to smash Lee's forces, ordering his troops to charge the Confederates in a direct frontal assault. Within an hour, almost seven thousand Union soldiers had been cut down. In his memoirs Grant commented that this was the only attack he wished he had never ordered. Lee had demonstrated superb defensive skills in the battles of the Wilderness, Spotsylvania Court House, and Cold Harbor. During one month of fighting, Grant had lost almost fifty-five thousand men, but he continued to press on to Richmond.

Pontoon boats at the battle of St. Petersburg
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-92629]

SIEGE OF PETERSBURG (JUNE 16, 1864 – APRIL 2, 1865)

After the Union defeat at Cold Harbor, Grant decided to advance to Petersburg, a railroad center just south of Richmond. On June 14, Union forces worked until midnight to construct a 2,170-foot pontoon bridge, the longest floating bridge used in battle until World War II. The Army of the Potomac used this bridge to cross the James River and move into Petersburg, successfully concealing their movements from Lee and his men.

However, the Union's best opportunity to capture Petersburg without a siege was lost on June 15. A small Confederate force under Beauregard held off Grant's troops at Petersburg until Lee arrived with reinforcements and moved them into defensive position around the city. Determined to wait it out, Grant ordered his men to dig miles of trenches around Petersburg. The siege that followed lasted for nine long months. At several points during this period, Union troops tried to break through the Confederate lines without success. Finally, on April 2, 1865, the Confederates' source of supplies was exhausted, and they were forced to abandon their defense of Petersburg.

Gen. William Tecumseh Sherman
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-72801]

ATLANTA CAMPAIGN (MAY 1 – SEPTEMBER 2, 1864)

Meanwhile, Sherman's forces were advancing from Chattanooga to Atlanta, an important railroad junction, supply depot, and manufacturing center. The Confederates under Joseph Johnston hoped to delay Sherman's advance but did not intend to fight unless their chances for victory were good. The Confederacy was attempting to

Brig. Gen. John Hood
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-116391]

Sherman's march to the sea
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-DIG-ppmsca-0932]

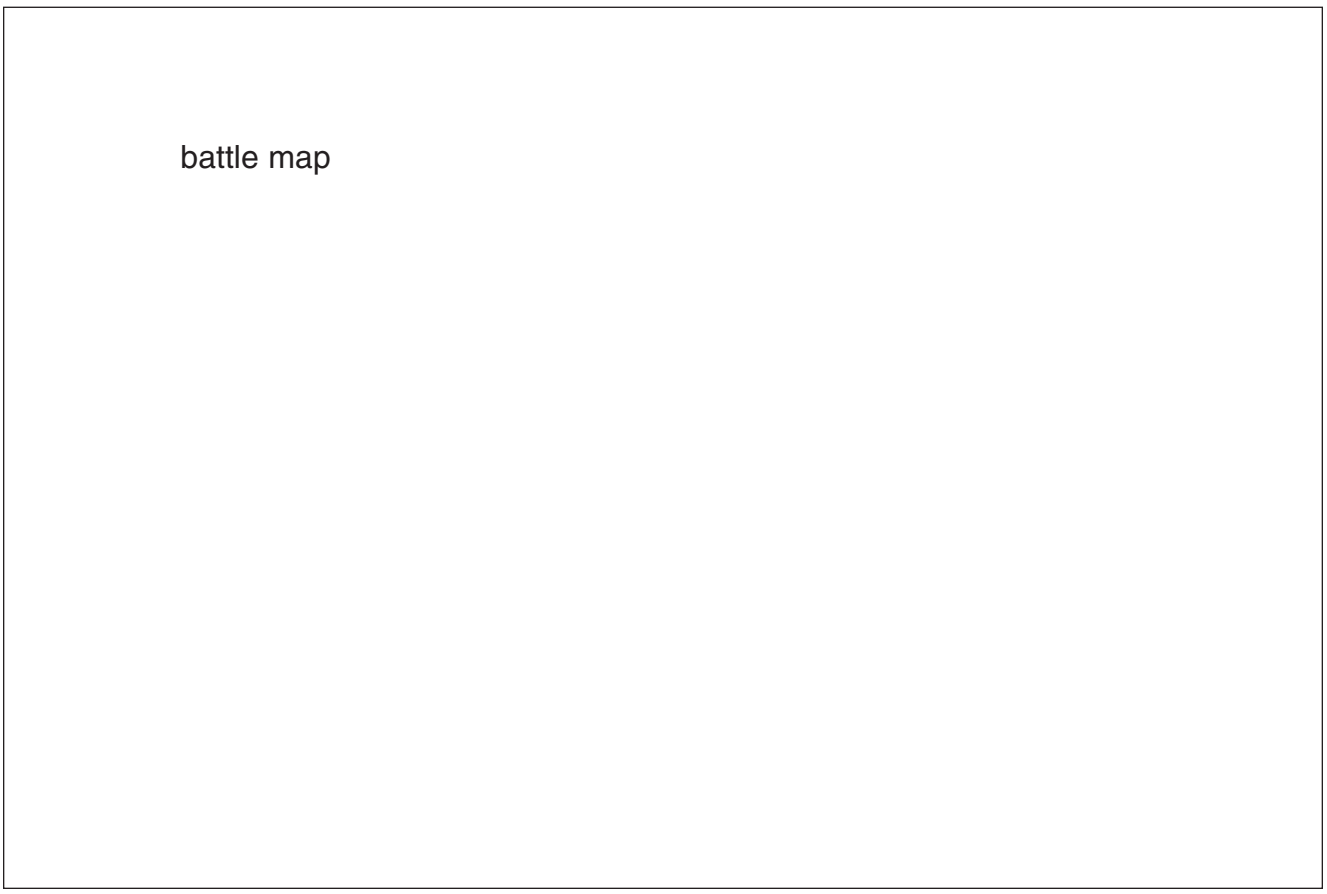
stall until the November elections, hoping that Lincoln would not be re-elected. The Union had again become war weary and discouraged.

The Atlanta campaign played out like a gigantic chess game. Sherman would move forward and try to trap Johnston. Each time, Johnston would slip away. There were many small battles, and some of the fiercest fighting of the war occurred during this campaign. The largest battle was at Kennesaw Mountain, Georgia, where the Union suffered a setback. On July 20, President Davis replaced Johnston with Brigadier General John Hood. However, Hood's attacks on Sherman's troops as they approached Atlanta were not successful. When Sherman wheeled part of his army south of Atlanta, he and his men were able to seize the city's only railroad. Hood evacuated Atlanta on September 1, and Sherman occupied it the next day.

ELECTION OF 1864 AND SHERMAN'S MARCH TO THE SEA

Sherman's victory in Atlanta helped Lincoln in his bid for re-election against the Democratic nominee, former Union general George B. McClellan. In the November presidential election, Lincoln carried all but three states, with 55 percent of the popular vote and 212 of 233 electoral votes. On November 15, Sherman and his troops left Atlanta in flames and marched unopposed in a path three hundred miles long and sixty miles wide across Georgia. During this "March to the Sea," Sherman and his men laid waste to everything that might help the South continue the war, destroying houses, livestock, crops, cotton gins, factories, and railroads. By December 21, Sherman's troops had occupied Savannah. During the first three months of 1865, they pro-

Map



ceeded to swing through South Carolina and then into North Carolina, again burning and plundering as they went.

BATTLE OF NASHVILLE (DECEMBER 15 - 16, 1864)

When Atlanta fell to Sherman, Hood and his men were forced to withdraw thirty miles southwest of the city. Hood then decided to move his troops to the northwest, in an attempt to lure Union forces to the north Georgia mountains and to threaten the Union's rail supply link with Chattanooga. At the same time, Major General Nathan Bedford Forrest and his Confederate cavalry corps were conducting raids in middle Tennessee.

At the end of September, Sherman sent two divisions back to Tennessee to deal with Forrest. Sherman himself set out with troops to follow Hood but later returned to Atlanta. By mid-November, Hood had decided to invade middle Tennessee, with the goal of eventually taking Kentucky, marching through the Cumberland Gap, and offering reinforcements to the Army of Northern Virginia. However, Hood's hopes were dashed when he and his forces suffered a crushing defeat at Nashville in mid-December.

LINCOLN'S SECOND INAUGURATION

On March 4, 1865, Lincoln's second inauguration was held in Washington, D.C. In his second inaugural address, Lincoln proclaimed: "With malice toward none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right as God gives us to see the right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in, to bind up the nation's wounds, to care for him who shall have borne the battle and for his widow and his orphan, to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and lasting peace among ourselves and with all nations."

The fall of Richmond
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZC4-602]

BATTLE OF FIVE FORKS AND THE FALL OF RICHMOND (APRIL 1 – 3, 1865)

In March of 1865, after nine months of trench warfare, Lee decided that it was time to try to extricate his army from its increasingly indefensible position at Petersburg. Grant's forces were about to be rein-

forced by Major General Philip Sheridan's cavalry corps, fresh from a victorious campaign in the Shenandoah Valley. Lee saw only one course of action left for him and his men — to move south and join forces with Confederate troops in North Carolina. Perhaps these combined Confederate armies would be able to defeat Sherman and then move back into Virginia and take on Grant.

On April 1, Sheridan and his troops succeeded in capturing the Five Forks crossroads, southwest of Petersburg. This was the last battle for the Army of Northern Virginia. On the following day, Grant's troops broke through Confederate lines at Petersburg, leading to immediate evacuations of both that city and Richmond. On April 3, Union troops entered Richmond and raised the U.S. flag. The next day, President Lincoln toured Richmond, where he visited the Confederate White House and sat for a few moments at the desk of Jefferson Davis.

SURRENDER AT APPOMATTOX (APRIL 9, 1865)

After the Confederates evacuated Petersburg and Richmond, they retreated westward. Lee still hoped to join forces with Confederate troops in North Carolina, but Grant overtook him and prevented him from doing so. Lee then wrote to Grant, asking for an interview to arrange terms of surrender. The two generals met on April 9 at a farmhouse in the little country settlement of Appomattox Court House, Virginia.

During their meeting Grant offered Lee generous terms, which the Confederate commander accepted with appreciation. Confederate soldiers would be released on parole. After relinquishing their arms, they could return home without further penalty. They were allowed to keep their horses and mules, and officers were allowed to keep their side arms. Grant did not ask Lee to relinquish his sword and immediately made rations available for the starving Confederate soldiers.

> General: In accordance with the substance of my letter to you of the 8th instant, I propose to receive the surrender of the army of Northern Virginia on the following terms, to wit: Rolls of all the officers and men to be made in duplicate, one copy to be given to an officer to be designated by me, the other to be retained by such officer

or officers as you may designate. The officers to give their individual paroles not to take up arms against the government of the United States until properly exchanged; and each company or regimental commander to sign a like parole for the men of their commands. The arms, artillery, and public property to be parked and stacked, and turned over to the officers appointed by me to receive them. This will not embrace the side-arms of the officers nor their private horses or baggage. This done, each officer and man will be allowed to return to his home, not to be disturbed by United States authority so long as they observe their paroles and the laws in force where they may reside.

—from General Ulysses S. Grant to General Robert E. Lee

Lee's surrender to Grant at Appomattax
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZC4-1321]

> General: I received your letter of this date containing the terms of the surrender of the army of Northern Virginia, as proposed by you. As they are substantially the same as those expressed in your letter of the 8th instant, they are accepted. I will proceed to designate the proper officers to carry the stipulations into effect.
>
> —General Robert E. Lee's response to General Ulysses S. Grant

In a report to Jefferson Davis, Lee wrote, "I deemed this course the best under all the circumstances by which we were surrounded.... The enemy was more than five times our numbers. If we could have forced our way one day longer, it would have been at great sacrifice of life, and at its end I did not see how a surrender could have been avoided. We had no subsistence for man or horse, and it could not be gathered in the country."[7] After the war, Lee would serve as president of Washington College until his death in 1870.

IMPACT

- Confederate and Union soldiers spent much of their time drilling but little time in target practice. They also participated in a variety of recreational activities. Filthy water and generally unsanitary conditions led to the prevalence of disease among troops of both sides. By the last years of the war, food shortages became a problem.

- Soldiers during the Civil War developed the first dog tags to help identify those killed in action. Those injured in battle might not receive medical attention for many hours, and serious injuries often resulted in amputation and death. Civil War prison camps were overcrowded and filthy. Many prisoners died from disease and lack of proper medical attention.

- The Battle of the Wilderness in May 1864 was the first direct confrontation between Grant and Lee. Although the battle

ended in a tactical draw, the Confederates prevented the Union army from turning their right flank. However, Grant refused to retreat and continued advancing toward Richmond.

- A week after the Battle of the Wilderness, Lee's and Grant's forces met once again at the Battle of Spotsylvania Court House. For the second time, the battle ended in a tactical draw. However, the Army of Northern Virginia inflicted huge casualties on Grant's army, which was twice its size.

- Grant made another attempt to smash Lee's troops at the Battle of Cold Harbor, May 31 - June 12, 1864. Early in the fighting, seven thousand Union soldiers were cut down in an hour in a direct frontal assault. In his memoirs Grant commented that this was the only attack he wished he had never ordered.

- The Army of the Potomac crossed the James River on a 2,170-foot pontoon bridge and moved into Petersburg. On June 15, 1864, Grant and his men missed their best opportunity to capture this city without a siege. For the next nine months, the Union troops besieged Petersburg.

- The Atlanta campaign played out like a gigantic chess game between Sherman and Johnston. Eventually, President Davis replaced Johnston with General Hood. However, Hood did not succeed in keeping Sherman from occupying Atlanta on September 2, 1864.

- Sherman's victory in Atlanta helped Lincoln succeed in his bid for re-election in 1864. On November 15, Sherman and his troops burned Atlanta and marched to Savannah, destroying everything that might help the South continue the war. During the first months of 1865, Sherman moved on through South Carolina and into North Carolina.

- Hood and his remaining forces were decisively defeated by Union troops at Nashville in mid-December 1864.

- On April 1, 1865, Union troops led by Philip Sheridan captured the Five Forks crossroads, southwest of Petersburg. The following day, the cities of Petersburg and Richmond were evacuated. On April 3, Union troops entered Richmond and raised the U.S. flag.

- Lee surrendered to Grant at Appomattox Court House on April 9, 1865. During their meeting Grant offered Lee generous terms and immediately made rations available to the starving Confederate soldiers. Throughout May, remaining Confederate forces continued to surrender.

MADE ODIOUS, AND TRAITORS
MUST BE PUNISHED
LOVE THINE
ENEMIES
I AM YOUR
BEST
FRIEND
OTHELLO. DOST THOU MOCK ME!
IAGO. I MOCK YOU! NO, BY HEAVEN:
WOULD YOU WOULD BEAR YOUR FORTUNES LIKE A MAN.

LESSON 7

Presidential Reconstruction . . . . . 1863 — 1867 A.D.

ATMOSPHERE

VICTORY CELEBRATIONS

On April 10, exuberant celebrations broke out throughout the northern United States. Bells were rung, American flags were flown, and guns were fired to recognize the end of four long years of war. In Washington, D. C., there were fireworks. When a crowd gathered on the White House lawn, President Lincoln asked the band to play "Dixie" in honor of the Confederacy. Lincoln firmly believed that the victorious Union should show kindness toward the defeated Confederates, treating them like brothers who had rebelled and had returned.

Four days later, the flag of the United States was raised over Fort Sumter. Throughout May, remaining Confederate forces continued to surrender. Jefferson Davis was eventually captured in Georgia and was kept there until 1867. When Davis was finally released, he was not tried for treason.

Civil War victory procession
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-57018]

RESULTS OF THE CIVIL WAR

Preservation of the Union

The Civil War established that states could not secede from the Union. However, the issue of states' rights versus a strong central

government would persist in the period of Reconstruction following the war.

End of Slavery

Slavery was officially abolished in the United States by the Thirteenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution. This amendment was passed by the U.S. Congress in January 1865 and ratified by the states in December of the same year. However, freed African Americans continued to face many problems. Although they had been declared free, they were still not really equal to white Americans.

Tragic Human and Physical Damage

Although war statistics are never 100 percent accurate, we do know that over 600,000 Americans died in the Civil War, with many thousands more wounded. During World War I there were only approximately 126,000 American deaths, and during World War II, 407,000. Although it is difficult to estimate the financial costs of the Civil War, some historians place the total at more than fifteen billion dollars for both sides combined.

Civil War gravestones
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-90388]

Civil War destuction
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-90578]

Southern Humiliation and Devastation

Large areas of the South lay in ruins, including most of its important urban areas. Plantations and other homes had been burned, fields had been left unattended, and railroad tracks and telegraph lines had been destroyed. Because many southern cities and towns had no functioning governments or law enforcement personnel, guerilla bands began looting, adding to the destruction, despair, and confusion.

Because of the Union blockade, during the war everyday items had become very hard to find in the South. Those available were very expensive. Food was more and more difficult to get, with a barrel of flour selling for as much as $425. Confederacy paper currency had become worthless, and many southern banks had closed. By the end of the war, the Union blockade had destroyed the South's cotton business, and the economy of the region had completely collapsed.

Additionally, years of military occupation in the South following the war would leave a legacy of smoldering bitterness and resentment.

KEY QUESTIONS FOLLOWING THE WAR

The period following the Civil War during which the U.S. government reintegrated the former Confederate states into the Union has become known as Reconstruction. This task would be as difficult as the war itself. The Reconstruction period actually began in 1863, before the Civil War was over, and ended in 1877. These fifteen years encompassed one of the most complex and controversial eras in American history.

One of the key questions of the Reconstruction period was exactly how the South would be reintegrated into the Union. Both President Lincoln and his successor, Andrew Johnson, favored a plan for Reconstruction that was lenient toward the ex-Confederate states. They believed that it would be best to forgive them and readmit them to the Union as quickly as possible. However, a group in Congress known as the Radical Republicans argued that the Confederacy should be punished for starting the war and kept for some time under military occupation.

President Johnson and Congress engaged in a heated battle over whether Reconstruction would be an executive or legislative responsibility. Historians have debated whether the outcome of Reconstruction would have been different if Lincoln had lived. Abraham Lincoln possessed a wise flexibility that Andrew Johnson did not. With no experience in the presidency, Johnson was suddenly called upon to handle one of the most complicated problems ever faced by the nation. He and the Radical Republicans were not able to negotiate a compromise with each other.

A second major problem of the Reconstruction period was how to integrate the newly freed slaves into American society and to what extent that should happen. This enormous new southern social class of almost four million people presented a great challenge. Much debate took place concerning what civil rights should be guaranteed to these former slaves and whether they should be allowed to vote.

Questions arose as to whether freed slaves should be compensated in cash or land for their many years of unpaid labor and whether the federal government should provide these desperately poor freedmen with food, clothing, and education.

EVENT

PRESIDENTIAL RECONSTRUCTION UNDER LINCOLN (1863 – 1865)

Lincoln actually began moving toward Reconstruction before the Civil War was even over. By the end of 1863, Union armies were in possession of large areas of captured territory, and several former Confederate states were ready to have their governments re-established. On December 8, 1863, the president issued a Proclamation of Amnesty and Reconstruction, which provided for the restoration of the South under terms that would be easy for most southerners to accept. With the issuance of this proclamation, Lincoln was placing the executive branch in the role of the primary architect of Reconstruction.

At the heart of Lincoln's Reconstruction policies was his Ten Percent Plan. This plan required high-ranking civilian and military Confederate officials to apply for special pardons from the president. All other Confederate citizens would be granted complete amnesty if they swore a simple oath of allegiance to the United States. They would also have all their property restored to them, except for freed slaves and property in which the rights of third parties had been involved.

Once *ten percent* of a state's citizens (who had voted in the 1860 elections) took the oath of allegiance, the oath-takers were allowed to elect delegates to a convention that would write a new state constitution. These new state constitutions were required to recognize the emancipation of slaves as final. When a new state constitution was written and ratified by the oath-takers, elections for state and federal officeholders would be held. Then the president would recognize the new government of the state, and that state would be allowed to

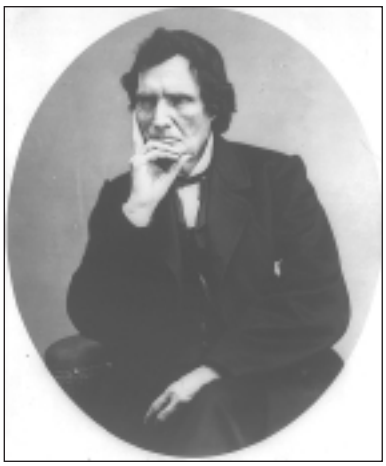
resume its place in the Union on equal footing with all other states. In 1864, the governments of Arkansas, Louisiana, and Tennessee were reconstructed in accordance with Lincoln's Ten Percent Plan.

However, a challenge to presidential control over Reconstruction was already developing in Congress. Two members of Lincoln's own political party — Thaddeus Stevens in the House of Representatives and Charles Sumner in the Senate — vehemently opposed the president's Ten Percent Plan. They and their supporters, known as the Radical Republicans, insisted that the prewar white power structure in the South must be dismantled and that freed slaves must be given equality with whites. According to Sumner and Stevens, Lincoln's plan was too generous to the Confederate leadership and overstepped his constitutional authority as president.

In the summer of 1864, Congress passed the Wade-Davis Act, which set forth a congressional plan for Reconstruction. This law required anyone serving as a delegate to a state constitutional convention or even voting for such delegates to take an "iron-clad loyalty oath." This oath stated that the individual had always remained loyal to the Union and had never taken up arms against it. *Fifty percent* of the state's citizens (who had voted in the 1860 elections) must take this oath before a constitutional convention could be called. New state constitutions were required to abolish slavery, disqualify Confederate officials from voting or holding office, and refuse to honor Confederate war debts.

Once a state's government had been reconstituted, the president must obtain the advice and consent of Congress before the new state government could be recognized. Until this process was completed, each of the former Confederate states would be administered by a military governor, appointed by the president and approved by the U.S. Senate. Lincoln responded to the Wade-Davis Act with a pocket veto, and Congress countered with a resolution denouncing his veto. The act did not become law.

The month before he died, Lincoln approved and signed the Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands Act, which became popularly known as the Freedmen's Bureau Act. This legislation provided



Thaddeus Stevens
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-63460]

Charles Sumner
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-100845]

for the establishment of the Freedmen's Bureau, a government agency that operated from 1865 until 1872 under the protection of the U.S. Army. The Freedmen's Bureau was responsible for issuing food, clothing, and other supplies to freed slaves, resettling more than thirty thousand people, founding over forty-three hundred schools, and setting up more than one hundred hospitals. Of course, there were southerners who opposed giving this aid to freedmen. In some places, more of the bureau's help actually went to whites, who were also suffering greatly, than to African Americans. Despite its achievements, the Freedmen's Bureau did not solve the serious economic problems of freed slaves.

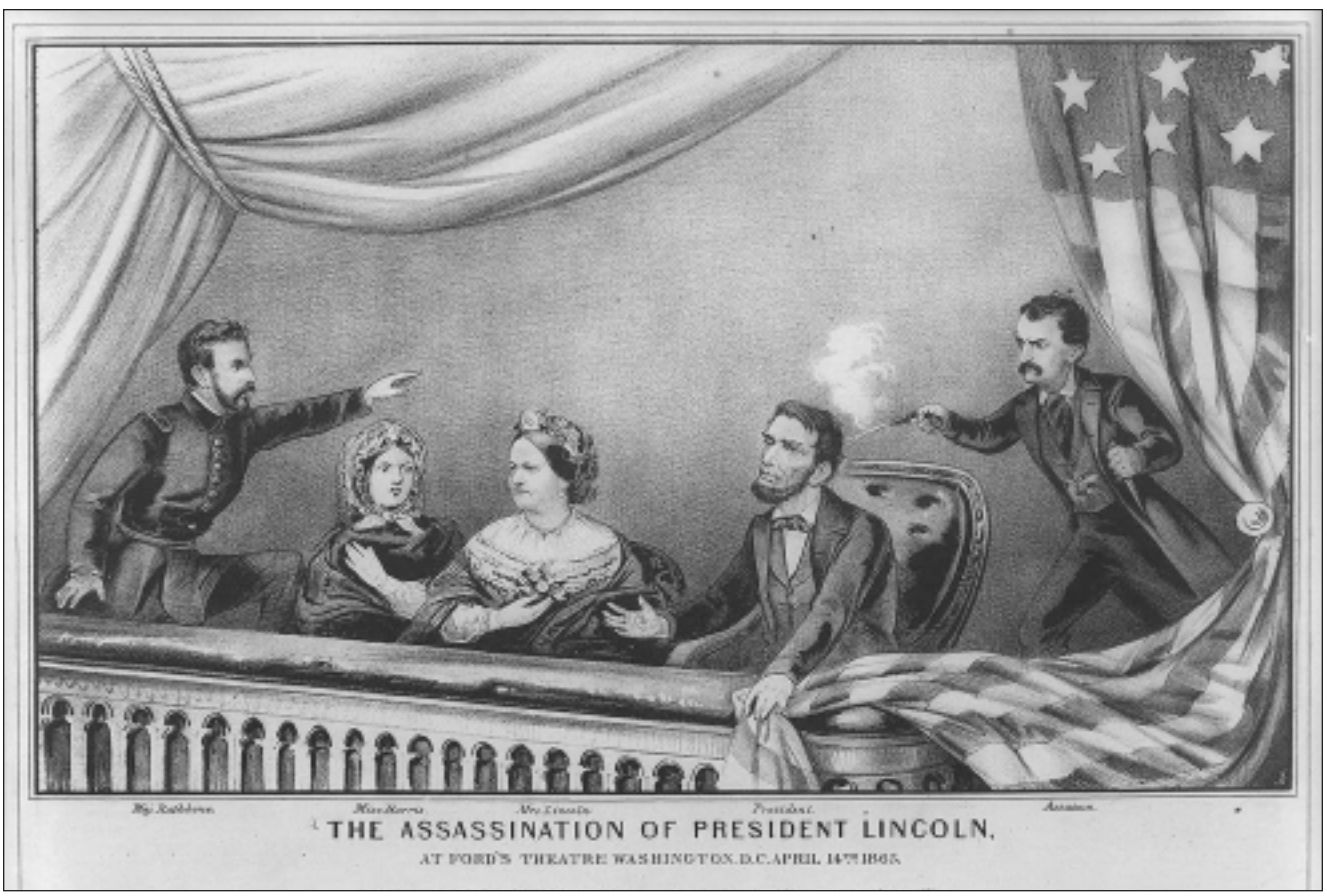
The Freedmen's Bureau school
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-33264]

LINCOLN'S ASSASSINATION (APRIL 14, 1865)

Five days after Lee's surrender, on the evening of April 14, President Lincoln and his wife, Mary, decided to see the play *Our American Cousin* at Ford's Theatre in Washington. At 10:13 P.M., during the third act of the play, the actor John Wilkes Booth entered Lincoln's box at the theater and shot the president in the head. Although doctors attended to Lincoln in the theater and moved him to a house across the street, the president never regained consciousness. Lincoln died at 7:22 A.M. the next morning, and Vice President Andrew Johnson assumed the presidency. No U.S. president had ever been killed in office before. On April 26, Booth, a fanatical Confederate sympathizer, was shot to death in the process of being apprehended.

John Wilkes Booth
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-25166]

Lincoln's assassination
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-2073]



Andrew Johnson
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-11142]

ANDREW JOHNSON (1865 – 1869)

In 1864, Andrew Johnson had been nominated by the Republicans as their vice presidential candidate, even though he was a southerner and a Democrat. Johnson had demonstrated his loyalty to the Union by remaining in the U.S. Senate even when his home state of Tennessee seceded, and by serving as military governor of Tennessee from 1862 until he was elected vice president. Lincoln had praised Andrew Johnson as a man "to whom the country owes a debt of gratitude it can never repay."[8] The Republicans hoped that Johnson would broaden their ticket's appeal and promote unity when the war was over.

Born in Raleigh, North Carolina, Johnson moved to Tennessee at the age of seventeen. Growing up in poverty and having little formal education, Johnson worked as a tailor before entering politics. Despite his humble background, he was quite intelligent and became prosperous through hard work and determination. He served four terms in the U.S. House of Representatives and one term as the governor of Tennessee. In 1857, he was elected to the U.S. Senate. Although Johnson was himself a slave owner, he championed the cause of the common man as opposed to the wealthy class of plantation aristocrats, whom he blamed for the war.

An honest and honorable man, Andrew Johnson spoke his opinions freely and did not swerve from his principles. During his first few months as president, he enjoyed a high degree of popularity. He hastened the trial and punishment of those responsible for conspiring to kill Lincoln. The new president kept the members of Lincoln's cabinet, although some of them were aligned with the Radical Republicans and would end up working against him.

PRESIDENTIAL RECONSTRUCTION UNDER JOHNSON (1865 – 1867)

From April until December of 1865, Congress was in recess, which gave Johnson time to formulate his own plans for Reconstruction. Because of Johnson's antagonism toward southern plantation owners, the Radical Republicans had thought that he would support their

Reconstruction plan. However, Johnson surprised the Radical Republicans by quickly issuing a proclamation officially recognizing four states that had been organized under Lincoln's Ten Percent Plan. He also established his own presidential plan for Reconstruction, which was a modified version of Lincoln's.

Under Johnson's Reconstruction program, automatic pardons would be granted to former Confederates who took a simple loyalty oath, except for those owning twenty thousand dollars or more of taxable wealth. These individuals could apply to the president for a special pardon. When a majority of the state's citizens (who had voted in the 1860 elections) took the loyalty oath, the oath-takers could elect delegates to a state constitutional convention. The new state constitutions were required to repudiate the state's ordinance of secession and the Confederate debt and to provide for the election of a state legislature that must ratify the Thirteenth Amendment. Compliance with these conditions meant that the state could be readmitted to the Union.

BLACK CODES AND THE RECONVENING OF CONGRESS

During the fall of 1865, each of the ex-Confederate states adopted "black codes." Although these legal codes were different in each state, most of them contained the same types of restrictions on the rights of former slaves. Black codes usually required freed slaves to work and dictated their hours of labor. Often, these codes regulated the types of jobs that African Americans could take, usually restricting them to farm and domestic labor. They also sought to keep freedmen from voting, serving on juries, owning land, or going to school. The most stringent codes denied African Americans the right to bear arms, marry whites, and meet together after sunset and allowed authorities to arrest them for making insulting gestures or for idleness. Enraged Radical Republicans condemned these codes as being just as bad as slavery.

Sample of the Black Codes
Public Domain

When Congress reconvened in December of 1865, most of the former Confederate states had restored their governments under the provisions of Johnson's plan for Reconstruction. In the process, many

prominent former Confederate officials had been elected to office. This infuriated the Radical Republicans, who were already inflamed by the passage of black codes. Congress refused to endorse Johnson's plan or to seat any senators or representatives elected by the ex-Confederate states.

THE THIRTEENTH AND FOURTEENTH AMENDMENTS

The Thirteenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution was finally ratified by three-fourths of the states in December of 1865. This amendment, the first of the three "Reconstruction Amendments" (Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth), abolished slavery in the United States. Ironically, because the Thirteenth Amendment made the three-fifths clause of the U.S. Constitution inoperative, it actually increased southern representation in the House of Representatives over what it had been before the war. Each former slave was now counted as a whole person, rather than as three-fifths of a person.

In June of 1866, both houses of Congress passed the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution, which was designed to grant citizenship to freed slaves and to protect their civil liberties. The Radical Republicans considered this to be the most important amendment to the Constitution, aside from the Bill of Rights. The chief author of the Fourteenth Amendment was Thaddeus Stevens. With the exception of Tennessee, the southern states refused to ratify this amendment. Their refusal to do so led the Radical Republicans to push for passage of legislation that would require approval of the Fourteenth Amendment as one of the conditions for being readmitted to the Union.

The Fourteenth Amendment was finally ratified by three-fourths of the states and added to the Constitution in 1868. It guaranteed citizenship to "all persons born or naturalized in the United States" and prohibited the states from making or enforcing "any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States." States were not allowed to "deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law..." Finally, the Fourteenth Amendment reduced the congressional representation of states that

did not grant black suffrage, banned Confederate officials from taking office, and forbade the repayment of the Confederate war debt.

CONTINUING CONFLICT BETWEEN JOHNSON AND THE RADICAL REPUBLICANS

In February of 1866, President Johnson vetoed an attempt by Congress to extend the powers of the Freedmen's Bureau. Two months later, Johnson also vetoed the Civil Rights Act, which was designed to nullify the black codes and give freed slaves full legal equality with white citizens. This law was, however, passed by Congress over his veto.

When the Fourteenth Amendment was passed by Congress in June, the president encouraged the former Confederate states not to ratify it. According to Johnson, he opposed both the Civil Rights Law and the Fourteenth Amendment because he believed that the states and not the federal government had the right to protect individual rights.

The election of 1866 provided an opportunity for the American people to show support for the president's Reconstruction plan. Johnson embarked on an ambitious speaking tour to defend his policies and to sway the people to his side. However, he faced generally hostile audiences and did not present himself in a favorable light. The Radicals planted hecklers in some of the crowds, and violent fistfights erupted. Newspapers printed cartoons that showed the president as an arrogant and crude "King Andy." In November, the Republicans won a three-fourths majority in Congress, making it possible for them to override any of Johnson's vetoes. The number of Radicals in Congress had increased, and they quickly moved to enact their own congressional plan of Reconstruction.

Editorial cartoon of reconstruction under Andrew Johnson and
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-3270]

"King Andy"
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-9963]

IMPACT

- New state that was added to the Union during this time: Nebraska (1867).

- The Civil War preserved the Union. Over six hundred thousand Americans died in the war, and large areas of the South lay in ruins. Years of military occupation in the South following the war would leave a legacy of bitterness and resentment.

- Reconstruction was the period during which the U.S. government reintegrated the former Confederate states into the Union. This complex and controversial era lasted from 1863 to 1877.

- One of the key questions during Reconstruction was exactly how the South would be reintegrated into the Union. Both Lincoln and Johnson favored a plan that was lenient toward the ex-Confederate states. The Radical Republicans in Congress wanted to punish the former Confederate states for starting the war and keep them under military occupation for a period of time.

- Another major problem of the Reconstruction period was how to integrate the newly freed slaves into American society. This enormous new southern social class of almost four million people presented a great challenge.

- Lincoln began planning for Reconstruction in December of 1863, when he issued a Proclamation of Amnesty and Reconstruction. At the heart of Lincoln's program for Reconstruction was the Ten Percent Plan.

- The Radical Republicans, led by Thaddeus Stevens and Charles Sumner, were determined that the prewar white power structure in the South be dismantled and that freed slaves be given equality with white citizens. They believed that Lincoln's Ten Percent Plan overstepped his constitutional authority as president.

- Congress passed the Wade-Davis Act in 1865, which set forth a stricter congressional plan for Reconstruction. Lincoln responded to this legislation with a pocket veto.

- The Freedmen's Bureau Act of 1865 provided for the establishment of a national agency to provide food, clothing, and other supplies to freed slaves. Despite its achievements, the Freedmen's Bureau did not solve the pressing economic difficulties of freed slaves.

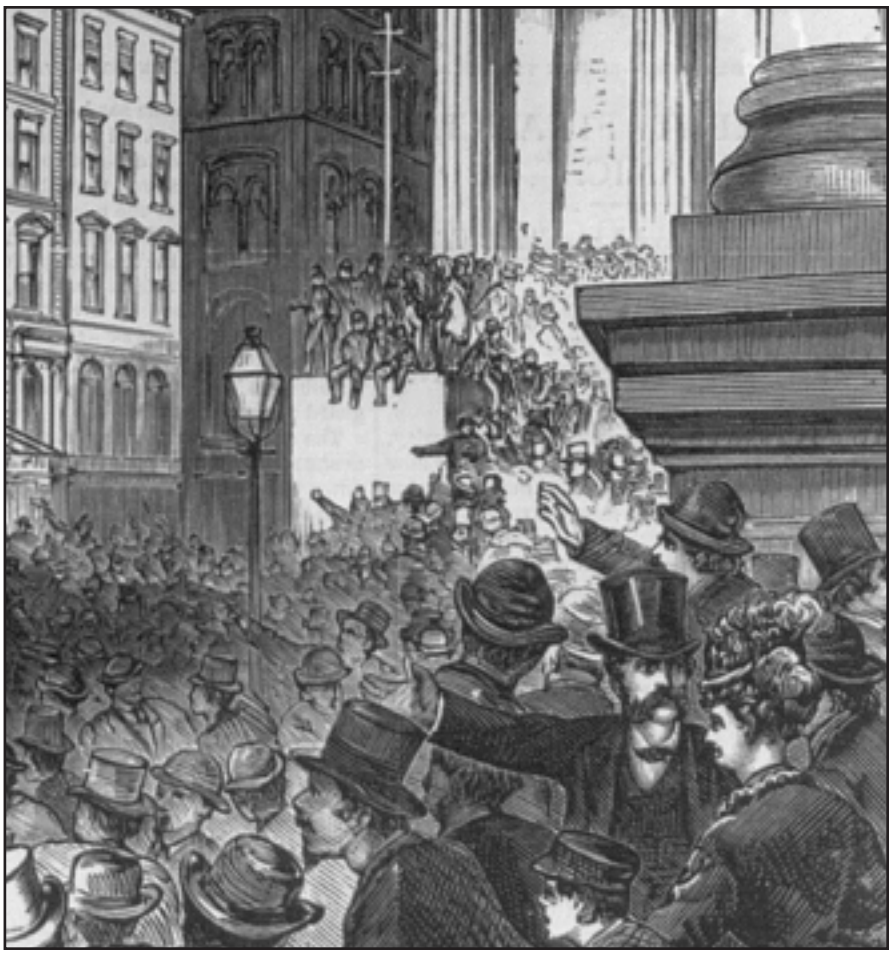
- Five days after Lee's surrender, President Lincoln was assassinated at Ford's Theatre by John Wilkes Booth, a fanatical Confederate sympathizer. No U.S. president had ever been killed in office before.

- Andrew Johnson, a southern Democrat, succeeded Lincoln when he was assassinated. During the Congressional recess from April to December, Johnson moved to establish his own presidential plan for Reconstruction, which was a modified version of Lincoln's.

- During the fall of 1865, the ex-Confederate states adopted black codes, which imposed many restrictions on the rights of former slaves. The Radical Republicans condemned these codes as being just as bad as slavery.

- The Thirteenth and Fourteenth amendments were the first two of three Reconstruction Amendments. The Thirteenth Amendment abolished slavery, and the Fourteenth granted U.S. citizenship to freed slaves and offered protection of their civil liberties.

- The election of 1866 provided an opportunity for the American people to show support for the president's Reconstruction plan. However, Johnson did not present himself in a favorable light on a speaking tour in which he had hoped to sway people to his side. The Republicans won a three-fourths majority in Congress, which made it possible for them to override Johnson's vetoes.



LESSON 8

Congressional Reconstruction. . . . . 1867 — 1877 A.D.

ATMOSPHERE

SHARECROPPERS

During Reconstruction, a new agricultural system, which became known as sharecropping, replaced the plantation economy of the South. Under this system, white landowners supplied land, seed, and tools to former slaves and poor whites who owned no land of their own. In return, they were required to give the landowner a share (one-third to one-half of what they had grown) of their crops, which led to their acquiring the name sharecroppers. Many white landowners falsified their accounts to make sure that none of their sharecroppers ever made enough money to be able to buy their own land. More than a decade would pass before southern cotton and tobacco fields would reach their prewar production levels.

Sharecroppers
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-103813]

CARPETBAGGERS AND SCALAWAGS

In the years following the Civil War, a number of people from the North migrated to the South. Some of them came to help rebuild the South — to teach, work with aid programs, and make sure that newly freed slaves were treated fairly. However, others came looking for money and power. Most white southerners resented the

Carpetbaggers and Scalawags
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-78826]

Hiram R. Revels (L)
Blanche K. Bruce (R)
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-DIG-cwpbh-00554] and [LC-DIG-cwpbh-05070]

Joseph Rainey (L)
Jefferson Long (R)
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-DIG-cwpbh-00664] and [LC-DIG-wpbh-00556]

Editorial depiction of the KKK
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-128619]

presence of these northerners in the South and called them carpetbaggers. During this period in history, traveling bags were sometimes made of carpet material. Southerners suggested that these northerners came to the South with everything they owned in a carpetbag. White southerners who cooperated with these carpetbaggers were known as scalawags and were greatly resented by other white southerners.

Carpetbaggers and scalawags manipulated a new political force—the freed slaves of the South. Because they were used to the plantation system and usually uneducated, they could be easily swayed into voting a certain way. However, there were also educated African Americans who contributed to Reconstruction politics in a meaningful way. They included Hiram R. Revels and Blanche K. Bruce of Mississippi in the U.S. Senate and Joseph Rainey of South Carolina and Jefferson Long of Georgia in the U.S. House of Representatives. Six hundred African Americans were also elected to state legislatures during Reconstruction.

KU KLUX KLAN

The original Ku Klux Klan was founded in Pulaski, Tennessee, in May of 1866. It was organized by ex-Confederates who wanted to maintain white supremacy in the South. Because local governments in the South were weak or nonexistent, many white citizens there feared the possibility of black insurrections. The KKK was the largest and most violent of a number of secret organizations formed to terrorize former slaves and to prevent them from exercising their rights. Some of these other groups included the White Brotherhood, Order of the White Rose, and the Pale Faces.

The members of the Ku Klux Klan, dressed in white sheets and hoods, posed as the spirits of dead Confederate soldiers returned from the battlefield. They became known for their mysterious commands, midnight rides, and burning crosses, which intimidated former slaves, carpetbaggers, and scalawags. The Klan also used whippings, lynchings, and shootings to intimidate and kill many innocent people.

REDEEMERS

Following a financial panic in 1873 and the economic depression that followed, Republicans became less concerned about southern political affairs and more focused on economic issues. Meanwhile, conservatives in the southern Democratic Party, who called themselves Redeemers, began to rise to power in the South. These Redeemers called for a cut in taxes and wanted to keep state governments from taking an active role in improving the living conditions of their citizens, especially freed slaves. They were interested in keeping freedmen away from the polls and were known for using election fraud and violence to intimidate Republicans and drive them from power.

The Financial Panic of 1873
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-573]

THE GREAT FINANCIAL PANIC.—INTERSECTION OF NASSAU AND BROAD STREETS WITH WALL STREET.—VIEW OF THE SUB-TREASURY, JAY COOKE & CO.'S BANK, AND THE WESTERN UNION TELEGRAPH OFFICE, FROM THE DREXEL BUILDING, ON FRIDAY, SEPT. 19TH.

One by one, they "redeemed" southern state governments from the control of white Republicans and African Americans.

EVENT

RECONSTRUCTION ACT OF 1867

The Radical Republicans in Congress believed that the outcome of the 1866 congressional elections was a mandate for their Reconstruction policies. Therefore, in March of 1867, they moved forward to put their own plan of Reconstruction into effect. The Reconstruction Act of 1867, passed over Johnson's veto, placed ten of

map

[map8-1: map showing the states placed under military rule by Congress during Reconstruction]

the former Confederate states under military rule. Tennessee, the only state that had already ratified the Fourteenth Amendment, was exempted from military occupation. The remaining ex-Confederate states were divided into five military districts, each of which was commanded by a major general of the U.S. Army who was appointed by Congress. The existing state governments submitted under Lincoln's and Johnson's Reconstruction plans were declared to be illegal, and the commanding generals were given the responsibility of creating a provisional military government for the states in their districts.

Under the provisions of the 1867 Reconstruction Act, the right to vote was denied to anyone who had taken an oath to support the U.S. Constitution and then had broken that oath to join the Confederacy. This disenfranchised all U.S. military officers and most political officeholders who had left the Union for the Confederacy. This act also provided that all other adult males over the age of 21 (including freed slaves and previously free black men) must be allowed to vote in the election of delegates to a state constitutional convention.

New state constitutions were required to conform to certain specifications. The most controversial of these were the provisions for black suffrage. Once its constitution was ratified, the state was allowed to hold elections for state and national offices. However, the state's congressional representatives would not be seated until the newly elected state legislature had ratified the Fourteenth Amendment. By the end of 1868, most southern states had been readmitted to the Union under the congressional plan of Reconstruction; all had been readmitted by 1870.

Editorial depiction of Black Suffrage
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-53727]

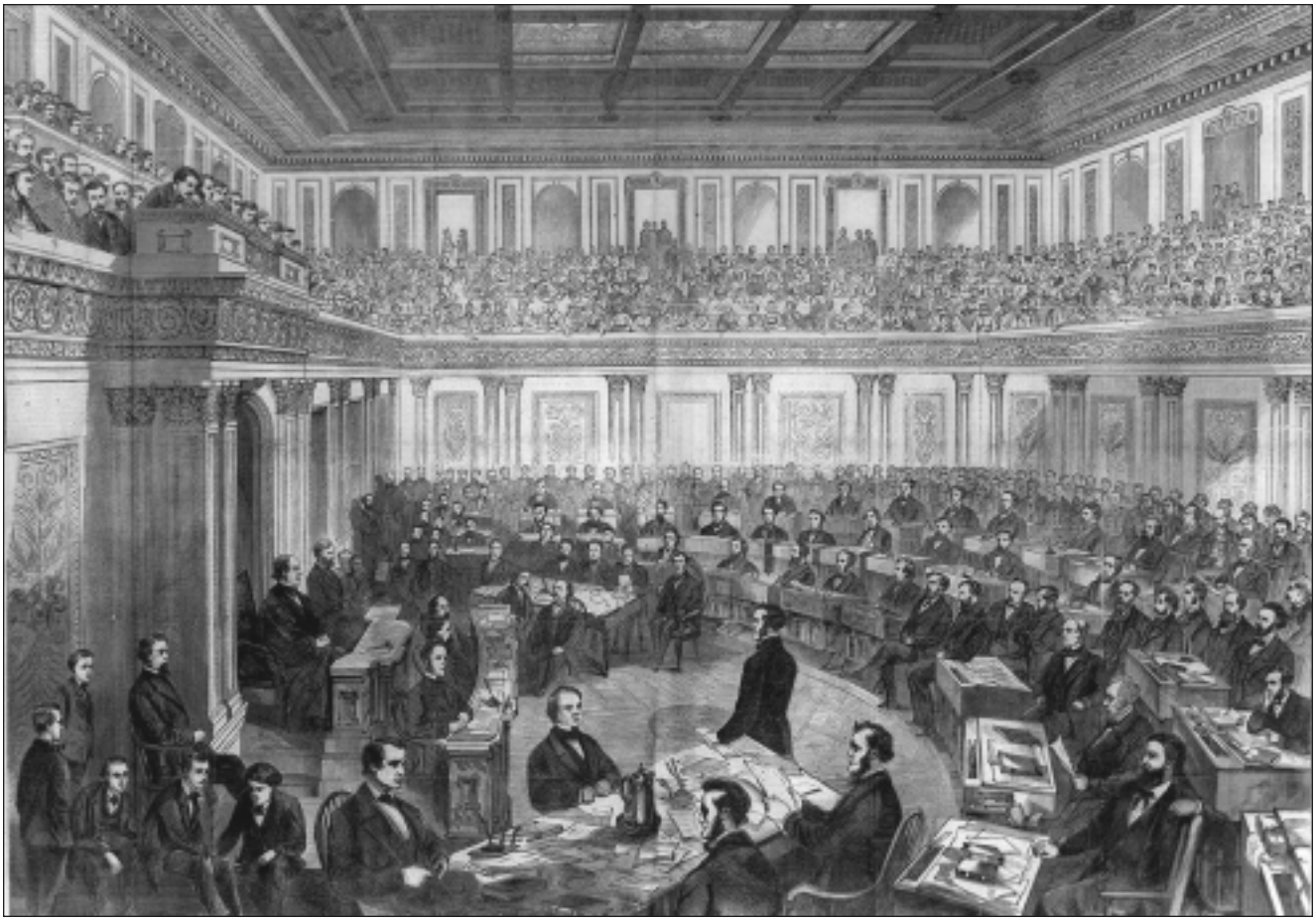
JOHNSON'S IMPEACHMENT

The Radical Republicans were intent upon impeaching and convicting President Johnson in order to stop his attempts to block their Reconstruction program. Initially, the U.S. House of Representatives investigated Johnson. They examined his handling of the proceedings following Lincoln's assassination, his pardons, and his failure to prosecute Jefferson Davis. However, the House voted down this first

attempt at impeachment in 1867 because there was no provable crime upon which to base charges of impeachment.

The second attempt to impeach President Johnson took place on February 24, 1868. This time the House succeeded in impeaching Johnson on the basis of the Tenure of Office Act. The Tenure of Office Act, passed by Congress over Johnson's veto in March of 1867, required Senate confirmation of a newly appointed executive official before a dismissed official could leave. In February of 1868, when Congress was not in session, Johnson dismissed Edwin Stanton, secretary of war, and replaced him with Ulysses S. Grant. This action was seen as a violation of the Tenure of Office Act, an act that Johnson

Johnson's impeachment trial
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-1732]



considered to be unconstitutional interference with the president's executive powers.

Eleven articles of impeachment were brought against Andrew Johnson by the U.S. House of Representatives. The first eight related to his removal of Edwin Stanton. The remaining three charged Johnson with coercing others into violating the Command of the Army Act, degrading the presidency and disgracing Congress, and seeking to block various congressional initiatives from being implemented. (The Command of the Army Act, also passed in 1867 over Johnson's veto, greatly weakened the president's role as commander-in-chief.) Following a two-month debate, the U.S. House of Representatives voted to impeach the president.

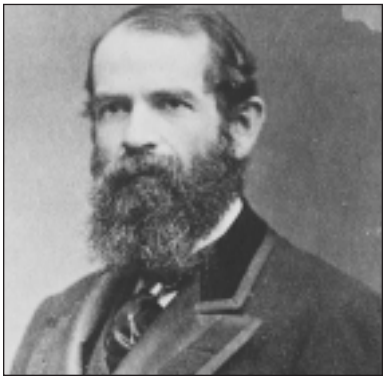
Johnson then faced a trial in the U.S. Senate. On May 28, 1868, the Radical Republicans were one vote short of obtaining the two-thirds majority needed to convict him. Seven Republicans crossed party lines to vote not guilty with the Democrats. If Johnson had been convicted, he would have been replaced as president by the Senate president pro tempore, Benjamin Wade, a leading Radical Republican. This would have seriously compromised the constitutional balance of power among the three branches of the federal government.

ULYSSES S. GRANT (1869 - 1877)

Late in the administration of Andrew Johnson, Secretary of War Grant had aligned himself publicly with the Radical Republicans. This popular war hero became the logical choice of the Radical Republicans to be their candidate for president in 1868. When Grant took office in 1869, most Americans were hoping for an end to the turmoil of the Johnson years. However, Grant was an inexperienced political leader and appointed various army friends and politicians who had done him favors to positions of power. Although the president himself was scrupulously honest, many of the men around him stole millions of dollars in public lands and resources during his two terms in office.

Born in Georgetown, Ohio, Grant was a shy, quiet man, despite his reputation as a relentless warrior. During his presidency, Grant usu-

Ulysses S. Grant
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-13018]



Jay Gould
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-104428]

Depiction of James Fisk
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-91512]

Editorial depiction of Grant
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-DIG-ppmsca-1178]

ally looked to Congress for direction. He allowed Radical Reconstruction to run its course in the South, and at times sent military forces to bolster it. His years in office were a time of economic disorder in America, and immigrants and freed slaves were blamed for many of the nation's problems.

In 1869, stock investors Jay Gould and James Fisk set out to corner the gold market. The two men entertained President Grant with yachting excursions and fancy dinners and tried to convince him not to sell any of the U.S. Treasury's gold supply on the stock market. Meanwhile, Gould and Fisk kept buying gold to drive up its price. Eventually, Grant realized what they were trying to do and sold four million dollars in federal gold. On September 24, 1869, which became known as Black Friday, gold prices fell abruptly, ruining many honest gold investors.

In 1872, the Crédit Mobilier scandal was exposed. Crédit Mobilier of America was a construction company formed in 1867 by several prominent stockholders in the Union Pacific Railroad, including U.S. Representative Oake Ames. Acting for both the Union Pacific and their newly created dummy company, these stockholders made contracts with themselves. In particular, they assigned themselves contracts to build the remaining 667 miles of the transcontinental railroad for a profit estimated to be between seven and twenty-three million dollars. Doing so depleted the congressional grants given to the Union Pacific and left that railroad under a heavy debt. Then, to forestall a congressional investigation of the company, Ames bribed members of Congress with Crédit Mobilier stock. However, the fraud was finally exposed, and Vice President Schuyler Colfax, Ames, and other prominent figures were implicated in the scandal.

Several other scandals occurred during Grant's two terms as president. The Whiskey Ring, exposed in 1875, was a conspiracy of mostly Republican politicians and whiskey distillers and distributors. Their scheme involved a large network of bribes and resulted in the diversion of millions of dollars in federal taxes on liquor. Although Grant was not involved in this scandal, his personal secretary, Orville Babcock, was indicted as a member of the ring and escaped conviction

only because he was pardoned by the president. In 1876, William Belknap, Grant's secretary of war, was impeached by the House of Representatives for allegedly taking bribes from traders at western Indian posts who sold shoddy goods to Native Americans at high prices. The Senate failed to secure the two-thirds vote needed to convict Belknap of corruption.

Shuyler Colfax
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZC2-2603]

THE FIFTEENTH AMENDMENT

The last of the Reconstruction Amendments was passed in 1869 and ratified by three-fourths of the states by 1870. The Fifteenth Amendment was designed to prohibit discrimination against voters on the basis of color or previous condition of servitude. Republicans who pushed for this amendment wanted to provide political equality for freed slaves. They also recognized that black votes in the North had proven instrumental to the success of their candidate, Ulysses S. Grant, in the 1868 presidential election.

The Force Bill of 1870 was passed by Congress to enforce the Fifteenth Amendment. It called for heavy penalties (fines and imprisonment) for anyone who prevented qualified citizens from voting. However, there was certainly opposition to the Fifteenth Amendment in the former Confederate states. Initially, this opposition took the form of violent voter intimidation. Later, African Americans were kept from voting through poll taxes and literacy requirements.

Orville Babcock
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-USZ62-68174]

CONGRESSIONAL LEGISLATION AIMED AT DISCRIMINATION

The Ku Klux Klan Act of 1871 was an attempt by the U.S. Congress to put an end to the intimidation and violence that the Klan and other white terrorist groups had been using against African Americans. However, this legislation did not succeed in destroying the Klan or in curtailing the fear tactics and brutality that the Klan used against blacks and supportive whites.

The Civil Rights Act of 1875 represented the last effort by Congress for more than a half century to protect the civil rights of African Americans. It promised that all people, regardless of race or previous

Orville Babcock
Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division [LC-DIG-ggbain-3673]

condition, were entitled to full and equal employment in "inns, public conveyances on land or water, theaters, and other places of public amusement." In 1883, the Supreme Court declared this act to be unconstitutional, maintaining that Congress did not have the power to regulate the behavior and transactions of individuals.

THE END OF RECONSTRUCTION

Gradually, the former Confederate states began ousting carpetbagger governments and electing members of the Democratic Party into office. In 1872, Congress passed an amnesty act, which restored full political rights to all but about five hundred former Confederates. By 1876, the Republicans remained in power in only three states in the South.

The presidential election of 1876 produced disputed electoral votes in three southern states. As part of the compromise that ended this dispute, the Republicans promised to remove the remaining federal troops from the South. By the end of 1877, Democrats held power in all the southern state governments. Radical Reconstruction had finally ended.

IMPACT

- New state that was added to the Union during this time: Colorado (1876).

- A new agricultural system, known as sharecropping, replaced the plantation economy of the South after the Civil War.

- In the years following the Civil War, a number of people migrated from the North to the South. Southerners called these northerners carpetbaggers. White southerners who cooperated with carpetbaggers were known as scalawags.

- Carpetbaggers and scalawags manipulated a new political force — the uneducated, recently freed slaves of the South. However, there were also educated African Americans who contributed to Reconstruction politics in a meaningful way.

- The Ku Klux Klan was organized in 1866 by ex-Confederates who wanted to maintain white supremacy in the South. They used intimidation to terrorize former slaves and prevent them from exercising their rights.

- After the Panic of 1873, Republicans became less concerned about southern political affairs. Conservatives in the southern Democratic Party, known as Redeemers, began to rise to power in the South. The Redeemers were especially interested in keeping freed slaves away from the polls.

- In March of 1867, the Radical Republicans moved to put into place their own plan for Reconstruction. The Reconstruction Act of 1867, passed over Johnson's veto, placed ten Confederate states (all but Tennessee) under military occupation and provided detailed requirements for those states to be readmitted to the Union.

- The Radical Republicans were intent upon impeaching and convicting President Johnson. They used the Tenure of Office Act as the basis for their charges of impeachment. Although Johnson was impeached by the House of Representatives, the Radical Republicans in the Senate were one vote short of obtaining the two-thirds majority needed to convict him.

- The popular war hero, Ulysses S. Grant, succeeded Johnson as president in 1869 and served two terms in office. An inexperienced political leader, Grant was personally honest, but his administration was plagued with scandals.

- The last of the Reconstruction Amendments, the Fifteenth Amendment, was passed in 1869 and ratified by three-fourths of the states in 1870. It was designed to prohibit discrimination against voters on the basis of color or previous condition of servitude.

- The Ku Klux Klan Act of 1871 attempted to end the Klan's intimidation of African Americans, but it did not succeed in practice. The Civil Rights Act of 1875 was the last effort by Congress for more than fifty years to protect the civil rights of African Americans. In 1883, the Supreme Court declared this act to be unconstitutional.

- Gradually, the former Confederate states began ousting carpetbagger governments and electing Democrats. As part of the compromise ending the 1876 presidential election dispute, the remaining federal troops were removed from the South. Radical Reconstruction had finally ended