

Stories of the Civil War Volume 2

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Introduction

The American Civil War was a fascinating time in American history full of fascinating stories of heroism, innovation and bravery as well as those moments that history has shown to be tremendous failures of judgment that served to prolong the war and cause great uncertainty about its outcome during its several bloody years.

Stories of the Civil War Volume 2 brings together 25 short stories of the war. Each story is presented as a piece in its entirety so you can read the ones that interest you the most first and then go back and read the other ones to discover fascinating facts about the Civil War that are new to you.

Each story is short and to the point and designed for easy digestion while still delivering the salient facts promised in the story's title. Each story is designed for quick reading – most taking just a few minutes to read and fully digest.

It is our hope that you enjoy reading these stories as much as we have enjoyed creating them for your reading pleasure.

Sincerely,

Steven Chabotte

<http://www.TheHistoricalArchive.com>

The Court-Martial of Fitz John Porter, Part 1

A disgraced general. An unpopular and perhaps unqualified general. A disgruntled general. Muddled orders. An embarrassing rout on the battlefield. An eventual court-martial. All the ingredients for a military scandal. All the ingredients of the court-martial of Fitz John Porter.

The court-martial of Fitz John Porter during the Civil War is largely forgotten today, but at the time, it was one of the most sensational trials of the 19th century, and the matter was still being debated - and eventually decided - long after the last shots of the war were fired.

Fitz John Porter was a major general in the Union army, with a long and distinguished military record. After the beginning of the Civil War, Porter moved quickly up the ranks in the U.S. Army, finally landing as a major general in the Army of the Potomac under the command of his good friend General George McClellan. McClellan gave Porter command of one of the Corps of the Army of the Potomac, the V Corps.

McClellan, however, was quickly falling out of favor with his superiors, including President Lincoln, due mostly to his inability to gain any ground against Confederate General Robert E. Lee's Army of Northern Virginia. After the ill-fated Peninsula Campaign, McClellan's Army of the Potomac was shattered - and one of the casualties was Porter's V Corps, who found themselves under the command of Major General John Pope as part of the Army of Virginia.

Porter had no confidence in Pope, and wasted no time communicating this to McClellan and General Ambrose Burnside. Burnside and McClellan agreed with Porter's low opinion of Pope's abilities, and Burnside shared Porter's communications about the matter with General-in-Chief Henry Halleck, Secretary of War Edwin Stanton, and President Lincoln. Porter's concerns about Pope were not welcome with Halleck, Stanton, and Lincoln, nor was any friend of McClellan's; Pope had, in fact, been appointed to his position to replace McClellan, due in part to his close friendship with Lincoln.

The situation between Porter and Pope came to a head during the Second Battle of Bull Run. On August 27, 1862, Stonewall Jackson, heading the Army of Northern Virginia, took Pope's supply depot at Manassas, near the site of the First Battle of Bull Run. A panicky Pope began to issue a conflagration of orders to his generals, orders that were often confusing at best, and often just bizarre.

On August 29, 1862, Porter received one of the many confusing and contradictory orders that Pope issued. This message ordered Pope to attack the Confederates on the right flank, but to simultaneously remain in contact with the neighboring division, commanded by Major General John F. Reynolds. Not only were Pope's orders conflicted, but Pope, unaware that Longstreet's division had arrived on Porter's right, directed Porter on an almost certain to be suicidal mission, one that Porter, by this time aware of Longstreet's whereabouts, declined to accept, knowing that moving right while still remaining with Reynolds' troops would be impossible.

The next day, Pope repeated his orders, and Porter reluctantly complied. Just as Porter had feared, about 30,000 Confederates were waiting for the 5000 men of the V Corps. The Confederates made short work of the V Corps, and then went on to cut a wide swath through Pope's men. Pope was delivered a sound defeat. Enraged by the routing he'd suffered, Pope relieved Porter of his command on September 5, charging Porter with insubordination.

At first it seemed that Porter would escape with no more than a demotion. His V Corps was returned to McClellan's Army of the Potomac, while Pope was sent West to the Dakota Uprising. Porter remained allied with his old friend McClellan - an alliance that would cost him dearly in the days to come.

The Court-Martial of Fitz John Porter, Part II

Relieved of his command of the V Corps after the debacle at Second Bull Run, Fitz John Porter was demoted, while the disgraced General Pope was sent to Minnesota to put down the Dakota Uprising. However, Pope kept up with his powerful friends in Washington - friends that included President Lincoln - a correspondence that would soon prove fruitful.

McClellan's plans to fortify Washington by launching a Maryland Campaign in 1862, one that would decimate Lee were not met with confidence in the capitol. Members of Congress circulated a petition stating "our deliberate opinion that, at this time, it is not safe to entrust to Major General McClellan the command of any Army of the United States." President Lincoln, with whom McClellan had an ongoing antagonistic relationship, due possibly to the fact that McClellan had repeatedly referred publicly to Lincoln as one of several members of the simian family, had only with reluctance entrusted McClellan with the task.

Antietam seemed to prove everything that those in charge believed of McClellan - that he was overly analytical, overly cautious, and prone to overestimating the size of his enemy. At Antietam, McClellan's slowness to commit Porter's V Corps - after Porter supposedly warned him, "Remember, General, I command the last reserve of the last Army of the Republic." - was attributed to McClellan's failure to rout Lee's troops, which allowed General Robert E. Lee's army to regroup. By November 5, McClellan was relieved of his duty; on November 25, Porter was arrested for charges stemming from the Second Battle of Bull Run.

Porter was charged with two violations of the Articles of War, Article IX, disobeying a lawful order, and Article LII, misbehavior in front of the enemy. The charges contained specific incidences in which Porter violated both articles. It was obvious that the charges, which if Porter was convicted of, could possibly result in execution, were instigated by the disgruntled Pope.

Secretary of War Edwin Stanton personally chose the court who would hear Porter's case, and unsurprisingly, many of those chose, like Stanton, disliked Porter's good friend McClellan. As if this were not damning enough, Porter chose as his attorney Zachary Taylor Reverdy Johnson, a strong Democrat who'd supported Stephen Douglas against President Lincoln.

Porter's trial was open to the public, and quickly became a political battleground, the Republicans represented by the prosecution, the Democrats by the defense. Newspaper writers and artists crowded the courtroom, and played up the political aspects of the case.

Federal officers, including Pope and Irvin McDowell, used the trial to try to clear their names in the debacle that had occurred at Manassas. Federal prosecutors, eager to condemn McClellan, focused on the relationship between McClellan and Porter, while also emphasizing Porter's relationship with Robert E. Lee at West Point.

The defense painted Porter as an American hero, prey to the machinations of Pope, an incompetent commander who'd been given his position due to his friendship with Lincoln.

The Court supposedly held their vote in secret; however, Porter heard his fate - guilty on both charges - from a correspondent from the New York Times. Porter was dismissed from the army and "forever disqualified from holding any office of trust or profit under the Government of the United States."

The trial may have been over, but the fallout had just begun. The trial severely shook public opinion of the U.S. Army. As for Porter, he began a campaign to clear his name that would last over twenty years.

For years, Porter was kept from clearing his name by none other than Edwin Stanton, who halted any government attempts to reinvestigate the matter, and saw to the punishment of any officers who supported Porter. Even after Ulysses S. Grant, one of Porter's strongest supporters, became president, Grant was unable to reopen the case.

In 1878, President Rutherford B. Hayes commissioned a board under Stanton's replacement, Major General John Schofield, to investigate the matter. The commission found Porter guilty of no wrongdoing. However, it would take years before the political climate was such that Porter would have his citizenship and army rank reinstated - 1882. Porter was not pardoned until even later.

Bless the Beasts - Animals of the Civil War

For soldiers on the march during the Civil War, fresh food was often a delicacy that had to be obtained by less than honest means. Yet Confederate General Robert E. Lee was guaranteed one fresh egg every day, but this honor was not due to the fact that Lee was the commanding general of the Confederate Army; rather, it was because Lee had befriended a hen who traveled along with him, gifting him with an egg she laid under his cot every morning. When his pet hen was lost during the Battle of Gettysburg, Lee and the rest of his men were highly distressed until she could be found.

Lee's pet hen was the rule rather than the exception; many Civil War regiments took animals along as mascots or pets. Dogs, cats, donkeys, even camels, bears, eagles and pelicans traveled along with Union and Confederate armies into the thick of battle, providing companionship, comfort, and entertainment along the way.

Dogs were by far the most popular army mascots during the Civil War. Valued both for the companionship they provided and the fact that most dogs could be trained help their masters' forage for food, carry supplies, or even search for dead and wounded soldiers when the need arose. Man's best friend, indeed.

One of the most famous of these dogs was Sallie, the 11th Pennsylvania's Staffordshire Bull Terrier. Sallie was a puppy when 1st Lieutenant William R. Terry brought her to the regiment, and grew up as the beloved companion of her entire regiment. Sallie marched along with the regiment, right up to the battlefield. At Gettysburg, she stood guard over the dead and wounded. She managed to survive until late in the war, when she was killed by a bullet. Sallie's name is among those on the monument to the 11th Pennsylvania at Gettysburg.

Another famous dog mascot was Jack, a bull terrier who was the mascot of the 102nd Pennsylvania Infantry. Jack followed his regiment into battles in the Wilderness campaigns, seeking out the dead and wounded after battle. The dog was captured twice; he was considered so valuable that he was once exchanged for a Confederate soldier at Belle Isle. Jack was eventually stolen from his regiment.

While obviously less endearing or useful than dogs, a number of feathered friends - including Lee's pet hen - followed regiments to war. A rooster named Jake escaped the soup pot to become the beloved mascot of the Confederate 3rd Tennessee regiment, heckling Federal soldiers who captured Fort Donelson. A Louisiana regiment adopted a pelican, a symbol of their home state.

The most renowned bird of the war, however, was Old Abe, an eagle who was the mascot of the Company C of the 8th Wisconsin Volunteers. Named in honor of Abraham Lincoln, Old Abe saw action in over 40 battles and skirmishes, flying over the fighting, screeching at his enemies. Confederates referred to Old Abe as "the Yankee Buzzard," and attempted repeatedly to capture the eagle. Old Abe soon became known throughout the land, appearing in public and participating in fundraisers. His picture was even sold to raise money for the war effort. After retiring in 1864, he lived in the Wisconsin state capitol building.

Bears were also popular mascots. Both Wisconsin and Minnesota boasted brigades who had bears in their numbers. When Union forces took West Liberty, Kentucky in 1861, their list of captured included 52 horses, 10 mules and "one large bear."

The 43rd Mississippi Company A became known as "the Camel Company" for their mascot, a camel they named Old Douglas. Old Douglas made himself useful by carrying supplies for the company, and even managed to make friends with the regiment's horses, but found himself in trouble after he wandered into a wagon train, causing havoc and injury. Old Douglas was killed at Vicksburg.

Other regiments included badgers, squirrels, raccoons, wildcats, and even pigs as mascots.

Animals adopted as mascots during the Civil War enjoyed the attention and devotion of entire regiments, but provided something even more important to the men who claimed them - comfort and joy during a turbulent time.

Rich Man's War, Poor Man's Fight - The Draft and the Civil War

The Civil War began as an exercise of patriotism. The new Confederacy had no army to speak of, and hence had to depend on volunteers. The Federal Army was woefully undermanned, and President Abraham Lincoln issued a request for volunteers as soon as it was determined that war was inevitable. These volunteers were ready to fight for their country, but after a space of months - or even weeks in some cases - they were ready to leave the fighting to other men and return to their homes. The shortage of manpower on both sides meant that the first drafts in America's short history were instituted.

The involuntary conscription of men into the Army seemed to fly in the face of the very tenets that the Constitution was based upon - liberty and the pursuit of happiness certainly didn't go hand in hand with a draft. However in both the Union and the Confederacy, civil war also meant a suspension of civil liberties for men of an age to fight.

The Confederacy, which suffered from the beginning a serious lack of men to serve, began conscripting soldiers in 1862. Three conscription acts were eventually passed by the Confederacy.

In 1863, it became clear to the Federal government that instituting a draft was the only way to sufficiently assure that the army would have the manpower required to continue the war, and they followed the Confederacy's lead in authorizing the conscription of soldiers.

Both the Union and the Confederacy faced bitter opposition to the drafts. State governments in both regions fought the draft, citing its unconstitutionality, and when possible refused to find or prosecute drafted men who did not report for service.

In the North, draft riots became common whenever a draft act was passed, the most significant occurring in New York City in 1863, a riot that resulted in widespread damage, injury, and death.

The most controversial aspects of draft laws in both the Union and the Confederacy were the exemption and commutation exceptions that allowed men to avoid service.

By far the exemptions that caused the most bitterness were those that allowed men who were owners of large properties to avoid service. In the South this often meant that owners of large plantations and numbers of slaves, the very men who'd supported the war most ardently, were exempted from service, while subsistence farmers who were too poor to own slaves were drafted into service. In the North, this meant that the wealthy were exempted while immigrants and day laborers were compelled to serve.

There were exemptions, too, for certain occupations, for only-sons, and of course medical exemptions. Medical exemptions created loopholes that men of means were able to slip through, while men who were truly physically or mentally unfit to serve, but who could not afford to have a doctor certify them as such, were pressed into service.

The Union encountered a unique problem with the draft that the South simply could not afford: the paid soldier. Commutation - a payment of \$300 dollars or provision of a substitute - allowed men to avoid service. Commutation flourished in the wealthier, more populous North; in the South, there were not enough men available or the cash to pay to avoid service. However, in the North, many substitute

soldiers were sent in place of men would not serve; often immigrants or uneducated, these substitutes became a sizable part of the Federal Army.

But these hired soldiers came with a price - many did not report for service, and of those who did, more deserted the Army, resulting in the growth of bounty hunters who were paid to track these reluctant soldiers down and return them to duty.

"A rich man's war and a poor man's fight" became the phrase attached to the draft acts in both the Union and the Confederacy, an apt description. In the North, immigrants who'd not been in the United States long enough to form an attachment were sent to fight for the preservation of the Union, while in the South, the subsistence farmer was taken from his home to fight for the planter's right to own slaves to do the work for him. Conscription was as easily dodged by those with means as bullets were difficult to miss for those without.

George McClellan - A Mystery of the War

It seemed to be an established fact that George McClellan was one of, if not the most ineffectual officer produced by either the Union or the Confederacy during the Civil War. Yet recently, some historians have begun to re-examine the legacy of McClellan, on the basis that while his mistakes were many, they may have been confounded by the fact that as a Democrat and a vacillator on the issue of slavery, McClellan's disagreements and eventual break with Radical Republicans Abraham Lincoln and Secretary of War Edwin Stanton may have done more to end McClellan's career than his own performance (or lack thereof) during the War.

Young Napoleon

At the outset of the Civil War, when McClellan was seen as a savior, the only man who could make soldiers out of the thousands of volunteers who'd come to fight the war, McClellan was favorably compared to Napoleon. Within the space of year, this comparison would seem all too apt.

Success undoubtedly went to McClellan's head. He wrote to his wife in 1861,

I find myself in a new and strange position here-[President], Cabinet, [General Scott] & all deferring to me-by some strange operation of magic I seem to have become the power of the land. ... I almost think that were I to win some small success now I could become Dictator or anything else that might please me...

His own inflated self-worth knew no bounds; he openly referred to President Lincoln as a gorilla or ape, depending on his mood, and even snubbed the President both socially and professionally on several occasions.

Furthermore, he was notoriously secretive, refusing to outline his plans to any but a handful of personal confidantes. Among those denied his counsel were President Lincoln, Secretary of War Stanton, and most other members of the Cabinet, Congress, House of Representatives, and his own subordinates.

But ultimately it was not McClellan's pompousness that lost him the command of the Army of the Potomac, although that certainly didn't help matters. On several fronts, McClellan deviated from the prevailing political mood of the time, a deviation that cost him his military career.

Southern Sympathies

While many of the men who would eventually serve the Confederacy were approached to serve in the Union Army, George McClellan had the distinction of being one of few Northern men to be asked to join the Confederate army. Although McClellan obviously declined, it is not a stretch to see why; McClellan did not support slavery, but he did consider it to be a constitutional right. However, he did not believe in the right of Southern states to secede.

Unlike most other Federal officers, McClellan was not willing to either free slaves in occupied territories. During his occupation in what would become West Virginia, he proclaimed to citizens there regarding their slaves to "understand one thing clearly-not only will we abstain from all such interference but we will on the contrary with an iron hand, crush any attempted insurrection on their part." This understandably caused a stir in Washington.

When it came to Southern citizens, McClellan's views clashed with the scorched earth policy that Grant and Sherman would adopt in the later years of the war. Unlike Grant and Sherman, McClellan had a

history of instructing his soldiers to respect both the property and persons of civilians they encountered, a policy he followed in West Virginia. He had friendly relations with even those who supported the Confederacy.

As McClellan grew increasingly unpopular with his superiors, much was made of his feelings and actions toward the South - and of his relationships with several important figures in the Confederacy. McClellan had worked closely with Confederate President Jefferson Davis when Davis served as Secretary of War, and counted among his closest friends Confederate General A.P. Hill. These relationships, which had actually lapsed during the war, were used to explain McClellan's reluctance to punish Southern civilians or make decisive military maneuvers against Confederate troops.

Political Aspirations

McClellan did little to redeem himself when he ran against Lincoln as a Democrat in the election of 1864. One of the tenets of his campaign was the negotiation of a settlement with the Confederacy and an immediate end to the war. This only served to provide ammunition for the Radical Republicans who'd made McClellan a target.

That McClellan had political aspirations had been a well-known fact in Washington for sometime prior to the election of 1864. As the election neared, and the threat of a McClellan Democratic ticket became a reality, the Republicans in Lincoln's capitalized upon the failures of McClellan as an officer. Lincoln's re-election came as no surprise to anyone but McClellan himself, perhaps.

But McClellan's political opinions and aspirations earned him an enmity on the part of the Republicans that would haunt him for years and taint his legacy forever. He made powerful enemies, enemies that had the power to diminish his part in the Civil War for eternity. To the victors - in this case the Union and the Republicans - go the spoils, not to mention the burden of history.

General Ulysses S. Grant wrote after the war that "McClellan is to me one of the mysteries of the war;" although Grant was doubtlessly referring to McClellan's military decisions, his statement was more prescient than he could have known.

Morgan's Raid

The Confederacy was between a rock and a hard place in 1863. Lee was being thwarted in the East, while Vicksburg was besieged to the West. Perhaps a diversion was needed, something to create havoc on the border and in the North, and distract Federal troops. John Hunt Morgan had just the plan. The only problem was, he didn't have the orders to carry it out.

John Hunt Morgan's plan to divert attention from the eastern and western theatres of the war resulted in Morgan's Raid, or the Great Raid of 1863, during which Morgan and a hand-picked cavalry stormed through his home state of Kentucky, then onto Indiana and Ohio, terrorizing soldiers and pro-Union civilians alike and creating a well-publicized trail of destruction in their wake. However, the raid, which was either a success or a momentary aggravation, depending on which side you were on, did little to advance either the Confederacy or John Hunt Morgan.

Confederate Brigadier General John Hunt Morgan left Sparta, Tennessee in June 1863 with a little over 2000 cavalry men and light artillery. Braxton Bragg's Army of Tennessee had their hands full with the Federal Army of Ohio, and hoped that a raid through Tennessee and into Kentucky would divert the Army of Ohio and other Federal troops. Bragg gave Morgan one particular order - do not, under any circumstances, cross the Ohio River.

Morgan and his cavalry met a hero's welcome in southwestern Kentucky. On July 4th, Morgan's regiment met Federal troops at Tebb's Ridge on the Green River, and emerged victorious. At Lebanon, Morgan and his men trapped 400 of the Federal 20th Kentucky regiment's men at the town's railroad depot; in the ensuing six-hour fight, Morgan's younger brother, Thomas Morgan, was killed. Spurred on by grief, Morgan captured and paroled the Federal Kentucky regiment.

After Lebanon, it was on to Louisville, with several skirmishes in between. Morgan sent detachments north and east of Louisville, attempting to confound Federal forces as to his true destination. Morgan further confounded Federal intelligence by having his telegrapher, Lightning Ellsworth, send reports overstating the size of Morgan's troops, while also sending messages that claimed to be from Union telegraphers. Ellsworth would keep up his work throughout the raid.

It was at Louisville that Morgan began to carry out his ultimate goal - to bring the war to the North by raiding Indiana and Ohio. First he would have to cross the Ohio River - which he'd been expressly forbidden to do. He began by sending a detachment across the Ohio River into Indiana ahead of his cavalry. The detachment was captured, reducing Morgan's numbers by several hundred.

Undeterred, Morgan and his men commandeered two steamboats, and crossed into Indiana. The hostile Hoosiers attempted to fend off the raiders, who looted and terrorized throughout the southern tip of the state, destroying rail and telegraph lines and stealing from locals. A minor battle with Federal troops at Corydon only temporarily set Morgan and his raiders back; soon, they were on to Ohio.

The looting and destruction continued in Ohio, but not before Union General Ambrose Burnside took action. He trapped Morgan at the Battle of Bluffington Island, defeating the raiders and capturing 750 of Morgan's dwindling forces. Surrounded in Ohio, Morgan and his men wandered about, with 300 of the raiders escaping into West Virginia.

Union forces finally caught up with Morgan and his men on July 26 at the Battle of Salineville. Morgan and his officers were captured, and hauled off to the Ohio Penitentiary.

Morgan didn't stay penalized long; on November 27, he and six of his officers escaped, tunneling out of their cells and scaling the prison walls. All but two, who were recaptured, returned South.

While Morgan's raid gained no ground for the South, it did create a significant disruption. Over 6,000 Union soldiers and militia were captured and paroled, 34 bridges were destroyed, railroads were disrupted in more than 60 locations, and thousands of dollars worth of supplies, food, and other items were seized from citizens and merchants.

Morgan himself had little impact after the raid. He never regained the trust of Bragg, whose orders he had defied, and not even a year after the raid, Morgan was killed while trying to escape Union forces.

Joseph Hooker - the Reluctant "Fightin' Joe"

A boastful man of questionable morals, and one of the more irascible figures of the Civil War era, Union General Joseph Hooker also gained a reputation as an officer beloved by his men but reviled by almost everyone else.

Born in Massachusetts, Joseph Hooker attended the United States Military Academy, graduating in 1837. Hooker served under both Zachary Taylor and Winfield Scott during the Mexican-American War, gaining several promotions. He also gained a reputation with the local senoritas, who referred to him as "the Handsome Captain." This predilection for the company of ladies would follow Hooker throughout his life.

Although well-suited to the military life, Hooker resigned his commission in 1853, his reputation in shambles due to the fact that he had testified against General Winfield Scott in a court-martial against Gideon Pillow. Settling in California, Hooker ostensibly began a career as a land developer and farmer; however, his main occupations were drinking and gambling.

When the Civil War began, Hooker attempted to revive his military career by requesting a commission, but his first application was not accepted, the long shadow of Winfield Scott looming large over Washington. However, after the Union's defeat at the first Bull Run, Hooker wrote a letter to President Lincoln which outlined Hooker's perceived failings of the existing military leadership, again requesting a commission. This time, he was recognized, and was appointed a brigadier general of volunteers.

Hooker led first a brigade, then a division in the Washington area, gaining the favor of his men while also acquiring a reputation for his hard-drinking social life. After seeing action at Williamsburg, Seven Pines, Malvern Hill, the second Bull Run, and Antietam, where he was injured, Hooker had gone up the ranks quickly enough that by the time of Burnside's defeat at Fredericksburg, Hooker was named as Burnside's replacement as the Commander of the Army of the Potomac.

Although he'd appointed him as the Commander of the Army of the Potomac, Lincoln had reservations about Hooker, reservations that would soon prove fateful. For one thing, the irascible Hooker was continually criticizing his superior officers, his criticism often stemming from real or imagined slights by the officers in command. For another, there was his reputation as something of a libertine.

Hooker didn't disappoint Lincoln. As soon as he was appointed, he began telling anyone who would listen that the U.S. needed a dictatorship in order to win the war, something he obviously did not see as within Lincoln's scope. His headquarters was described by one observer as being a combination of a "bar-room and a brothel."

Despite Hooker's transgressions, Lincoln remained confident of the general's abilities to lead, a confidence that was not initially misplaced. Hooker was an effective administrator who restored the morale of his troops while also addressing problems with the soldiers' diets, camp sanitation, and the furlough system. He also attacked the increasingly troublesome problem of desertion, for which Lincoln was no doubt grateful. Hooker harbored no false modesty about what he had achieved, saying:

I have the finest army on the planet. I have the finest army the sun ever shone on. ... If the enemy does not run, God help them. May God have mercy on General Lee, for I will have none.

However, not only did Lee fail to run, he also managed to defeat Hooker's men at Chancellorsville, despite being outnumbered two-to-one, taking Hooker down with him.

Perhaps the well-known drinker's first problem was that he'd sworn off liquor in an attempt to destroy Lee. At any rate, Chancellorsville did not go as planned. Although Hooker pulled off an impressive maneuver around Lee's men early on, he soon lost his nerve and took his troops back to the Wilderness. Surprised by an attack by Stonewall Jackson's men, Hooker was dealt a decisive defeat by Lee and Jackson.

It has been said that the crisis at Chancellorsville could have been contributed to the fact that Hooker was addled by a shell that struck a pillar of the porch of his headquarters, leaving Hooker dazed and even unconscious for much of the day. Despite his incapacitation, Hooker refused to cede command to another officer.

Although he remained in the Union Army until the end of the war, Chancellorsville effectively ended Hooker's ascent in the U.S. Army.

The name "Fighting Joe" became associated with Hooker during the war, due to a newspaper dispatch that failed to remove the dash between "fighting" and "Joe." Hooker despised the name, saying that "people will think I am a highwayman or a bandit." Robert E. Lee, knowing how Hooker disliked the name, would sometimes refer to Hooker as "Mr. F.J. Hooker."

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Joseph_Hooker_-_ite_note-10

One name that has been erroneously attached to Hooker is the use of the term "hooker" as a synonym for a prostitute. Although Hooker's camp often included a number of working girls, the word "hooker" had been in usage long before Hooker's friends began to be known by that moniker.

The Suspension of Habeas Corpus During the Civil War

The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion, the public safety may require it. U.S. Constitution, Article One, Section Nine

The right of a prisoner to know the charges upon which he has been imprisoned is one of the basic rights granted by the U.S. Constitution. Known as habeas corpus, this right is both intrinsic to the justice system of the United States and important to ensuring freedom and liberty, rights which are also guaranteed to U.S. citizens.

During the Civil War, U.S. President Abraham Lincoln suspended habeas corpus, allowing suspected Confederate sympathizers to be imprisoned without knowing the cause - usually because there was no reason for their imprisonment other than their Confederate sympathies. Using the "unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion" clause to the right of habeas corpus, Lincoln exercised his executive authority to imprison those whom he felt were a threat to the Union.

Although Lincoln began the suspension of habeas corpus during 1861, he did not officially proclaim the suspension until 1862, when he released his "Domestic Intelligence Proclamation." The proclamation read:

DOMESTIC INTELLIGENCE. A PROCLAMATION. By the President of the United States of America: Whereas, It has become necessary to call into service, not only volunteers, but also portions of the militia of the States by draft, in order to suppress the insurrection existing in the United States, and disloyal persons are not adequately restrained by the ordinary processes of law from hindering this measure, and from giving aid and comfort in various ways to the insurrection. Now, therefore, be it ordered, that during the existing insurrection, and as a necessary measure for suppressing the same, all rebels and insurgents, their aiders and abettors within the United States, and all persons discouraging volunteer enlistments, resisting militia drafts, or guilty of any disloyal practice affording aid and comfort to the rebels against the authority of the United States, shall be subject to martial law, and liable to trial and punishment by courts-martial or military commission. Second: That the writ of habeas corpus is suspended in respect to all persons arrested, or who are now, or hereafter during the rebellion shall be, imprisoned in any fort, camp, arsenal, military prisons, or other place of confinement, by any military authority, or by the sentence of any court-martial or military commission....

Lincoln's policy of suspension of habeas corpus was not without its foes. Although suspension of habeas corpus was in effect in several border states and in the midwest, Maryland, a border state with strong Confederate sympathies that nevertheless remained with the Union, experienced the most infamous instances of the suspension of habeas corpus.

During the Civil War era, Maryland's capital of Baltimore was a thoroughly Southern city. A predominantly slave-supported city, Baltimore's sympathies lay wholly with its Southern neighbors, and it was taken for granted that the state of Maryland would cede from the Union.

Maryland did not, however, secede. Lincoln prevented the secession of Maryland with the occupation of Baltimore by Union troops and the imprisonment of Confederate sympathizing state and city leaders

under the suspension of habeas corpus. The mayor, city council, and police commissioner of Baltimore were among the first arrested and imprisoned without cause in Fort McHenry; they were soon joined by several members of the state legislature. By replacing the leaders who were Confederate sympathizers, Lincoln effectively quashed the secession movement in Maryland.

Lincoln's actions under the suspension of habeas corpus did not go unchallenged. Supreme Court Chief Justice Roger Taney overturned the suspension of habeas corpus in his *Ex Parte Merryman*

decision. Taney's order was ignored by Lincoln, and in 1863, under Lincoln's direction, Congress passed the Habeas Corpus Act of 1863, which ratified the suspension of the right.

Interestingly, one of the Baltimore residents arrested during suspension of habeas corpus was Francis Key Howard, editor of the *Baltimore Exchange* and the grandson of Francis Scott Key, author of *The Star Spangled Banner*. Howard wrote an editorial criticizing the Lincoln administration's imprisonment of the city and state officials from Baltimore and Maryland without due process, and soon found himself joining them at Fort McHenry. Ironically, he was imprisoned close to the sight where his grandfather had composed the *Star Spangled Banner*.

Susie King Taylor

During the Civil War, thousands of former slaves joined with the U.S. Army as they were liberated from the homes and plantations where they were enslaved. Although many of these freed men and women would be relocated, there were men among them who joined the Army, and women among them who chose to continue traveling with the Army, giving aid to the soldiers who fought to ensure their freedom.

One of these former slaves was Susie King Taylor, a black woman whose uncommon education made her valuable on many fronts to the U.S. Army, and the only black woman to publish her memoirs of her time with the Army during the Civil War.

Born a slave in Liberty County, Georgia, Susie was allowed by her master to go to Savannah, to live with her grandmother, when she was around seven years old. In Savannah, Susie had the good fortune to be able to attend covert schools for African-Americans at a time when Georgia had and enforced strict laws against the education of African-Americans. Susie was also assisted in her studies by two white youths who taught her, despite knowing that they were in violation of the law.

Susie became a freedwoman almost by proxy in 1862, at the age of 14. Susie had become "contraband of war" when Union soldiers occupied the area; however, her uncle, following the lead of other slaves in the area and throughout the South, sought freedom by going behind Union lines, taking as many of the members of his extended family with him as he could, Susie included. Susie and her family boarded a Federal gunboat and were taken to St. Simon's Island, occupied by the Union Army and a haven for freedmen.

Early on in her tenure at St. Simon's Island, Susie's education proved to be valuable both for her and the other freed men and women on the island. When army officers realized that Susie could read and write, skills that most slaves had been forbidden to learn, they asked her to organize a school. Armed with the books the officers obtained for her, Susie became the first black teacher in the first school for free African-Americans in the South. By day she taught forty young pupils, and at night, she taught a number of adults who came to her, "all of them so eager to learn to read, to read above all else," she later wrote.

While at St. Simon's Island, Susie married Edward King, a black noncommissioned officer in the Union forces. When St. Simon's Island was evacuated, Susie followed the newly formed 1st South Carolina Infantry Volunteers - later renamed the 33d Regiment, U.S. Colored Troops - which was organized by Major General David Hunter of the Union's Department of the South and commanded by Colonel Thomas Wentworth Higginson of Massachusetts, and operated as one of the first organized regiments of freedmen during the war.

For three years, Susie followed her husband's regiment. Although employed as the regiment's laundress, this far from the only job Susie mastered during her time with the regiment. Not only did she wash for the men, and cook for them, but she also served as a nurse, and used both medical and folk treatments while tending to the sick and wounded. She would later write that she avoided a deadly smallpox outbreak by drinking "sassafras tea constantly, which kept my blood purged and prevented me from contracting this dread scourge."

Susie also resumed her teaching duties while following the regiment. She taught soldiers how to read and write. She also allowed them to teach her; while following the regiment, Susie learned to break apart and reassemble a musket, and became talented at target shooting.

When the war concluded, Susie and her husband Edward moved back to Georgia, where she opened one of a succession of schools for former slaves. Edward died in 1866, and in the 1870s, Susie moved to Boston, where she met and married Russell Taylor.

While in New Orleans to nurse an ailing son in the late 1890s, Susie began work on her memoirs. Published in 1902, *Reminiscences of My Life in Camp with the 33d United States Colored Troops, Late 1st S.C. Volunteers* stands as the only wartime memoir penned by an African-American woman. It tells the remarkable story of Susie King Taylor, a most remarkable woman.

Vivandieres and Cantinieres - Ladies of the Regiment

Although they are not widely known, the vivandieres and cantinieres who traveled with regiments during the Civil War were women who, despite the constrictions of Victorian society, chose to serve alongside men during wartime in a role that American women thus far had not played. A part of their regiment, these women served several functions, all unheard of for American women of the time.

The history of the vivandiere, or cantiniere, is rooted in the Napoleonic War. During this war, it was not uncommon for bands of women, often the wives or daughters of members of the regiment, to "follow the drum" just behind a regiment. The French army, wishing to reduce the number of women who followed these regiments, restricted this activity, but as a compromise, allowed a few women to serve in some capacity in the regiment. These women became either as vivandieres or cantinieres. The duties of each were prescribed; vivandieres acted as a concessionaire of sorts, selling food and drink to the troops, remaining in camp, while cantinieres followed the regiments on campaign, also distributing food and drink, and nursing ill or wounded soldiers.

Prior to and during the civil war era, the French army was respected as the finest and most technologically advanced, and many of those who served in the U.S. Army prior to the Civil War went to Europe and Africa to observe the French army and teach their skills to troops in the U.S.

At the beginning of the Civil War, the most obvious example of the French influence on the U.S. was the establishment of volunteer Zouave regiments throughout both the union and the confederacy. These Zouave regiments adopted the uniform and drill styles of the French Zouave regiments, while also adopting another French custom - the vivandiere. The 39th New York Zouave regiment, which was known as the Garibaldi Guard, counted among its numbers no less than six vivandieres. Vivandieres were, at the outset of the war, associated most closely with the Zouave and other French-derived regiments; however, the practice spread to more traditional regiments, as well.

If the vivandiere was associated with a Zouave regiment, then her uniform was as colorful and elaborate as those of the Zouave soldiers; the Garibaldi Guard vivandieres wore red jackets over blue gowns, topped by a feathered hat. Other vivandieres may have been less decorative, but most vivandieres wore a skirt over trousers, a jacket, and hat, along with the canteen the vivandiere was famous for. Most of the vivandieres uniforms had some sort of military trim.

In America, the vivandiere was most often known as "the daughter of the regiment," a title that was sometimes literal, as the vivandiere was usually the daughter, wife, or some other relation to an officer in the regiment. The role of these daughters of the regiment was to follow the regiment, assist in setting up and maintaining camp, not to mention their duties as nurses, carrying a canteen of water or whisky into battle, performing triage to the wounded on the front.

Vivandieres were most popular at the beginning of the war, when regiments were forming, and their duties were often confined to drills. When the war progressed, and the campaigns grew longer and the fighting more common, the vivandieres were less common. This may also be due to the fact of the eventual "normalization" of the troops; as the volunteer units who formed at the outset of the war

became encompassed into larger regiments and armies, they became more regulated, their customs more in line with that of the regular army.

Despite the fact that the number of vivandieres dwindled after the beginning of the war, several remained with their regiments throughout most of the war, bravely accepting the brutal conditions of military life during the civil war era, following their regiments to the front lines of battle. They gave rise to the acceptance of women as wartime nurses, as valued members of a military camp, and may even have presaged the acceptance of women as soldiers in the 20th century.

A.P. Hill

Next to Longstreet and Jackson, I consider A.P. Hill the best commander with me. He fights his troops well and takes good care of them. Robert E. Lee

While Confederate General A.P Hill was a household name during the Civil War, he is little known nowadays, despite the fact that he was considered among the most important of the Confederacy's military officers during his time. Valued by both General Robert E. Lee and General Thomas "Stonewall" Jackson, A.P. Hill's death just before the war's conclusion was one of the final death blows dealt to the Confederacy.

Ambrose Powell Hill, known as "Little Powell," was born in Virginia in 1825. A graduate of the United States Military Academy (15th in a class of 38), the slightly-built Hill was appointed after graduation to the U.S. Artillery as a second lieutenant, and went on to serve in both the Mexican-American War and the Seminole War, eventually being promoted to first lieutenant. He married Kitty Morgan McClung, a widow, in 1850, and found among his in-laws future brothers in arms John Hunt Morgan and Basil W. Duke.

Shortly after the secession of Virginia, Hill resigned from the U.S. Army and returned to his home state to serve in the Confederate Army. Hill was appointed colonel of the an infantry regiment, and his performance at the First Bull Run earned him a promotion to brigadier general the command of a brigade in the Confederate Army of the Potomac.

Despite the fact that the frail, high-strung Hill was prone to illness (which some attribute to the gonorrhea he contracted while at West Point) and would work himself into a nervous frenzy before battle, he quickly distinguished himself on the battlefield while also endearing himself to his soldiers and superiors. A feisty character, Hill would attire himself in a red wool hunting shirt, which he referred to as his battle shirt, when approaching battle, rallying his troops who would begin to prepare for battle, telling each other "Little Powell's got on his battle shirt!" His high regard for and easy affection with the soldiers under his command prompted one officer to refer to him as "the most lovable of all Lee's generals."

Hill became increasingly important to the Confederacy in the Pennisular Campaign in 1862, working his way up to rank as a major general. Supported by his famous Light Division, Hill proved to be one of Lee's most reliable generals, using his Light Division to shore up the Army of Northern Virginia on several occasions. Hill and his Light Division further distinguished themselves in battles such as Cedar Mountain, Second Bull Run, and Antietam.

While Hill was proving his worth to Lee, he fell afoul of his commanding officer, James Longstreet, the Old War Horse, who apparently took affront at the publicity that Hill was receiving. The men embarked on a feud that resulted in Longstreet arresting Hill, and shortly thereafter Lee intervened, sending hill and his Light Division to Stonewall Jackson.

Although Jackson eventually came to respect Hill's military prowess, Hill didn't get along much better with the taciturn, deeply religious Jackson, and the two of them clashed early on. However, by the battle of Chancellorsville, Jackson and Hill had made their peace, and after Jackson perished from wounds suffered at Chancellorsville, Hill himself briefly took charge of Jackson's troops, although Hill, too was wounded.

Hill had once stated that he had no desire to see the defeat of the Confederacy, and unfortunately, that was the case. Recurring illness made his contributions at Gettysburg, the Wilderness, and Spotsylvania Courthouse less important than in other battles, but in the end, it was not illness that was to be Hill's fate, but rather, a bullet; on April 2, 1865, only days before Lee's surrender, Union Corporal John Mauck shot Hill as he rode to the front of the line at Petersburg, alone aside for a single staff officer.

A.P. Hill was mourned by the Confederacy, and especially his brothers in arms. One of the most interesting footnotes in the history of Little Powell, however, is the fact that both Lee and Jackson were said to have invoked Hill's name on their deathbeds, Lee saying "tell Hill he must come up," and Jackson saying, "Mr. Pendleton, Where is General Hill? Tell Hill he must bring his Brigade to the front and sweep around their Flank."

African-American Troops and the Civil War

The use of "colored troops" during the Civil War was a controversial practice that was debated by both the Union Army and the Confederate Army. Although African-American soldiers existed in the Confederate Army, they were few and far between, but in the Union Army, African-Americans accounted for ten percent of the soldiers who served in the Federal Army.

Around 180,000 African-Americans in 163 units served in the Union Army, and a significant amount of African-Americans served in the Federal Navy. Although many of the African-American soldiers and sailors were freedmen, a large number were also slaves who joined the cause either as runaways, or after being "seized" as contraband, a practice that was standard during the first years of the war.

However, it wasn't until 1862 that Congress signed off on the use of African-Americans in the U.S. Army and Navy, passing two acts that allowed for the enlistment of African-Americans. While these acts were passed in April, they did not take effect until later in the year, after the Emancipation Proclamation.

Despite the eagerness of many African-American men to fight, the use of African-American soldiers was met with some resistance. Both Union officers and the presidential cabinet expressed concern about using African-American soldiers - and President Lincoln was among those who expressed concern. Among the concerns that were voiced were the reluctance of white soldiers and officers to serve alongside African-American soldiers, and the response of slave-holding border states - such as Maryland and Kentucky whose proximity to Washington was close - to supporting African-American soldiers.

The African-American regiments soon proved themselves, however; after the Battle of Port Hudson in 1863, Union General Banks wrote that:

Whatever doubt may have existed heretofore as to the efficiency of organizations of this character, the history of this days proves...in this class of troops effective supporters and defenders.

Although African-American regiments proved their worth early on, they still faced discrimination within the Federal ranks. While white privates earned thirteen dollars a month plus a clothing allowance of \$3.50 under the Militia Act of 1862, African-American soldiers only received ten dollars a month, with a clothing allowance of three dollars. Some regiments refused to accept any pay at all until Congress granted them full pay in 1864. However, pay wasn't the only area in which African-American soldiers experienced discrimination; African-American regiments were often assigned the grunt work, prompting General Daniel Ullman to "fear that many high officials outside of Washington have no other intention than that these men shall be used as diggers and drudges."

African-Americans who chose to join the Navy found conditions there somewhat better; not only were their numbers higher in the Federal Navy, comprising almost 16% of the ranks, but African-American sailors were paid equally to their white counterparts from the outset, and found that there were more higher-paying entry-level enlisted positions that they were able to fill, as well.

While the idea of enlisting slaves to fight had been bandied about the Confederacy from the beginning of the war, the idea wasn't seriously considered until the waning days of the war, when General Lee found himself desperate for men, and beseeched the Confederate Congress to enlist slaves for the duration of the war, in exchange for their freedom after the war's conclusion. Although the Confederate

Congress passed legislation to enlist slaves, the legislation did not come quickly enough, and only around 40-50 African-American soldiers were enlisted.

However, a number of slaves and Southern free African-Americans voluntarily served in the Civil War, including the Baton Rouge Guards, some of the Pointe Coupee Light Infantry, and the Augustin Guards and Monet's Guards of Natchitoches. This does not count, of course, the slaves who went into battle alongside their masters.

African-American soldiers distinguished themselves throughout the Civil War, contributing to all major battles in the last two years of the war. Serving bravely despite being discriminated against, these soldiers gave their lives for both the Union, and, in some cases, the Confederacy.

King Cotton - White Gold and the Civil War

It is impossible to overstate the importance of cotton to the South during the antebellum period, or its contribution to the chain of events that resulted in the Civil War. As the major export of the South - perhaps the United States - cotton economically supported the South. As a crop that required extensive labor, cotton's role in the slavery culture that grew in the South loomed large. Understanding the degree to which the South depended upon cotton is key to understanding the role this crop played in a war that divided a nation.

While the South was an agricultural society that produced other crops besides cotton - tobacco in the Upper South, rice in the coastal regions, sugar throughout - no crop was as essential to the economy of the South in the way that cotton was. The demand for cotton was great; not only did the South supply the textile mills of the Northern states in America with cotton - Europe depended heavily on Southern cotton, as well. The powerful nations of England and France relied on Southern cotton for their own textile industries, with Southern cotton accounting for more than three-quarters of the cotton imported into these countries.

Cotton brought wealth and prosperity to the South. As prices for cotton grew steadily throughout the 1850s and 1860s, planters increased their land holdings in order to raise their production numbers. They also increased their slave holdings, as well. The labor-intensive production of cotton required many hands, and the demand for slaves to do this work increased in tandem with the market for cotton.

The inherent risk of cotton cultivation, however, was the fact that this crop depleted the soil over a period of several years, forcing planters to extend their land holdings even further. It was not unusual for a prosperous planter to own several plantations; in the late antebellum period, owning several plantations became a necessity rather than a luxury as higher cotton production wore out the soil.

Cotton production depended heavily on slave labor, and as the increased production of cotton began to deplete soils in the South, the necessity of assuring that new states whose climate and soils were suitable for cotton cultivation were admitted to the Union were admitted as slave states became a key political issue for the South. Protecting the economy of the South meant protecting cotton. Protecting cotton meant protecting slavery.

After the election of Radical Republican Abraham Lincoln to the presidency in 1860, the threat of abolishment of slavery became real. Knowing that the cotton economy would collapse with abolition, secession was proposed. Not surprisingly, secession began with the states that relied the most heavily on cotton - South Carolina, Mississippi, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana. The Upper South slave states, who relied on other crops - North Carolina, Tennessee, Kentucky, Missouri, Maryland, Virginia - were slow to secede, or did not secede at all.

The emerging Confederate States of America depended upon national and international dependence on Southern cotton as an important bargaining tool. However, while France and England were willing to risk Union blockades on Southern ports in order to obtain cotton, they began to look elsewhere for cotton when possible. Making matters worse, despite the fact that the Confederacy had forbidden the sale of cotton to Northern states, many planters swallowed their nationalism and pride and smuggled cotton across the lines, especially as the war dragged on and the Southern economy began to fail.

The toll of a war fought primarily on Southern soil was paid with a collapse of the cotton economy. Production of cotton fell from 4.5 million bales were grown in 1861 to a staggeringly low 300,000 in 1864. Much of this was due to the fact that many of the civilians left in the South were struggling to grow foodstuffs in order to feed themselves and the Confederate Army. The gradual flight of slaves from the South to freedom in the North also contributed to the problem. Although the Confederacy recognized the importance of cotton to the South, they were unable to shore production or deliver cotton to the market with any consistency, and along with the cotton economy, the economy of the South collapsed.

While King Cotton was forced to abdicate throughout much of the Civil War, the cotton economy of the South managed to re-emerge during Reconstruction. Cotton survived the abolishment of slavery, even if the Confederacy could not.

Edwin Stanton - Master of War

After his election to the presidency, Abraham Lincoln made appointments to his cabinet that perplexed not only his advisors but the entire nation. Of the Republicans he appointed, he chose men who openly disagreed with his policies, who'd supported his opponent, and even a couple who'd run against him for the presidential nomination. Many of these men had their own reasons for wishing to see him fail. Secretary of State William Seward and Secretary of the Treasury Salmon P. Chase, just to name two, both had designs on the White House, but one of his most surprising appointments was that of Edwin Stanton, an appointment that not only crossed party lines, but also put at the helm of the Civil War who'd referred to Lincoln on more than one occasion as "the original gorilla."

Lincoln's propensity for keeping his friends close and his enemies closer was obvious, but somehow Stanton, an enemy who was not only a Breckinridge Democrat but loudly critical of Lincoln, somehow missed being included in Lincoln's initial appointments, despite his apparent qualification. Lincoln's first appointee to the position of Secretary of War was Simon Cameron, a Pennsylvanian thought to be useful for his political and business ties. However useful Cameron was politically, he was certainly not of the caliber that the position needed during a civil war, and the fact that he would have to be replaced soon became obvious, even to Lincoln, who tended to overlook the faults of others, to a fault.

The dreadful disaster of Sunday [Battle of Bull Run] can scarcely be mentioned. The imbecility of this administration has culminated in that catastrophe, and irretrievable misfortune and national disgrace are to be added to the ruin of all peaceful pursuits and national bankruptcy as the result of Lincoln's 'running the machine' for five months." Edwin Seward to former President Buchanan

Stanton had established himself politically by serving as attorney general under the singularly undistinguished Buchanan. After Lincoln's election, Stanton vociferously criticized the president at every opportunity. However, once Stanton's close friend Salmon P. Chase let him know that Secretary of War Cameron was not long for the office, Stanton wasted no time in gaining Cameron's confidence - long enough to give Cameron advice that would result in his dismissal. With the help of Chase, Stanton managed to wrangle the position for himself.

Although a better prepared man for the position of Secretary of War than the erstwhile Cameron, Stanton nevertheless served as a tyrant throughout the war, his strong administration of the war department tarnished by his own irascibility.

General George McClellan was one of the first problems Stanton encountered as Secretary of War. Like many in Washington, Stanton had initially been a staunch supporter of McClellan, who, although charming and intelligent, nevertheless proved to be a less than efficient military officer. However, once McClellan began to fall from favor, Stanton's opinion of McClellan changed, and he was instrumental in having McClellan demoted from major general. He worked hard not only to destroy McClellan, but to also destroy the reputations of all those in the military who'd supported McClellan, whom Stanton suspected of having southern sympathies.

Stanton went after any and all who were close to McClellan or whom he suspected of being sympathetic to the confederacy, sometimes confusing the two. He spent an inordinate amount of time and energy persecuting union officers whom Stanton suspected of the treachery of siding with the south. One of these persecutions ending in prosecution - the infamous court-martial of general Fitz John Porter, who had run afoul of some of Stanton's military cronies, and had compounded matters by

remaining close to McClellan. not only was the court-martial basely biased against Porter, who spent the rest of his life clearing his name, but Stanton abused his position as Secretary of War to bully every union officer who sat in judgment on porter to convict or risk stalling their careers.

Lincoln was aware of Stanton's heavy-handedness, but supported his Secretary of War in order to preserve the Union. However, Lincoln sometimes "plowed around" Stanton, in his own words, and his last act as president was overriding Stanton's decision to execute George S.E. Vaughn for spying, pardoning Vaughn only hours before his execution, and only an hour before Lincoln's assassination.

Edwin Stanton was one of the more controversial of Lincoln's appointments during the Civil War, and for good reason. While an excellent administrator, Stanton's personal vindictiveness and prejudices have tarnished his reputation.

Carnton Plantation and the "Widow of the South" - the True Story, pt. 1

When Civil War historian and preservationist Robert Hicks released his book *The Widow of the South* in 2005, he fictionalized the story of Carrie McGavock, who turned acres of her family's home, Carnton Plantation, into a cemetery for the Confederate dead after the second Battle of Franklin, Tennessee. A best-seller, Hicks' novel brought a long-forgotten chapter in the story of the Civil War to a new generation of readers. Hicks' novel is a work of fiction, but the real story of Carnton Plantation, Carrie McGavock and the cemetery she helmed is just as fascinating.

Carnton Plantation, located at Franklin, Tennessee, was constructed between 1815 and 1826 by former Nashville mayor Randal McGavock. Presidents James Polk and Andrew Jackson were both visitors to Carnton, which McGavock built the plantation on the site of a Revolutionary War land grant belonging to his father. Carnton originally consisted of around 1,420 acres.

Following Randal McGavock's death in 1843, Carnton was passed to Randal McGavock's son, John. In 1848, John wed his first cousin, Carrie Elizabeth Winder. The couple had five children, but lost three of them in childhood, leaving only two, Winder and Hattie, to survive into adulthood.

Carnton was the essence of a prosperous antebellum plantation; before the Civil War, the net worth of the McGavock family was \$339,000, which adjusted for inflation, would be several million dollars in today's currency. The plantation produced wheat, oats, corn, hay, potatoes, but was primarily a livestock plantation, raising cattle, hogs, and thoroughbred horses.

When the Civil War began, John McGavock, like many other planters, was exempted from service in the Confederate Army. He, Carrie, their two surviving children, and a handful of slaves - the remaining 30-odd slaves having been sent South to family plantations in Louisiana and Alabama - remained at Carnton. John was given the honorary title of "Colonel."

The war came to Franklin, and near Carnton, twice; first in 1863, and then in 1864, during the second Battle of Franklin, the battle that would immortalize the McGavocks and Carnton as a shrine to the Confederate dead.

The second Battle of Franklin was fought right in the McGavock's backyard - less than a mile from the house - on November 30, 1864. Confederate General John Bell Hood's troops met those of Union General John McAllister Schofield in a bloody battle that dealt the Confederates a severe blow; Hood's Confederate Army of Tennessee counted 7,000 men as casualties, among them 1,700 dead, while Schofield counted 2,300, with only around 200 dead.

Like many homes in the area, Carnton was used as a hospital after the battle. However, Carnton's size meant that the plantation was host to more casualties than any other home in the area. As the battle wound down, hundreds of wounded men were brought to Carnton.

It has been estimated that at least 300 men were cared for inside the Carnton home, and that countless many more were cared for on the extensive grounds outside the house, in tents or in slave quarters, and in many cases, on the cold ground.

It was a horrific scene for Carrie McGavock and her children to witness, and to become a part of; McGavock and her children assisted in the care of the men brought to their home, a home that is stained today with the blood of the men who were brought there, blood that was soaked up by the lush carpets, only to stain the wood floors beneath. Carrie McGavock's dresses were reportedly stained with blood at the hem for days to come, and the nursery became an operating room, with amputated limbs thrown out the window to stack a story high against the house.

Some 150 men died that first night at Carnton, for months, the McGavock family cared for others who remained in their home. Carrie McGavock nursed the men herself, changing bandages, tending to fevers, and writing letters home.

Carnton Plantation and the "Widow of the South" - the True Story, pt. 2

The second Battle of Franklin Tennessee in late November of 1864 took its toll on the citizens of Franklin. Many had offered their homes as hospitals for the wounded, while others had assisted with the burial of the dead. Few, however, made the sacrifices that the McGavock family of Carnton Plantation had.

Hundreds of dead had been brought to Carnton following the battle. Wounded men were placed on the Greek Revival porches of the sumptuous Carnton home, slave quarters were turned into makeshift hospital tents, and the grounds of the home were populated with tents holding injured soldiers, while others still were laid on the grounds themselves. Colonel John McGavock and his wife Carrie saw to the welfare of around 300 men in their own home-turned-hospital. Carrie McGavock and her children tended the wounded, even assisting in surgery. For months after the battle, convalescing soldiers remained in the McGavock home, recuperating under the care of the McGavock family.

Carnton's grounds were soaked with blood, as was the house; the nursery, which had been turned into an operating room, was stained with blood thereafter.

The thousands of men who perished during the Battle of Franklin had posed a difficult problem for the residents of Franklin. Federal troops had buried their dead two to a grave near the Federal breastworks; however, most of their dead were moved, either by family members who took them to their own cemeteries or by the military, who reinterred them at the Stones River National Cemetery in Murfreesboro.

The Confederate dead met a different fate. Almost all of the approximately 1,750 Confederate dead had been identified and buried shortly after the battle, their graves marked with wooden markers that listed the name, rank, regiment and company of the soldier. Most of these men were buried at on two local farms.

By 1866, these makeshift graveyards were deteriorating. The wooden markers were becoming illegible, and some had been stolen from the graves. However, there was another, more pressing problem - the land on which these men had been laid to rest was desperately needed for farm land.

The McGavocks donated two acres of the property at Carnton as a permanent cemetery for the Confederate dead. Along with the citizens of Franklin, the McGavocks raised money to exhume and reinter nearly 1,500 of these soldiers to the land they'd set aside for the cemetery. A local man named George Cuppert was hired for the job, his pay \$5.00 for each soldier moved.

Cuppert, his brother Marcellus, and two others spent ten weeks in the spring and summer of 1866 on the task of moving these graves. Marcellus, who died during the process, was buried in the new cemetery. George Cuppert kept the information about each soldier moved in a cemetery book, which he turned over to Carrie McGavock after the process was complete.

After the establishment of the cemetery, Carrie McGavock dedicated the remainder of her life to caring for the cemetery, corresponding with family members of the dead who were buried there, keeping records of the identities of those in the cemetery, and seeing to it that the cemetery did not fall into disrepair.

McGavock and her dedication to the cemetery gave her both national prominence and a national identity - "the Widow of the South." Her renown was such that when Oscar Wilde visited the U.S. in 1882, he insisted upon visiting "sunny Tennessee to meet the Widow McGavock, the high priestess of dead boys."

After the death of Carrie McGavock, the plantation house at Carnton began to deteriorate. However, the cemetery remained a local concern, and the Franklin Chapter of the United Daughters of the Confederacy has maintained the cemetery since 1905, the year of McGavock's death. By the late 1970s, Carnton Plantation was nearly condemnable due to its advanced state of disrepair, but in 1978, the Carnton Association was formed to care for and restore the home. Today, it is a museum, on the National Register of Historic Places, and is open to the public, who can see the Widow of the South's home and her book of the dead.

Newspapers During the Civil War

It's hard to imagine a time before television news and radio news, not to mention news on the Internet, but during the Civil War, citizens had to rely on two major sources of news - word of mouth and newspapers.

Although word of mouth was the most expedient source of news about the war, newspapers provided citizens and soldiers alike with the most detailed accounts of war that had ever been published in America or in any other country for that matter. New printing technologies allowed newspapers and magazines alike to publish another new technology - photographs. The advent of the telegraph made news from the front lines of the war available to the press room in minutes rather than days or weeks. Newspapers provided a tangible account of a war that developed by the day.

By the time the Civil War began in 1860, newspapers had expanded from the large cities in the northeast to almost all major cities throughout the United States, and even into some smaller towns, where an enterprising publisher could set up a press.

However, at the outset of the war, most newspapers were still yet unequipped to cover the war. Not only was the Civil War one of the most geographically large wars fought to the time, but the sheer numbers of those involved made the task mind-boggling. Although most of the larger papers, such as The New York Herald, The New York Times and Harper's Weekly had Washington correspondents, few had ever employed correspondents for the wide expanse of country the war encompassed. Thus a new position in the American newspaper office was born - the war correspondent.

War correspondents were sent out to the front lines, along with special artists, who until photographs became widely used toward the end of the war, sketched the action. These brave writers and artists experienced the same harsh conditions of life in a military camp as the soldiers did.

The ability of newspapers to get information from the front lines was often troubling for officers and others in positions of authority during the war. At various times, newspapers were censored for fear that the news they reported would be used by the enemy to advance their cause. This was more a problem in the North than in the South for obvious reasons - the South had had fewer major newspapers before the war, and blockades had resulted in such a shortage of paper, ink, and other supplies necessary that many papers shut down, never to reopen. But in the North, the threat of the press was taken in hand; Lincoln himself feared the repercussions of newspapers that were either opposed to the war or sympathetic to the Confederate cause, and suppressed many of these papers.

But Lincoln's courting of editors that supported his cause sometimes came back to haunt him, as is the case of his supporter Horace Greeley, of the New York Tribune, whom, in an effort to stir up support for the Union, undoubtedly contributed to the battles at Bull Run, which were both notorious losses for the Federal Army.

By far the most popular newspaper during the Civil War era was Harper's Weekly. Harper's was one of the more even-handed newspapers, due mostly to its popularity in the South. Although the paper supported Lincoln and the Union, it still reported with disinterest, and remained a mainstay of the Southern household during the war.

Aside from its impartiality, Harper's circulation of more than 200,000 during the Civil War era is attributable to the fact that the paper employed some of the most distinguished writers and artists of the

time. Political cartoonist Thomas Nast was a mainstay of Harper's, as was artist Winslow Homer. Other notable artists who contributed to Harper's during the Civil War era include Theodore R. Davis, Henry Mosler, and the brothers Alfred Waud and William Waud.

Newspapers were the most reliable source of news during Civil War America. While newspapers served the citizens of the time well, they are also an invaluable resource for historians who study the war, providing insight not only into the actions of the war, but into the popular opinion of the war, as well.

Demon Rum - Alcohol, Drugs, and the Civil War

If there is any place on God's fair earth where wickedness 'stalketh abroad in daylight' it is in the army." a Confederate soldier, in a letter to his family

General William Tecumseh Sherman's declaration that "war is all hell" was never more true than when applied to the Civil War. A long, bloody, and tiresome war for those who were pressed into service, the Civil War proved to be so stressful to many that they sought comfort from a bottle. Whether a bottle of whisky or a bottle of opium, drug and alcohol abuse was a fact of life for many during the Civil War era, and that number included several of the most renowned heroes of the war. An often overlooked fact of the war, alcohol and drug use were nevertheless an influential, if sometimes disregarded, factor in the war.

Drinking in the Camp

There is some of the onerest men here that I ever saw, and the most swearing and card playing and fitin [fighting] and drunkenness that I ever saw at any place. An astonished recruit in a letter home.

Life in a military camp during the Civil War bred as much drunkenness as it did lice; when not engaged in battle, Union and Confederate soldiers alike had little to do aside from drill, and when drill was over, entertained themselves with other pursuits - pursuits that often involved alcohol. Although the U.S. Army forbade enlisted men to purchase alcohol, and punished those who were caught, this did little to deter determined soldiers from acquiring alcohol. Sometimes bringing the contraband into camp required creativity; one Mississippi company sneaked whisky into camp guards in a watermelon rind, which they buried in their tent. More enterprising soldiers simply made their own. Moonshine stills were easily hidden in the wooded areas of a camp, and one recipe for liquor concocted by Union soldiers included such hearty ingredients as turpentine and lamp oil, flavored with brown sugar.

The propensity of soldiers to pass the time with drink led Confederate General Braxton Bragg to lament:

We have lost more valuable lives at the hands of whiskey sellers than by the balls of our enemies.

Drinking - and Drug Use - by Officers

Grant stood by me when I was crazy, and I stood by him when he was drunk...William T. Sherman

Officers in both the U.S. and Confederate Armies were not prohibited from the purchase of alcohol, and a few made for poor examples when it came to barring enlisted men from drinking.

Probably the most famous example of an officer with a drinking problem was that of General Ulysses S. Grant, whose tendency toward overindulging was well-known - and well-documented - by the time of his service during the Civil War. While reports that his drunkenness contributed to the losses at Shiloh are unfounded, there are many other documented instances of his reliance on alcohol throughout the course of the war. Sylvanus Cadwallar, a newspaper reporter who followed Grant's staff during 1863, wrote of several incidents in which Grant was apparently inebriated while on the job. However, after 1863, there are few stories of Grant's drunkenness that can be substantiated.

Another Union general whose propensity for drink tarnished his reputation was Joseph Hooker, whose exploits were known throughout the country. Hooker's name has long been associated with the nickname for prostitutes, due in part to the fact that his tendency to overindulge in both whisky and

women hounded him throughout his service during the war. Hooker's headquarters in Falmouth, earned a reputation as a den of iniquity, prompting one observer to describe it as a combination of a "bar-room and a brothel."

Confederate general James Longstreet was known for the drinking and gambling that went on in his headquarters early on in the war; however, after the death of his son in late 1861, Longstreet seems to have settled down.

Another Confederate general, John Bell Hood, has been the subject of suspected drug use during his service in the war. Several sources attributed Hood's less-than-stellar performances on the battlefield to an addiction to laudanum, taken to ease constant pain from injuries he sustained at Gettysburg and Chickamauga. His loss at the second Battle of Franklin has been attributed to the fact that he was taking laudanum, which is a tincture of opium.

Alcohol and drugs are part of the secret history of the Civil War, the one not found in textbooks. Enlisted men and officers alike sought to dull physical and psychic pains associated with the war in drink or drugs, a fact that few realize.

Braxton Bragg

Regardless of one's personal feelings about the factors that created the Confederacy, it is difficult to deny the accomplishments of the military officers of the Confederacy. No one would argue that Robert E. Lee and Stonewall Jackson were not impressive military generals, or that J.E.B. Stuart or P.G.T. Beauregard was not as fine in battle as anyone the U.S. Army had to offer. What, then, accounts for the tarnished reputation of Braxton Bragg, the eighth-highest ranking officer in the Confederate Army who is nonetheless remembered as the Confederate Army's biggest liability?

Braxton Bragg's career started off much like those of the other major Confederate military officers. After graduating from West Point in 1837 - fifth in his class - Bragg was commissioned a second lieutenant, and served admirably in the Second Seminole War and the Mexican-American War, where he moved up the ranks quickly. However, he made enemies on his way up; it is rumored that some of the men in his command attempted twice to assassinate him, and once a 12 pound artillery shell was exploded beneath his cot.

Bragg's querulous nature no doubt played a part in the attempts on his life, and certainly made those who served with him resentful. In 1856 Bragg no doubt relieved many by retiring from the Army to take up the life of a sugar planter in Louisiana, a retirement that came to an early end in 1861 at the beginning of the Civil War.

A strict disciplinarian and even stricter interpreter of military rules and regulations, Bragg whipped his Louisiana regiment into shape, over the no doubt loud and lusty complaints of his men, and soon gained the rank of major general. In 1862 he was given command of the Army of Tennessee, and his descent began.

Bragg's first misstep as commanding general of the Army of Tennessee was a failed invasion of Kentucky. His retreat into Tennessee by way of a circuitous route that took his army through the treacherous pass at Cumberland Gap culminated in an almost-victory at Stones River, which again resulted in Bragg withdrawing his troops and ceding ground to the Union.

By this time the battle-timid, irascible Bragg was becoming unpopular with his men, two of whom, Generals Leonidas Polk and William Hardee, embarked upon a letter writing campaign to have Bragg removed from command. Although this attempt failed, it just the beginning of the insubordination Bragg would face from Polk, Hardee, and others.

As the war in Tennessee moved closer to Union General Rosecrans stronghold in Chattanooga, Bragg began to see the effects of his feud with his subordinates. Generals D.H. Hill and Polk both refused to follow orders from Bragg that could have helped defeat Rosecrans sooner rather than later. However, Bragg and General Longstreet prevailed over Rosecrans at Chickamauga, and Bragg used the victory to divest himself of both Polk and Hill, who were transferred to other units.

But true to form, Bragg refused to pursue the Union forces and run them out of Chattanooga, and the battle within the Confederate ranks began, with the defeat of Bragg the ultimate goal.

The dissent that existed between Bragg and his subordinates was such that Lieutenant General James Longstreet lamented that "nothing but the hand of God can save us or help us as long as we have our present commander." The brash and outspoken Nathan Bedford Forrest, never one to mince words, told Bragg, regarding his refusal to go after the Union troops after Chickamauga, "you have played the part

of a damned scoundrel. ... If you ever again try to interfere with me or cross my path it will be at the peril of your life."

Bragg's career as a commanding officer was short-lived after these incidents. He ended up in Richmond as Jefferson Davis' military advisor, going back into the field to attempt to save Fort Fisher, the last major stronghold of the Confederacy, and nearly losing it to Union General Kinston, as well.

There are historians who would argue that Bragg was a victim of the vociferous complaints of more popular generals who have been widely admired in the years since, or that Bragg's less-than generous nature, which made him unpopular with his subordinates, has tainted his legacy. While there may be truth to both arguments, the fact is that Bragg simply was not as outstanding a general as Lee, Jackson, or even Stuart or A.P. Hill. In a pantheon of heroes such is the tableau of the Confederate Army, a fair-to-middling officer such as was Bragg is simply outflanked.

The "Lost" State of Nickajack

The divisions in American that resulted in the Civil War were hardly drawn at the Mason-Dixon line. While divisive opinions about slavery abounded throughout the United States, and to an extent the Confederacy, the issue of secession caused more disagreement throughout the South than slavery did. For these "Unionists," as they became known, whether or not slavery was constitutionally mandated was beside the point - once a part of the United States, there was no turning back, no secession.

Although support for a nascent Confederacy was strong in many of the Southern states during the Secession Crisis of 1860-1861, this support was hardly unanimous. A significant number of Southerners felt that secession was either illegal or unnecessary, of this number, there were those who felt that secession would never truly come to fruition. Others still, those who did not own slaves or perhaps did not support the institution of slavery, were opposed to secession from the Union on the grounds that the inevitable outcome would be a "rich man's war and a poor man's fight."

As the threats of secession became reality in many Southern states, those who did not support the Confederacy reacted with hostility - and ingenuity. In areas where these Unionists were plenty, attempts to rejoin the Union often flourished.

While the most famous example of this dissention is the state of West Virginia, which was formed at the outset of the war by disenfranchised citizens of the western part of Virginia who wanted no part of secession, there were other instances throughout the South of towns and even regions attempting to secede from their seceded home state.

One such example was the proposed state of Nickajack. A geographic area composed of parts of Southeast Tennessee and North Alabama, Nickajack was home to many Southern Unionists who resisted the yoke of the Confederacy and attempted to form their own state - to be called Nickajack - from parts of both states.

The residents of these parts of Alabama and Tennessee had little in common with the wealthier parts of the state. Plantations and slaves were scarce in the Nickajack region, as was agriculture such as was found in the central and southern parts of Alabama and the central and western parts of Tennessee. Not surprisingly, there was little support for secession or the Confederacy in the Nickajack region.

In both Alabama and Tennessee there were those who fought actively to prevent secession. In Alabama, the convention to debate secession was thrown in the favor of the central and southern regions, which had larger populations due to the number of slaves in area, and thus had more delegates. Northern Alabama delegates fought to have the decision of whether or not to secede put to popular vote, knowing that it was possible that a popular vote would defeat secession - while the population of central and southern Alabama was larger, the mostly-white northern region accounted for more votes. However, a popular vote never came to pass, and Alabama ultimately seceded.

In Tennessee, the agonizing decision of whether or not to secede did come to a popular vote, and passed by a slim margin. In East Tennessee, where secession and slavery alike were not widely supported, this was a bitter blow. On two occasions, representatives from 26 pro-Union counties in East Tennessee met to discuss seceding from the state, going as far as to petition the state legislature. What they got instead of independence was Confederate occupation.

Back in Alabama, one county in the Nickajack region, Winston County, refused to join the Confederacy. County representative to the Alabama secession convention, schoolteacher Christopher Sheats, refused to sign Alabama's order of secession, and was arrested, but Winston County's steadfast refusal to accept the Confederacy persisted, resulting in what was referred to as "the Free State of Winston."

While the state of Nickajack never became a reality, the citizens who lived in these and other areas where support for the Confederacy was scarce found themselves fighting a war that they never wanted, often in their own towns and homes. One can only wonder how the history of the war - and of the United States - would have been different if the state of Nickajack had been admitted to the Union.

"Worth His Weight in Gold:" Philip Henry Sheridan - pt. 1

A brown, chunky little chap, with a long body, short legs, not enough neck to hang him, and such long arms that if his ankles itch he can scratch them without stooping. Abraham Lincoln, describing Philip Henry Sheridan

Philip Henry Sheridan, or "Little Phil" as the 5 feet 5 inch tall officer came to be known, came out of relative obscurity toward the end of the Civil War to become one of the heroes of the Union effort. Succeeding where many older and more distinguished men had failed, Sheridan was able to assist in rousing the long-suffering Army of the Potomac into action and help General Ulysses S. Grant to defeat General Robert E. Lee and the Confederate Army of Northern Virginia.

Born in New York to Irish immigrant parents, Philip Henry Sheridan grew up in Ohio. In 1848, he began his military career at West Point. His years at West Point were not without controversy; during his third year, Sheridan was suspended for fighting with a classmate whom he'd previously threatened to bayonet. This scuffle, the result of some real or perceived insult to Sheridan, resulted in delaying his graduation by a year. He left West Point in 1853, graduating 34th of 52 cadets.

After graduation, Sheridan was brevetted into the U.S. Army, where he experienced combat in the Rouge River and Yakima Indian wars.

Brigadiers scarce; good ones scarce. ... The undersigned respectfully beg that you will obtain the promotion of Sheridan. He is worth his weight in gold Letter written by Sheridan's division, recommending him for promotion

Promoted to the rank of captain shortly after Fort Sumter, Sheridan served bravely though without distinction during the first year of the war. However, the tide turned at the very end of 1862, when at Stones River, Sheridan's command of his division greatly aided the Union's defense in the face of a Confederate push. The result was that Sheridan was promoted to major general.

Sheridan plowed on through 1863 in Tennessee, seeing action at the Battle of Chickamauga and the Battle of Chattanooga. But by early 1864, Sheridan would find himself in Virginia, handpicked to lead the cavalry arm of the most beleaguered of all the Union armies - the Army of the Potomac.

One of newly-minted General-in-Chief of Federal Armies Ulysses S. Grant's first moves in his new position was to attempt to shore up the deplorable Army of the Potomac, which had suffered under the guidance of generals including George McClellan, Joseph Hooker, and Ambrose Burnside. While Grant gave overall command of the Army of the Potomac to General George Meade, he put Sheridan in command of the Cavalry Corps.

Sheridan often clashed with Meade, and his actions as a general in charge of a corps whose primary focus was intelligence and reconnaissance were often in question, but there is no doubt that by the time he moved on, the Army of the Potomac had been re-energized, and his reputation, due mostly to the fact that his command was responsible for the death of Confederate General J.E.B. Stuart at Yellow Tavern, was on the rise.

The people should be informed that so long as an army can subsist among them recurrences of these raids must be expected, and we are determined to stop them at all hazards. ... Give the enemy no rest ... Do all the damage to railroads and crops you can. Carry off stock of all descriptions, and negroes, so as to prevent further planting. If the war is to last another year, we want the Shenandoah Valley to remain a barren waste. Grant to Sheridan upon giving him command of the Army of the Shenandoah

Grant was well-pleased with Sheridan's performance in the Army of the Potomac, so much that when he mustered an Army of the Shenandoah, he appointed Sheridan its commanding general, despite complaints from many that Sheridan was too young and inexperienced for the job.

Sheridan soon proved his detractors wrong. Although he organized his operation slowly, by September, Sheridan had defeated the Confederate's man in Shenandoah, Jubal Anderson Early, no less than twice. However, defeating his enemy meant more to Sheridan than just meeting on the battlefield; Sheridan began Grant's "total war" plan in Shenandoah before Sherman's infamous March to the Sea burned through Georgia. Sheridan and his men embarked upon what would become known by citizens there as "The Burning," commandeering livestock and provisions, burning barns and mills, tearing up railroads, looting civilians, and leaving over 400 square miles of the lush Shenandoah Valley a burnt waste.

When not engaged in burning and looting, Sheridan led his men to victory against Early and his Confederate troops at Winchester, a victory that, coming so close to the election, was credited with assisting Lincoln in securing a second term as president and made Sheridan the hero of song and poem. Sheridan received both Lincoln's thanks and a promotion which made him the fourth ranking general in the Army, behind only Grant, Sherman, and Meade.

But Sheridan's finest days in the service of the Union Army, and his final descent were still ahead.

"Worth His Weight in Gold:" Philip Henry Sheridan - pt. 2

Feeling that the war was nearing its end, I desired my cavalry to be in at the death. Sheridan on his desire to rejoin the Army of the Potomac

With both Jubal Early and most of the civilians in the Shenandoah Valley still choking on the smoke of "The Burning," General Philip Henry Sheridan, sensing that the tide of the war was turning toward the destruction of Robert E. Lee and the Army of Northern Virginia, took his men to Petersburg, rejoining the Army of the Potomac. Once again the Army of the Potomac would bask in the glory of "Little Phil," as it was during this stint with the Army of the Potomac that Sheridan's reputation as a hero was secured, as he managed to bring down not only Jubal Early's men, but Lee and the Army of Northern Virginia, as well.

Sheridan wasted no time resting on his Winchester laurels as he ventured to Petersburg. At the Battle of Waynesboro, he forced 1,500 of Early's men to surrender. Less than month later, he forced Lee to flee Petersburg. Only days later, at the Battle of Sayler's Creek, Sheridan dealt Lee a final, crushing blow by capturing almost a quarter of his remaining men.

It is possible that Sheridan can be credited with the surrender of Lee at Appomattox Court House. On April 8, 1865, Sheridan and his men trapped Lee at Appomattox Court House, resulting in the surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia. The day before, Lincoln had sent Grant a telegram that read: "Gen. Sheridan says 'If the thing is pressed I think that Lee will surrender.' Let the thing be pressed."

With Sheridan at the forefront, the Army of the Potomac had finally managed to defeat an enemy that despite being outnumbered, undersupplied, and vastly overworked, had proven elusive for four years. Much of the glory went to Sheridan, whose actions were seen as elemental to the final defeat of the Army of Northern Virginia and the end of the war.

I believe General Sheridan has no superior as a general, either living or dead, and perhaps not an equal U.S. Grant

Sheridan's military career was still fairly young at the end of the Civil War, and Sheridan was not content to bask in the glow of his Civil War victories. He continued to serve in the U.S. Army, but in the end, perhaps did his career and his reputation more harm than good.

Within a year after Lee's surrender, Sheridan commanded 50,000 in on the Mexican border of Texas to destroy France's Napoleon III's puppet regime in Mexico. Although the military effort at the border that Sheridan helmed was felt to be a success, Sheridan later admitted to arming Mexican resistance fighter Benito Juarez and his men.

During 1866-1867, Sheridan served as the military governor of the Reconstruction governments in Texas and Louisiana, a period that was marked by controversy. He removed several local officers, replacing them with Republican officers more sympathetic to the Reconstruction politics. He fell afoul of President Andrew Johnson for these and other moves, and Johnson removed him, stating that "[Sheridan's] rule has, in fact, been one of absolute tyranny, without references to the principles of our government or the nature of our free institutions."

Following his dismissal, Grant appointed Sheridan to the Department of the Missouri, in order for Sheridan to tamp down the Indian uprisings that were threatening to result in outright war. Vastly undermanned, Sheridan resorted to the tactics he'd used during the Shenandoah campaign, looting and killing in order to bring fear and submission to the tribes.

Not content to bully the Native Americans onto their reservations, Sheridan felt compelled to nearly destroy the whole Native American society. His disregard for their culture or even their livelihood was obvious; Sheridan's policies regarding hunting in the Great Plains destroyed the bison population and in doing so the Native Americans' food source. Although accepted at the time, Sheridan's actions in the Department of the Missouri have come to be viewed as racist and inflammatory, and have thus poisoned his legacy.

Yet Sheridan's post-Civil War career was notable for one achievement that is a national landmark - Yellowstone National Park. The preservation of the natural landscape in the Yellowstone region became an important cause for Sheridan, and he was almost single-handedly responsible for the protection of the area that resulted in the national park.

Philip Henry Sheridan was a man of contradictions - one who fought valiantly against slavery, but sought to destroy the Native Americans, one who resented the heavy hand of superiors such as General George Meade but ruled Reconstruction-era Texas and Louisiana with just as heavy a hand. His is a tainted, but altogether fascinating legacy.

The Confederados

The supporters of the Confederacy found the post-Civil War South a hostile environment indeed. For those of the planter class, the bottom rail was on top. Most were financially ruined by the war. The slaves on whom they had depended to work their land were gone, or, if they stayed, now had the right to be paid wages. Others had no need to worry about slaves to work their properties, because their properties had been seized by the Federal government or lost to creditors. For the men who had served in the Confederate Army as officers, their rights as citizens were stripped.

It is not surprising, then, that as many as 4,000-9,000 of these disenfranchised Southerners took Emperor Dom Pedro II of Brazil up on his offer to relocate to Brazil and cultivate cotton there, and despite being advised by no less than General Robert E. Lee himself against it, set out for South America in search of what they'd lost to the war.

The offer seemed lucrative enough. Dom Pedro, who was interested in expanding cotton cultivation in Brazil, offered the potential immigrants passage to South America, land grants, and tax breaks. For many, it was not just the financial benefits that relocation to Brazil offered that made the proposition so attractive; faced with submitting to Federal occupation of their homelands and governmental rule that they no doubt found oppressive, the prospect of beginning anew in Brazil seemed preferable.

It has been suggested that those who emigrated from the South to South America did so because slavery was still an institution in Brazil; however, evidence has found that few of those who relocated were slave owners.

Once settled in Brazil, most of the Confederados, as they became known, became Brazilian citizens, and settled throughout the country, but mostly near Sao Paulo, even lending their name to the city Americana.

The first Confederado whose settlement in Brazil is on record was Colonel William H. Norris, who brought around 30 Alabama families to Santa Bárbara D'Oeste to what is sometimes referred to as the Norris Colony.

It is interesting to note that Norris, like most of the men who relocated to Brazil, was a Freemason; in fact, it was through his Freemasonry contacts that Dom Pedro was able to make the offer of relocation to those who emigrated to Brazil.

Life in Brazil required an adjustment for those who emigrated. The locals were often hostile, and diseases such as smallpox and malaria plagued the emigrants. A large number of the thousands who came did not stay long.

However, those who did stay often prospered. The colonies of Confederados in Brazil were by and large successful. The Norris Colony was one of these successes; others included the plantations held by the Domm and Hastings families, who both had thousands of acres of land in cultivation of cotton and other crops, probably as much or more land as they would have had in America.

The Confederados brought much to Brazil. Their modern cotton cultivation techniques achieved Dom Pedro's goal of increasing cultivation, but the Confederados also introduced new food crops like watermelon and pecans to the region. They also introduced farming implements that had been unknown to that time to Brazil, including the steel plow and American-style wagons. Education and religion in

the areas of Brazil where Confederados settled were also affected, as public schools and colleges were created and included both females, slaves, and freedmen.

By the end of the 19th Century, many of the Confederados who'd settled in Brazil had returned to the U.S., where Reconstruction's grip had loosened, and the scars of the war were beginning to heal. However, a number of Confederados remained in South America, adapting to the Brazilian culture, intermarrying with locals, and begetting descendants who would be more Brazilian than Confederado.

The story of the Confederados is one of the most interesting, but less-known stories of the effect of the war and Reconstruction on the South. While many of these Confederados returned home, it was not without leaving their mark on South America.

The Conspiracy

If all the pieces had fallen into place, it could have changed the political landscape of American history, if not the world. If the plan would have worked, it could have been one of the most complete political coups in history.

While the assassination of Abraham Lincoln is one of the best known events in American history, it was only one part of a larger plan by John Wilkes Booth that has been largely forgotten, a plan to overthrow the United States government and give the defeated Confederacy the opportunity to shore up their resources and possibly win a war that had already for all intents and purposes ended.

Booth's original plan was not to kill Lincoln, but rather to kidnap him and exchange him for the Confederate prisoners of war that fervent Confederate supporter Booth believed would be important to the continuing Confederate war effort. However, his plans to kidnap Lincoln fell through more than once, and after attending Lincoln's second inauguration in March of 1865, he realized that killing Lincoln would be even easier than kidnapping him, and he began to formulate a new plan.

The new plan that Booth hatched with his conspirators in the original kidnapping plot, Samuel Arnold, George Atzerodt, David Herold, Michael O'Laughlen, Lewis Powell and John Surratt, would be much more disruptive to the U.S. government. This time, Booth decided that in order to effect any sort of real revolution, others would have to be assassinated as well, and included General Ulysses S. Grant, Vice President Andrew Johnson, and Secretary of State William Seward.

On April 14, 1865, Booth realized that he had the perfect opportunity to do away with President Lincoln and General Grant. He learned that Lincoln and General Grant would be at the Ford Theatre that night, attending a performance of the play *Our American Cousin*. Lincoln and Grant would be in Booth's territory; a fairly popular actor himself, Booth was familiar with the layout of the Ford Theatre.

With the ideal conditions for assassinating Lincoln at hand, Booth decided that the best plan of action would be to orchestrate the simultaneous assassinations of Lincoln, Grant, Johnson, and Seward; disposing of all four of these important government figures in one night would create enough disruption in Washington to allow the revival of the Confederacy.

It is almost shocking how little preparation that Booth and his conspirators had before the planned assassinations. With less than four hours to spare, Booth met with his band of infidels and plotted their courses of action. He ordered Powell to kill Seward, At 7 o'clock that night Booth met with his fellow conspirators. Booth assigned Powell to kill Seward and Atzerodt to kill Johnson. Herold, a former apothecary's assistant who'd delivered to many of the government's residences in the city, was to take Powell to Seward's residence, then out of the city to Maryland, where he would meet Booth. All the assassinations were to take place just after 10 p.m.

The details of Lincoln's assassination are well-known; however, it is worth noting that Grant escaped harm, leaving the city with his wife earlier that day. The other assassination attempts have been neglected by history.

Of the others whom Booth planned to murder, only Seward was actually injured. Powell took advantage of the fact that Seward had been seriously injured in a carriage accident shortly before the attempt on his life, and was bedridden. Posing as a messenger from Seward's physician, Powell gained entrance into Seward's home, where he attacked both Seward, stabbing him several times, and Seward's

son. In the melee, he also injured several other members of the Seward household, none seriously. Despite his multiple stab wounds, Seward was not critically injured, nor was his son, Frederick. Powell escaped into the night, screaming "I'm mad, I'm mad!"

Vice-President Andrew Johnson was probably never aware until after the fact that any attempt on his life had been planned. Atzerodt had entertained second thoughts about assassinating Johnson, even telling Booth that he'd only agreed to kidnapping, not murder. Booth insisted to Atzerodt that it was too late to turn back, but with little success; although Atzerodt went to the hotel where Johnson was staying, he got drunk in the hotel bar and changed his mind, discarding the knife he'd been given to complete the deed with.

Booth's assassination of Lincoln changed the course of American history, but it is almost impossible to imagine what course the country would have taken had all the assassinations that Booth had planned for that night been successful.

Hired Soldiers - Substitutes During the Civil War

When the Civil War began, there was no shortage of able bodied men who volunteered for service in both the U.S. Army and the Confederate Army. Eager to show their patriotism, convinced that their cause would be victorious in a matter of months at the most, men gathered in cities and towns throughout America to form volunteer regiments, clamoring to assist in the war effort.

However, by late 1862 and early 1863, the patriotic fervor that had characterized the war effort early on was wearing thin in both the Confederacy and the United States, and finding men to replenish the armies of both nations was becoming difficult. Those who wanted to serve were already engaged; those who did not had either refused to serve, or, having volunteered and found the experience to be much more arduous than it seemed at first, had deserted or refused to re-enlist. This necessitated instituting a draft to choose men for service, and, in both the North and the South, the practice of hiring substitutes to serve in the place of those who were called and did not want to serve.

Long before the United States began the draft process, the Confederate Congress had allowed men to forgo service in the Confederate Army if they met certain occupational criteria - criteria that mostly exempted owners of large plantations or other enterprises, leading to the phrase "rich man's war, poor man's fight" to describe the Confederate war effort. Southern men who did not meet exemption criteria but whom were otherwise able to fight often hired substitutes to serve for them. Yet by 1863, exemptions were outlawed in the Confederacy, where men willing to fight were becoming too scarce to exempt from service. This practice was just beginning, however, it's travel north.

When the draft laws - known as the Enrollment Act - were first placed on the books in the United States in 1863, they allowed for two methods for avoiding the draft - substitution or commutation. A man who found his name called in the draft lotteries that chose men for mandatory service could either pay a commutation fee of \$300, which exempted him from service during this draft lottery, but not necessarily for future draft lotteries, or he could provide a substitute, which would exempt him from service throughout the duration of the war.

With the Enrollment Act, the Civil War truly began to be known as a rich man's war and a poor man's fight throughout the entire nation. The \$300 commutation fee was an enormous sum of money for most city laborers or rural farmers, and the cost of hiring a substitute was even higher, often reaching \$1000 or more.

In small towns where the potential loss of their entire population of able-bodied men became an imminent possibility, taxes and other means were raised in order to pay commutation fees, and, as commutation was outlawed, substitutes. These "bounties," as the fees were called, would pay substitutes in lieu of townsmen.

The practice of hiring substitutes for military service took hold quickly in the North, becoming much more widespread than it had ever been in the South. For one thing, there was a much larger pool of men to draw from; immigrants that flowed into the ports of the North, even in a time of war, provided a large number of the substitutes hired by those who did not wish to serve. As the duration of the war lengthened, African-American soldiers, who'd thus far been only nominally accepted by the U.S. Army

as viable soldiers, also became part of the pool of potential substitutes; many of the recruitment posters from the time explicitly solicit African-Americans for substitution.

Although the hiring of substitutes seems mercenary, and in many cases, resulted in the desertion of the substitute, many who went to war as hired men went because they were unable to enlist through the regular channels. This included the recent immigrants who were anxious to fight for their new country, and, importantly, the African-Americans who found going to war as substitutes the only way to fight for their freedom. For these men, the war was indeed a "rich man's war and a poor man's fight," but from the perspective that poor men were more willing to fight for the possibilities they saw in their country.

Clement Laird Vallandigham - the Man Without a Country

It is a fallacy to believe that the entire Northern part of the United States supported the Civil War and President Abraham Lincoln. Copperheads, or Northerners who did not support the war, were a voice of dissidence for much of the war, and no Copperhead was as vocal or dissident as Clement Laird Vallandigham, an Ohio newspaperman and politician.

Born in New Lisbon, Ohio, Vallandigham became a successful attorney who used his success to win election to the Ohio House of Representatives in 1845 and 1846. After moving to Dayton in 1847, he purchased a half-interest in the Dayton Empire. Although he was defeated as a Democrat in congressional elections in 1852 and 1854, he was returned to the House of Representatives after a contested election in 1858. Vallandigham made no bones about his support for state rights, and backed Stephen Douglas in 1860.

Vallandigham opposed the Civil War, which he blamed on Abraham Lincoln and the Radical Republicans. With the support of Ohio citizens who also opposed the war, Vallandigham consistently voted against war measures including the Enrollment Act. As result, he lost the support of the more moderate Democrats, and his congressional district.

Setting his sights on the Ohio governorship, Vallandigham began to campaign for office, but lost the Democrat nomination due to his anti-war stance and the mistaken belief that he actively supported the Confederacy.

Ever the opportunist, Vallandigham seized an imminent opportunity. Only days after Major General Ambrose Burnside issued orders forbidding expression of sympathy for the Confederacy, Vallandigham took up the stump in Columbus, making derogatory statements about President Lincoln and condemning the war effort, all in hopes of being arrested under General Order Number 38. He didn't have long to wait; within a matter of days, Vallandigham was arrested.

Vallandigham was arrested on May 5; by May 7, he'd been tried by a military court, denied habeas corpus, and sentenced to two years in a military prison. Lincoln, however, took it upon himself to commute Vallandigham's sentence in a novel way - he banished him to the Confederacy. Vallandigham was promptly taken to Murfreesboro, Tennessee, and dropped behind enemy lines.

Ohio did not take well to Vallandigham's ordeal. On June 11, the Ohio Democrats who'd previously denied him candidacy voted 411-11 to nominate him for governor, and thus began one of the most outrageous and entertaining escapades of the entire war.

No doubt aided by the Confederates who'd unwittingly got him in this mess, Vallandigham was escorted to Wilmington, North Carolina, one of the few remaining open ports in the Confederacy. From there he sailed to Bermuda. From Bermuda, on to Canada, where he arrived at Niagara Falls, Ontario on the fifth of July. He campaigned mightily for the Ohio governor's position from Ontario, while candidate for lieutenant governor George Pugh did the legwork in Ohio. President Lincoln himself became involved in the campaign, supporting Republican candidate John Brough while dismissing the sketchy legality of Vallandigham's military arrest and trial, putting the icing on the cake by stating that to vote for Vallandigham was in essence "a discredit to the country."

Apparently, Vallandigham's ordeal won him more sympathy than votes - he was defeated by Brough by a margin of over 100,000 votes.

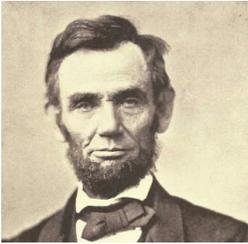
Once Brough was in office, Lincoln and the military turned the other cheek, allowing Vallandigham to return to the U.S. in disguise in 1864. Vallandigham returned the favor by supporting George B. McClellan as the Democratic candidate for president.

In the meantime, Vallandigham had become something of a celebrity, prompting news stories about his travels and travails, including one that took its name from a comment that Vallandigham had made stating that he did not care to live in a country where Lincoln was president - Edward Everett Hale's "The Man Without a Country."

Despite - or because of - his infamy, Vallandigham was shunned by the Democrats after the war, and lost subsequent bids for political office. He practiced law until 1871, when he accidentally shot himself while trying to demonstrate how a defendant's alleged victim may have shot himself.

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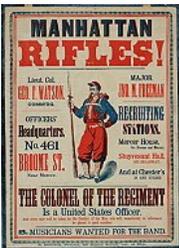
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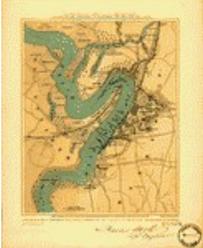
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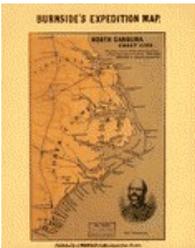
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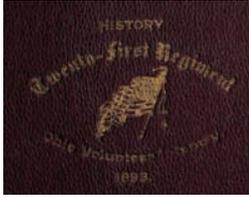
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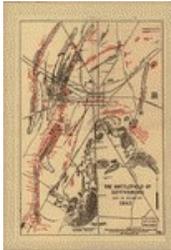
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Ohio had many participants in the Civil War. This collection of books on CD details every imaginable activity conducted by an Ohio soldier. It is a tremendous genealogy source as well as an astonishing glimpse at the war from the perspective of soldier participation.



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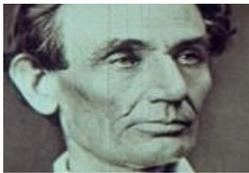
This CD contains 61 rare historic maps and descriptive pages representing fascinating details about Pennsylvania and its vicinity during the Civil War.

From Major Ladd *New York, April 19th, 1861*
To Major ADAMS AMES
 Troops left at twelve of the clock. General Schouler has telegraphed to provide for one thousand men on Sunday morning. Show this to General Butler.
 P.S. Just got news that Penna. troops have been attacked in Baltimore and some killed. Telegraph wire cut.
 LADD

From Governor Andrew
From Telegraph Office, Boston, Jan 18th, 1862
 Brig. Gen. BENJ. F. BUTLER, with Mass. troops at Phila.
 When did you reach Phila.? When will you leave? Is the way open? Can you communicate by telegraph with Washington? Has Jones reached Washington? Answer tonight sure.
 JOHN A. ANDREW

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This five volume set - over 3000 pages in all - is a detailed record of his acts and actions during the Civil war - both public and private. It was privately issued in 1917.



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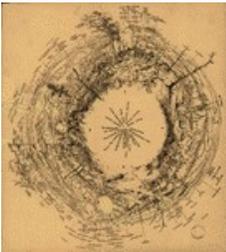
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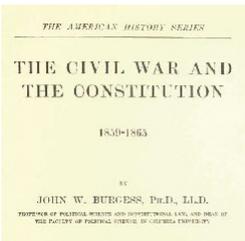
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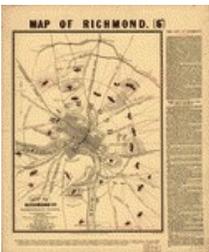
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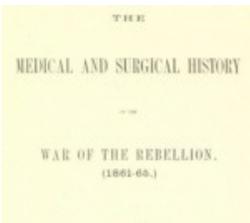
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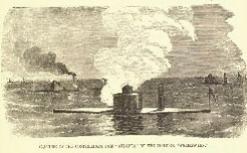
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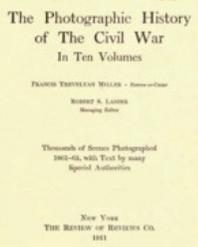
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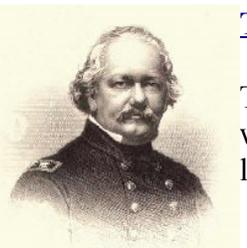
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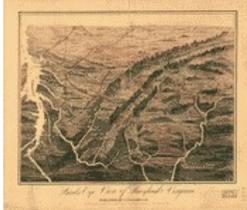
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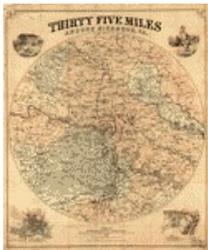
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