

A nighttime photograph of the Lincoln Memorial, the Washington Monument, and the U.S. Capitol building in Washington, D.C. The Lincoln Memorial is illuminated from within, showing its columns. The Washington Monument is a tall, slender obelisk with a red light at the top. The U.S. Capitol building is visible in the background, also illuminated. The sky is dark blue.

An American History Handbook

*The people and events that shaped
America's freedoms*

*Selected and organized by
David Gabbert*

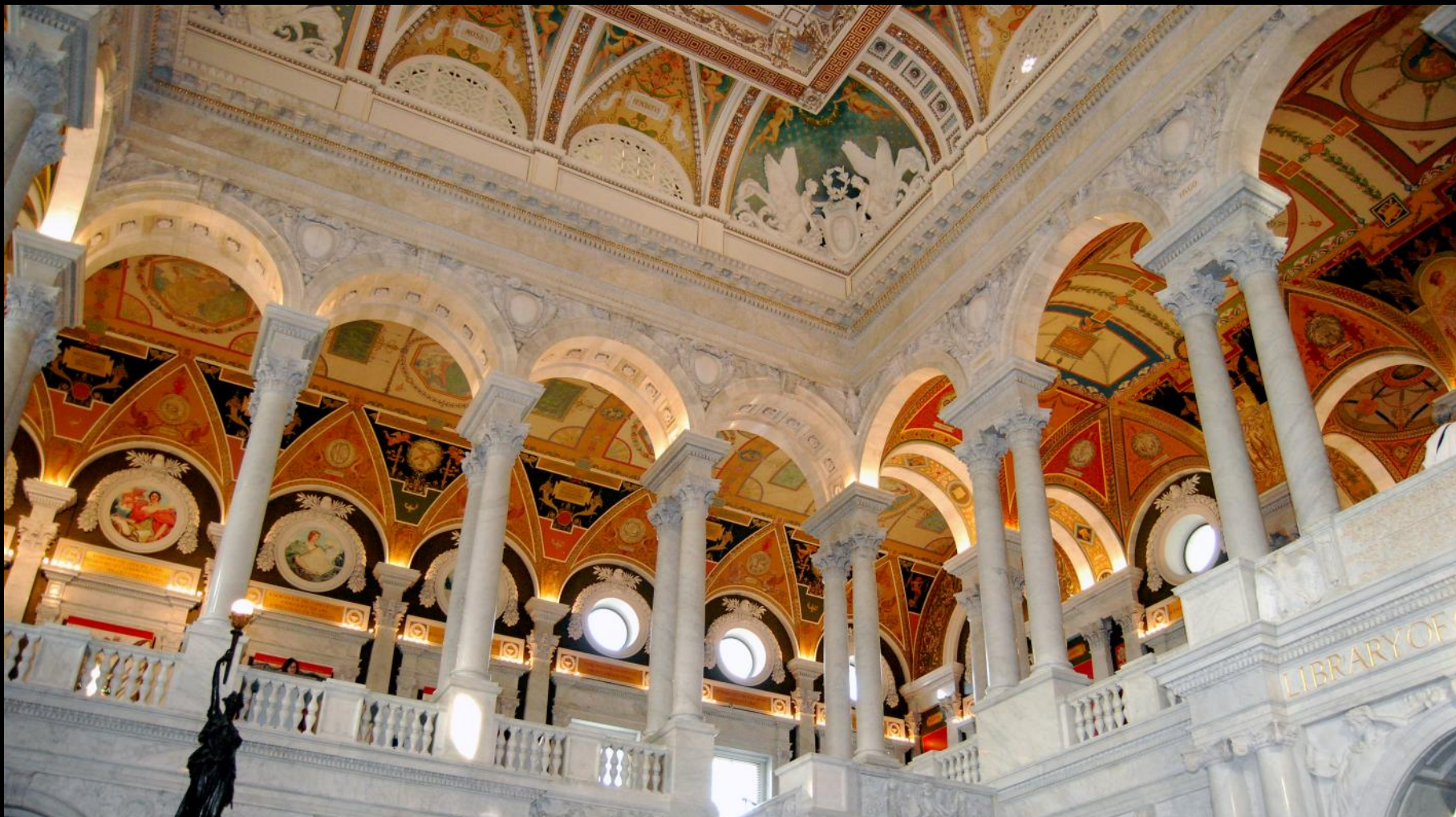
The 1800's

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The Library of Congress in Washington D.C.

The original Congressional Library was housed in the Capitol for most of the 19th century. The original collection of books had been destroyed by fire during the war of 1812 when the British set fire to the nations capitol and Presidents House after the battle of Bladensburg. After the war, in 1815, former President Thomas Jefferson sold his private collection of 6,487 books to Congress for the purpose of re-constructing the new library. Another disaster of fire struck the library in 1851, destroying much of the collection. As the Library of Congress began to grow in size and importance after the Civil War, a much bigger, separate library was built across the street from the capitol from 1888-1894. The new building, which stands today, was designed in the “Beaux-Arts” architecture style with fine decorations of marble halls, massive columns, carved hardwoods, and a stained glass dome - all on a scale to match the magnificent United States Capitol.



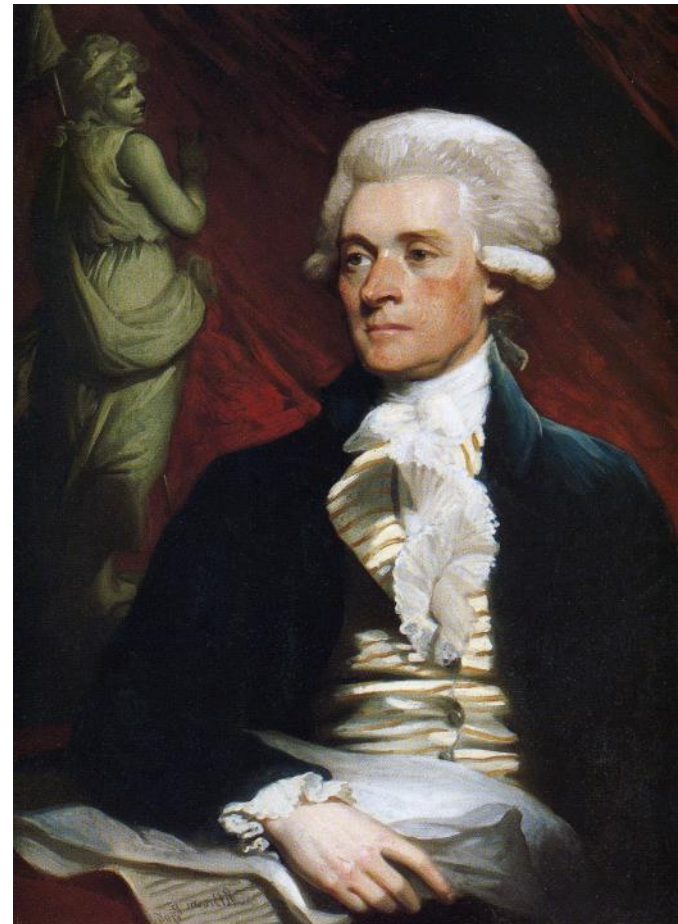




The Life of Thomas Jefferson 1743 - 1826

Left –This portrait was painted of Jefferson in 1776 while he was serving the Second Continental Congress.

Right –This portrait was painted by Mather Brown while Jefferson was in London with Adams in 1785.



Thomas Jefferson was born in April of 1743 at the Shadwell plantation just outside Charlottesville, Virginia. His father, Peter Jefferson, whose family immigrated to Virginia from England in 1612, was a successful surveyor and planter. Marrying well, Peter Jefferson took a bride from Virginia's leading Randolph family. Thomas Jefferson's mother, Jane Randolph Jefferson, was a member of the proud Randolph family clan claiming descent from English and Scottish royalty. William Randolph, Thomas Jefferson's maternal great grandfather, came to America between 1669 and 1674 and prospered in Virginia by acquiring vast amounts of acreage; he allied with the British governor of Virginia and soon prospered in shipping, raising tobacco, and slave trading.

At the age of nine Jefferson began his formal education with the Reverend William Douglas in 1757. For five years Jefferson boarded with Douglas (except the summers) learning the classics in Latin and Greek, as well as the French language. At the age of fourteen he boarded with the reverend James Maury to further study the classical languages, as well as literature and

mathematics. In 1760, at the age of 17, Jefferson enrolled in William and Mary college in Williamsburg, Virginia's capitol. Jefferson, an earnest student, fell in with a circle of older scholars that included Professor Small, Lieutenant Governor Fauquier, and lawyer Wythe, and it was from them that he received his real education. After three years at William and Mary, Jefferson studied the law for five years (double the typical duration) under George Wythe, one of the pre-eminent lawyers in America. By the time Jefferson was admitted to the Virginia bar in 1767, he was already one of the most knowledgeable lawyers in America. Like his father, he believed in the benefits of walking and riding to help create a vigorous mind. It was said Jefferson studied fifteen hours a day, played his violin for three hours a day, rising at dawn and studying until two o'clock in the morning.

From 1767 to 1774 Jefferson practiced law in Virginia with immense success, trying many cases and winning most of them. At the age of twenty-four, he began to develop plans for his new home, Monticello, a half hours ride from his mother's home; by the summer of 1770 the mountaintop building site was cleared and ready for construction to commence. By the first months of 1771, Jefferson was in full pursuit of Martha Wayles (known as Patty), the rich widow and daughter of John Wayles. Patty's father made his fortune in America as a lawyer, debt collector, slave trader, and planter while her mother, Martha Eppes, was the daughter of Francis Eppes who owned a large plantation; Martha died giving birth to Patty, resulting in her father marrying twice more and giving birth to four more daughters. As a result, Patty grew up in a very uncertain household, never knowing her mother or two stepmothers who came and went. Patty suffered from early tragedies herself, marrying at the age of eighteen, losing her husband two years later, as well as losing her son at the age of four in 1771. Thomas Jefferson and Martha (or Patty) were married January 1, 1772; they would have six children together, but only two would survive into adulthood and only their first born (nicknamed Patsy), would survive him.

The Politician

To understand Thomas Jefferson is to grasp the definition of liberty and the nature of representative government - the concerning questions consuming America while Jefferson was a young adult. During this period of time London held all of the political power. For example, the British Navigation Act controlled all trade and transportation in the American colonies, reducing the colonists to becoming no more than subjects of an economic system where they possessed no political voice. The British Royal Governors could veto the colonial assembly's legislation, like the Virginia House of Burgesses for example, and were empowered to dissolve the state assemblies at any time as well. The British colonists of Jefferson's period possessed a historical view of British tyranny from the revolution of 1688 which won the rights to limit the monarch's power to abuse the rights of the individual and Parliament under an English Declaration of Rights. Jefferson and his fellow American Revolutionaries saw themselves as Englishmen who were being denied their share of equal rights and political representation. They were brought up with a history of revolution as the path to secure anything less than a government they judged fair and representative. By virtue of his birth and education, Thomas Jefferson was prone to support the American cause for liberty and freedom.

After the seven- year French and Indian war (between Britain and France), Britain was in dire financial straits and looked to the American colonies to bear more of the cost of maintaining the British colonies in North America. The colonists felt a sense of threat when about 10,000 British troops were to remain in the colonies after the war; the colonist knew what could be protected by an army could also be conquered and confiscated. What was to follow was a host of new taxes imposed on the colonists by the British crown. Imperial British power was now reaching more and more into the wealth and lives of American colonists. Jefferson was still a law student in Williamsburg when he first heard Patrick Henry vehemently speak out against the Stamp Act in 1765 in the House of Burgesses.

In December of 1768, Thomas Jefferson was elected to the Virginia House of Burgesses at the age of twenty-five. This period of time for Jefferson, between 1768 and the Declaration of Independence in 1776, would be one of maturing politically, intellectually, and emotionally. He would learn how to distill complex messages and ideas into words that would reach the hearts of the people. He would learn the tactical skills of how to engage others and approach personal exchanges to achieve compromise. Jefferson, a poor public speaker, knew he could not compete with men in this arena, so he learned to write with grace, speed, and conviction.

As tensions grew from more taxes from Britain, more trade regulations, more troops, more suspensions of the House of Burgesses legislation, more limitations on land ownership in the west, Jefferson and others saw these actions as grasps for power by London, power that Jefferson and others believed belonged to them. Revolution was becoming the shrewdest choice for the wealthy like Jefferson. Especially in Virginia, the motivation to revolt by the elite was certainly partially tied to economic concerns as the propertied planters of Virginia owed millions of pounds to British Mercantile houses. The financially well-off, educated Virginians saw a more attractive economic future if they could separate themselves from London. In other words, it was a rich man's revolution, and Jefferson was a rich man. It was also a philosophical revolution about liberty and the freedom to govern oneself, and Jefferson was a philosophical man.

In 1774, at thirty-one years of age, Jefferson penned instructions to the delegates of the first Continental Congress, meeting to debate the escalating concerns with Great Britain after the Port Act in Boston was enacted. Jefferson's 6,700-word paper, titled *A Summary of the Rights of British America*, was his first major political work and elevated his reputation to one of the most eloquent advocates of the American cause. The papers were published throughout the American colonies and London. The following are excerpts from the conclusion of his paper, which served as a reminder to King George II:

Open your breast, sire, to liberal and expanded thought. Let not the name of George the third be a blot in the page of history...The whole art of government consists in the art of being honest. Only aim to do your duty, and mankind will give you credit where you fail. No longer persevere in sacrificing the rights of one part of the empire to the inordinate desires of another; but deal out to all equal and impartial right....It is neither our wish nor our interest to separate from Great Britain. Yet the demands are great. Still let it be proposed that our properties within our own territories shall be taxed or regulated by any power on earth but our own. The God who gave us life gave us liberty at the same time; the hand of force may destroy; but cannot disjoin them.

The threat of war grew in the fall of 1774 as British troops took control of powder magazines and cannons from colonial militias. London had chosen a position of no negotiations and, as a result, war appeared to be eminent. In March of 1775, Jefferson and the other delegates in the Virginia House of Burgesses, voted to move the states militia into a posture of defense. Jefferson was then elected to represent Virginia at the Second Continental Congress scheduled to meet in the spring just when the American colonists clashed with British troops at Lexington and Concord on April 19, 1775. Jefferson, a young husband and father with two small daughters at home, was at the forefront of a revolution against the most powerful country in the world. Jefferson left Williamsburg in June of 1775 for the Second Continental Congress in Philadelphia where the daunting task was to manage the new nation during armed revolution.

In Philadelphia, Jefferson would be exposed to new people with bright minds who expounded new ideas. He reviewed Benjamin Franklin's Articles of Confederation for the new government. He voted on John Adams recommendation to appoint George Washington as commander of the Continental Army. At the same time, Jefferson was surrounded by tragedy when his youngest daughter died and his wife, Patty, was very sick. Peyton Randolph, who dominated Virginia politics, died of a stroke. Dunmore, a British commander, declared martial law in Virginia and challenged the wealthy planters by ordering that any slave who took up arms against the American Revolution would be granted their freedom. Everything that Jefferson loved was in peril - his family, friends, home, and fortune.

In March of 1776 his mother Jane died of a stroke at the age of fifty-five; she was buried at Monticello, rendering her son disoriented. During the month of June, with Jefferson back in Philadelphia, Richard Lee of Virginia moved that the United States absolve themselves of all allegiance to the British Crown. The debate over independence consumed the delegates thoughts and arguments for several weeks. While the delegates were waiting for several states to have time to consider their position on declaring independence, a committee was

was formed to draft a Declaration of Independence; it was John Adams who made the decision that Jefferson should write the document. Jefferson slept in one room at Jacob Graff's house and wrote in the parlor across the stairs for seventeen days. His draft of the declaration was a political undertaking produced to satisfy particular concerns at that moment in history to a varied audience: undecided Americans, soldiers in arms, and potential global allies. And since many of the readers would be in the armed services fighting for the American cause, Jefferson included a lengthy list of charges against King George II. Jefferson also tried once more to lead the Continental Congress to a more progressive position against slavery, but was denounced. On July fourth the delegates ratified the declaration even though they all knew their acts were considered to be treasonous by the Crown. During the summer of 1776, Jefferson helped draft rules of procedure for Congress and wrote a proposed constitution for Virginia. While committed to his work in Philadelphia in the cause of the new nation, his wife Patty was very ill at Monticello suffering from a disastrous miscarriage.

Back in Williamsburg with Patty, Jefferson received word the Continental Congress elected him and Benjamin Franklin to represent America as delegates to France. Without a successful alliance with France, America was likely to lose the war as Great Britain was simply too powerful. Jefferson considered the assignment a great honor, however he decided to stay with Patty in Williamsburg and focus on Virginia politics. Up until the summer of 1779, Jefferson examined every legal code governing life in Virginia. He altered the criminal codes, broadened the opportunities for more Virginians to receive an education, and speeded up the naturalization process for foreign-born citizens. In one of his greatest works of personal freedom, Jefferson wrote the statute for religious liberty, separating the state and church. In 1776 Virginia, the church was financially supported and dependent upon the state government for funding; even more threatening, civil rights and state laws were linked to religious observance and performance. Understandably, it took several years of legislation, but in 1786 a statute for religious liberty from Jefferson's pen became law. At the Virginia Assembly, Jefferson also prepared an amendment stipulating the freedom of all slaves born after a certain date, and then deported when they became a reasonable age; Jefferson was unable to move public opinion on the very emotional issue of slavery. It was during this period of time in Williamsburg that Jefferson took note of a political newcomer, the young James Madison. Madison would eventually become Jefferson's most trusted and invaluable counselor. In May of 1777, Patty gave birth to a boy who lived only seventeen days. She was soon pregnant again and gave birth to a girl, Polly, in August, 1778; Polly is the only other child who would survive into adulthood.

Governor of Virginia

On June 1, 1779, the state legislature of Virginia elected Thomas Jefferson as the state's second governor at the age of thirty-six. During his term as Governor, Georgia had collapsed, and South Carolina would fall to the British next. By the end of Jefferson's term in 1781, Britain would be invading Virginia. Feeling threatened, he moved the capitol from Williamsburg to Richmond, and would be forced to move the government to Charlottesville to escape the British soldiers. Jefferson narrowly escaped himself as the British attacked Monticello with handcuffs for the writer of the Declaration of Independence. Unable to effectively draft a militia to defend Virginia, Jefferson left public life as rumors were circulated as to his cowardness.

By the summer of 1782 Jefferson's wife, Patty, was confined to her bed with tuberculosis. Her latest child, the second to be named Lucy, was her sixth in ten years. She was only thirty-three when the end came on September sixth. Fearing her daughters would be raised by stepmothers, as she experienced, her death bed request was a promise from Jefferson never to marry again. Patsy, ten, Polly, four, and the infant Lucy survived her. Jefferson's world seemed to have vanished with Patty, wondering in the woods on horseback for months and even writing of the possibility of suicide. During Jefferson's darkest period of despair, Patsy and he would form a warm and affectionate bond that would persist the rest of their lives.

Jefferson was nearly forty years old when the draft of the Treaty of Paris was agreed to by Great Britain, officially ending the Revolutionary War. It did not take long for the state of Virginia to elect Jefferson to the Continental Congress in Philadelphia; he was elected on June 6, 1783. The new federal government, however, was powerless under the Articles of Confederation as they had no taxing authority and no

rights to create or enforce laws. They were limited to regulating national trade and creating a military when necessary; the states were essentially sovereign powers. For most of the decade of the eighties, Jefferson contemplated the worst; he feared without a strong federal government the states would turn on one another, resulting in anarchy.

Minister to France

In May of 1784 Congress asked Jefferson to join Adams and Franklin in Europe as a U.S. minister to France. He left Boston Harbor with Patsy in July on his first Atlantic crossing. As a U.S. minister, Jefferson was determined to use France to balance the power against possible military and commercial shipping threats by Great Britain. He devoted much of his energy to negotiating commercial treaties to expand American commerce, negotiate loans, and build international respect for the United States. When the French Revolution broke out in 1789, he hoped the anarchy would lead to increased demand for American products. While in France, Jefferson learned all he could about French architecture, theater, music, literature, wine, and food. His eight-year-old daughter, Polly, arrived in the summer of 1787. Before his five years of service was completed, he was appointed the sole minister to France. While minister to France Jefferson negotiated the first treaty to be ratified under the new constitution, defining the diplomatic relations between France and America. With anarchy and riots surrounding him in Paris, Jefferson was anxious to establish contact with Washington and return to the new, developing government in America. He arrived back in Virginia at the end of 1789 to discover Washington had been elected the first president of the United States.

Secretary of State and Vice President

In December of 1789, an offer from President Washington to become Secretary of State was delivered to Jefferson at Monticello. He feared criticism and failure, yet longed to be great and serve his country. Under the influence of his friend, James Madison, Jefferson chose the cabinet post over returning to France as the U.S. Minister. Jefferson arrived in the nation's temporary capitol in New York City on March 21, 1790, to begin his work as Secretary of State; he was soon to celebrate his forty-seventh birthday.

Jefferson was a working politician and diplomat who believed in an effective central government. There was one conviction, however, on which Jefferson never compromised; he deeply feared the threat of monarchy, which is different than fearing a strong federal government. As the Washington administration unfolded, Jefferson came to see the Secretary of the Treasury, Alexander Hamilton, as the embodiment of the deepest Republican fears. Jefferson feared Hamilton's political ideals to emulate Britain's political system and grant the presidency and Senate hereditary or lifelong eligibility. Jefferson, on the other hand, believed in a strong republican government, where every American citizen had a voice in governing.

Washington relied on counsel from Jefferson, Hamilton, and Madison on almost every issue facing the new government. Jefferson found himself increasingly at odds with Hamilton on the issues of establishing a federal banking system, taxation, and the war raging in Europe between France, England, and Spain. Jefferson's continued opposition to Hamilton, Vice President John Adams, to the British, and to financial speculators involved in the federal banking system, all grew out of his fundamental concern for republicanism belonging to the common man; Jefferson was convinced there were forces afoot seeking to undermine these basic republican rights by reestablishing the rule of priests, nobles, and kings.

In March of 1792 Washington raised the topic with Jefferson about retiring at the end of his first term. Jefferson, fearing Federalists eager to use the new government as a stepping stone to a monarchy, pleaded with Washington to serve one more term, giving the new country stability under his leadership. Concerned about southern secession to protest Federalist dominance in the north, Jefferson believed the confidence of the nation centered on Washington. In the end, Washington agreed to reelection and Jefferson agreed to stay in office for a while longer. Jefferson would write during Washington's second term, "its Washington's character that holds the nation together, not the written constitution."

The war between Jefferson and Hamilton was unending. On most matters Jefferson often found himself out of sync with Washington, Hamilton, and Adams. On New Year's Eve, 1793, Jefferson extended his official resignation as Secretary of State to Washington.

Jefferson's retirement at Monticello lasted until 1796 when he returned to national politics as a candidate for president against John Adams. During his respite at Monticello, he supervised the plantation and the never-ending construction and renovation to Monticello. During this time period he added a new slave's quarters, a smokehouse, dairy, blacksmith shop, carpenter's shop, wash house, saw pit, and a new nailery business that produced 10,000 nails per day. The Monticello he envisioned would not be completed until after his presidency in 1809.

Jefferson loved guns, horses, riding, hunting, and fishing and he found these pursuits to be his best forms of exercise. But no matter how much Jefferson relished his privacy at his mountaintop retreat, he could not remove his mind from the affairs of the republic; he needed the world of politics and of consequence; he was driven to shape the era in which he lived and politics was certainly a part of who he was. For Madison the truth was evident: Thomas Jefferson was destined to become president of the United States and so it was his correspondence that kept Jefferson current on politics and foreign affairs. Animosity between the Federalists and the Republicans was a common theme. The Republicans feared the prospect of hereditary, monarchy type executive power, and the Federalists were anxious about the economic and political strength of slaveholders. Because slaves were counted as three-fifths a person in population calculations, this clause of the constitution gave southern states a decisive advantage to control the presidential electorate and congress, both determined by populations.

The publication of Washington's farewell address on September 19, 1796 set in motion America's first contested presidential election. In the first decades of the republic, presidential candidates did not campaign, instead allowing political allies to notify the electorate if they were available to be elected. Until the Twelfth Amendment in 1804, there was no distinction between president and vice president since the second-place finisher simply became vice president. On February 8, 1797, the electoral votes were tallied and awarded Adams a narrow margin of victory of 71 votes to Jefferson's 68. As Vice president, Jefferson spent most of his time presiding over the senate and quietly nurturing Republican opposition to Adams Federalist government. Jefferson's political style remained smooth and non-confrontational; he conducted his battles by using friends to write and publish messages he thought crucial to public debate and his republican principals. To further occupy his four years as vice president, Jefferson authored "A Manual of Parliament Practice," one of the most useful guides to legislative proceedings ever written.

President of the United States

John Adams presidency revealed deep divides between the more moderate Federalists, such as Adams, and the more extreme Federalists like Hamilton. In the presidential election of 1800, Hamilton's Federalists refused to back Adams, clearing the Republican candidates Jefferson and Aaron Burr to move to the forefront. The votes were all in by the end of December, 1800; Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr both tied for first place with 73 electoral votes each. After thirty-six ballots, the House of Representatives elected Thomas Jefferson the third president of the United States on February 17, 1801. It was Hamilton who preferred the virtue and good character of Jefferson over the pretentious New York Burr.

After Jefferson was administered the oath of office, he delivered his inaugural address to a thousand people crowded into the Senate chamber. In his soft voice, he read one of the most significant state papers in American history. The following are excerpts from his inaugural address: ".....All...will bear in mind this sacred principle, that though the will of the majority is in all cases to prevail, that will to be right must be reasonable; that the minority possess their equal rights, which equal law must protect, and to violate would be oppression. Let us, then, fellow-citizens, unite with one heart and one mind.Every difference of opinion is not a difference of principle. We have called by different names brethren of the same principle. We are all Republicans, we are all Federalists."

I will spend my presidential years, Jefferson said, " pursuing steadily my object of proving that a people are capable of conducting themselves under a government founded not in the fears and follies of man, but on his reason....this is the object now dearest to my heart." He understood the country was eager for a government that seemed less intrusive and overbearing. In his first two years he cut spending and taxes, reducing the government debt from \$83 million to \$57 million. In a new time of peace, he reduced military spending and down-sized the navy to thirteen frigates.

Jefferson stripped the presidency of all the outward trappings of European royalty; he put aside all showing off; he would greet guests in slovenly clothing and slippers, without the least bit of formality. He worked from ten to thirteen hours a day receiving callers, writing, and doing paperwork. Midday he would ride, walk, dine, and relax for four hours, returning to work until candlelight. Jefferson governed personally and knew how to handle lawmakers, for he had long been one. He believed in constant conversation between the president and lawmakers - hence the candle light dinners every evening with lawmakers and his willingness to receive callers; the strategy worked.

During the months of 1801 - 02 Jefferson convinced congress to abolish all internal taxes, authorize military force to attack Tripoli's piracy against America's merchant ships in the Mediterranean, founded the U.S military academy at West Point, and eased naturalization rules. Jefferson's most significant contributions during his presidency was the Louisiana Purchase from France, doubling the size of the United States. Jefferson also put an end to the century-old problem of Barbary pirates disrupting American shipping in the Mediterranean. The greatest challenge of Jefferson's second term was posed by the war between Napoleonic France and Great Britain. Both countries attempted to prevent American commerce with the other power by harassing and attacking American shipping. Jefferson was on a war footing but in response, he passed the embargo Act of 1807, suspending all trade with Europe. The move prevented war but ultimately weakened the American economy as exports crashed from \$108 million to \$22 million by 1809.

Jefferson loved the west but was very anxious about America as a lasting empire of liberty. He was trepidatious about the British, French, Spanish, and Indian holdings in the new world and fretted about them extending their holdings, limiting American growth, while creating the constant possibility of invasion. As a result, Jefferson felt the time was right for an exploratory expedition of the west for the purpose of finding a route to the Pacific as well as outline the boundaries that may become a theater of contention between the United States and imperial powers. Jefferson chose Meriwether Lewis, his young private secretary, to lead the enterprise.

Jefferson was the first president to advocate a broad reaching public works program, calling for authorization to finance improved education, roads, canals, and other projects. His goal was to open up new channels of communication between the states, unifying their common interests, all in an effort to strengthen and unify the union. Jefferson was unable to realize this ambitious \$20 million program, but nearly every project was eventually completed.

Family was mostly absent during Jefferson's two terms in the White House. Both Patsy and Polly came to visit him for Christmas in 1802 and were awe struck by the lonely accommodations in which he lived. He yearned to be surrounded by family, but instead was faced with the tragedy of losing yet another child when Polly died on April 17, 1804 after giving birth to a baby girl in February. Jefferson's winter was brightened in 1806 by the long stay of his only surviving daughter, Patsy, and her new grandson.

Jefferson loved the ideals of a free republic; he believed a politics of personal liberty created a sense of free inquiry. A man liberated from monarchical limitations stood a greater chance of possessing a mind free to explore, innovate, and grow in a climate where citizens lived together in harmony. This was a dream he hoped to shape for America.

Jefferson also hoped for political unity; in practice, the best hope was for a truce between himself and his opponents. However, he realized political divisions were intrinsic and what mattered most was how a president managed those divisions. Jefferson's strategy was to manage his opponents with conversation over dinner around 4:00 most evenings. This was his stage; he would let guests sit where they chose, play the host in his slippers, serve wine and food, then join the conversation brilliantly at the right moment.



The Louisiana Purchase from France on April 30, 1803, doubled the size of the United States.

The thought that continued to plague him to the end was the vision of a crown in the United States. On the eve of his second inauguration he stated his intention to follow Washington's example to retire after his second term. He hoped a precedent would become established to discourage reelection of any one individual becoming habitual. In fact, he even suggested an amendment to the constitution to term limits.

On March 3, 1809, the morning of Madison's inaugural, Jefferson rode up to the capitol to watch his beloved friend take the oath of the fourth President of the United States. There is no doubt Madison's success was a tangible sign the country approved of Jefferson's basic vision and stewardship.

Jefferson immediately retired to his eleven thousand square foot, thirty-three room Monticello mountaintop plantation. He stayed in close touch with the scientific, educational, and philosophical worlds; he loved being on horseback among the farms from breakfast until dinner; he also spent several hours every day on his correspondence with John Adams and others; he loved the letters from Adams. By the time of his death, Jefferson and Adams

exchanged a total of 329 letters of which 158 were written after 1812.

In the wake of the British army burning over 3,000 books belonging to Congress during the war of 1812, Jefferson offered to sell the nation his own collection. There were 6,487 volumes which formed the core of the new Library of Congress.

The making of the University of Virginia in 1818 was Jefferson's last great effort of will and leadership as the project called upon all of his political, intellectual, and architectural talents. He invested himself into the enterprise writing, "I know of no safe depository of the ultimate powers of the society, but the people themselves: and if we think them not enlightened enough to exercise their control with a wholesome discretion, the remedy is not to take it from them, but to inform them by education."

In December of 1819, Jefferson took note of a debate in Congress to add Missouri to the union. From the time of the Constitutional Convention the arguments had not changed, the Northeast feared that expanding slaveholding in the South and West would give those states permanent control in Congress. At the same time, the South and West feared for the future of slavery from the expanding industrial power of the northern states. For Jefferson, it was the worst of hours, for he knew slavery was a moral wrong and believed it would ultimately be abolished. But he also feared it may tear the union apart. Jefferson saw the issue in terms of power; he believed the North was trying to create new free states that would strengthen the national hand of the anti-slavery interest. In Jefferson's mind, nothing other than the removal of blacks from the United States would solve the problem.

Personal debt was another enduring plight of Jefferson's life. Planters of his time were often land rich and cash poor, borrowing heavily against their farms, their slaves, and their prospective crops. A medley of factors kept Jefferson in debt. There was the gentry culture and attitude of his time; there were promissory notes to be signed for friends and family members; most of all, there was inherited debt. He was part of a class in which borrowing money and mortgaging lands was as much a part of the culture as hospitality and hunting. When Jefferson died he owed, in today's terms, between \$1 and \$2 million - so much that Monticello and his slaves had to be sold.

Thomas Jefferson died on the 50th anniversary of Independence Day - July 4, 1826- three miles from where he was born a subject of the British empire eight decades before. A small group of friends and slaves escorted the wooden coffin down the hill from the house where he was buried. The three achievements he ordered carved on his tombstone - as author of the Declaration of Independence and the Virginia Statute for Religious Liberty, and as founder of the University of Virginia - speak to his love of the liberty of the mind and of the heart.

As he promised to her in Paris, his will freed Sally Hemmings and their four adult surviving children from slavery.

Events of 1801 & 1802 - Slavery is ended in the Northwest territory from the ordinance of 1787 which established the territory; it was written by Thomas Jefferson.

Tripoli declares war on the United States

The first addition of the New York Post is published.

The United States Military academy opens in West Point, New York.

Events of 1803 - Ohio is admitted to the union as the 17th state.

The Supreme Court declares a statute within the Constitution void in Marbury versus Madison. This established the Supreme Court's position as an equal member of the three branches of the United States government.

President Jefferson doubles the size of the United states with his **purchase of the Louisiana Territory** from Napoleon's France for a sum of \$15 million or three cents an acre. The story emphasizes Jefferson's strength and adaptability and, most important, his determination to secure the territory from France. The cessation of the Louisiana territory from Spain to Napoleon's France was confirmed in February of 1802. With three-eighths of America's produce passing through French controlled New Orleans, the inevitable consequences were clear and threatening to Jefferson's vision of America. Jefferson reached out to his fellow Virginian, James Madison, as well as Livingston to travel to France as a presidential envoy. Their intentions were to convince Napoleon that holding and defending lands so far from Europe was growing too expensive and troublesome, especially with the possibility of a looming war with Great Britain. A French defeat at the hands of slave forces in St. Dominique was shocking to Napoleon and he brashly made the decision to rid himself of Frances North American holdings so he could utilize his resources closer to home. Jefferson was happily stunned when he received news on July 3, 1803 of the treaty Monroe and Livingston had negotiated with Napoleon to purchase close to 500 million acres. The greatest threat to America's peace had been removed.

Events of 1804 - New Jersey becomes the last northern state to abolish slavery.

Alexander Hamilton, the first Secretary of the Treasury was shot dead in a duel by Aaron Burr, the vice president of the United States on July 11th. Burr was indicted for murder in the states of New York and New Jersey but escaped from both states in late July. He ultimately fled to the western part of the United States where he attempted to establish a separate union.

The **Lewis and Clark expedition** was commissioned by President Jefferson shortly after the Louisiana Purchase in 1803. It consisted of a select group of thirty-three young army volunteers under the command of Captain Meriwether Lewis and Second lieutenant William Clark. They would be the first American expedition to cross what is now the western portion of the United States. They departed from St. Louis in May, 1804 on the Mississippi River. The primary objectives of the journey was to map the newly acquired territory, find the most direct water route across the continent to the Pacific Ocean, establish an American presence in the Pacific Northwest before Europeans could make claims, establish trade with the local Indian tribes, and get an accurate sense of the natural resources. The expedition followed the Missouri River westward, crossed the continental divide, and ultimately following the Columbia River reached the Pacific Ocean on December 8, 1805. The Lewis and Clark expedition established relations with two dozen Indian nations, without whose help the expe-

dition would have risked starvation during the harsh winters and become hopelessly lost in the vast mountain ranges of the Rocky's. The expedition completed its perilous journey on September 23, 1806.

Events of 1805 - The Michigan territory is established.

Events of 1806 - The first national road, called the Great National Pike, or Cumberland road, was approved by President Jefferson for a cost of \$30,000. It passed through three states from Cumberland, Maryland to Ohio.

Noah Webster publishes his first American English dictionary.

Events of 1807 - Congress passes an act to prohibit the importation of slaves into any port within the United States. Up until the time of the Civil War in 1860, 250,000 slaves were imported illegally.

Robert Fulton makes the first practical steamboat journey on the Hudson River from New York city to Albany in thirty- two hours, a trip of 150 miles. This becomes the first commercial steam boat service in the world.

Events of 1808 - Anthracite coal is burned for the first time as an experimental fuel.



Thomas Jefferson's mountaintop Monticello in Charleston, Virginia

Monticello is a model of elegance and symmetry, designed by Jefferson himself and created unlike any other house in the United States. Inside Jefferson assembled a world-class collection of art and furnishings: scientific instruments from England, art and porcelain from France, the finest American furniture from Philadelphia and New York, and natural artifacts from the Lewis and Clark western expedition. From the outside, Monticello commands a magnificent view of the Blue Ridge Mountains.

Jefferson's Monticello plantation ultimately contained 5,375 acres on both sides of the Rivanna River. He inherited 3,000 acres from his father, Peter Jefferson, in 1764. In 1768, at the age of 25, he reached an agreement to level 250 feet square for Monticello (meaning "little mountain" in Italian). Rejecting the architectural tradition in Virginia, Jefferson's architectural drawings used classical sources and the Roman architectural orders. The shell of the more modest six room house was habitable by 1784, however, the interior plastering and molding work was not yet completed. In the 1800's he began construction to link an impressive array of seventeen support rooms to the cellar of the house with L shaped wings concealed into the hillside, while supporting an outdoor terrace up above. These structures, called Mulberry Row, would become the hub of the plantations free and enslaved workers. Mulberry Row contained the house for servants, a wash house, smokehouse, a dairy, a blacksmith shop, a nailery, woodworking shops, textile workers, gardeners, weavers, groomers, etc. In 1796 he began a dramatic transformation of Monticello by creating a new second level, containing the first dome on a home in America, and also expanding the main floor. The home as you see it today was completed in 1809.

In the early 1790's, Jefferson began to gradually transform Monticello from a tobacco plantation to a wheat farm. The perpetual rounds of plowing required horses, mules, and oxen. While president, Jefferson also became interested in breeding sheep and hogs; his plantation eventually included, 71 head of cattle, 178 hogs, and 150 sheep.

During Jefferson's lifetime, American horticulture was in its infancy. Jefferson experimented with twenty-four varieties of grapes for his vineyards, 113 species of ornamental trees, 65 varieties of shrubs, over 100 species of herbaceous plants in his flower garden, and 450 varieties of 95 species of fruits, vegetables, nuts, and herbs; on the south orchard alone he grew 1,031 fruit trees. On Monticello's two-acre vegetable garden, Jefferson would experiment with seventy different species of vegetables, forty-six varieties of beans, and twenty-five types of English peas; the creation of the vegetable gardens began in 1779 and peaked in 1809.

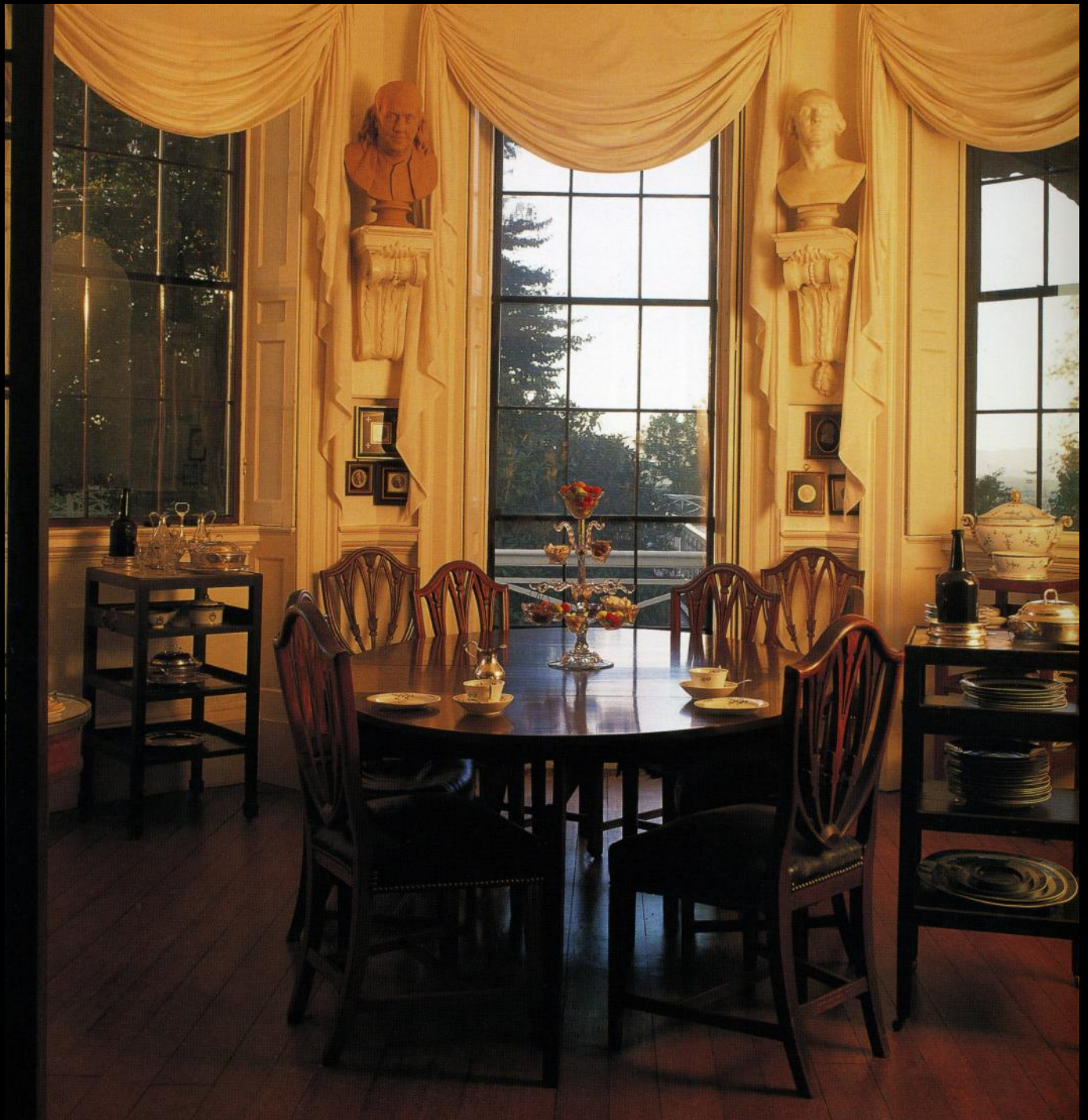
The fruitery, as Jefferson called it, consisted of a north and south orchard, small squares for a variety of berries, and two vineyards. The north orchard was reserved for cider apples and peaches. The south orchard, planted between 1769 and 1814, contained a wide variety of apple, peach (38 varieties), cherry, plum, almond, and apricot trees.

Jefferson owned, in any one year, around two hundred slaves. He inherited approximately thirty-five slaves from his father's estate and another 135 from his father-in-law's estate, John Wayles. Upon Jefferson's death in 1826, he died owing over \$100,000. His home, land, slaves, furnishings, art and library were all sold by his family to pay off the immense debt.



The two story entrance hall was a museum where visitors could be educated while they waited to meet Jefferson or his family. Visitors were struck by the grass green color of the wood floor, twenty-eight Windsor chairs lining the walls, and the strange decorations hung on the walls. The walls were decorated with a variety of maps, one being an Indian map on leather, antlers, sculpture, paintings, Native American artifacts, a tortoise, a stuffed alligator, and mineral rocks.

The Tea Room was adjacent to the Dining Room so the two rooms could accommodate more people for dining by simply opening the sliding pocket doors to the room. These were important rooms where guests could be entertained at breakfast, dinner, and tea. Two meals were served each day—breakfast at 8:00 and dinner at 4:00. The Tea Room was filled with portraits of friends, family, and people who had greatly influenced him, including busts of Franklin, Lafayette, and Washington.



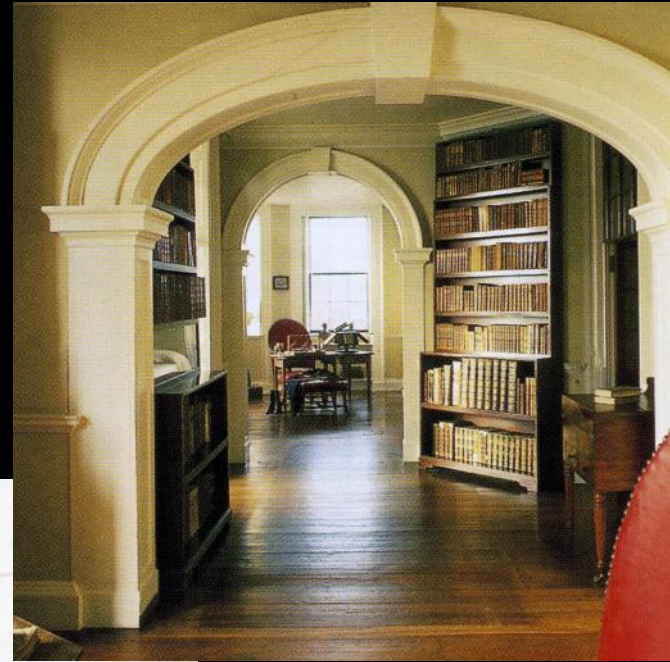


The Parlor, also called a salon or drawing room, was the principal social space where the family and guests gathered after dinner. The activities before dark consisted of reading, writing letters, playing games, and music. Jefferson loved playing the violin and a game of chess.; the harpsichord (pictured) was played by his daughter Martha. Prior to the candles being brought in, the family would gather around the fire for conversation. The parlor held more than fifty paintings, mostly purchased in Paris. The parquet wood floor was made of beech and cherry. The window treatments were made from Jefferson's sketches.

The Dining Room showcased Jefferson's ardent interest in food and wine, which can be traced to Paris. Monticello's kitchen, one of the best equipped in Virginia, had a series of French-trained chefs. The breakfast table included muffins, hot wheat and corn bread, cold ham, coffee, and tea. The dinner was served in French style, included soups, beef, turkey, ham, veal, fried eggs, pie, puddings, and a great variety of fruit and vegetables. Beer and cider were served with the meal; wine from Europe was served with the main course. Jefferson, eager to minimize the intrusion of servants, devised a rotating door with shelves containing the platters of food; as the food rotated into the room, Jefferson would serve his family and guests himself.



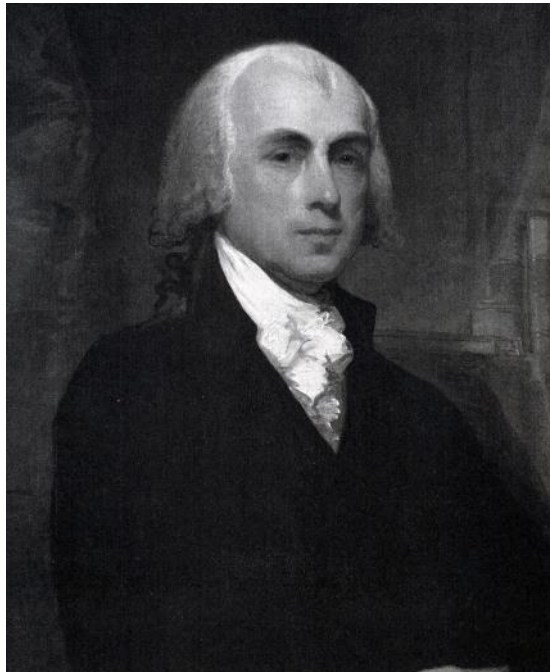
Jefferson's apartment in Monticello occupies the southern third of the large main floor. The middle of the main floor contains the large Entrance Hall and Parlor, while the north end contain the two dining areas and two guest bedrooms. Jefferson's apartment include the Bed Chamber and Cabinet or study (below), the Book Room or library (right), and the Venetian Porch or greenhouse and adjoining Terrace (right page). The spaces were all connected by arches of various sizes and changes in ceiling heights rather than conventional doorways. The bedroom chamber ceiling is nearly nineteen feet high and flooded with light from a skylight (right). Above the bed alcove is a large closet vented by three elliptical openings. In the Cabinet Room he was surrounded by his favorite authors and scientific





mathematical instruments. A large portion of every day was devoted to letters at his writing desk. The Book Room contained one of the largest private libraries in America; it contained seven-thousand rare and valuable works on all subjects, and in all languages. The books were all catalogued, and on shelves, according to the division of human learning. His Cabinet and Book Room opened to the green-house. The greenhouse was divided from the adjoining rooms by glass sliding doors so the view of the plants was unobstructed. The greenhouse held oranges, roses, and geraniums, as well as his pet mockingbirds. The greenhouse opened to the Terrace where Jefferson was known to take early morning and late evening walks. Jefferson's apartment was his private domain and was rarely entered by anyone except his daughter Martha.





The Life of James Madison (1751-1836)

Left –Gilbert Stuart captures Madison’s reserved personality in this 1804 painting.

Right-Gilbert Stuart’s painting of Dolly Madison in 1804



James Madison Jr. was born at Belle Grove Plantation near Port Conway, Virginia. James was the oldest of twelve children born to Nelly and James Senior. Three of James brothers died in infancy while another brother and sister died in 1775 due to a dysentery epidemic which swept through the county because of contaminated water. His father was a tobacco planter who grew up on a plantation, called Mount Pleasant in Orange County, Virginia, which he inherited upon reaching adulthood. He later acquired more land and slaves, becoming the largest landowner and leading citizen of Orange County. James mother, Nelly, was the daughter of a prominent tobacco planter and merchant. James Sr. and Nelly were married in 1749.

As the son of a wealthy planter, Madison received an enviable education. Between the ages of eleven to sixteen, he was sent to study under the Episcopal priest Donald Robertson, who operated a small school for the elite in the Tidewater region of Virginia. He learned mathematics, geography, and both modern and ancient languages; he became proficient in Latin. At the age of sixteen he returned to Montpelier where he began a two-year course of study in preparation for college. At the age of eighteen (1769) Madison enrolled at the College of New Jersey (now Princeton University). Unlike most prominent Virginians, he did not choose the college of William and Mary because of the lowland climate where mosquitoes transmitted fevers and other deadly infections. At Princeton he studied science, geography, mathematics, rhetoric, philosophy, speech and debate, and read widely in Greek and Latin. After graduating in 1771, Madison returned to Montpelier in 1772. As you picture him, visualize Madison as one of the smallest Presidents of the United States at five feet four inches, and never weighing more than 100 pounds.

The Politician

As a young man during the American revolution, Madison served in the Virginia state legislature from 1776 to 1779. While there he

served on a committee with the learned George Mason to draft the Virginia Declaration of Rights, which served as the foundation for the Virginia Constitution. In the Declaration of rights, Madison led the way in penning language to establish the fullest toleration of religious freedom and separation of church and state. Madison is credited with writing the Virginia Constitution, winning him a reputation as one of the most knowledgeable men in American politics. The Virginia declaration of rights and the Virginia Constitution of 1776 was the first written constitution adopted by the people's representatives in the history of the world.

Madison was the youngest delegate chosen to serve in the new federal Continental Congress from 1780 to 1783. He was considered a legislative workhorse and a master of parliamentary coalition building. To Madison's surprise, the new federal government was virtually powerless to do anything other than to beg the state governments for money and support. Ultimately, his frustrations while he served in Congress moved him in later years to push for replacement of the Articles of Confederation. Madison's efforts to persuade Virginia to give up its claims to western lands was vital in getting the Articles of Confederation passed. Connecticut, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia all ceded their land holdings to the federal government with the understanding new states could be formed from this land. In response to forming the ceded lands, to be known as the northwest territories, Maryland ratified the Articles of Confederation in February, 1781. It was also during this period of time that Madison and Jefferson (who was serving as Governor to Virginia) established the most enduring political alliance in American history.

While serving a second time to the Virginia House of Delegates from 1784 to 1786, Madison published his first great state paper: *The Memorial and Remonstrance Against Religious Assessments*, a six-page paper which laid out the whole American enlightenment case for religious freedom. Madison also reasoned that the individual states could not regulate the trade in the United States, so it had to be regulated by Congress. By giving the Congress the power to regulate trade, the United States could respond to foreign restrictions on American trade. He also arrived at the conclusion the federal government needed tariff taxing power to fund its operations. In Madison's mind, a perfect freedom is a system which offered freedom of religion, freedom to emancipate one's slaves, and free trade.

The Philadelphia Constitutional Convention

Even though he was only thirty-six years of age, it is said Madison took the lead in the management of every great question at the Constitutional Convention in 1787; he always came forward as the most informed man of any point in the debate. Madison spoke over 200 times and was also the chief note taker. During the year of 1786 up until the convention, Madison devoted himself to the assemblage of his "research project" - combining ancient, medieval, and modern writings on history and political science. Many believed, as Madison did, the Constitutional Convention would need to do more than fix the Articles of Confederation. Like the revolution, it would need to rewrite the social network and redefine the relationship among the states, the national government, and the people. As Madison wrote, "a crisis had arrived which was to decide whether the American experiment was to be a blessing or to extinguish forever the hopes which the republican cause inspired."

After the first attempt at a constitutional revision failed in Annapolis, Maryland in the fall of 1786, Madison and Hamilton led the cause for another Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia in the spring of 1787. They both believed, however, that more extensive alterations to the federal system were necessary. Madison worked hard to cobble together a national coalition to meet in Philadelphia who were in favor of a complete federal reform. Adding further to the ultimate success of the convention, Madison was also crucial in persuading George Washington to attend the convention, since he knew his presence and support was crucial to the success of any new federal government.

As Madison waited for the delegates to arrive in Philadelphia, he assembled from his vast political knowledge and wrote what is

known as the Virginia Plan. The Virginia Plan was an outline of a possible constitution, or more accurately stated, the organizational framework of the new federal government. Even though the government structure of the Virginia Plan had already been established in British and state governments, the outline was submitted at the opening of the Convention. Madison's plan gave the delegates an outline to work around and it is for this reason Madison is called the "Father of the Constitution."

It must be noted, however, that Madison's real contribution was not in designing any particular constitutional framework, but rather leading debates in state sovereignty versus national sovereignty. Madison believed the problems for the future of the republic's success was the excess power of the states. The ultimate question before the convention was not how to design a government, but whether the states should remain sovereign, whether sovereignty should be transferred to the national government, or settle somewhere in between; Madison wanted sovereignty transferred to the national government to preserve the union. Since most disagreements over what to include in the constitution were ultimately disputes over the balance of sovereignty between the states and the national government, Madison's influence was critical.

Ratifying the Constitution

Madison not only played a critical role in bringing about the Philadelphia Convention, but he also played a leading role in securing ratification by the states. He and Alexander Hamilton wrote the *Federalist Papers*, a series of 85 newspaper articles published in New York to explain the workings of the new constitution. The *Federalist Papers* were written for the purpose of combating the strong anti-federalist movement in New York, but were also published in book form to become a debater's handbook for supporters of the Constitution at the state ratifying conventions.

If Madison's home state of Virginia did not ratify the Constitution, the new government would probably not move forward. When the Virginia ratification convention began, the Constitution had not yet been ratified by the required nine states; New York, the second largest state to Virginia, would likely not ratify if Virginia rejected the Constitution. In fact, many prominent anti-federalists in New York were talking about forming a separate union in the north.

Initially, Madison did not want to stand for election to Virginia's ratifying convention, but was persuaded to do so because the situation appeared so dire. Madison's role at the convention was critical to ratification. Patrick Henry, George Mason, and Edmund Randolph, all very prominent Virginians, refused to endorse the new Constitution. To obtain ratification, Madison convinced Mason and Randolph to change their positions, which changed the votes of several more anti-federalists. He also had to debate the states most powerful orator, Patrick Henry; Madison took up all of Henry's arguments, demolishing each one in turn, and as a result, swung more votes for ratification. Madison also promised to push for a Bill of Rights in the first legislative session if the Constitution was approved. When the vote was held in June of 1788, the convention barely had sufficient votes to ratify, and these appeared in the last minute.

Member of Congress

The new Constitution required senators in the new federal congress to be chosen by the state legislatures. In the fear of anti-federalists appointed to the new senate, voting in favor of a second Constitutional Convention, Washington pressed Madison to pursue a seat in the new Senate. Unfortunately, a politically powerful state legislature and vengeful Patrick Henry would deny Madison that appointment. As a result, Madison decided to run for election to the House of representatives instead. Madison would win the 1789 election against James Monroe with 57 percent of the vote. He would win again against Monroe in 1790 with 98 percent of the vote.

Madison's most significant contribution during this period of his political career is the **Bill of Rights**, which he drafted, proposed, and debated through Congressional approval. Ironically, the Bill of Rights, which strikes us as very important today, was far less

momentous in 1789. Madison's motives with the Bill of Rights was aimed at pacifying the anti-federalists, who were demanding amendments to the Constitution with a second Constitutional Convention. On June 8, 1789, Madison introduced a bill proposing nine articles and 20 amendments and proposed the amendments to be incorporated into the body of the Constitution. The Senate condensed this to eleven amendments and removed the language integrating the amendments into the Constitution. To Madison's disappointment, Congress excluded the amendment guaranteeing national sovereignty over the states which may have prevented the Civil War. By 1791, The last ten of the proposed amendments were ratified and became the Bill of Rights.

Madison did not consider a bill of rights desirable in itself. In his mind, its chief utility was to pacify the fears of those calling for constitutional amendments, offer encouragement for North Carolina and Rhode Island to ratify and join the new union, provide further bulwarks for human liberty, and win new Constitutional admirers.

Madison was 43 when he married for the first time. On September 15, 1794, James Madison married Dolly Payne Todd, a 26 year-old widow; Madison never had any children but adopted Dolly's one surviving son John.

Secretary of State, then President

When Thomas Jefferson was inaugurated as president in 1801, he named Madison to be his Secretary of State. With wars raging in Europe between Napoleon's France and Britain, Madison tried to maintain American neutrality, and insisted on protecting the legal rights of a neutral nation under international law. However, neither London or Paris showed respect toward America's shipping rights and the situation deteriorated during Jefferson's second term. Consequently, Madison and Jefferson decided to punish Britain and France with an American embargo, forbidding trade with any foreign country. The embargo failed, causing economic hardships up and down the entire eastern coast of the United States. Despite the economic consequences of the embargo, Madison breezed to the election for President in 1808; the federalists had withered to a mere sectional party by now, offering little competition to Madison.

Congress repealed Jefferson's embargo shortly before Madison became president and Madison's policy became free trade with all countries, including Britain and France. Madison experienced diplomatic relations with Britain deteriorating in 1809, however even in the face of deteriorating situations at sea with Britain, Madison resisted the public's call for war. In 1795 Madison expressed his views about the consequences of war by saying, "Of all the enemies to public liberty war is, perhaps, the most to be dreaded, because it comprises and develops the germ of every other. War is the parent of armies; from these proceed debts and taxes; and armies, and debts, and taxes are the known instruments for bringing the many under the domination of the few. In war, too, the discretionary power of the executive is extended; no nation could preserve its freedom in the midst of continual warfare."

Madison's chief concerns during his eight years as president would be dominated by foreign policy and the war of 1812. Otherwise his administration could be seen as a continuation of Jefferson's policies, with one notable exception: His wife, Dolly Madison. While James was cerebral, soft spoken, physically unimpressive, and somewhat shy in social gatherings, his wife was none of those. Dolly Madison found a way to host nonpartisan social events at the White house. Where Jefferson conducted politics by hosting small dinner parties of like-minded and exclusive male guests, Dolly's affairs were mixed. Where Jefferson avoided the image of a slave owner as president, Dolly stationed a slave at each dinner guests' side. Dolly was a tremendous asset to James by offering social support to his political endeavors; Dolly was so dominant at the state dinners, it is she who took the chair at the head of the table. It was Dolly who initiated what is now the tradition of the Inaugural Ball.

By the spring of 1810, Madison was specifically asking Congress for more appropriations to increase the Army and Navy to prepare for war. America was simply an inadvertent victim of Great Britain's pressure on Napoleon in the Atlantic. Britain would not change its practice of impressment - boarding American ships and impressing its seaman by forcing them to serve on British ships. The Royal Navy also refused to honor American sovereignty at sea, prowling American waters and attacking American ships. In reality, Britain was in a state of war against the United States, while America was in a state of peace with Great Britain. On April 1, 1812, Madison pro-

posed to Congress that it adopt a general embargo for sixty days. On June 4, 1812, Madison requested Congress to declare war on Great Britain.

Madison faced formidable obstacles going to war against the greatest naval power in the world. His cabinet, as well as Congress, were divided in their support; obstructionist governors, incompetent generals, state militia who refused to fight outside their states, and lack of popular support, all stacked the odds against American success. There were also serious threats of disunion from the New England states. To make matters worse, Gallatin at the Treasury discovered the war was impossible to fund since the national bank charter had expired in 1811, leaving the United States without a central national banking system.

Madison's grand strategy was to seize Canada and then use it as a bargaining chip for obtaining from Britain the commercial trade and naval concessions America long desired; that plan failed miserably. Despite a deplorable military condition, Madison won reelection easily in 1812. Napoleon's French army was experiencing the beginning of the end at the hands of the Russians in the spring of 1813; as a result, Britain was able to devote more soldiers to Canada. Unfortunately for the Americans, the British would have probably concluded the war with America had Napoleon not abdicated the French throne in April of 1813.

After an American victory in York, Canada (today's Toronto), some American soldiers violated orders by looting public buildings. Next someone burned the Parliament buildings - Canada's seats of upper legislative, executive, and judicial branches of government. The British would not forget! The British military strategy now turned its attention southward down the American coast with the first wave of British strikes in the New England area in April of 1814. By late August the British had reached Washington DC, burning the White House, the Capitol, and other public buildings. The destruction of the Parliament in York had been fully avenged.

An American naval shipyard was built in New York where thousands of men produced twelve warships to wage naval battles on the Great Lakes. In September, 1813, the U.S. Fleet, including the USS Constitution, went up against a superior British force on Lake Erie, destroying or capturing the entire British fleet of 1,800 ships. On land, the British forces who attacked Washington DC, next descended upon Baltimore and Fort McHenry, which guarded the seaway to Baltimore. A courageous defense successfully held off one of the most intense naval bombardments in history. Fort McHenry's resistance would be immortalized by Francis Scott Key's poem which became the music to the U.S. national anthem.

General Andrew Jackson led American troops in January of 1815 to a smashing victory over the British in a battle just outside New Orleans. Meanwhile, the peace treaty of Ghent was negotiated a few weeks before the battle in New Orleans and was ratified in February of 1815. The treaty offered no American gains of any kind - no end to impressments, no British concessions concerning American rights to neutrality at sea.

When Madison took office in 1809, the federal government had a surplus of 9 million dollars, taxes and the national debt continued to be reduced in 1810. Regarding Indian policy, Madison ordered the army to protect native Indian's and lands from white settlers, however, Commander Andrew Jackson resisted carrying out the president's orders. In the Northwest Territory, after the Battle of Tippecanoe in 1811, Indians were completely pushed off their lands by white settlers. By 1815, with 400,000 white settlers in Ohio, Indian rights to their lands had effectively become null and void.

With peace finally established after the War of 1812, and Europe finally at peace, Americans experienced an era of prosperity and political stability. Madison eventually approved a new national bank charter in 1816, an effective tax system based on tariffs, a standing professional military, and internal road, bridge, and canal improvements.

His death came quietly on June 28, 1836 at Montpelier, where he is buried.

In 1763, James Madison Sr. built a asymmetrical, two story brick house that was the largest home in Orange County, Virginia. At the time, he was the wealthiest man in the county; his land holdings were extensive, his slave holdings notable, and his social connections were impressive. Though Montpelier would remain the younger Madison's home for his entire life, he would spend long periods far from the plantation. Upon retiring from Congress in 1797, Madison returned to Montpelier with his wife Dolly, her son, and sister. To make room for his new family, he commenced with the construction of a large addition to his fathers house. As he prepared to leave again for the federal city in 1801 to become Secretary of State, his father died. His mother would remain in the home until she died in 1820 at the age of ninety-eight. In 1809, having succeeded to the presidency, James Madison launched a project to reinvent Montpelier to his elevated status. During the next four years he would unify the house with a central entrance, add a colonnaded porch across the rear, as well as adding one story wings to each end of the home - one for James's library, the other for his mother. Significant changes were also made to the slave support buildings, gardens, and even the landscape, which became an open park. After serving eight years as president of the United States, Madison retired to Montpelier in 1817, and it was here he died in 1836. The drawing room (below) was the place where guests gathered before dinner; Madison was also known to have played chess in this room.







The dining room at Montpelier



James Madison's library in the principal room in the north wing; this is the place where he spent his retirement years editing his papers and maintaining his correspondence.

Events of 1809-The Illinois territory is created.

The Supreme Court of the United States rules that the power of the federal government is greater than the power of any individual state.

Events of 1810- Four thousand American sailors were seized by British forces during the year, which forced trade between the two countries to grind to a halt.

The population of the United States is 7,200,000, centered 40 miles northwest of Washington DC.

Events of 1811- The battle of Tippecanoe defeated Indian warriors in the Northwest territory, pushing them off of their land.

The Cumberland Road, an important route through the Allegheny Mountains for westward expansion, was begun five years after authorization by congress.

Events of 1812-U.S President James Madison asks Congress to declare war on Great Britain.

Events of 1813 -Major naval battles are won by the Americans on Lake Erie, allowing U.S. forces to take control of the Northwest and the Great lakes in the war of 1812.

Events of 1814 -New settlements are opened in Alabama and Georgia after Andrew Jackson's militia from Tennessee defeated the Creek Indian tribes in that region.

The British burn the White House and the U.S. Capitol as they move south down the coast.

Three weeks after the British burned Washington DC, Maryland attorney **Francis Scott Key** (1779 - 1843) watched the horrific 25 hours of day time and night time bombardment of Baltimore's Fort McHenry. When he peered through the haze of smoke the next morning and saw the American flag still flying, Key's wrote a poem titled, "Defense of Fort McHenry." The poem became a popular patriotic song, and in 1831, Congress adopted it as the national anthem.

Events of 1815 -In the last battle of the War of 1812, Major General Andrew Jackson leads American soldiers to victory over 5,300 British troops outside New Orleans. British troops take over two thousand casualties to Americas seventy-one.

The first American railroad charter is granted by the state of New Jersey to John Stephens.

Events of 1816-The Second Bank of the United States is chartered, five years after the expiration of the charter of the First Bank of the United States legislated by Alexander Hamilton.

James Monroe defeats Rufus King for president of the United States with 183 electoral votes to Kings 34.

Indiana is admitted to the United States as the nineteenth state.

Events of 1817-The construction of the Erie canal is begun. The canal would eventually connect the Atlantic Ocean to the Great lakes through the Hudson River with 83 locks over 363 miles. The canal, when completed in 1825, would reduce transportation costs by 90 percent.

The United States admits Mississippi to the union as the twentieth state.

Events of 1818-The flag of the United States is officially adopted by Congress with thirteen red and white stripes and one star for each state.

Illinois is admitted as the twenty-first state to join the union.

The northern boundary between the United States and Canada is established between the U.S.A. and Great Britain.

Events of 1819-The Talmadge Amendment is passed in the House of Representatives, stating that slaves would be barred in the new state of Missouri. The U.S. Senate refused to pass the bill.

Events of 1820-James Monroe is elected to a second term as President of the United States in a landslide victory over John Quincy Adams. Monroe defeated Adams by a vote of the electoral college of 231 to 1.

The population in the United States reaches 9,600,000, a 33 percent increase from the population in 1810.

The Missouri Compromise of 1820 helped postpone the Civil war. The disputes over allowing states to join the union as a free state versus a slave state involved the political competition between the southern and northern states for power in Congress and for control over future territories. With Congress being made up of two senators per state, both the north and the south feared tipping the balance of power in favor of the other. Prior to Maine and Missouri entering the union as the twenty first and twenty second states, the sectional power in the senate was equally balanced with ten slave and ten free states each. To maintain political power balance, the Missouri compromise admitted Maine as a free state and Missouri as a slave state. In an attempt to head off future controversy and debates, the compromise also defined the future expansion of slave states into the Louisiana Territory. A second amendment was adopted excluding slavery from the Louisiana territory north of the 36th parallel (the southern boundary of Missouri), except within the limits of Missouri. The Senate and the house approved the bill on February 17, 1820. In a letter dated April 22, Thomas Jefferson wrote, "the division of the country created by the compromise line would eventually lead to the destruction of the Union."

Events of 1822-Florida, purchased from Spain in 1821, officially becomes a territory of the United States.

Events of 1823—President James Monroe announces the Monroe Doctrine, stating American policy: European intervention anywhere in the Americas will be opposed and that he would establish neutrality in future European wars.

Events of 1824-The Bureau of Indian affairs is established to regulate trade with Indian tribes.

A frontier treaty agreeing to borders in the Pacific between the United States and Russia is agreed to.

John Quincy Adams is elected President of the United States by the House of Representatives. In the first election with a popular vote, Adams received less popular votes than Andrew Jackson. When the electoral college vote yielded no majority, Jackson - 99, Adams - 84, Clay - 37, and Crawford - 41, the election was thrown into the House of Representatives.

Events of 1825-The Creek Indian tribe give up their last lands in the United states in Georgia and move west.

Use of the Erie Canal begins with the first boat leaving Buffalo, New York, for New York city. At a cost of 7 million, shipping costs in the Great lakes were reduced by 90 percent.

The first experimental steam locomotive is built and operated by JohnStevens.

Events of 1826-The internal combustion engine is patented by American Samuel Morey.

Two American founding fathers, President John Adams and President Thomas Jefferson, pass away on the same day, July 4, 1826, the fiftieth birthday of the Declaration of Independence for the UnitedStates.

Events of 1827-A statute is passed in New York state to end slavery.

Congress ratifies a treaty that establishes the Sabine River as the Mexican and United States border.

Events of 1828-The first passenger train in the United States begins with service between Baltimore and Ohio.

The first American Dictionary of the English language is published by Noah Webster.

Events of 1829-William Burt invents and patents the first typewriter, called a typographer.

Andrew Jackson becomes the seventh President of the United States, defeating John Quincy Adams.

Events of 1830-The United States population increased by 33 percent in the past decade to 12,860,000.

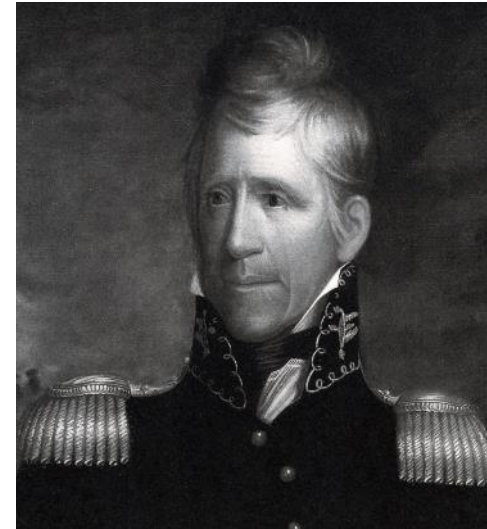
The United States Congress approves the Indian removal act, facilitating the relocation of Indian tribes to lands west of the Mississippi River. The act did not order their removal, but paved the way for increased pressure on Indians to accept land-exchange treaties.

Events of 1831-Robert E. Lee, a Lieutenant in the Federal Army, married the great-granddaughter of Martha Washington in Arlington, Virginia overlooking the nations' capitol.

A slave rebellion in Virginia, led by slave Nat Turner, killed fifty-seven white citizens; Turner was tried and hung for his part in the rebellion.

The Life of Andrew Jackson (1767-1845)

Andrew Jackson was born in a log cabin built by his father, a farmer who cleared a few acres in the western Carolinas. He never knew his father who had emigrated from Ireland two years earlier and died three weeks before his son was born. He received a sporadic education at two local academies. Jackson grew up in the company of his two brothers and cousins at a time of Revolutionary ferment. Andrew Jackson was the last president of the United States to have served in the American Revolution. His eldest brother, Hugh, died in the battle of Stono Ferry in 1779. Andrew, at the age of thirteen, joined a local militia as a courier; Andrew and his youngest brother, Robert, were captured by the British and held as prisoners



where they contracted smallpox and nearly starved to death. Robert died in April of 1781, a few days after their mother, Elizabeth, secured their release. Orphaned by the war at 14, Elizabeth died in November of 1781 of "ship fever" (probably typhus) contracted on a prison ship in Charleston harbor while caring for American's imprisoned by the British.

After finishing school, he taught school himself for a year or two in an Episcopal church in South Carolina. Finally, in 1784 he decided to pursue a practice in law and at the age of seventeen rode seventy-five miles to Salisbury, North Carolina to study law under Spruce McCay, an eminent attorney. In September of 1787 he appeared for examination and was found competent to practice law. In the spring of 1788, Jackson, along with a group of young attorneys and court clerks, agreed to move as a band together across the mountains to establish their practice; the two settlements where they established their frontier practice, Morgantown and Nashville, were small, new towns in the eastern Tennessee area wilderness, which was infested with hostile Indians.

In 1791 he married Rachel Donelson, recently divorced and the youngest daughter of one of the first families of the Tennessee area. As his reputation grew as a frontier lawyer, he was elected as a delegate to the Tennessee constitutional convention in 1796. In June of 1796, Tennessee was admitted to the new Union as the sixteenth state. William Blount, appointed to the United States Senate from Tennessee, was determined to advance the young Jackson's career by running him for the single seat in the United States House of Representatives for Tennessee; Blount desired Jackson's strong connections with the settlers of the western part of the state. At the age of twenty-nine, Jackson arrived in Philadelphia, the nation's capital at the time, to deliberate in the Fourth Congress. The next year Jackson won election to the Senate, but did clearly not belong there as he failed completely as a senator and resigned his seat without explanation.

.In 1804 Jackson acquired the land for the Hermitage, a 640-acre plantation with a two-story log home near Nashville. The plantation would ultimately be expanded to 1,050 acres to grow cotton, the primary crop. Jackson owned up to 150 slaves, making him among the planter elite. Jackson was a major land speculator and was one of the three original investors who founded Memphis, Tennessee in 1819.

Jackson was leading a comfortable and placid life at the Hermitage as a farmer when war was declared against Great Britain in 1812.

Andrew Jackson's Hermitage in Nashville, Tennessee





The Hermitage library where Jackson spent his retired years



The central hall, including an elliptical staircase and wallpaper from France, both add drama to the room

Jackson was forty-five during this period of time when he was the commanding major general of the Tennessee militia. It was during the war of 1812 he would achieve his first national fame. In 1814, Jackson commanded American forces who defeated the Creek Indians at the Battle of Horseshoe Bend where eight-hundred Indians were killed in the battle. Jackson imposed a treaty upon the Indians wresting twenty million acres in present day Georgia and Alabama from the Creeks for American settlement. In 1815 Jackson commanded the final battle in the War of 1812 The Battle of New Orleans in January of 1815 was a decisive victory where General Jackson melded a largely amateur force into an army, one that vanquished a sophisticated British force twice its size. The general had marshaled his limited naval resources to harry the overwhelming British naval forces on the Mississippi. Despite a lack of military training, he had improvised a brilliant defensive strategy and deployed his men in a way to take advantage of their strengths and minimized their weaknesses. Jackson proved himself not only to be able to inspire men to do their duty but also to be the ablest general in the war.

In 1817 Jackson was ordered by President Monroe to lead a campaign against the Seminole and Creek Indians in Georgia and northern Florida. The executions of Seminole Indians and invasions into Spanish held Florida ultimately provided the catalyst for Spain to cede Florida to the United States. Jackson was subsequently named Florida's military governor in 1821. Jackson was never considered to be a great general, but because of his absolute determination to win at any cost, he was capable of extraordinary feats of courage. Jackson's role in the War of 1812 was crucial to the future of American expansion. Not only did he spare the nation an almost certain amputation of territory in the southwest if the British would have taken New Orleans, but he also prepared for future growth with the removal of several hostile Indian tribes from the southern and western territories. By 1818 Andrew Jackson had become one of the most esteemed and beloved of private citizens in the United States.

In 1821, at the age of 55, he returned to the Heritage a sick and exhausted man on the edge of physical collapse. He suffered daily pain from the two bullets lodged in his body, one which caused regular abscesses which produced spasms of coughing and massive hemorrhages. He had also contracted dysentery and malaria for which he periodically took large doses of mercury and lead.

In October of 1823, Jackson was elected by the Tennessee legislature to a seat in the United States Senate; shortly thereafter, many were telling him he must permit his name to be brought forward for the 1824 presidential election. During this period many citizens were becoming disenchanted with the level of corruption in the national government and banking system and hope was placed in Jackson to restore the principles of the constitution, preserving our republican government and liberties.

The presidential election of 1824 was the first presidential election in which the popular vote figured into the outcome, however, the electors still determined the winner. Jackson won both the popular vote and the electoral college, but failed to carry a majority in the electoral college. As a result, the selection was determined by the House of Representatives, which gave the presidency to John Quincy Adams. Whether Jackson might have taken some action to block the Adams coalition in the House of Representatives will never be known because Jackson was in bed suffering from hemorrhage after hemorrhage, slipping in and out of consciousness, and was close to death. Upon his recovery, and convinced of the need for reform in the practices and operation of the government, Jackson set in motion the campaign for the 1828 presidential election, which would later be called, "The Jacksonian Democracy." The struggle launched what seemed a perpetual struggle of liberty versus power, virtue versus corruption, and the people versus the elite.

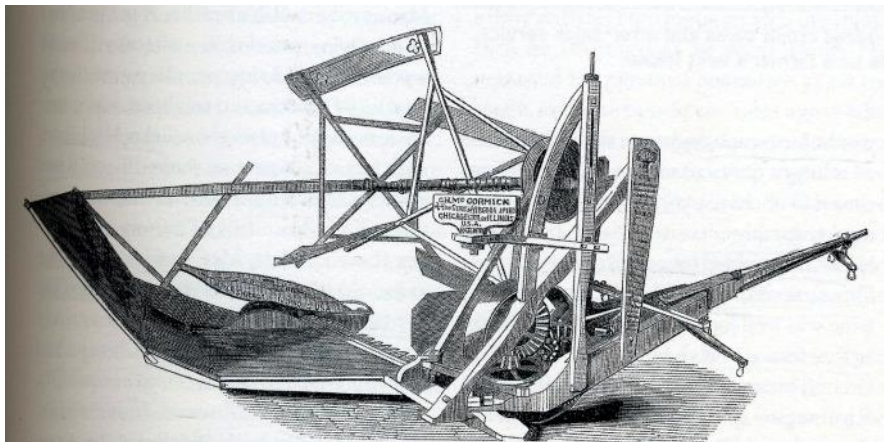
Jackson ultimately resigned from the senate in order to give more attention to his presidential quest. A great shift toward a republican revolution was taking place as Jackson successfully demolished Adams in both the popular vote and the electoral college in the 1828 presi-

dential election. Jackson's victory, however, did not actually attract a vast out pouring of voters; in a country of 13 million, only 1,155,000 white male voters participated in the election. Before he could relish his victory and inauguration, his beloved wife Rachel died of a heart attack on December 22, being buried on Christmas Eve.

The popular Jackson easily won reelection for a second term in 1832. His presidency, from 1829 to 1837 was highlighted by his passion to curtail corruption in government; known as the spoils system, Jackson implemented a process of rotating new people into politically appointed offices to wash out holdovers from past administrations, therefore minimizing corruption. Jackson also took a strong stance against corruption in the banking system by opposing the National Bank of the United States. Perhaps the most controversial aspect of Jackson's presidency was his policy toward Native Indians and their removal to the lands west of the Mississippi River.

Another notable crisis during the Jackson administration was the "secession crisis," where South Carolina threatened to leave the Union. The agitation began in 1828 when Congress passed a protective tariff on imports of British textiles to protect northern American producers of cloth. However, this shrunk British demand for southern raw cotton. In 1832 a majority of states right proponents in the South Carolina State House passed the South Carolina Ordinance Nullification Act to nullify federal tariffs. President Jackson challenged the state right proponents with federal troops to enforce the federal law. Many feel Jackson's actions prevented secession by South Carolina and established a precedent for President Lincoln.

Jackson enjoyed eight years of retirement at the Hermitage after his presidency. He remained influential in both national and state politics, remaining a firm advocate of the federal union of the states and rejecting any talk of secession; he frequently said, "I will die with the Union." Jackson had three adopted sons and acted as guardian for eight additional children. Jackson was a lean figure, standing 6 feet, 1 inch, and weighed a slight 140 pounds; he had shocking red hair and penetrating blue eyes. He died at the age of seventy-eight from chronic tuberculosis and heart failure and was buried in the tomb next to Rachel at the Hermitage.



A sketch of an 1848 reaper that thrashed wheat

Events of 1831-Cyrus McCormick invented the first commercially successful reaper. At the age of 22, the reaper was first used in the Shenandoah Valley of Virginia in 1831. Then with adventurous manufacturing, innovative financing, and imaginative marketing, he enabled many thousands of farmers to harvest the great plains of America. In 1830, three million out of an American labor force of four million worked in Agriculture. McCormick's reaper was the single greatest step toward the American mechanization of agriculture as it freed the way millions of people all over the world had been harvesting grain with a sickle and scythe for thousands of years. But the reaper was really much more. As well as enabling America to feed itself, and eventually millions around the world as well, the reaper freed labor for the industrial revolution. In 1902 the McCormick Harvesting Machinery Company was the dominant company in a

merger to found International Harvester Company.

Events of 1832-The first act of Congress to protect natural resources was signed into law to preserve land in Hot Springs, Arkansas. The Black Hawk war begins in Wisconsin and Illinois and would lead to the removal of Sauk and Fox Indians west of the Mississippi River.

The first wagons crossed the Continental Divide on the Oregon Trail at Wyoming's South Pass by one hundred and ten men and twenty-one wagons.

President Jackson asks for a constitutional amendment to abolish the elector college vote in the presidential election and limit presidential service to one six-year term. The amendment failed to pass.

The "Trail of Tears." President Jackson offered a solution as to what to do with the Native Indians; he fervently believed they would be safest on land west of the Mississippi River. Jackson suggested the western lands would be guaranteed to the Indians as long as they occupied it; each tribe could have their own government and not be subject to any control of the United States government as long as they maintained peace on the frontier between one another and the white settlers. The Indian Removal Act of 1830 authorized Jackson to carry out a plan to remove the Indians to the west; this plan would give the American Indians title to new public land west of the Mississippi as compensation for the land they currently occupied. An appropriation of \$500,000 was approved by Congress to pay for assistance in relocating the tribes to their new land in the west, as well as financial support for one year. It is believed Jackson was motivated out of concern for the Indians safety and preservation of their culture. However, he was also concerned about the safety of the United States, the military, the white settlers, as well as a commitment to subjecting the inhabitants of each state to its laws. In December of 1835, a fraudulent treaty was eventually signed by the southern Cherokee nation to arrange for the exchange of land. What was to follow was to be known as the "trail of tears" where 18,000 Cherokees were rounded up, imprisoned, and marched west on foot; 4,000 died on the torturous imprisonment and westward journey. It became one of the most disgraceful and heart-rendering episodes in American history. Similar agony accompanied the removal of the Seminole Indians in Florida, as well as other tribes in the northwest. By the end of the Jackson administration, 45,690 Indians had been relocated beyond the Mississippi River which made available 100 million acres of land to white settlers east of the Mississippi.

Preserving the Union. The tariff of 1832, which imposed duties (federal taxes) on manufactured goods being imported from the northern states, seemed certain to entice ambitious men into provoking trouble in the south; President Jackson's concerns were the nullifiers in South Carolina. Upon hearing the news of Jackson's overwhelming reelection to a second term, a special session of the South Carolina legislature convened at the request of the governor; the state legislature nullified the Tariff of 1832 by a vote of 136 to 26, rendering the federal tariff null and void in the state of South Carolina. Following the nullification legislation, events in South Carolina began to move swiftly toward confrontation with the federal government and possible civil war. To enunciate his position, President Jackson issued a presidential proclamation to the people of South Carolina saying, "The Union must be preserved and its laws duly executed. The perpetuity of the Union is stamped upon the Constitution by the blood of our fathers. Nothing can dissolve the Union. Nothing. Constitutional amendment was the process provided to secure needed changes. For this reason, a state may not secede, much less hazard the Union. Nullification therefore means insurrection to war; and the other states have a right to put it down." In reaction to a federal military

build-up and national opinion siding with the President, the nullification laws were repealed by the South Carolina legislature in 1833. President Jackson was the first statesman to deny the right of any state to secede from the Union. His position in response to South Carolina's nullification act and secession threats provided the basis of Abraham Lincoln's argument needed to justify his course of action to meet secession in 1861.

Events of 1833-President Jackson is inaugurated to a second term with Martin Van Buren as his Vice President.

Events of 1834-Opposition to the National Bank. President Jackson linked the Second Bank of the United States with corruption, subversive of the rights of the states, dangerous to the liberties of the people, and a monopoly that benefited the elite but hindered the common man. The mounting public pressure not to renew the charter of the National Bank, coupled with Jackson's resolve to kill the Bank of the United States, gave Congress the strength to organize a majority vote to deny the National Bank a new charter. Next, Congress voted to have state banks be continued as places of deposits for federal funds. Jackson proposed a series of measures that would provide a general reform of the banking system now that the National Bank of the United States was officially dead. He submitted that banks submit monthly reports of their condition, that the government has the right to inspect books and records, that gold and silver be revalued, that regular transactions under \$20 be restricted to gold and silver specie, and paper notes be reserved only for commercial transactions over \$20.00. Congress never did enact the regulation of the state banks, resulting in a collection of unregulated banks.

Events of 1835-The first assassination attempt on a President of the United States took place in the United States Capitol when an unemployed painter fired two shots at Andrew Jackson. Jackson confronted the attacker with his cane after the point-blank shots misfired.

Texas proclaimed the rights to secede from Mexico as Sam Houston took command of the Texas army. The Texas army captured San Antonio in December.

The entire National debt of the federal government is paid off, which was the only time in U.S. history the federal debt has been zero.

Events of 1836-On March 2, Texas independence was declared, making Texas free from Mexico; this event took place while 189 Texans were under siege for thirteen days by 3,000 Mexican troops at a mission (the Alamo) in San Antonio.

President Jackson created the Specie Act, requiring buyers of government land to pay in specie (gold or silver coins). The result was a great demand for specie, which the banks did not have enough of to exchange for their paper notes, causing the financial Panic of 1837. The severe depression increased the government debt to \$3.3 million.

Sam Colt received his patent for his repeating revolver in 1836. With Colt's six chamber revolver cocking the hammer caused the cylinder to rotate automatically and line up with a fresh charge. In the pursuit of an army contract, Colt pursued and was invited to competitive gun trials for the army both in 1837 and again in 1840, only to be rejected both times. His luck changed when he pursued a meeting with a Texas Ranger by the name of Walker. Captain Walker had used the pistol and was willing to work with Colt to redesign it. Once it was redesigned into a 44-caliber six shooter with a nine-inch barrel that would fire both lead balls and the new oval shaped bullets, Walker carried it into President Polk's office with a glaring testimony. The army ordered 1,000 revolvers and shortly thereafter, Walker and his army of 250 men, routed a Mexican army of 1,600 using Colt's repeating pistol. Following the battle, the U.S. Army ordered another 1,000 pistols from Colt. Colt's factory ultimately employed 1,000 people and was the first factory in America to achieve volume production with precision machinery. Sam Colt died at the age of 48 in 1862 worth \$15 million (\$300 million today).



American's on the move west

With the peace in 1815, after the War of 1812, Americans were eager to move west. The Indians had been defeated and were being moved west of the Mississippi River. Eastern farms soils worn thin by repeated over-cropping were selling for \$14 to \$50 per acre, while government lands west of the Appalachian Mountains were priced so reasonably one could purchase 320 acres for only \$160 down with another \$480 due over four years.

The move from East to West was not as difficult as a generation earlier. Steamboats and flat boats could easily navigate the Ohio River to lands with rich- humus soils in southern Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. Migrating settlers could float down the Hudson River, through the Erie Canal (completed in 1825) to the Great Lakes; from their they could reach the great lake plain states of the north. Others followed the National Road, completed in 1811, through the Cumberland pass of the Appalachian Mountains to Kentucky and Tennessee. As the Indians departed the southwest in the thirties, hordes of invading settlers came from the Carolina's and eastern Georgia - where repeated plantings of tobacco had worn and gullied the land; the settlers swept into western Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi. By the 1840's the "cotton kingdoms" had been established, laying the foundations for the sectional conflicts that would erupt into the Civil War. Missouri filled so rapidly that it entered the Union in 1821; Arkansas was admitted in 1836 and Iowa in 1846.

The great land rush west of the Mississippi to the Pacific Ocean would be propelled by the completion of the coast to coast transcontinental railroad completed in 1869. Where the railroad went, telegraph poles went up to provide communication. And the Homestead Act signed into law by President Lincoln in 1862 granted small farmers 160 acres of federal land at no cost. As a result, the number of small farms tripled in the grass lands of the west in the last forty years of the 19th century. The western expansion of the United States was one of the greatest population movements in history as the government gave 270 million acres of land to 2.5 million settlers.

The First Industrial Revolution

The first industrial revolution was a slow process of economic and social change between 1780 and the 1830's. During this period of time there was a transition to new manufacturing processes which included going from hand production methods to machines, new chemical manufacturing and iron production processes, improved efficiency of utilizing water power, the increased use of steam power, and the development of machine tools all led to improved productivity. This period also included the change from wood to coal for fuel and heat.

The industrial revolution, emerging from the financial incentives of capitalistic economies, greatly influenced the rise in per-capita economic growth; for the first time in history, average income and standard of living for the mass population exhibited unprecedented sustained growth. Textiles were the dominant industry in terms of employment, value of output, and capital invested; textiles were also the first to use modern production methods. Mechanized cotton spinning, powered by steam or water, increased the output of a worker by a factor of about 1000 times. The power loom increased the output of a worker by a factor of 40. The cotton gin increased productivity by 50 times by mechanically removing the seed from the cotton.

During the industrial revolution, steam engines became the dominant source of power and remained so until the early decades of the 20th century. The efficiency of steam power underwent rapid expansion after 1800. Compound engines with two cylinders were developed to provide pressure reaching 50 psi with greatly reduced coal consumption. The newer high-pressure engines had a high power to weight ratio, making them suitable for transportation and industrial use. The first Watt low pressure steam engine was released to the market in 1774. In 1807 Fulton used a Watt steam engine to power the first commercially successful steamboat. In 1804, Oliver Evens won a federal patent for a high-pressure steam engine and by 1811 he had opened up the first steam engine manufacturing factory, producing engines ranging from 8 to 70 horsepower. Evans lived to see his high-pressure engines, with 150 PSI, power the big steamboats running at nine miles perhour.

The improvements in iron making is another innovation closely linked to the industrial revolution. The substitution of coke (which is made from coal) for charcoal greatly lowered fuel costs for wrought iron production in the first half of the 1800's.

Children were the choice for much of the labor during the industrial revolution as there was no need for strength to operate industrial machines. An employer could pay children less even though their productivity was comparable to an adult; children were paid 10-20 percent of an adult male wage. Many children were forced to work in very poor conditions for up to 12-14 hours per day; beatings, death, life-threatening diseases, and limb decapitation were common; those who tried to run away would be whipped and shackled. Child labor remained in the United States until child labor laws were passed early in the 20th century.

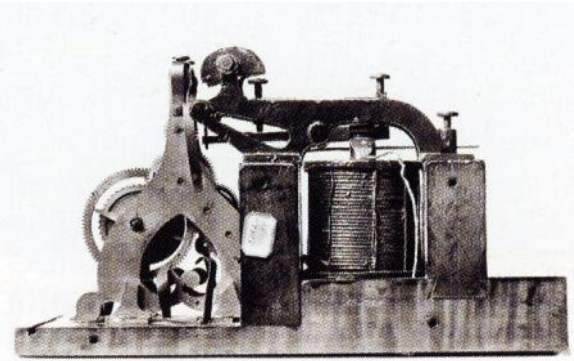
Events of 1837-Martin Van Buren is inaugurated President of the United States, defeating William Harrison.

The economic crisis, known as the Panic of 1837, begins with the failure of several New York City banks; unemployment would reach record levels during the economic depression.

Events of 1838-The territory of Iowa is established.

Frederick Douglass, future abolitionist, boards a train in Maryland to freedom from slavery with borrowed identification and a sailor's uniform from a free black seaman.

Samuel Morse, a portrait painter who later turned to invention, first publicly demonstrated the telegraph in 1838 and developed the Morse Code system of communication. It was Morse's tenacity to transmit intelligence over a long distance by using electromagnetism that made the telegraph possible. With the help of Henry, who had invented short distance electric telegraph four years earlier, and Gale, a professor who helped Morse improve his circuits, they were able to transmit a signal over a distance of 1,700 feet. With the financial assistance of \$2,000 from Vail, they successfully transmitted a signal over two five-mile length wires by 1838. An American patent was granted in 1840. As the trio - Morse, Gale, and Vail, simplified the machine, Morse completed a code of dots and dashes for each letter of the alphabet. In 1843 the U.S. government passed a bill authorizing \$30,000 to run a trial line of forty miles from Baltimore to Washington. On May 24 Morse successfully transmitted a message from the Supreme Court Chamber to Baltimore. Morse always believed the government should fund the telegraph and operate it and offered to yield his patent rights to the government for \$100,000, but to no avail. Disappointed, Morse and his owners decided to organize their own private stock company. Regardless of Morse's poor business instincts, telegraphs spread as fast as men could string wires. Within five years there were 12,000 miles of telegraph wire run by 20 companies. In 1856, Hiram Sibly brought some order to the chaos by merging several of the small companies into the Western Union Telegraph Company. By the 1860's telegraph wires were approaching 250,000 mile in the United States, and the continents were linked by 100,000 miles of under-sea cables; the electric telegraph system Samuel Morse developed transformed the world.



An early 1847 telegraph; the large electromagnetic coil in the center received the signal and attracted the lever arm. A paper tape for the transmitted Morse Code was pulled through the machine by weights.

Events of 1839-During the decade of the thirties, German American immigrants introduce the tradition of decorating Christmas trees during the holidays.

Mississippi passes the first state law allowing women to own property.

William Otis receives a patent for the steam shovel.

Charles Goodyear invents rubber vulcanization. After nineteen years of experimenting, Goodyear's patent is granted in 1844. Goodyear ultimately accepted an offer of \$50,000 for the unlimited manufacturing rights of rubber products; the two investors who opened a factory producing shoes, suspenders, elastics, and clothing, experienced rapid growth and in time became the United States Rubber Company and later Uniroyal.

Events of 1840-Antarctica is claimed for the United States when Captain Charles Wilkes circumnavigates the continent and claims the land for the United States.

The population of the United States grows to 17,063,353, up 33 percent from the decade before. The center of the population slowly is moving west from the eastern coast.

Events of 1841-The Supreme Court ruled that the Africans who wrestled control of a slave ship were bound into slavery illegally.

President William Harrison defeats one term President Martin Van Buren. President Harrison dies of pneumonia one month after his inauguration and is succeeded by Vice President John Tyler.

President Tyler vetoes the bill establishing the Second bank of the United States, causing the worst riot on the White House grounds in American history.

Events of 1842-The first organized wagon train on the Oregon Trail leaves with more than one hundred pioneers from Elm Grove, Missouri; the journey took approximately six months.

The People's Party of Rhode Island rebel to overturn a charter to extend voting rights to those who do not own property.

The border between the United States and Canada is fixed east of the Rocky Mountains, including Maine and Minnesota. The University of Notre Dame is founded.

Events of 1843-The first major wagon train headed for the northwest via the Oregon Trail leaves Elm Grove, Missouri with one thousand pioneers.

Events of 1845-The United States admits Texas into the union as the 28th state.

Alexander Cartwright and his New York Knickerbockers baseball team codify the rules of baseball for the first time. Inventor Elias Howe invents the sewing machine.

James K. Polk becomes the eleventh President of the United States.

Events of 1846-The Oregon Treaty is signed with Great Britain, fixing the boundary of the United States and Canada at the 49th parallel from the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific.

The Mexican-American War

On May 13, 1846, war is declared against Mexico by the United States after a makeshift American fort on the Rio Grande River was attacked by a 2,000 strong Mexican cavalry. The Texas territory and the Rio Grande border had been disputed by Mexico since the annexation of Texas by the United States. President Polk sent General Zachary Taylor, with a force of 3,500 American volunteers, to protect the Texas border and take over the disputed land by force. Polk not only wanted to claim the disputed Rio Grande border, but also coveted the land clear to the Pacific. To end another war scare, the territories to the Pacific were feared to be under imminent threat of acquisition by the British.

The war increased north-south sectional rivalry and was an essential element in the origins of the Civil War. Southern Democrats supported the war in hope of adding more slave holding territory to ultimately strengthen their power in Congress; the south feared being outnumbered in Congress by a faster population growth in the industrialized north. The northern Whigs opposed the war, voicing a preference to strengthen the economy with industrialization, not expand it with more land. Northern abolitionists attacked the war attempt by slave-owners attempt to strengthen the grip of slavery and thus ensure their continued influence in the federal government.

The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo was signed on February 2, 1848. The treaty gave the United States undisputed control of Texas to the Rio Grande, present day California, Nevada, Utah, New Mexico, most of Arizona and Colorado, and parts of Oklahoma, Kansas, and Wyoming. In return Mexico received \$15 million dollars.

The military campaign swelled to more than 115,000 American soldiers; as many as 35-40 percent ultimately died of war related inju-

ries and diseases. Both Winfield Scott and Zachary Taylor became American national war heroes and later became presidential candidates. Many of the military officers on both sides of the Civil War were junior officers in the Mexican-American War, including: Ulysses S. Grant, Robert E. Lee, George McClellan, Burnside, Stonewall Jackson, Longstreet, Johnston, Sherman, and Meade.

An interesting note, the newly invented telegraph created a new means of communication that kept the public updated with the latest news from reporters on the war scene. This was the first time in American history that accounts by journalists, instead of opinions by politicians, caused considerable influence in shaping people's opinions about and attitudes toward a war.

Events of 1848-Gold is discovered in California by James Marshal; seven months later the New York Herald breaks the news to east coast readers, prompting 80,000 prospectors to flood California and the coast around San Francisco.

The treaty to end the American-Mexican War is signed.

The first adhesive postage stamps go on sale for five cents with Benjamin Franklin gracing the front, and George Washington on the front of the ten-cent stamp.

Wisconsin is admitted to the union.

Events of 1849-Zachary Taylor, hero of the American-Mexican war, becomes the twelfth President of the United States.

Regular steamboat service is inaugurated between the east and west coast after the SS California makes its maiden voyage from New York to San Francisco around the tip of South America; the voyage took nearly five months.

The events of the 1850's leading up to the Civil War

Since the earlier colonial period in Virginia, slavery had been part of the socioeconomic system of British North America and was recognized in the thirteen colonies at the time of the Declaration of Independence in 1776. Since then, events and statements about slavery made by politicians and others brought forth differences, tensions, and divisions between the people of the southern slave states and the people of the free states in the north. The large underlying issue, since the time of the drafting of the Declaration of Independence, was whether slavery should be retained in the south, be allowed to expand into the new western territories and states, or be abolished completely. Over many decades, these issues and divisions became increasingly irreconcilable and contentious.

In the four decades following the War of 1812, The United States experienced profound changes in its population, economy, boundaries, and social relations. In the first decade of the 1800's, a letter took twenty days to get from Maine to South Carolina. The roads and communication that attempted to bind the country together were haphazard. The experience of the War of 1812 propelled the country to build better roads, bridges, and canals and then the railroads began to supplement transportation in the thirties and forties. As transportation improved, westward expansion east of the Appalachian Mountains was much easier. The telegraph appeared in the forties to improve communication and advances in paper and printing also created rapid reporting of the news around the country.

During this period of time there was a transformation going on in the north. Small, rural farmers increased their crop yield substantially due to the advancement of farm equipment - steel cutting blades, threshers, and iron plows. A market revolution was taking place in the northern cities. Steam engines transformed mining and iron production, powered mills and workshops, and moved goods by rail and water. Textile mills, the largest industry in the pre-civil war decades, had expanded from 8,000 spindles for making thread to 1.2 million spindles by 1831. As a result of the rapid growth of cities and industry in the north, 87 percent of the immigrants flowing into the United States settled in the industrialized cities of the north.

As the first industrial revolution was taking place in the north, life in the south was based on cotton production; half of the United States

exports prior to the Civil War was cotton, and increased cotton production required an increasing number of slaves to work the fields. With the addition of new slave states admitted to the union all the way to Texas (admitted to the union as a slave state in 1845), thousands of white men sought profits from the rich, virgin soils in the southwest. As the number of plantations swelled, the slave population grew from 700,000 in 1800 to four million by the 1860. For the many Americans in the north who hoped slavery would fade out in the south, just the opposite event was unfolding.

Southerners started to see their society as distinctive from the rest of the union and feared both the abolitionist movements in the north as well as the north's growing political strength in Congress. With populations in the north expanding at a faster rate than in the south, the north politically outnumbered the south in congress by 1850, further threatening their way of life.

Events of 1850-Millard Fillmore is sworn in as the thirteenth President of the United States in July after the death of Zachary Tyler the day before; his policies on the topic of slavery did not appease expansionists of slavery.

The 1850 census counted 23,191,876 population, a 36 percent increase over the previous decade. The most populous state was New York with over three million people.

While the **Great Compromise of 1850** was being debated in Congress, nine southern states discussed state rights and slavery at the Nashville Convention. The convention discussed secession from the union, but adjourns due to passage of the laws from the Compromise of 1850.

Debate in the U.S. Congress on the future of slavery in the new western territories, acquired from the American-Mexican war, escalates when Henry Clay introduces a compromise to settle the issue of the expansion of slavery to the new western territories. The Compromise of 1850 consisted of five bills designed to balance the interests of North and South. The bills admitted California as a free state, ending the balance in the Senate between free states and slave states that had lasted since the Missouri Compromise of 1820; Texas, a slave state, was denied expansion into the New Mexico territory; as a concession to the south, the territories of Utah and New Mexico were allowed to choose slavery or freedom according to a popular vote of the sovereignty. The Fugitive Slave Act, which had been federal law since 1793, was given new teeth, stating it became a federal offense, even in free states, to resist or refuse to assist in the recapture of a runaway slave.

Events of 1851-**Isaac Singer's sewing machine** was the first practical sewing machine, altogether superior to anything that had been produced before. Elias Howe's first sewing machine at top speed was 250 stitches per minute, while Singer's machine produced 900 stitches per minute. Elias Howe, who had a crucial patent on the lockstitch used in Singer's sewing machine, settled a law suit to receive \$5.00 for every Singer machine sold. Singer, financially penniless, joined in a partnership with Edward Clark to defend the law suit by Howe. Once the law suit was settled, the patent for the Singer sewing machine was granted in 1851. Singer continued to make improvements as the machines were manufactured one at a time until 1860. During the sixties and seventies, Clark matched Singer's technical talents with dazzling commercial developments. Clark supported elaborate showrooms staffed with young women, widespread branch offices with repair mechanics, instructors, salespeople, installment credit terms, and swift distribution of parts. His multi-layered industry served as a model for the future automobile and appliance industry. The Singer sewing machine was the first mass market consumer durable product; by 1879 the Singer company was selling through 530 retail stores, dominating three-fourths of the entire world market. Singer was truly the first international business; by its centennial Singer had sold 100 million machines in 67 countries and had a 90 percent share of the world market. At the time of Singer's death in 1875, he was able to leave an estate worth \$150 million in today's dollars.

Events of 1852-Harriet Stowe, a Connecticut teacher and abolitionist, published ***Uncle Tom's Cabin*** in response to the tougher legislation regarding the Fugitive Slave Act. *Uncle Tom's Cabin* featured the character Uncle Tom, a long-suffering black slave around whom the stories of other characters revolve; the sentimental novel depicts the reality of slavery. *Uncle Tom's Cabin* was the second

best-selling book of the 19th century, following the Bible. It is credited with helping fuel the abolitionist cause in the 1850's.

Events of 1853-Franklin Pierce is sworn in as the fourteenth president of the United States.

Events of 1854-The Kansas-Nebraska Act reopened up the debate as to whether the new western territories of Nebraska and Kansas should be slave or free. The Missouri Compromise of 1820 had already specified everything north of Missouri's southern border would be free. Stephen Douglas, a senator from Illinois, argued for repeal of the compromise of 1820, thus opening up the western territories of Kansas and Nebraska for the expansion of slavery. Abraham Lincoln, who denounced slavery as evil, attacked Douglas and the expansion of slavery. Douglas was able to coerce enough Democrats in the senate to approve the Kansas-Nebraska Act, which allowed for each territory to determine for itself free or slave based upon a popular vote of the settlers. After four years of corruption and rigged voting, both territories ultimately opted to be free with the aid of federal monitoring of the voting.

Events of 1855-The first railroad train crosses the Mississippi River on the first bridge to cross the river constructed at Rock Island, Illinois to Davenport, Iowa.

Events of 1856-Henry Bessemer developed the first inexpensive industrial process for the mass-production of steel from molten pig iron; he took out a patent on the process in 1855. At the time, steel was too expensive to use for anything but smaller items like cutlery and tools. The Bessemer process revolutionized steel manufacturing by decreasing its cost by one-eighth and the time to manufacture by one-sixth. Prior to the Bessemer process, wrought iron had been used throughout the first industrial revolution. The availability of cheap steel after 1858 allowed large bridges to be built and enabled construction of railroads, skyscrapers, and large ships.

Events of 1857-James Buchanan is sworn in as the 15th President of the United States.

The U.S. Supreme Court reached the notorious Dred Scott decision stating that a slave (in this case Dred Scott) did not become free when transported into a free state. The court's ruling also said that prohibiting slavery in a federal territory was unconstitutional, and that African-Americans, free or slave, were not citizens of the United States. This ruling emboldened pro-slavery leaders.

Events of 1858-The first transatlantic cable is completed but fails its test due to a weak current.

A series of political debates between politician Stephen Douglas and Abraham Lincoln occur in Illinois.

Events of 1859-The first productive oil well for commercial use is drilled by Edwin L. Drake in Titusville, Pennsylvania.

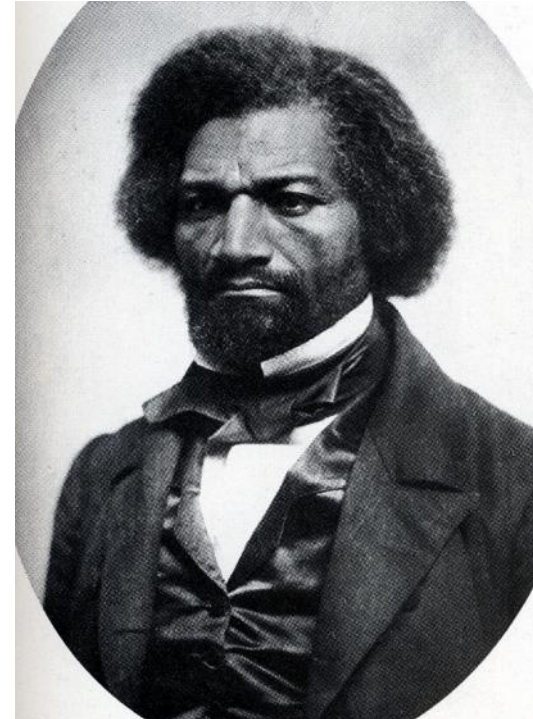
Oregon is admitted as a state.

John Brown, who had a hatred for slavery, seized upon the idea of inciting a slave insurrection. He believed if slaves rose up in great numbers, the economy of the south would collapse. Brown gathered a small group of radical abolitionists to raid the federal armory at Harpers Ferry, Virginia, which would provide some 18,000 slaves living in the surrounding counties with weapons. Brown's attack of the armory failed and only a few escaped being captured by the Virginia marines. Brown was found guilty of treason against Virginia and was sentenced to hang. Northern newspapers noted Brown's extremism, but reminded readers that it resulted from the presence of slavery - a moral and political evil.

Events of 1860-Republican candidate Abraham Lincoln defeats three opponents-Douglas, Breckinridge, and Bell - to become the 16th President of the United States. Lincoln was not an abolitionist, he promised not to threaten slavery in the south, but ran on an anti-slavery platform regarding expansion of slavery into the western territories.

South Carolina responds to the election of Lincoln by being the first southern state to secede from the union.

Frederick Douglass (1818-1895), was the son of a slave woman and an unknown white man. He rarely saw his mother and was frequently whipped as he was moved from one slave owner to another. He made his first escape attempt at eighteen, landing him in jail. While working in a shipyard in Baltimore, he loaned money from his fiancée Anna (a free black woman) and escaped north to Massachusetts where he settled, married Anna, and changed his name; he became a preacher and joined the anti-slavery society, where he published anti-slavery articles. From 1841 to 1844 he traveled as a hired lecturer with the staunch abolitionist Garrison throughout the northern states and western territories. In 1845 he published his first book, an autobiography portraying the corruption and brutality of slavery. Fearing for his life, he fled to England where two Englishmen, hearing of his plight, purchased his freedom by paying his former masters. Upon returning to the United States a free man, he settled in Rochester, New York with his family where he published an anti-slavery newspaper advocating women's rights as well as abolition. While in New York, Douglass risked his life sheltering runaway slaves; his home became a station for fugitives on the underground railroad. In 1855 he published his second autobiography, *My Bondage and My Freedom*. Meeting with President Lincoln several times, he urged a proclamation of freedom for slaves and the recruitment of black soldiers to undermine the south's war effort. After the war he moved to Washington DC where he published his third autobiography, continued to publish and lecture for the rights of women and blacks, always using the political system to invoke change.





Abraham Lincoln (1809 -1865)

Left –Lincoln the young
country lawyer

Right-Miss Mary Todd
prior to her marriage to
Lincoln



Abraham Lincoln was born in 1809 in a log cabin on an isolated farm in the slave state of Kentucky where Lincoln's father, Thomas, watched his own father being murdered by a Shawnee raiding party. The violent death of his father, coupled with the incapacity of his mother, left Thomas a wandering laboring boy without education. Thomas was working as a carpenter when he married Nancy Hanks, a quiet, intelligent young woman. Due to difficulty with land titles in Kentucky and competing farms using free slave labor, the Lincoln's moved from one dirt farm to another in Indiana, and Illinois; Abe recalls an axe being put into his hands by the age of eight to help clear the unbroken forest on the remote land they claimed. It is known that Nancy Hanks was a strong minded, brilliant woman who introduced Abraham to grammar and spelling. In 1818, when Abraham was nine, his mother died of what was known as "milk sickness." Within a decade, Lincoln would suffer another shattering loss of his older sister Sarah. In the months following his mother's death, his father journeyed from Indiana to Kentucky to seek a bride; the arrival of his new step-mother, Sarah Lincoln, was the turning point in Abe's life. Sarah arrived with a comfortable bed, a table and four chairs, eating utensils, a spinning wheel, and a walnut chest; she made Thomas construct a proper floor to replace the dirt floor and cut a window in the small cabin. She also installed beds in the loft for the boys, washed and properly clothed them; Lincoln felt they were joining a world of luxury. If Lincoln's developing self-confidence was fostered initially by his mother, it was sustained by his step-mother, Sarah, who recognized Abraham as a boy of uncommon natural talents. His childhood friend Nathan Grigsby, recalled Abe soared above all of the other boys, he read his books while we played, he was above us and became our leader. Lincoln admitted later, his schooling did not amount to one year. To improve himself books became his academy, his college; everywhere Abe went he carried a book with him, always reading, memorizing, learning; Lincoln was endowed with a lucid,

The Lincoln home in Springfield, Illinois. Occupied by Abraham Lincoln and his wife Mary from 1844 until his presidency in 1860.





Left-The Lincoln's sitting room. Here the parents held several parties for their boys Willie and Tad.

Below-The formal parlor where the Lincoln's entertained important guests.



inquisitive, and extraordinary mind.

His father, Thomas, would benefit Lincoln little except for his talents at storytelling and quick wit, which would prove to be his most valuable bequest to his son. In the pioneer world of rural Kentucky and Indiana, where physical labor was essential for survival and mental pursuits were rarely considered a legitimate use of time, Lincoln's book hunger was regarded as odd. His ambitions to better himself incurred the resentment of his father, who occasionally destroyed his books. Lincoln's relationship with his father grew strained, particularly when his last chance for schooling was nullified by his father's decision to hire him out laboring for various neighbors butchering hogs, digging wells, plowing, building fences, and clearing land to satisfy his father's debts. Abe's pulling away from his father was more than teenage rebellion; he had made a quiet assessment of the life his father lived and was determined to improve himself.

Having attained the legal age of twenty-one, Lincoln departed his father's newest farm near Decatur, Illinois for New Salem, Illinois with all of his meager possessions bundled on his shoulders. New Salem was a growing town with twenty-five families and seven stores. For six years he worked as a flat-boat-man, clerk, merchant, postmaster, and surveyor; he mastered the principles of English grammar at night, read Shakespeare and poetry as he walked, devoured newspapers, and studied geometry and trigonometry; he also participated in the New Salem debating club and took a keen interest in town affairs. At the age of twenty-three he declared himself a candidate for the state legislature, but lost. He then joined the state militia to serve in the Blackhawk Indian War raging in Illinois. In 1834, working as a post office commissioner and surveyor, financial pressure pushed him into running a second race for the state legislature for additional income. Lincoln was elated with his victory, however, would soon experience extreme depression as he lost his first love, Ann Rutledge, to typhoid at the age of twenty-two. It was during this period of time that Lincoln would decide to apply himself to the study of law with borrowed law books. In April of 1837, armed with his law license, Lincoln left New Salem for the relocated state capitol in Springfield, Illinois, then a community of fifteen hundred people. Lincoln rode into Springfield on a borrowed horse, with all of his possessions in two saddle bags.

In Springfield, Lincoln ended years of emotional deprivation and intellectual solitude by building his first and deepest friendship with Joshua Speed. Well-educated and raised in a gracious mansion on a prosperous plantation, Speed was a restless young man who moved west, investing in real estate in Springfield. After meeting Lincoln, he offered him the opportunity to share his room over the town's general store of which he was the proprietor. Sharing the same room for four years, the two young men developed a close relationship, talking nightly of their hopes, dreams, and mutual love of poetry and politics.

Lincoln ventured into the law business with Stuart, an established attorney in Springfield. The town was full of lawyers so fees were modest, ranging from \$2.50 to \$10.00 per case, which Lincoln and Stuart split. In a country founded on the principle that men should govern themselves, many ambitious young men in the nineteenth century chose politics as an area to advance themselves. While in Springfield Lincoln would continue as a state legislator, serving four-consecutive two-year terms. During the campaigns, candidates journeyed on horseback across miles of prairies, speaking at country stores and small villages. The speaking typically would consume an entire afternoon as each candidate alternately spoke his turn.

During the day Lincoln became an able and successful lawyer with a reputation as a formidable adversary during cross-examination and closing arguments. He later partnered with Stephen Logan from 1841 until 1844, after which he began his practice with William Herndon. In the evening he would attract a large circle of friends and admirers who gathered in Speed's general store to engage in philosophical political debates; the men came there because they were sure to find Lincoln, who never failed to entertain with his wit and remarkable stories. Lincoln's ambition was no secret; it was of utmost importance to him to become a human being remembered.

During his eight years in the state legislature, Lincoln proved to be an extraordinary shrewd grassroots politician, working to enlist voter support for his parties' candidates. While in the legislature, he supported internal improvements to aid the farmers ability to bring

their products to market; he voted to expand suffrage to white males, whether landowners or not; he was known for his "free soil" stance of opposing slavery and abolition. He believed the institution of slavery to be founded on injustice, but he also supported and followed Henry Clay's ideas of resettling freed slaves in Liberia, Africa rather than abolition.

Lincoln met Mary Todd at a social event at the Edward's mansion on the hill where the best and brightest of Springfield society gathered. Mary Todd had just moved to Springfield to stay with her sister Elizabeth Edwards. Lincoln was among the many young men who gathered in the Edwards parlor, where the girls dressed in the latest fashion, shared food, drink, and merry conversation. Lincoln was said to have difficulty holding conversation with a lady, feeling awkward and not really knowing how to behave.

To their friends and relatives, Mary and Abe seemed the exact reverse of each other; but for all of their differences, they had much in common. Lincoln had always been attracted to intelligent women, and Mary was a woman of intellectual gifts who was well educated and had earned the highest marks in school; she was endowed with an excellent memory, a quick wit, and a voracious appetite for learning, and she shared Abe's love for discussing books and poetry. Like Lincoln, she was also fascinated by politics. Her father, Robert Todd, was a wealthy, slave holding Whig loyalist who often entertained influential politicians.

Eighteen months later, in 1840, Abe and Mary became engaged to be married on January 1, 1841. But then something happened as Abe began to have second thoughts and broke off the engagement, possibly due to anxiety about sexual inadequacy. During the winter of 1841, the awkward dissolution of his engagement, the loss of his best friend (Speed) moving back to Kentucky, the collapse of his internal improvement projects due to the deepening depression of 1837, and the consequential damage to his reputation, all induced a state of depression that deepened for months. During the summer of 1842, after the couple had gone nearly eighteen months without personal contact, mutual friends conspired to bring Mary and Abe back together. On the evening of November 4, 1842, before a small group of friends in the parlor of the Edward's mansion, they were married.

As Lincoln was busy traveling the judicial circuit, he was happy enough continuing to reside in a room at the Globe Tavern. For Mary, it was the first time she had not resided in a luxurious mansion with no personal servants, maids, or a private room to receive callers. Nine months after the marriage, a son Robert Todd was born and three years later a second son, Edward, would follow. Realizing they could not raise a family in a hotel room, they rented a small three-room house in the fall of 1843. With money scarce, Lincoln joined Logan's law practice to brighten his future. By 1844 they were able buy a home for \$1,200 plus a lot valued at \$300. On the ground floor there were three rooms with a half loft above with two bedrooms; the downstairs was heated by a fireplace with wood burning stoves upstairs; the water came from a well in the backyard near a latrine. In the fall of 1844, Logan decided to leave the thriving law firm, allowing Lincoln to become the senior partner. Since Lincoln was already attracting as much business as he could handle, appearing before the Illinois supreme court at least three hundred times, he took on a new junior law partner, William Herndon. In the fall of 1845, a full year before the election, Lincoln began actively working to secure his nomination to the U.S. Congress.

The thirty-seven-year old Lincoln was elected to the U.S. House of Representatives, where he served one two-year term. By stage and rail the Lincoln family traveled seven days to arrive in Washington December 2, 1848. Forty thousand people lived in Washington D.C., including 8,000 free negroes and 2,000 slaves. Here were mansions and slums, hogs, geese, and chickens roving the streets and alleys; cobblestoned Pennsylvania Avenue was one of only two paved streets; the Capitol was not yet fitted with its familiar high dome and the cornerstone of the Washington monument would not be laid until the following summer. Lincoln would see thirty-seven churches with even more saloons and gangs of slaves just sold being moved in chains along the street. Mary, unable to connect socially and find social events of interest to her, traveled with her two boys to her father's home in Lexington.

With the Mexican-American War just concluded, the United States acquired vast new territories in the southwest which fulfilled its manifest - from sea to sea. However, the new lands brought splits and factions in both political parties north and south. The need of the south for new areas into which slavery could spread, and by which the south could have political representation to match

that of the growing North, pitted slave states against free states and abolitionists; the talk of curtailing the spread of slavery brought outcries of injustice and interference, and threats of secession from Southern leaders. As promised, Lincoln did not seek re-election to Congress, choosing instead to resume his law practice in Springfield .

Returning to practice law in Springfield, Lincoln handled every kind of business that could come before a prairie lawyer. Twice a year for sixteen years, ten weeks at a time, he traveled in the mid-state region by horse when the county courts were in session. The lawyers generally slept two to a bed, with three or four beds in a room. Lincoln savored the life of the traveling bar, standing with his back to the fire, he juggled one tale after another; no lawyer on the circuit was better loved than Lincoln. Whenever time allowed, he studied astronomy, political economy, philosophy, logics, and mathematics; life was to him a school, as he was always studying and mastering every subject which came before him. His law office routine included taking depositions, drafting deeds, filing declarations, satisfying debts, but also murder cases, transportation issues between barge companies and the railroad companies, and corporate shareholder disputes.

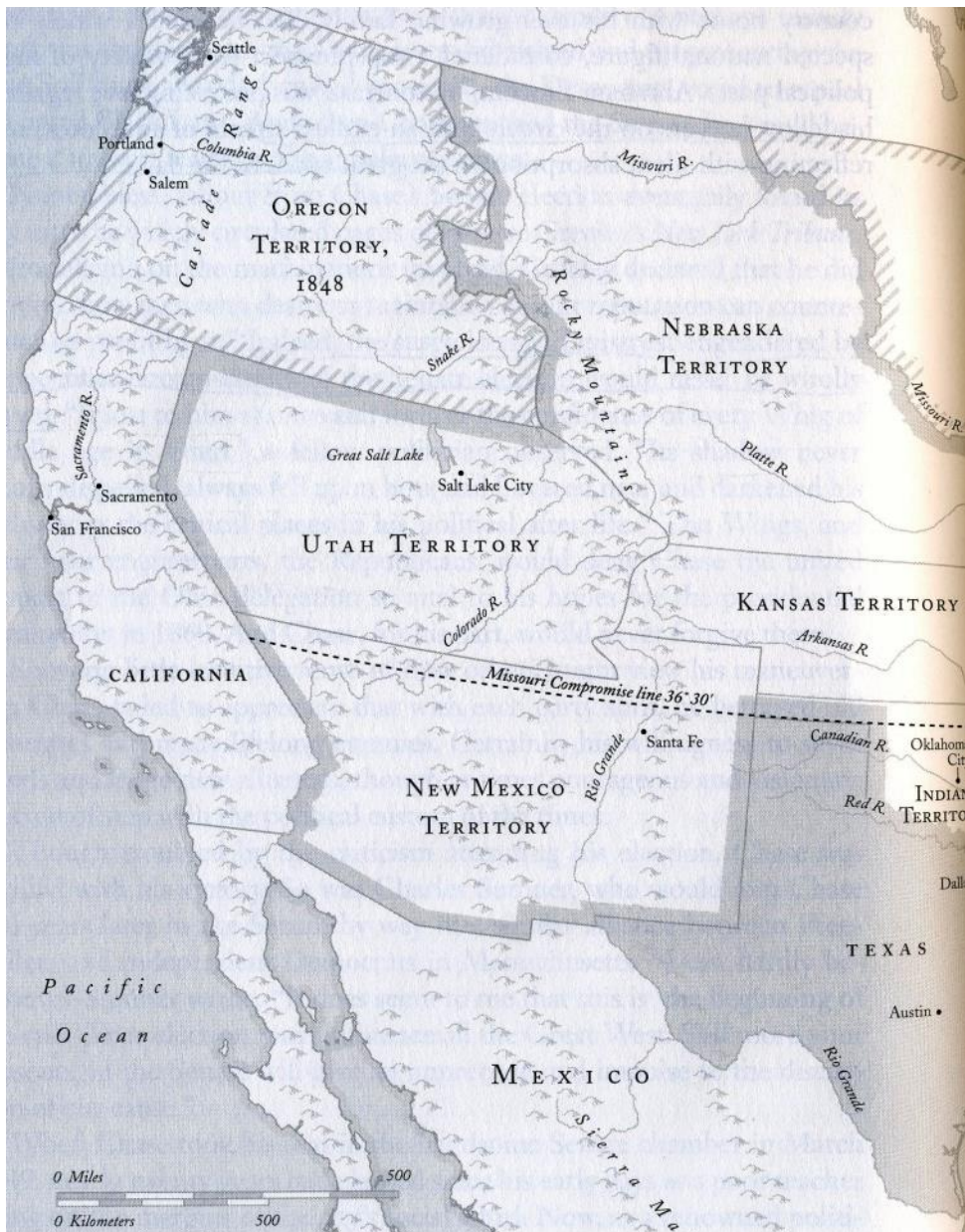
Family tragedy struck when the Lincoln's lost their son Edward in 1850 at the age of four to tuberculosis while a third baby boy, William, was born the same year; Thomas Lincoln, Abe's father, died in January of 1851; and then the Lincoln's were blessed with a fourth son, born in 1853, who was named Thomas after his grandfather.

Lincoln's withdrawal from political office was never complete. He worked tirelessly to secure political posts for fellow Illinoisans, and joined in a call for a convention to reorganize the Whig Party. He was called upon to give eulogies for Senator Henry Clay and other leading Whig leaders. He often spoke out on national issues, referring to slavery as, "the one great question of the day." And he never gave up an opportunity to criticize Stephen Douglas, the senator from Illinois who was a leading national figure. Lincoln possessed an uncanny ability to win the respect of others, to earn their trust and even devotion, which would prove essential in his rise to power; there was something mysterious in his persona that led countless men to feel bound to him in admiration.

Between 1850 and 1860, the country's 23 million people become 31 million. In ten years, 2,600,000 people arrived from overseas. The Northwest Territories grew by 77 percent. between the Atlantic and the Mississippi; the railroad hauled pork and grain of the West to factory towns of the East and to ships sailing to Europe; in 1854, 1,500 wagons were counted in one month going to Iowa; in one week, 12,000 immigrants arrived on railroad trains in Chicago; Cyrus McCormick's Chicago factory sold 1,558 farming machines to the swelling population in 1854. Against these changing scenes and events, the peace of the Great Compromise of 1850 had held up fairly well. However, in 1854 the slavery issue boiled into a wild turmoil when Nebraska and Kansas called upon Congress to grant them territorial status, raising the contentious question of extending slavery into the northern territories. Lincoln challenged the right of settlers in the new territories of Kansas and Nebraska to decide between slave and free and spoke in favor of restoring the Missouri Compromise, restricting slavery to south of the 36th parallel.

American citizens of the 1850's were consumed with political issues; nearly three-fourths of those eligible to vote participated in the presidential elections. The principal weapon of political combatants was town hall speeches; however, newspaper news articles were the daily fare of nearly every meal in almost every family. The Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854, giving settlers the right to choose free versus slave status, gave Northerners a point around which antislavery advocates could rally. Passions in the South were equally aroused. The Governor of North Carolina voiced those sentiments with these words, "The day may come, when our Northern brethren will discover that the Southern States intend to be equals in the Union, or independent of it."

Lincoln later affirmed that the successful passage of the Kansas-Nebraska bill roused him as he had never been before; it permanently recast his views on slavery as he could no longer believe that slavery was on a course to ultimate extinction. The repeal of the Missouri Compromise of 1820 persuaded him that unless the North mobilized into action against proslavery forces, free society was in peril. The fight to stem the spread of slavery would become the great purpose Lincoln had long been seeking. Lincoln commenced to deliver his first great ant-slavery speech at the annual Illinois State Fair before a crowd of thousands in October of 1854.



Texas was admitted to the Union as a slave state in 1845; California was admitted as a free state in 1850. The dotted line represents the 36th parallel of the Missouri Compromise of 1820.

In late 1854 Lincoln ran as a Whig for the U.S. Senate seat from Illinois; remember at that time senators were elected by the state legislature. After six rounds of voting, his support began to dwindle, and Lincoln instructed his backers to vote for Trumbull. For the first time in his public life his remarkable array of gifts as historian, storyteller, and teacher combined with a lucid, always accessible logic, became apparent when he spoke. Instead of the ornate language so familiar to men like Webster, Lincoln used irony and humor, laced with workaday, homespun images to build an eloquent tower of logic. Lincoln had the ability to communicate enormously complicated issues with wit, simplicity, and a massive power of moral persuasion.

During the heat of violence between settlers over the choice of slavery in Kansas and Nebraska, the Democratic Convention opened in Cincinnati in 1856. The Democrats elected Buchanan as their presidential candidate. The newly born Republican Party's platform looked to the future: no extension of slavery north of the 36th parallel, admission of Kansas as a free state, and a railroad to the Pacific. Fremont was nominated as the Republican choice for President while Lincoln was surprisingly nominated for Vice President, coming in second in the voting. The know-Nothing party declared Fillmore its presidential nominee. When the returns were all in, Buchanan was elected the next President of the United States, carrying all of the slave states except Maryland. At a Chicago banquet Lincoln spoke the toast: "The Union - the North will maintain it - the South will not depart from it."

In March, 1857, the Supreme Court issued its decision in the Dred Scott case, a slave suing for freedom because he had been taken to a territory where slavery was illegal. Five of the nine judges ruled Congress did not have the power to prohibit slavery in the Territories. The decision declared the Missouri Compromise of 1820 unconstitutional, declared a slave is property which cannot be taken from an owner, and stated a Negro could not become a U.S. citizen. From that point in time Lincoln's speeches, more than ever before, would stress

what he believed the Declaration of Independence meant by the clause, "that all men are created equal." Lincoln was propelled by a new sense of purpose and dedicated the major part of his energies to the antislavery movement. He is quoted as saying, "The doctrine of self-government is right - absolutely and eternally right; to extend slavery perverts its very meaning. No man is good enough to govern another man, without the other's consent."

While Seward and Chase eyed the presidency, Lincoln prepared for another bid for the U.S. senate. As chief architect of the Republican Party in his state, Lincoln had first claim to run against the incumbent Stephen Douglas in 1858. In June when the convention met in Springfield it enthusiastically endorsed Lincoln as its "first and only choice for the United States Senate." Lincoln proceeded to deliver his now famous acceptance speech at the Springfield Convention: "I believe this government cannot endure, permanently half slave and half free. I do not expect the house to fall - but I do expect it will cease to be divided. It will become all one thing, or all the other." Many newspapers printed Lincoln's speech in its entirety.

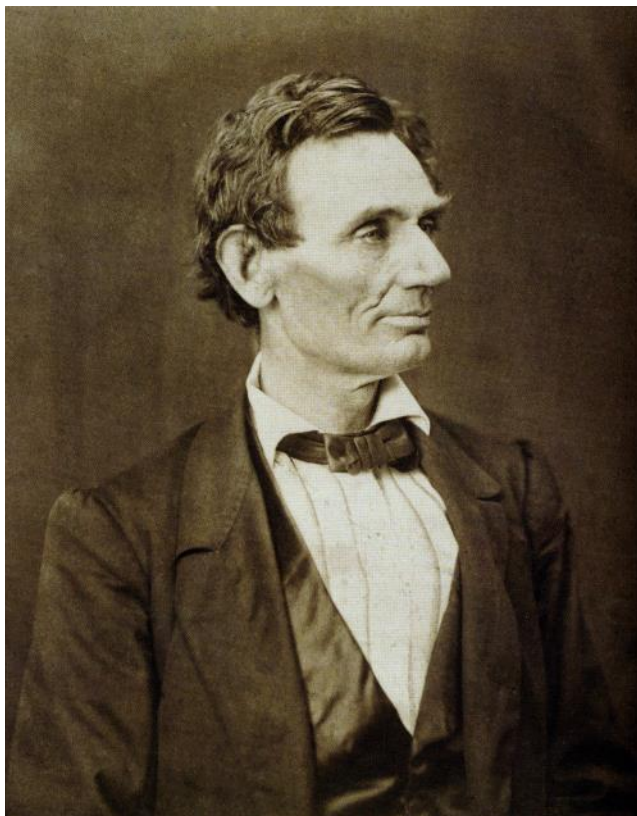
The stage was now set for a titanic battle, arguably the most famous Senate fight in American history. A clash that would make Lincoln a national figure and propel him to the presidency while it would, at the same time, undermine Douglas's support in the South and further fracture the Democratic party. The Senate campaign produced seven, face-to-face, two-hour debates between Lincoln and Douglas; with marching bands, parades, fireworks, banners, flags, and picnics, the debates brought tens of thousands of people. Both men traveled over 4,000 miles within Illinois, delivering hundreds of speeches. Lincoln warned that the "slave power" was threatening the values and future of republicanism, and was a violation of the Declaration of Independence; although unfulfilled, the Declaration's promise of equality was a beacon of hope to the whole race of man. For Douglas, the crux of the controversy was the right of self-government, the principle that the people in each territory and each state should decide for themselves whether to introduce or exclude slavery. In an age where white supremacy was deeply embedded in the entire country, Lincoln never advocated social equality for blacks. Had he done so, he unquestionably would have lost the election in a state where legislation barred a person with one-fourth negro blood from entering the state or taking up residence. Once again, Lincoln would be sorely disappointed with the election results. Though the Republican legislature won the popular vote, the Democrats had retained control of the state legislature. Since it was the state legislature who would choose the next senator, the Democratic controlled legislature reelected Douglas.

Well aware that he had only an outside chance at the presidential nomination in 1860, he nevertheless worked to build his reputation nationally; his name had spread far as a speaker and thinker. In 1859 he made speeches in Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Wisconsin, Iowa, Kansas, and refused many more invitations to speak. Anti-slavery debates were the hot topic of the time and stage plays of the best-selling novel, *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, held audiences breathless. During this time John Brown was sentenced to hang for enticing a slave revolt in Virginia as copies of the Lincoln-Douglas debates were being published as campaign documents. The Chicago Press and Tribune sweepingly endorsed Lincoln for President. In the fall, Lincoln was invited to speak in the great hall of Cooper Union in New York City the following February of 1860. The speech was a huge success; no man ever before made such an impression on his first appeal to a New York audience as applause, outcries, waving handkerchiefs, and cheers abounded; four newspapers printed his speech in full. After New York city, he continued to make speeches for the Republican Party throughout the New England area to capacity audiences. Proven to be a master of timing throughout his presidency, Lincoln would squelch any efforts on his behalf until the timing was right to announce his intentions as a presidential candidate.

Upon returning from the Northeast, Lincoln focused on the approaching meeting of the Republican National Committee to determine the city to host the Republican Presidential Convention. Concealing his intention to become a presidential candidate, Lincoln shrewdly suggested Chicago for the Republican Convention. There is little doubt Lincoln took an important step toward the nomination when Chicago was selected by a single vote over eight other cities. With the Republican Convention set for May, Lincoln focused on securing unwavering support for his presidential nomination from the Illinois delegation.

Robert (right) was the eldest son of the Lincoln's, followed by Willie (bottom left) and Tad (right). Another son, Eddie, died from tuberculosis in 1850 at age four.

(below left) Lincoln during the time of the presidential election—1860.



Forty Thousand visitors descended upon Chicago for the Republican Convention. By 1860, the Republican Party had clearly become the dominant force in Northern politics as its growth had absorbed the Whigs and Know-Nothings, and ruptured the Democratic Party. Seward, a U.S. Senator and Governor of New York, was the assumed to be the chosen Republican presidential candidate, although some were concerned, he was too radical on slavery and too liberal on immigration to win the election. Chase from Ohio was considered a serious contender. Lincoln knew he had unanimous support in Illinois and possibly Indiana, but he understood he could not count on unanimous support of any other delegation. Yet even though he was not the first choice in other states, he had also not heard any objections to himself either; his goal became to be everyone's second choice. Lincoln's committed team understood the objective and resolved to not antagonize anyone as they urged the delegates to nominate a man who could win.

On the first round Lincoln's team had achieved what they thought impossible, they had added Pennsylvania and New Jersey to Indiana and Illinois. At the end of the first ballot, the tally stood: Seward 173 votes, Lincoln 102, Chase 49, Bates 48. The victory number of votes needed to secure the nomination stood at 233. With the Chase and Bates delegates obviously divided, Lincoln had emerged as the clear-cut alternative to Seward. The second ballot revealed a crucial shift toward Lincoln, boosting his total to 181 votes, only three votes behind Seward's. As the third ballot began, delegates continued to shift their votes to Lincoln until he had reached the magic number of 233 votes. Lincoln supporters rose to their feet applauding rapturously; all across the chamber, representatives rose, clamoring to change their votes so Lincoln could achieve a unanimous victory.

For generations people have debated the factors that led to Lincoln's surprising victory. Many have agreed with the verdict it was the defeat of Seward more than the nomination of Lincoln. Many have pointed to Lincoln's nomination due to the fact the Convention was held in Illinois, others have argued that he positioned himself perfectly in the middle of the party's platform, and still others believed he and his team conceived the best strategy at the Convention to win. Finally, his nomination was the result of his character and life experiences, which separated him from his rivals; he also took the greatest control of the process leading up to the nomination, earning the goodwill and respect of tens of thousands with a strenuous speaking tour.

As Lincoln prepared for the election campaign, his prospects for victory had been enhanced considerably by the splintering Democratic party, which was previously the only party with supporters in both the North and the South. The Democratic Convention ended in chaos: the southern supporters of Douglas had hardened their position, southern politicians now condemned all compromise, demanding complete freedom to bring slaves into all the territories, and they dismissed Douglas's "popular sovereignty" in the territories once acceptable as a Southern principle. When the Democratic Party approved the Douglas platform, most Southern states walked out. As one of the Mississippi delegates walked out he gave a rousing speech predicting, "in less than sixty days there will be a United South." That night there was a Fourth of July feeling in Charleston.

With Douglas the Democratic nominee, Southern seceding supporters reconvened to nominate John Breckridge of Kentucky, a staunch believer that slavery could not constitutionally be excluded from the territories. To complicate things further, the new Constitutional Party, composed of old-line Whigs and Know-Nothings, held its own convention nominating John Bell from Tennessee; their platform was rooted in the hope of avoiding the dissolution of the Union by ignoring the slavery issue. The great democratic organization had burst into pieces.

A Lincoln victory would require at least 152 electoral votes. Anything short of a majority would throw the election into the turbulent House of Representatives. To win, Lincoln would have to capture the entire North. In three of these "must states" - Indiana, Pennsylvania, and Ohio - Douglas had considerable strength. Although slavery was an issue everywhere, it was not always the dominant concern. Pennsylvanian's were more interested in tariff protection. Voters in Indiana and Ohio, and elsewhere in the Northwest wanted free land for settlers and internal improvements to expand commerce. The anti-slavery issue by itself could not build a majority among such a diverse constituency.

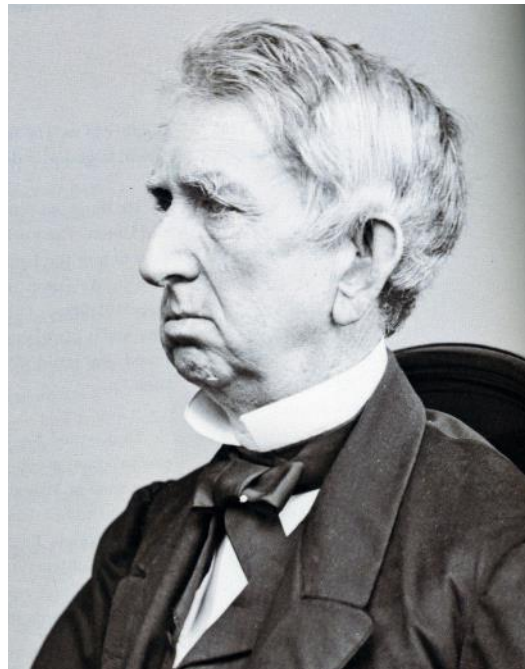
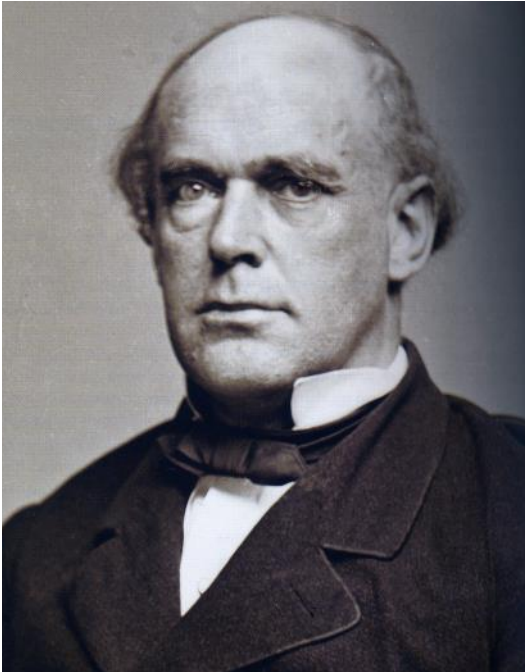
Lincoln's first task was to enlist the vocal support of all his rivals as he knew that Seward's support would be pivotal to his campaign. After meeting with the Republican Party, Seward committed himself to an electioneering tour in nine states. During the entire campaign, Lincoln remained in Springfield as he deferred to his judgment that further public statements by himself would only damage his prospects. He moved his office to the State House where he skillfully managed his campaign strategy, received thousands of visitors, as well as politicians, and answered countless letters. The new telegraph allowed for swift communication to political battle grounds. He contributed to developing a short campaign biography that sold more than a million copies. Lincoln and his team controlled the flow of information out of Springfield that reverberated in Republican papers across the nation.

At every stop Seward was met with cannons and brass bands; in Detroit 50,000 people gathered to hear him speak and the excitement only escalated as he moved west. In St Paul, Minnesota, he spoke for nearly two hours on the front steps of the Capitol. Seward's grand tour received extensive coverage, complete with excerpts from his speeches in newspapers across the land. When Seward's touring train came through Springfield, Lincoln boarded the train to chat with Seward, who he had not seen since 1848. During their conversation, Lincoln asked Seward if he would be willing in his upcoming Chicago speech to address a certain problematic subject: There was conversation circulating that a Republican victory would bring an end to slavery. Lincoln asked Seward if he would reassure the Republican audience that the Republicans would not interfere with slavery where it already existed; Seward readily agreed.

Defying all customs of a presidential candidate, Stephen Douglas decided to barnstorm the country with speeches. He was the first candidate in American history to make a nationwide tour in person. Douglas understood what the Republicans failed to see - that Southerners were serious in their threats to secede from the Union if Lincoln won the election. Southerners perceived Lincoln's "house divided speech" as a threat which they meant to answer. With the October elections looming in the near future, the Lincoln campaign was gaining decisive momentum; with four candidates dividing the vote, Lincoln would have to capture New York's pivotal 35 electoral votes to win. New York posed some unique problems for Lincoln: New York was home to a large population of Democratic Irish immigrants who were unfriendly to the anti-slavery cause and New York also contained an influential class of merchants and manufactures who viewed Republicanism as a threat to their commercial relations with the south. Lincoln recognized these complications and instructed Seward to make some soothing speeches to the city, assuring them the Republicans priority was to preserve the Union.

By nine o'clock on election day, November 6, 1860, Lincoln gathered at the telegraph office to receive immediate access to the returns. Voter turn-out was an astounding 82 percent. New England, the Northwest, Indiana, and Pennsylvania had all come into the Republican camp; as ten o'clock came there was no news from New York. It would be after midnight when the news came in that the Democratic control of the city of New York was not strong enough to counter the Republican landslide throughout the state. The church bells began to ring in Springfield for "Old Abe."

The next morning Lincoln began to compose a list of the core of his administration by writing on a blank card the names of seven men. At the center of his list stood his chief rivals for the nomination - Seward, Chase, and Bates. The list also included Blair, Welles, and Judd, all former Democrats, as well as Dayton of New Jersey, a former Whig. While several months would pass before his cabinet was assembled, subjecting Lincoln to intense pressures, he resolved that day to surround himself with the strongest men from the Republican party, as well as former Whigs and antislavery Democrats. The Chicago tribune asked Lincoln why he had chosen a cabinet comprised of enemies and opponents. Lincoln answered, "I had no right to deprive the country of the strongest men and their services." But in the end, Lincoln would emerge to be the strongest of them all.



Salmon Chase (top left), the Governor of Ohio, sought the Republican nomination for president against Lincoln; he was appointed Secretary of the Treasury.

William Seward (top right), Senator and Governor of New York, was the favorite to win the Republican Presidential nomination. He was appointed Secretary of State.



Edwin Stanton (bottom left), was the U.S. Secretary of War from 1862-1868. He replaced Simon Cameron when Lincoln disapproved of his annual report declaring the slave property of the rebels should be confiscated.

(bottom right) A photo of Mary Todd Lincoln during the presidential years.

As Lincoln was busy with the construction of his administrative staff, the country was tearing itself apart. On December 20, 1860, South Carolina held a state convention in the wake of a Republican victory and passed an ordinance to secede from the union; the vote was unanimous. Throughout the Deep South, a snowball process began leading additional states to follow suit over the next six weeks - Mississippi, Louisiana, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, and Texas. For the Southern radicals, Lincoln's victory opened the door to the goal desired by all true Southerners- a Southern Confederacy. A panic began to affect the stock market and the business community of the North. Lincoln continued to reiterate his political pledge to not interfere with slavery where it already existed, while continuing to stand behind the principals of the Republican platform as he believed any attempt to soften his position would dishearten his supporters in the north.

While Lincoln was outraged by the South's willful distortions of his positions, Lincoln was far more troubled by the growing disputes splitting his own party. Conciliators believed that with the power of compromises, the eight remaining slave holding states could be kept in the Union, hoping that without expansion the secession movement would die out. Lincoln was adamant, however, that there must be no compromise on the question of extending slavery.

Events soon eclipsed the slender hope that time would bring about a peaceful solution. South Carolina soon announced that they would be taking possession of the three federal forts within the domain of their state - Moultrie, Sumter, and Pinckney. On January 12, Seward spoke to Congress for President elect Lincoln to offer a resolution calling for a constitutional amendment to prevent any future Congress from interfering with slavery where it already existed. The speech had little impact on the Deep South; the following week five southern senators, including Jefferson Davis who would become president of the Southern Confederacy, rose to deliver farewell speeches. During this tumultuous time between the election in November and his inauguration in March, Lincoln was engaged in an intricate game of politics. Through Seward, he projected a conciliatory tone which had a calming effect on the eight slave-holding border states, yet publicly he portrayed an unyielding image to hold his fractious Republican Party together.

On February 11, 1861, Lincoln accompanied by his eldest son Robert, began the twelve-day train trip to Washington. The trip was scheduled to make stops at Indianapolis, Cincinnati, Columbus, Philadelphia, New York, New Jersey, and Baltimore, permitting Lincoln contact with tens of thousands of people. As a result of a reported plot to assassinate the president at his stop in Baltimore, Pinkerton Security secretly boarded Lincoln on a special car on the night train, they sidetracked all other trains until Lincoln's had passed, and they cut all telegraph wires to Washington until the president arrived safely in Washington. A suite of rooms was reserved for Lincoln at the celebrated Willard Hotel for the ten days until the inauguration on March fourth.

During the winter of 1861, the seven states of the Deep South had declared themselves a Sovereign nation, the Confederate States of America. Jefferson Davis was selected to be their President on February ninth. In an effort to preserve the Union, Lincoln did support the Corwin Amendment to the Constitution, which passed Congress the night before Lincoln's inauguration. The proposed amendment, if approved by two-thirds of the states, would have protected slavery where it already existed. A few weeks before the war, Lincoln sent a letter to every Governor informing them of the pending amendment to the Constitution. Legislative compromise was proving to be impossible and by March, no leaders of the insurrection had proposed rejoining the Union on any terms. Meanwhile, Lincoln and the Republican leadership agreed that the dismantling of the Union could not be tolerated.

Lincoln faced a dual challenge in his long-awaited inaugural speech, his first significant public address since his election. It was imperative that he convey his staunch resolution to defend the Union, while at the same time mitigating the anxieties of the Southern states. Lincoln, only fifty-two, tall and energetic, was a contrast to the outgoing President Buchanan, nearly seventy. The two moved arm-in-arm toward the open carriage to make its way up Pennsylvania Avenue as the Marine band played, "Hail to the Chief." Hundreds of troops mingled with the crowd to guard against an attempted assassination, sharpshooters were positioned to look down from windows and rooftops, and the Cavalry was placed strategically throughout the entire route. The following are excerpts from



At the time of Lincoln's inauguration in March of 1861, President Washington's monument was only one-third of its intended height, the new Capitol dome two years away from completion, and most of the streets unpaved. Thirty thousand spectators gathered to hear Lincoln's inaugural address from the east portico of the Capitol.

Lincoln's first inaugural address to a nation on the verge of Civil War:

"Apprehension seems to exist among the people of the Southern States, that by the accession of a Republican administration, their property, and their peace, and personal security, are to be endangered.....I declare that I have no purpose, directly or indirectly, to interfere with the institution of slavery in the states where it exists.....Those who nominated and elected me did so with full knowledge that I made this, and many similar declarations, and had never recanted them....It follows from these views that no state, upon its own mere motion, can lawfully get out of the Union.....and that acts of violence, within any state or states, against the authority of the United States, are insurrectionary or revolutionary.....In doing this there needs to be no bloodshed or violence; and there shall be none, unless it be forced upon the national authority. The power confided to me will be used to hold, occupy, and possess the property and places belonging to the government.....One section of our country believes slavery is right, and ought to be extended, while the other believes it is wrong, and not ought to be extended. This is the only substantial dispute.Physically speaking we cannot separate. We cannot remove our respective sections from each other, nor build an impassable wall between them.....My countrymen, one and all, think calmly and well, upon this whole subject. Nothing valuable can be lost by taking time.....In your hands my fellow countrymen, and not in mine, is the momentous issue of civil war. The government will not assail you. You can have no conflict, without being yourselves the aggressors. You have no oath registered in Heaven to destroy the government, while I shall have the most solemn one to preserve, protect, and defend it."

Words of Lincoln's inaugural speech was making its way across the country, carried by telegraph and dozens of evening newspapers; the news traveled more slowly west of Missouri, where the telegraph lines stopped. The Lincoln family settled into the White House, where the family quarters were then confined to the west end of the second floor as the rest of the mansion was open to the public. For Willie and Tad, now ten and almost eight, respectively, their early days in the White House were filled with great adventure. Willie was a boy of great mental activity, unusual intelligence, wonderful memory, methodical, loving, a counterpart of his father. Tad bore a greater resemblance to his mother, high spirited with a blazing temper, which disappeared as quickly as it came; he could be merry and spontaneous but also irrepressible and undisciplined, and unfortunately a speech impediment made it difficult for anyone to hear his words, but he never stopped talking. Lincoln was a light sleeper, generally awakening early in the morning when he liked to exercise by walking around the White House grounds before breakfast. After a simple breakfast of one egg and coffee, he walked down the hall to his office, where on cool days he kept a fire blazing. In the center of the room, which served as a Cabinet Room, stood a long oak table, old maps hung on the walls and a portrait of President Andrew Jackson hung over the fire place mantel.

When Lincoln entered his office on the first morning after his inauguration, a letter from Major Anderson at Fort Sumter was placed in his hands. The communication stated that the forts provisions would be exhausted before an expedition could be sent to their relief; General Winfield Scott endorsed surrendering the federal fort. Unwilling to surrender federal property to the Confederacy, Lincoln repeatedly called his cabinet into session to discuss the situation. Lincoln's brother-in-law, Gustavus Fox, developed an ingenious plan to restock the fort with relief supplies by sea. After exhaustive debate, only one of the seven cabinet members were initially in favor of the relief plan. Secretary of State Seward was acting under two illusions: first, that he was really the man in charge, and second, that the South would be appeased by the abandonment of Fort Sumter and would eventually return to the Union. Three commissioners were sent to Washington by the Confederacy to negotiate the surrender of the forts however Lincoln refused to meet with them on the grounds that direct communication would legitimize the Confederacy.

The sixty - eight Union men under Major Anderson's command had remained huddled together within the walls of Fort Sumter in Charleston Harbor since the day after Christmas, cut off from reinforcement or resupply, besieged by six-thousand eager South Carolina militiamen and a semicircle of artillery batteries. The moment to make a decision was at hand! Lincoln must make a decision between a surrender that might compromise the honor of the North and tear it apart, or a reinforcement that might carry the country into civil war. Lincoln still hoped for peace but was willing now to risk war. For him, preserving the Union was more than a Northern

cause, more even than a national cause: it was mankind's cause. If the Union was allowed to dissolve, the great experiment in self-government would fail. Lincoln was quoted as saying, "I consider the central idea pervading this struggle of proving that popular government is not an absurdity. We must settle this question now, whether in a free government the minority have the right to break up the government whenever they choose. If we fail it will go far to prove the incapability of people to govern themselves."

Finally, on April 6, Lincoln drew the line and he signed orders for the naval authorities to resupply the fort by sea. Lincoln drafted a letter to the Governor of South Carolina saying, an attempt will be made to supply Fort Sumter with provisions only, and that if such attempt not be resisted, no effort to throw in men, arms, or ammunition, will be made without further notice. The Confederate army was not sure how to react. Confederate Secretary of State Toombs warned attacking the fort was suicidal, murderous, and fatal to the South. But those more impatient believed an attack would strengthen the resolve of the states in the Confederacy, as well as bring Virginia into the Confederacy. After Confederate authorities intercepted Lincoln's resupply plan, Confederate emissaries were rowed out to Fort Sumter to deliver to Major Anderson an ultimatum in the early morning of April 12th. The Union commander had until 4 a.m. to surrender; otherwise South Carolina batteries would open fire. The Union soldiers, despite the impact of 3,341 shells bombarding the fort, held out for one and one-half days before surrendering. The civil war had begun!

The Civil War
April 12, 1861-April 9, 1865



When word of Sumter's fall reached Washington, the regular United States army consisted of fewer than 17,000 men, most of them stationed in the far west; just two of its generals had commanded an army in the field, who were both in their seventies. Lincoln's political opponent, Stephen Douglas, rallied the Democratic party behind Lincoln and the nation by declaring it is every citizen's responsibility to preserve the Union; sadly, Douglas died a few months after his rousing speech. Lincoln called upon the governors of the states and territories to furnish Washington with 75,000 militiamen, each to serve for just ninety days. Old party lines evaporated as an outburst of patriotic feelings swept the North. However, ominous signals from the South soon deflated the optimism as North Carolina, Tennessee, and Kentucky refused to send troops. On April 17, Virginia seceded from the Union. Following Virginia's lead, North Carolina, Arkansas, and Tennessee joined the Confederacy. For many months, Lincoln would remain apprehensive about the border states of Maryland, Missouri, and Kentucky. The enthusiastic solidarity of the North dangerously underestimated the strength, determination, and resolve of the Southern states.

Four days after Sumter fell, Lincoln offered Robert E. Lee the highest-ranking military position to general the Union army. Lee had devoted 30 years of military service to the United States, yet he struggled with loyalties to his state of Virginia. Lee regretfully tendered his resignation to the U.S. Army and was designated commander of the Virginia state forces. He wrote his sister saying, "Now we are in a state of war which will yield nothing. I cannot raise my hand against my relatives, my children, my home. I have, therefore, resigned my commission in the army, and save in defense of my native state. I hope I may never be called to raise my sword."

Each day brought new conflicts and decisions as Lincoln struggled to stabilize the beleaguered Union. He responded by using unprecedented presidential powers as commander-in-chief. In a contentious cabinet meeting, Seward argued for a blockade of all Southern ports yielding a cabinet vote split down the middle. Lincoln chose to proceed and issued a formal blockade proclamation on April 19. Southerners, who made up the majority of navy officers, resigned in droves every day making treason rampant. Meanwhile, the secession of Virginia jeopardized Union control of the Norfolk Navy Yard with its immense dry docks, great supply of cannons, and premier vessels. Southern sympathizers in Baltimore rioted as troops were moved by rail to Washington through Baltimore, and the port was blockaded; telegraph lines surrounding Baltimore were cut and railroad bridges were demolished. Fears multiplied that the Maryland legislature would vote to secede, rendering Washington an isolated island surrounded by the confederacy; fortunately for the Union the state did not secede. Using the powers of his office, Lincoln suspended the writ of habeas corpus for public safety in Baltimore, proceeding to have the army arrest thousands of suspected Confederate sympathizers. In addition, Lincoln had to contend with reinforcing strong Union sympathies in the border slave states and keeping the war from becoming an international conflict. A member of the British parliament proposed granting Confederate ships the same rights in neutral ports enjoyed by U.S. federal ships. Lincoln quickly sent a warning which read, "should Britain decide to fraternize with our domestic enemy, then a war between the United States and Britain may ensue, caused by the action of Great Britain, not our own; Lincoln was quick to neutralize a potential enemy while making his country's position crystal clear.

The odds against a southern victory seemed remote. There were nearly 21 million people in the North, just 6 million in the Confederacy, plus 3.5 million slaves, whom their masters did not dare arm. The North had more than twice as many miles of railroad track and the value of all manufactured goods produced in all of the Confederate states added up to less than one-fourth of those produced by New York alone. Yet both sides thought the other would collapse within ninety days.

Lincoln looked to his Secretary of Treasury Chase for guidance on complex problems of financing a war at a time when the government was heavily in debt. The economic panic of 1857, corruption in the Buchanan administration, and the dismemberment of the Union, had taken a massive toll on the government coffers. With Congress not in session to authorize new tariffs and taxes, Chase was forced to rely on Government loans to sustain war expenditures until Congress convened. The United States was entirely unprepared for such a conflict. The military had no guns or ammunition, and not only were weapons in short supply, but uniforms, blankets, horses, medical supplies, food, and everything necessary to outfit the vast numbers of volunteer soldiers arriving in Washington daily were

unobtainable. A war Department in need of thousands of personnel to handle the multitude of new functions, consisted of fewer than 200 people in April of 1861.

Lincoln, soon to be commander-in-chief of the largest army in the world, had no military experience; to learn technical military terms, he borrowed and studied Henry Halleck's book, *Elements of Military Art and Science* from the Library of Congress. In terms of war strategy, Lincoln articulated two priorities: to ensure that Washington was well defended, and to conduct an aggressive war effort that would satisfy the demand in the North for prompt, decisive victory.

The Congress and the House assembled for a special session in early July. Lincoln asked Congress for 400,000 men and four hundred million dollars. Congress responded with an even larger mobilization of troops and more money than the President requested. Lincoln was also slowly formulating his position on slavery; he still favored compensated emancipation and colonization of Negroes in Africa. He knew that any hint of total emancipation would alienate the border states, whose loyalty was essential for victory. By shying from emancipation in the early months of the war, Lincoln aligned himself with the majority of the Northern people, the Republican Congress, and the entire cabinet. Two weeks into its Congressional session, the House passed a resolution declaring that the purpose of the war was to preserve the Union, not to eliminate slavery.

Across the Potomac, campfires of Confederate soldiers were visible as the anxious citizens of Washington waited for new military recruits to appear. Finally, after a week of uneasiness, the Seventh regiment of New York arrived in Washington on April 25 and more arrived in the following days. Volunteer soldiers slept on the carpeted floor of the chamber of the House of Representatives, others camped in the rotunda. Soon Union camps encircled the city as Washington became the most heavily fortified city on earth, ringed by 22 batteries of troops and 74 forts.

The Battle of Bull Run, near a railroad center in Virginia called Manassas Junction, began in the early morning hours of July 21, 1861. General Irvin McDowell led a Union army of 37,000 against a Confederate army of 21,900 led by General Beauregard. Union General Patterson was ordered to hold another Confederate army, under the command of General Joseph Johnston, in the Shenandoah Valley of Virginia; the objective being to keep the army from reinforcing Beauegard. General Scott approved McDowell's battle plans but favored waiting till a larger, better trained and prepared army could win victories that could be destructive. However, Lincoln was growing impatient as his army's three-month enlistment was almost up, and he feared that without action the morale of both the troops and the general public would diminish.

As soldiers on both sides of the battlefield were discovering the gruesome carnage of war, hundreds of Washingtonians prepared picnic baskets filled with bread and wine and rode by buggy to the hill at Centerville to witness what most presumed would be an easy victory for the North. At first the battle seemed to be going as McDowell had planned, but holding the hill at the center of the Confederate line was Stonewall Jackson. The battle seesawed back and forth all afternoon until Johnston's reinforcements arrived. After fighting in the brutal heat with no food or water for fourteen hours, the Union troops were demoralized to see fresh rebel troops pouring onto the field. Fearing for their lives, McDowell's green army went into a frantic retreat all the way back to Washington. Who knows what might have happened had the southern army pursued them. Some 4,500 men were killed, wounded, or captured on both sides during the battle. As the New York Tribune was calling for abandoning the entire struggle for the Union, Lincoln signed bills calling for 100,000 additional troops to serve for three years, as no one now believed this would be a ninety-day war. The president vowed to hold his ground, strengthen the blockade, replace the three-month volunteers with men enrolled for longer service, and then launch expeditions into Virginia, east Tennessee, and down the Mississippi River. And he put a new man in charge of the Union forces. George McClellan was second in his class at West point, hero of the Mexican War, was a skilled engineer, author of manuals on military tactics, and he appeared to be just what the North needed.

McClellan devoted the summer to bringing order out of chaos. He imposed discipline and obedience, drilling the men for up to eight hours a day. He laid out tidy camps around the city of Washington to accommodate the ten thousand new volunteers arriving each week by rail. On paper McClellan's battle plans looked promising. The Union forces were to mount a three-pronged assault on the Confederacy: one army would drive into Virginia and take the capitol of Richmond, another would secure Kentucky and Tennessee, and the navy would clear the Mississippi, surround the Confederacy by sea, and choke off all supplies. But as summer turned to autumn, it became increasingly clear McClellan would not lead the great army of 160,000 anywhere.

Pressures began to build to take action and avenge the defeat of Bull Run. The Congress, the President, the cabinet, the public, all grew impatient. Allan Pinkerton, McClellan's secret operative agent, convinced him the Confederate army had at least 150,000 men camped on the other side of the Potomac, when in reality they had 50,000 troops. McClellan reacted by saying he would not move until he had an army of 270,000 men. McClellan would take his army into the winter without any military action, blaming others for his own inactivity.

Lincoln was willing enough to lead as commander-in-chief, but he could not get his generals to move. Halleck in Missouri and Buell in Kentucky also failed to make any concerted effort to advance; McClellan refused to reveal his plans for a spring offensive and was confined to bed with typhoid fever. Consequently, the war department was urging Lincoln to replace McClellan. With the war costing more than \$1,000,000 a day, Secretary of Treasury Chase was telling Lincoln he had no more money and could raise none either. Lincoln impatiently stuck with his commander of the Union Army, but did replace Secretary of War Cameron with Edwin Stanton. Lincoln realized he had made a serious mistake placing Cameron at the head of the War Department. An organized central system of civilian command was essential to construct a machine capable of providing strategy, supplies, logistics, and training for an army that had grown from 16,000 in March to 670,000 in December. Contacts worth millions of dollars had to be negotiated for rifles, cannons, horses, uniforms, food, and blankets. Lincoln's selection of Edwin Stanton would prove to be one of his most significant decisions in determining the course of the war. Stanton, at the age of forty-seven, gave up a legal income of over \$50,000 per year to serve his country for \$8,000.

As Union armies secured territory where slaves had been used by their masters for insurrection against the North, the legal rights of the slaveholder were forfeited and the slaves were liberated and provided for in some way. Lincoln still believed that all classes of free blacks should be colonized in some place outside of the U.S. Frederick Douglas was outraged by Lincoln's idea of colonizing freed slaves and by the Presidents refusal to enlist blacks into the army. Since the beginning of the war, Douglas told Lincoln that nothing would terrify the South more than thousands of former slaves wielding weapons on behalf of the Union army; he contended the survival of the nation depended upon enlisting slaves into the army.

1862

The President issued a War Order on January 27, calling for movement by land and sea by February 22. McClellan was ordered to move against Johnston's army at Manassas Junction, just across the Potomac from Washington, by that same date and proceed to take Richmond. To the dismay of Lincoln and the war department, McClellan offered a counterplan: instead of advancing south from Washington into northern Virginia on a two-day march to where the Confederate army camped, he proposed to ship 121,000 men by sea to the York-James peninsula, then fight his way west to Richmond. McClellan was relieved of his command of the entire Federal Army in March so he could focus his attention on the Army of the Potomac and the battle at hand. Learning of McClellan's move south by sea, Johnston promptly withdrew his army and shifted to a stronger position near Yorktown. By the time McClellan moved 121,000 men, 14,600 horses, 1,150 wagons, 44 batteries of artillery, 74 ambulances, tons of provisions, tents, and telegraph wire, it was April 5 when the Union army reached Yorktown. The slow-moving Northern Army gave the 11,000-man Southern Army ample time to build extensive earthworks. Johnston played out a clever charade of tactics to convince McClellan his small force was enormous. As a result,

McClellan refused to attack, instead telegraphing Washington for more reinforcements. Lincoln ordered him to attack at once before the enemy had more time to build defenses; McClellan ignored him and dug in instead. Confederate General Johnston, whose army had time to move out to the peninsula to set up defenses, rode down from Richmond and could not believe his luck. "No one but McClellan would have hesitated to attack, he said."

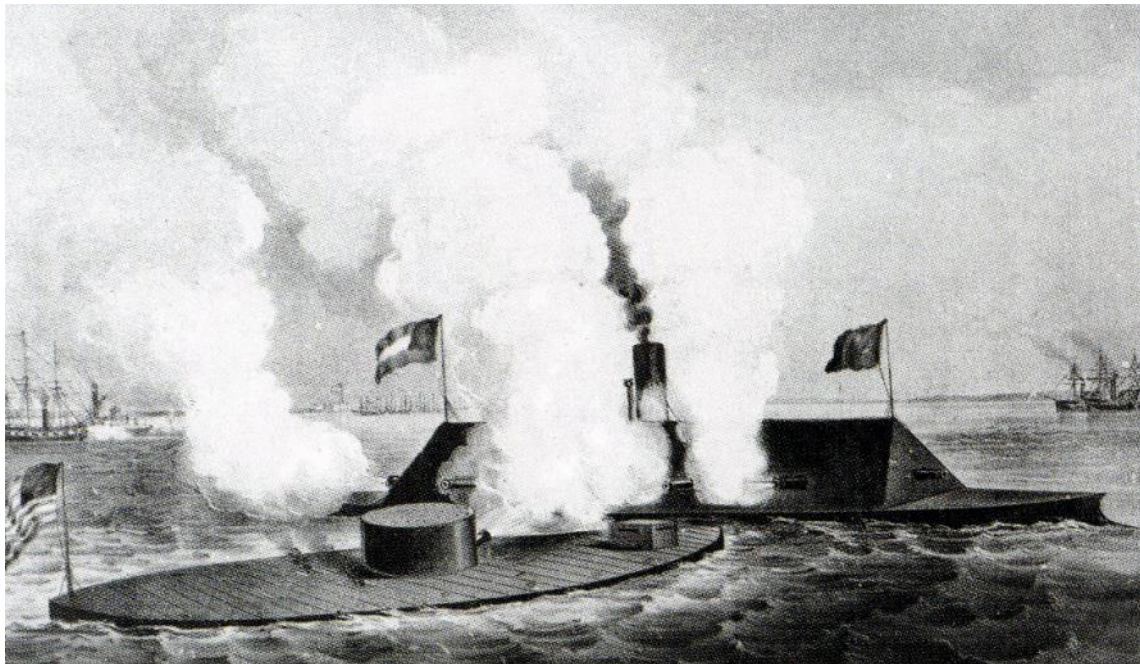
Meanwhile, there was good news coming in from the fighting in the west. Ulysses S. Grant had already seized Paducah, Kentucky, which controlled access to Tennessee. During the winter of 1862 Grant's armies took control of the Tennessee and Cumberland Rivers with the help of Andrew Foote's flotilla of gunboats; within a week, Nashville was also in Union hands. In just eleven months Grant had gone from a harness maker's clerk to a Union hero. William Sherman wrote, whatever nation gets control of the Ohio, Mississippi, and the Missouri Rivers will control the continent; these three rivers, flowing north to south, were broad enough to carry invading armies into the heart of the Confederacy.

The Confederacy began the war with no navy at all except for the hull of the newest iron ship abandoned by the Union in Norfolk. The Confederacy bolted together the iron plates of the Merrimack, building a warship more powerful than anything the Union had. There was probably only one man in America who could stop the Merrimack, and that was Swedish-born inventor John Ericsson. When secretary of the Navy Gideon Welles begged him to build something to stop the Merrimack, he developed the most innovative naval warship in history. His ship would only have two guns to the Merrimack's ten, but they would be mounted to a rotating turret; the ship would sit mostly underwater, making it very difficult to target. The vessel he called the Monitor, contained forty-seven patents, of which one was an innovative marine screw for exceptional maneuverability.

On March 9, off Hampton Roads, Virginia, the Confederate Merrimack began to destroy several Union twenty-four-gun conventional sloops when the Union's Monitor showed up. After four hours of fighting the Merrimack retreated and the Union immediately set to work building more Monitors, while Europe watched with worried fascination knowing every navy on earth was now obsolete. By 1862 Union naval forces were making real progress with Lincoln's 1861 blockade as 427 Federal ships rode at anchor off Southern ports. As the blockades off Southern ports became real, the Confederacy believed France or Great Britain would soon intervene and acknowledge their independence, for without cotton, every cotton factory in Europe would go bankrupt. The South believed they held all of the cards and had nothing to fear from the North's blockades, since Europe would soon come to their aid.

In February, Mary Lincoln was preparing an evening ball for five hundred guests to be held at the White House. A few days before Mary's grand gala, Willie came down with a fever. The ball was a great success, and as news was coming into Washington of Grant's victories in Tennessee, Tad became ill as well. It is believed both boys had contracted typhoid, which had taken many lives in Washington. The White House drew its water supply from the Potomac River, whose banks housed tens of thousands of troops without proper latrines. The debilitating symptoms of the bacterial infection took their toll - high fever, diarrhea, painful cramps, internal hemorrhaging, and delirium. On February 20, Willie died. Lincoln buried his head in his hands and convulsed with emotion; meanwhile, Tad had grown critically ill. While Willie's body lay in the Green Room, Mary remained sedated in bed and Lincoln would bring his work into Tad's room and sit with his son. Congress adjourned so members could attend the funeral in the East Room. After the service, a long line of carriages made its way to the cemetery in Georgetown where Willie would be laid to rest in a vault until his final burial in Springfield. Though Tad eventually recovered, Mary remained in her bed for weeks, unable to cope with daily life.

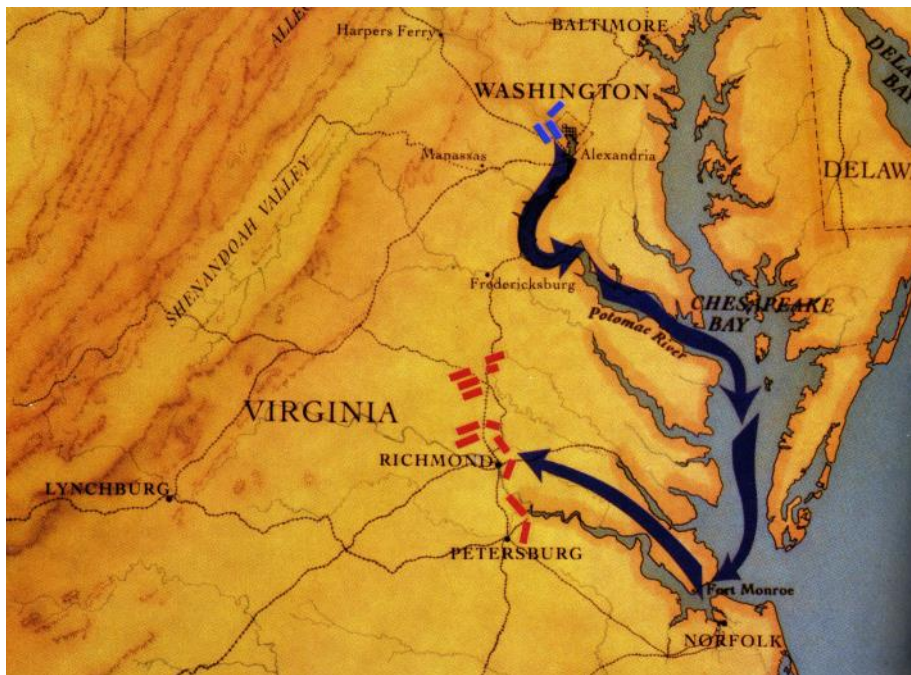
The siege of Yorktown by McClellan's Army of the Potomac continued to drag on for one month. By May 3, nearly one hundred federal guns were at last in place and McClellan planned to begin his bombardment by the fifth. Strategically that night the Southern batteries intensified their fire pouring shells and shot into the Union camp. The next morning the Confederates had vanished. Lincoln had been right again: McClellan's chronic hesitation had become a repeat of Manassas. As McClellan finally pursued Johnston's withdrawing Confederate Army to Williamsburg, and then toward Richmond, McClellan's new Army of the Potomac saw its first real fighting. As the Union Army approached Richmond, the Confederates prepared a line of defense five miles east of the city as the Confederate



(top left) The Union's Monitor Ironclad and the Confederate's Merrimack.

(bottom left) Rather than fighting the Confederate army camped right outside Washington to ultimately take Richmond (the Confederate capitol), McClellan chose to move his enormous army by sea south to the Yorktown peninsula.

(bottom right) Ulysses S. Grant's army was waiting for Buell and his army of Ohio so they could advance into Mississippi together. The deadly Battle of Shiloh resulted when the Confederates launched a surprise attack.



remained convinced he was outnumbered and demanded McDowell send 40,000 troops from the Shenandoah Valley before he mounted his final assault. McDowell, however, would not come as he was fully occupied in the Shenandoah Valley, where Stonewall Jackson was keeping two federal forces busy.

Jackson's valley campaign was a triumph. In just over a month, his small army of 17,000 troops, evading and fighting a force of 60,000 Union troops, had marched over 400 miles, inflicted 7,000 casualties, seized \$250,000 worth of badly needed supplies, 9,000 rifles, and kept 40,000 troops from the advance on Richmond. Lincoln, fearing Washington was again endangered by Jackson, ordered McDowell with 40,000 troops to stay near Washington. Lincoln feared losing the capitol would probably bring Britain and France to recognize the Confederate Government, and if the blockade was broken, arms and supplies would pour into the South.

Meanwhile on April 6, 42,000 Union troops under U.S. Grant were encamped in wooded ravines along the Tennessee River near the Mississippi state border. They had been there almost a month waiting for General Buell and his army of the Ohio to join them. Together the two armies were to plunge into the heart of Mississippi. But Albert Johnston, the ablest soldier in the Confederacy, decided to attack before Buell arrived. As the Union soldiers were polishing their shoes and rifles on a quiet Sunday morning, the Confederates opened fire as they charged the Union camp. Thousands of Union soldiers ran for cover as thin lines of defense began to form; dozens of Confederate assaults were launched against the federal line that would not break and Johnston himself was killed leading one of the charges. As it was growing dark, the Confederate troops had been on the move for twelve hours and had pushed the Yankees back two miles. General Beauregard confidently wired Jefferson Davis that he had won a complete victory.

Wounded men lay everywhere as Union gunboats from the Tennessee River lobbed shells into the Confederate camp all night. When Grant was asked if he intended to retreat he replied, "No! I propose to attack at daylight and whip them." Fortunately, Buell's Army of the Ohio began to arrive with 25,000 fresh troops. At dawn the next day, the federal forces under Grant, now 50,000 strong, attacked Beauregard's 30,000 weary troops. The Confederates fell back, counter-attacked, and fell back again. By late afternoon the Confederates withdrew to Corinth Mississippi leaving behind a battlefield littered with corpses. One hundred thousand men fought at Shiloh; nearly one in four were casualties.

General Halleck took credit for the victory, who spread rumors that Grant had been drinking again, and then Halleck had Grant re-assigned and assumed field command of the army himself. He started to pursue the Confederates in Corinth, only a single-day's march away yet it took him a full month to cover the distance - stopping to build fortifications every day to protect from a rebel attack which never came. By the time Halleck reached Corinth, the Confederates were gone. Following his dubious victory, Halleck was promoted to General-in-Chief of the entire Union Army. Grant, disgusted, decided to resign and go home until his West point friend, Sherman, talked him out of it.

Grant believed no Union success was possible unless the North could seize the Mississippi River. On April 7, during the second day of Shiloh, Union gunboats and twenty thousand troops under John Pope together took a Confederate fort near New Madrid, Missouri, leaving the river open as far south as Memphis. On June 6, Union vessels blasted their way through a Confederate fleet to subdue Memphis. Meanwhile, another fleet of twenty-four ships, commanded by David Farragut, was ordered to seize New Orleans, the south's largest city and busiest port. Farragut managed to smash the Union fleet through the barricade south of New Orleans and withstand the barrage of 126 cannons from the Confederate forts guarding New Orleans. As the Union ironclads, schooners, and gunboats approached New Orleans, eight Confederate ships appeared of which Farragut sank six of them. With the Southern naval force routed, New Orleans surrendered. Farragut became a Northern hero and America's first rear admiral. The North now controlled the southern Mississippi and had a base from which to launch expeditions into the Deep South. But it did not yet control the whole Mississippi. Vicksburg, high on a bluff four hundred miles to the north, remained in Confederate hands; Vicksburg was the nail head that still held the two halves of the Confederacy together. It would be Grant's next assignment to pull that nail head.

Richmond was still in danger, but a new commander now took over its defense - Robert E. Lee. Since March, Lee had been in Richmond, advising the President. Now, for the first time, he was placed at the head of a major army. Lee was a fighter, anxious to get the Union men who had dared invade his state; he renamed his force the Army of Northern Virginia.

McClellan was at last getting ready to mount his barrage in Richmond when Lee hit him first on June 26 with an army of 54,000 men. The attack cost Lee fifteen hundred men, but he would not let up and continued to move forward, determined to drive McClellan off the peninsula. The fighting went on for a full week and hence named "The seven-day Battle." On July first, the Confederates pursued McClellan's retreating army to the Battle of Malvern Hill, charging up a long slope against the federal artillery. A Union colonel recalled the anguish: "Our ears had been filled with agonizing cries all night and when the fog lifted our eyes saw five thousand dead or wounded men covering the ground." Every house was open for the wounded, as fifteen thousand bleeding men were carried into Richmond that week. All but one of the Seven Day Battles had been Union victories, yet McClellan treated them as defeats, continuing to retreat to safer defensive ground after every victory; he eventually backed the entire 120,000-man army down the peninsula until July 3 when he had reached the safety of federal gunboats at the landing on the James River. In just one week, Lee had unnerved McClellan, forced his huge army down the peninsula, and demonstrated for the first time the strengths that would make him a legend. Three days later, Lincoln sailed down to see his commanding general. McClellan had insisted he had not lost, but had merely failed to win only because overpowered by superior numbers; he repeated his need for 50,000, perhaps 100,000 more men to win. Lincoln told him there were no such numbers available and if he did not feel he could resume the offensive, he should return to the defense of Washington; meanwhile his men would be withdrawn from the peninsula. McClellan was psychologically defeated and instead of counterattacking, he continued to retreat from Richmond until he reached the safety of his gunboats. The Confederates had successfully secured their capitol and gained an important strategic victory. It would take three more years and hundreds of thousands more deaths for Union forces to come that close to Richmond again.

Lincoln replaced McClellan at last, turning to two commanders who had won victories in the west. Henry Halleck was made General-in-Chief of the United States Army, and John Pope, was named to command all federal troops north and west of Richmond. McClellan was left in charge of the Army of the Potomac.

On August 4, Lincoln issued a second call for 300,000 troops. This meant conscription by the states, or "the draft." Sheriffs took lists of all the men between 18 and 45 in every city and county; the names, written on folded ballots, were shaken in a revolving drum-shaped box where a blind-folded man drew the names of those who were to go to war for nine months, or inside of five days pay a substitute to go. Men who did not want to go to war, by the thousands, filed exemption claims - they were physically unfit, they were citizens of another country, or they held religious beliefs that war was a sin. Thousands were crossing into Canada or buying steam ship tickets to Europe. Resistance and evasion attempts went so far that the President issued a proclamation that "all persons resisting militia drafts would come under martial law and would be held in jail."

Other decisions came easier, such as signing the Pacific Railway Bill on July 1. Rails were to be laid from the western Iowa line to San Francisco Bay, tying the two coasts together by rail. Lincoln also signed the Homestead Bill on May 20, giving a farm free to any man who wanted to put a plow to citizenship; by paying a \$10 registration fee and staying on the same piece of property for five years, he would receive title making him the owner of 160 acres. Tens of thousands of Europeans came for the free farms and as a war measure, the Union army was supplied with an enlarged food supply.

The Second Battle of Bull Run took place between August 27 to September 1, south of Washington at Manassas Junction, the main rail supply base for Lee's Army of Virginia. Lee dispatched Stonewall Jackson's army to disrupt Pope's invasion of Northern Virginia. On seeing that McClellan, who was supposed to reinforce Pope, was remaining inactive, Lee decided to take the offensive initiative. Lee's Army of Northern Virginia joined Jackson's and Longstreet's for the offensive, still leaving the Confederates outnumbered by 50,000 to 75,000 men. Confederate and Union troops clashed for four days, leaving 16,000 Union casualties and 8,000 Confeder-

ate dead and wounded. During the final encounter it appeared Pope's army would be routed, but the general succeeded in organizing a defense. Even though the battle was lost, Pope was able to save his army as weary Confederates called off their pursuit. As a scapegoat was sought for the loss, Pope was relegated to fight Indians in Minnesota while McClellan was allowed to integrate the Army of Virginia into his Army of the Potomac.

Lee believed that the Union forces around Washington were in a very demoralized and chaotic condition after the second Battle of Bull Run, and that the cautious McClellan now commanding them would stay in a defensive position around the capitol. Lee strategized an offensive blow into Maryland may tip the opinion of the North against continuing the war, as well as validate the Confederate states in the eyes of Europe. Lee was also acutely aware the poor condition of his forces. He wrote to President Davis, "It lacks much of the material of war, is feeble in transportation, the animals being much reduced, and the men are poorly provided with clothes and thousands are destitute of shoes. Many of the men are weary of soldiering barefoot on empty stomachs and are reluctant to venture beyond Confederate borders." General Lee's army advanced north across the Potomac on September 4. Commander-in-Chief, General Halleck ordered the Union army at Harpers Ferry to hold its position until McClellan's army arrived. President Lincoln ordered McClellan, who was now commanding a revitalized 70,000 strong force out of Washington, to destroy the rebel army. Lee underestimated the remarkable morale of the merged Union army, while his three armies under Jackson, Longstreet, and himself were divided.

By September 15, McClellan's army had arrived at Antietam Creek near Sharpsburg, Maryland. Lee's army of 25,000 was camped right on the other side of Antietam Creek but McClellan, again delaying to attack, missed the opportunity for a decisive Union victory by allowing Lee time to amass most of his armies. The Battle of Antietam began on September 17 in the open fields with only scattered trees and natural terrain for shelter from the barrage of artillery and infantry fire. McClellan, well away from the savagery of the battlefield, failed to coordinate his different corps effectively, thus, the Confederates weathered storm after storm of Union assaults. As Union forces eventually broke Lee's defensive line, the opportunity presented itself to destroy the rebel army and cut off their retreat back across the Potomac. McClellan, ever cautious, insisted on holding back troops in reserve which resulted in 20,000 men who never fired a shot. There seems every reason to believe McClellan would continue the fighting the next morning. Lee, now outnumbered three to one, braced for the attack he was certain would come the next morning, but McClellan again did not move. Lincoln wired McClellan, "destroy the rebel army," but McClellan did not attack, and on the 18th, the Confederate Army slipped back across the Potomac into Virginia. The opportunity to destroy Lee's army and possibly end the war had been lost. Lee had started his invasion into Maryland with an army of 55,000 and emerged from Antietam with only 38,000 troops. September 17 was the costliest day of fighting in American history with 22,700 Union and Confederate casualties.

On October 1, Lincoln traveled to Sharpsburg to see his commander; his objective was to get McClellan to follow Lee's army and destroy it, but McClellan could only present arguments why he ought not to move. On November 5, Lincoln relieved McClellan of his command.



(top left) Lincoln in 1862 at the time of the Emancipation Proclamation.

(bottom left) The Confederates successfully defend Richmond and drive McClellan's retreating army back to their defensive positions and the safety of federal gunboats in the Seven Day Battle.

(bottom right) Lee's army invades Maryland, culminating in defeat at the Battle of Antietam. McClellan's army, outnumbering the defeated Confederates three to one, refuses to attack to destroy Lee's army.



The Emancipation Proclamation

Lincoln viewed slavery as immoral and initially opposed its extension into new territories. In 1862, however, in the midst of the Civil War, he also began to view emancipation as a military necessity, recognizing that freed slaves would weaken the South and provide military manpower for the North. Daily reports from the battlefields illuminated the innumerable uses to which slaves were put to use by the Confederacy. They dug trenches, built fortifications, cooked, attended the wounded, and labored at home to produce food and clothing.

During the summer months, Lincoln asked Congress to pass a joint resolution providing federal aid to any state willing to adopt a plan for gradual abolition of slavery. Congress argued, emancipation in any form, would lengthen, not shorten, the war and the legislatures of the border states had refused Lincoln's idea of compensated emancipation. As a result, a historic decision was taking shape in Lincoln's mind. He said he had "dwelt earnestly on the gravity, importance, and delicacy of the subject and came to the conclusion that it was a military necessity absolutely essential for the salvation of the Union, that we must free the slaves." Thus, the constitutional protection of slavery could be overridden by the constitutionally sanctioned war powers of the president.

Lincoln read his cabinet a draft of the proclamation set for January 1, 1863, five months away. The concerns were many - a fallout of Republicans in the fall Congressional elections, secession of the border states, and worry about racial wars in the south which would disrupt cotton production, causing England and France to intervene. Lincoln, resolved to present the proclamation for publication upon the first military success, set out to educate public opinion; Lincoln long believed that nothing can fail with public sentiment in your favor.

The Emancipation Proclamation was limited in scope, applying only to the states within the Confederacy. Nonetheless, the announcement of the proclamation gave new meaning to the Civil War and the abolitionist cause as it was now a war for freedom. Slavery was later abolished throughout the United States with the passage of the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution in 1865. Excerpts from the Emancipation Proclamation are as follows: ".....and by virtue of the power and for the purpose aforesaid, I do order and declare that all persons held as slaves within said designated states, and parts of states, are and henceforward shall be free; and that the executive government of the united states, including the naval and military authorities thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of said persons.....And I further declare and make known, that such persons of suitable condition, will be received into the armed services of the United States to garrison forts, positions, stations and other places, and to man vessels of all sorts in said service....."

African Americans in the war. By the end of the war African-Americans made up 12 percent of Union soldiers. 186,000 black soldiers enlisted during the war, 95,000 of them former slaves coming from southern states. There were 32 Black officers, 21 medals of honor awarded to Blacks, and an astonishing 68,000 Black casualties.

It's a question of money! "Winning a war is not a question of valor but a question of money. Wars are won on who can afford the most iron and lead," said Congressman Conkling from New York. To help insure it was the North that could, Congress enacted the first income tax, established the first national banking system, the first Internal revenue Act, and began printing the first national currency - called "greenbacks." By the end of 1862, the Federal Government was spending \$2.5 million a day on the war.

The soldiers. The Union army was initially a wholly volunteer force. Sign-ups were initially for 90 days but were quickly changed to three years for new recruits. As attraction to the armed service declined, a conscription (draft) was introduced in 1863 for men aged 20 to 45, however, those selected could pay for substitutes to take their place; of the 180,000 conscripts in the Union army, 118,000 were substitutes. Many men were also exempted and large numbers disappeared to evade conscription. The Union army was as diverse as the society of the states; many were farmers, but many were also skilled workers, and about a quarter of those who served were for-

eign born with the largest contingent being German and Irish. The average age was 25, however two of every five soldiers were under 21. Some 2.5 million men served in the Union army during the course of the Civil War and of these, approximately 360,000 died in battle or from disease, one in ten would be wounded and one in thirteen would die of disease.

The majority of the Confederate troops, 60 percent of the total, were farmers; one-third of them could neither read nor write. In contrast to the Union forces, their ranks included few immigrants and no African Americans. The Confederate soldier saw the war as a defense of his home and state as well as his freedom, and almost all believed that the preservation of slavery was essential to their financial security. At its height, the Confederate army numbered some 460,000 men, and more than a million soldiers served during the course of the war. Of these, 250,000 were killed in combat or died from disease.

Fighting on foot. Frontal assaults by men advancing in tight columns were common strategies to smash defensive positions. However, the rifle musket, commonly used early in the Civil War, presented serious problems for an attacking force that had to make frontal assaults in open ground. The musket-loaded rifles marked a vital evolution in warfare as an experienced man could fire his rifle musket three times per minute with accuracy for 300–400 yards. When charging troops could get close enough to the enemy position, infantry would charge with bayonets fixed, either putting the enemy to flight or engaging in hand to hand combat. However, with the development of trench warfare and advanced rapid firing guns, defensive positions became difficult lines to break. Thus, the Civil War drifted into a tactical stalemate decided by attrition.

Naval Blockades. President Lincoln ordered the blockade to begin just after the fall of Fort Sumter. The blockade of Southern ports and Federal control of the Mississippi River was intended to restrict the Confederate war effort by reducing the flow of imported military supplies, as well as the export of cotton. But the blockade presented two huge challenges: the sheer size of patrolling 3,549 miles of coastline, blockading 180 inlets, all with a Union navy of only 14 ships at the beginning of the war. In order to enforce this blockade and take control of the Mississippi River, the Union rapidly expanded its navy. Under the leadership of Gideon Welles, the Union added 626 ships and 57,000 men. Over 1,149 Confederate ships were captured by the Union while attempting to run the North's blockades. The siege blockades played an important role in the eventual exhaustion of Southern resources.

Prisoners of War. By 1864 capture meant only one thing: a prison camp. The parole and exchange cartel that had existed in the early part of the war collapsed in 1863, and in April 1864, General Grant refused to exchange any more prisoners. What awaited the captive later in the war would be a fearsome ordeal at best. He may have had a better chance of survival had he remained on the battlefield. There were more than 150 prisoner-of-war camps across the United States during the conflict. Every kind of facility had to be pressed into service: existing prisons, converted warehouses, old fortifications, and stockades that were no better than cattle pens. What both the prisons in the North and South had in common was a lack of food, shelter, hygiene, and medical attention. Camp Sumter, carved out of the pinewoods of southwestern Georgia in early 1864, was a stockade built for 10,000 Union prisoners that soon held three times that number; it offered no shelter from the sweltering, relentless sun, and its one creek was both a water source and camp sewer. Dysentery was rampant, medical attention nonexistent, and food sparse. Nearly 30 percent of the prisoners died at Camp Sumter compared to the average prison fatality rate of 24 percent. Over 400,000 men at some point were held prisoners of war during the conflict, and more than 56,000 of them died in captivity.

Medical services. When the war began, the U.S. Army's medical corps was comprised of 30 surgeons and 83 assistant surgeons, of which 26 resigned to serve the Confederacy. By war's end, almost 12,000 doctors were employed by the North and 3,237 by the South. Dorothea Dix volunteered her nursing services after Fort Sumter until the end of the war. Under her firm leadership a team of 3,000 nurses treated thousands of wounded soldiers in army hospitals. As expected, disease killed twice as many troops as battlefield injuries. Dysentery, diarrhea, typhoid, and malaria- all caused by poor sanitation - were rampant in the camps; measles and smallpox were passed around by the men, and pneumonia developed quickly among men exposed to the elements. Quinine, opium, castor oil, and Epsom salts were commonly prescribed. Nearly two-thirds of battlefield wounds occurred in the extremities resulting in amputations performed typically under Chloroform or whisky; almost one in four amputations resulted in death. Union surgeon Keen described caring for the wounded, "We operated in blood and pus stained coats, with disinfected hands, we used undisinfected instruments, from undisinfected cases, and used sponges from prior cases washed with tap water."

The railroad during the war. In the first year of the war, Lincoln recognized the need for an over-arching authority to harness the power of the Northern railroads. The Railroad and Telegraph act, passed on January 31, 1862, gave the president full authority to nationalize any railroad and impress its equipment and employees into federal service. The War Department wasted no time in creating the United States Military railroads. At the start of the war there were 21,276 miles of railroad track in the Union states compared to 9,000 miles in the Confederate states. The U.S. Military railroads covered 16 Eastern and 19 Western railroads, 419 locomotives pulling 6,330 cars. Union victory clearly relied on superior railroads to transport heavy artillery, supplies, and troops. By 1864, key railroads in the South had fallen to the Union, effectively crippling the South's ability to stock its strategic supply depots. The North's technological and strategic advantage in using railroads was vital to its victory.

Supply, Transportation, and Logistics. During the Civil War, the armies constant need for food, clothing, ammunition, and medical supplies determined the nature and outcome of some of the conflict's most significant campaigns. Thousands of trampling infantrymen, horse-drawn artillery and caissons (ammunition wagons), and an ambulance train, would be the sight of an army marching down a dusty road. But a marching army would be followed by up to three thousand white-topped wagons- a hundred wagons for each mile of road. If they rolled along in single file, they could reach back for 20 or 30 miles. While each infantryman carried three days rations and 40 cartridges, the wagons carried tons of extra food, ammunition, medical supplies, and thousands of pounds of forage for the mules and horses. As slow as they were, the supply wagons were a vital link from the railroad supply depots to the troops in the battlefield and their ultimate success.

Communications. The telegraph system revolutionized command and control procedures during the Civil War. Following in the wake of the Union and Confederate armies were the telegraph services, putting up the poles and wires needed for sending messages to and from the front. The telegraph system allowed commanders-in-chief based far from the battlefield to exercise direct control over operational and tactical events. President Lincoln used the telegraph extensively to keep in close communication with his commanders, and their commanders developed ciphers and codes to transmit and receive messages in secret. In October of 1861, Lincoln established the U.S. Military Telegraph Service. The federal telegraph service was initially reliant on civilian companies, with the government placing it under the control of the quartermaster corps. By 1864, General Grant was able to enjoy uninterrupted telegraph communication with both Washington D.C. and his sub-commanders operating in the South. By the beginning of the war more than 50,000 miles of wire were already in place, with 1,400 stations and 10,000 employees. An additional 15,000 miles of wire were constructed during the Civil war of which ninety percent of the telegraph infrastructure was located in the northern states.

Espionage and Intelligence. As telegraph tapping became common during the war, the need for cyphers increased to make messages secure. The cipher machine was used by Confederates to encode messages. It used a matrix of 26 alphabets, shifted one letter for each row, from which a substitute letter was chosen for each letter of the message. Regardless of the effort, the cypher was cracked by Union

code-breakers. Additional sources of gathering intelligence included manned balloons, uncensored newspapers procuring and printing the details of troop movements (although false articles were written to confuse the enemy), locals also provided a source of troop movement, documents found on dead or wounded enemy soldiers were often of value, and slaves were a valuable source of information to the Northern armies.

Economic power. Because of the sound economic policies of Secretary of Treasury Salmon P. Chase, the Union's economic health which began in critical condition, ended in robust prosperity. In 1862 the treasury was empty and a solution had to be found fast. Chase marketed war bonds, which were scooped up by investors. This was followed by an introduction of "green backs," (federally issued paper money backed by gold), so the pressure on the Northern economy lessened. Import duties, the traditional source of federal income, continued to bring in revenue. But so did a graduated national income tax, the first in American history. These financial measures ensured that the capital existed not only to fund the war effort, but also to fuel a boom that assured American prosperity for the rest of the 19th century.

The situation in the South was vastly different. Because the nation was starting from scratch, there was no initial balance of credit and few gold reserves with which to fund the war effort. Hence, in March of 1861, the Confederate Congress authorized the printing of a million dollars in paper notes. These bills were backed by nothing more than the faith in the government and almost immediately began to devalue. In late 1861, a Confederate dollar was worth 80 cents in gold and by 1865 it was worth 1.5 cents. Inflation plagued the Confederacy throughout the war, sinking the economy into a European middle ages bartering system by the end of the war.



Ulysses S. Grant

(1822-1885)

Grant was the Union Army's final General-in-Chief who led the Union to its victory of the Civil War. After the war, in 1868, he became the 18th President of the United States.

Ulysses S. Grant was born in a two-room log cabin in Point Pleasant, Ohio. He grew up working on his father's farm and ultimately attended West Point. At West Point he excelled in horsemanship, but was not the best scholar, nor was he considered an exceptional military mind; he graduated 21st out of a class of 39. He did not take orders well, clashed with his superiors, and had a tendency to drink in excess when feeling depressed.

While serving in the War with Mexico (1846-1848), Grant was outspoken about his opposition to the war, yet showed great bravery in battle. In 1848 he married the sister of fellow West Pointer, Julia Dent. After the war with Mexico, he was assigned to a military post in California where he became so lonely he resigned his commission with the military in 1854, returning to join his family in Illinois. Grant suffered failure after failure with various business ventures, ultimately reduced to selling firewood in an attempt to support his family. At the time the Civil War broke out, Grant was working as a clerk in the family leather tannery business

in Illinois.

Grant immediately re-enlisted, but was unable to get a commission again in the U.S. Army, and was appointed to command the 21st Illinois Infantry, a volunteer regiment; he soon rose to brigadier general due to his previous experience. At a time when other Union generals were suffering heavy defeats, Grant led his men to victories in Tennessee, demanding unconditional surrender; his successes led to his promotion to major general. On April 6, 1862, Confederate forces launched a surprise attack on Grants troops encamped at Shiloh. The first day ended in near defeat for the Union, but the next day Grant launched a counterattack, and his troops, thanks to Grants determination, prevailed in victory against fierce Southern attacks. Up to this point in time in the war, the battle of Shiloh suffered more human blood and loss of life than any other conflict, which sparked cries for Grants removal. However, President Lincoln famously responded by saying, "I can't spare this man - he fights."

Grants next major objective was Vicksburg, Mississippi. After a brilliant campaign, he took control of the Confederate stronghold in July 1863, freeing the Mississippi River to Union shipping and dividing the Confederacy in half. Additional victories confirmed his abilities as a commander and his status as a national hero. Lincoln summoned him to Washington in March 1864, appointing Grant general-in-chief of the Union armies. He was also made lieutenant general, a rank that had previously only been held by George Washington.

Finally, Grant directed the converging Union drives that brought about the defeat of the Confederacy. He had a simple strategy - use the Norths greater industrial resources, manpower, and money to win the war. Strike the enemy as hard as you can, never retreat, and wear them out.

Leaving Sherman in charge of the west and the south, Grant personally led the relentless Union attacks against General Lee's Army of the Potomac in Virginia. He gradually wore down Lee's forces during the Overland campaign, the siege of Petersburg, and the fall of Richmond followed, which resulted in Lee's surrender at Appomattox Court House on April 9, 1865. Grant won a bid for the President of the United States in 1868 and would be reelected in 1872. Bad investments, swindles, and mismanagement left him bankrupt during his post-presidency career. In an effort to pay of his debts, he wrote his memoirs prior to his death, which were published by Mark Twain; his memoirs earned the Grant family more than a half million dollars following his death. Ulysses S. Grant died from throat cancer on July 23, 1885 at the age of sixty-three.

Robert E. Lee

(1807—1870)

Robert E. Lee was, first and foremost, a Virginian. Son of Henry Lee, a hero of the Revolutionary War, he grew up among the privileged First Families of Virginia. However, his childhood was not an easy one; he was 11 when his father died, leaving the family in dire financial straits. In 1829 he graduated second in his class from West Point. Lee's marriage in 1831 to Mary Custis, the daughter of George and Martha Washington's grandson, connected him directly with the lineage of George Washington, thus securing his place in Virginia's aristocracy.

Lee spent his pre-Civil War career in the Corps of Engineers and the cavalry. He served as a staff officer in the war with Mexico in 1847-48, when his talents for imaginative flanking movements around prepared defenses and coolness under pressure earned him the admiration of his commander, General Winfield Scott. By the time Lee entered his fifties, his military career had stalled; taking a leave of absence, he returns to his Arlington estate to tend his wife's failing health and their finances. At the approach of the Civil War in 1861, Lee, a lieutenant colonel, was of value to both sides. Torn by conflicting loyalties, Lee chose allegiance to his state once Vir-



Robert E. Lee

ginia seceded from the Union.

Despite some early military setbacks, Lee secured the respect of Confederate President Davis, who retained him as his personal military advisor. In July of 1862, Lee is given command of the Army of Northern Virginia; he believed the Confederates only hope of success against a superior army lay in taking the offensive. Lee repeatedly took risks, and his bold maneuvers secured many outstanding victories. In February of 1865, Lee was appointed general-in-chief of the Confederate Army, while remaining in command of the Army of Northern Virginia. When it finally became futile to continue the struggle, he surrendered with dignity at Appomattox. Lee was excluded from the general amnesty and his Arlington estate was confiscated for back taxes. In 1865 he accepted a post of President of Washington College in Lexington, Virginia.

1863

New Year's Day, 1863, found the Army of the Potomac miserably encamped at Falmouth, Virginia. The men had not been paid in six months, and while army warehouses at Washington were filled with food, little of it got to the men in winter camp; the camps were filthy, littered with food, rubbish, and manure. Hundreds of men died from scurvy, dysentery, typhoid, diphtheria, and pneumonia. As a result, two soldiers died of disease for every soldier on the battlefield. By late January, a quarter of the men were absent without leave.

The Confederacy was experiencing economic disaster: inflation was rampant, climbing 10 percent a month, women were rioting in the streets, infuriated with soaring prices, and schools and colleges were closed. Farmers were called upon to contribute 10 percent of their produce to the army, while an impressment act empowered the army to seize crops and livestock in exchange for valueless scrip. As slaves were fleeing for freedom behind Union military lines, they were also being impressed into the Confederate army as laborers, leaving plantations without much needed labor. To hold onto their slaves, planters marched as many as 150,000 slaves all the way to Texas where thousands died along the way. To add to the South's challenging situation, by the end of the year, despite the threat of punishment of death, two-fifths of the southern army would be absent without leave.

The government at Washington was mired down too, plagued by politics and rumor. Military failures and appalling casualties had fueled a growing peace movement. Opposition to the war was indeed spreading, notably among Democrats of the heartland states, where new Democratic legislatures officially called for an armistice and repeal of the Emancipation Proclamation.

Newspapers sympathetic to the South, were spreading fear of competing

black labor, crusading to citizens to resist the draft, and encouraging soldiers to desert. Within the Republican party factional lines sharpened, and both Conservatives and radicals agreed that it was just not his cabinet or his generals who ought to be replaced, it was the president; they came to feel Lincoln was a failure as president. Discontent was strongest and most dangerous in the middle-west states, however, dissatisfaction was also growing in the west. As long as the Confederates controlled the Mississippi River, the main western trade outlet was blocked, and Westerners were forced to pay prohibitively high freight rates. Also, few westerners were abolitionists; yes they were devoted to the preservation of the Union, but indifferent to the future of slavery. For them, the Emancipation Proclamation changed the character and purpose of the war and fear of heavy immigration of freedmen from the South strengthened Western hostilities toward the Lincoln administration.

Manpower now posed a real problem. There had been severe losses in a war that had now lasted two years, plus enlistments were about to expire and soldiers wanted to go home. Thousands of soldiers were absent without leave and there were almost no new volunteers. Lincoln turned to the one source he vowed to never use- African Americans. He also pushed through new legislation for a national conscription law - one with teeth. It took the recruiting out of the hands of states and made all able-bodied males between the ages of twenty and forty-five subject to call in the national service. Demonstrations broke out challenging the new conscription legislation as unconstitutional, protests that the war was becoming a crusade for abolition, and calls for a cease fire. Ugly racism was often evident in these outbreaks. For example, in Detroit, blacks were beaten and thirty-five houses were burned.

Battered by all sides, Lincoln grew deeply despondent; even though he was constantly surrounded by bureaucrats and others, he was the loneliest man in Washington. Of the cabinet members he most enjoyed was Seward, with whom he liked to exchange stories, but these two men never confided their deepest feelings to each other. As Lincoln became increasingly self-confident in his leadership capabilities, he relied less and less on the advice of his cabinet officers; in truth, he simply did not think they could offer any useful ideas to eradicate slavery, bring the southern states back into the Union, and manage the war. To relax in the evening, Lincoln would most often visit Seward at his home or hang out at the telegraph office, curious about messages from the battlefield. From his wife Mary, he no longer received emotional support; still dressed in mourning, she grieved for Willie and planned fewer and fewer entertainments at the White House to provide diversions for him. Lincoln instead drew much comfort from Tad with whom he spent much time playing, helping him raise his kitten and train his dog. For more mature family relationships, Lincoln did not look to his oldest son, Robert, who was off studying at Harvard College; unfortunately, when they were together the relationship was stiff and awkward. In his two secretaries Lincoln found the sons that Robert could never be; working side by side for long hours with John Nicolay and John Hay, Lincoln came to know these young men extremely well and to enjoy their company. As spring approached, the plans for the great assault on the Confederacy were finally in place. A huge armada, including both ironclad monitors and conventional warships, was being prepared to attack Charleston, the heart of the Confederacy. General Grant and Sherman were readying a new campaign to capture Vicksburg, the last major link between the eastern states of the Confederacy and the trans-Mississippi region. In Eastern Tennessee, Rosecrans was poised for a drive that would capture Chattanooga, breaking the most important rail connection between the seaboard and the Mississippi valley states of the Confederacy. And in the East, Hooker's vast Army of the Potomac was eager to advance against Robert E. Lee's Army of Northern Virginia. Anxiously, Lincoln watched all these elements in his grand strategy that he hoped would bring about the collapse of the Confederacy.

In the spring, Lincoln replaced the inept Burnside with Major General Joseph Hooker as commander of the Army of the Potomac. The strength of Hooker's Army of the Potomac at the start of the campaign was 134,000 men to 62,000 men in the Confederate Army of North Virginia. While part of Hooker's army had Lee pinned down at Fredericksburg, Hooker planned to swing his strongest force north to surprise Lee's forces from the rear at Chancellorsville. As Hooker's men moved through the tangled, dense forest of Virginia, Lee boldly divided his army and maneuvered rapidly against the Union flank. General Lee's offensive attack scared Hooker into full retreat, and after some of the most vicious fighting of the war, Hooker abandoned from the battle of Chancellorsville on May 6. Against all odds, Lee had scored a tactical victory, inflicting 17,000 casualties on the enemy while suf-

fering 13,000 of his own. Chancellorsville was one of the greatest Northern lost opportunities of the war.

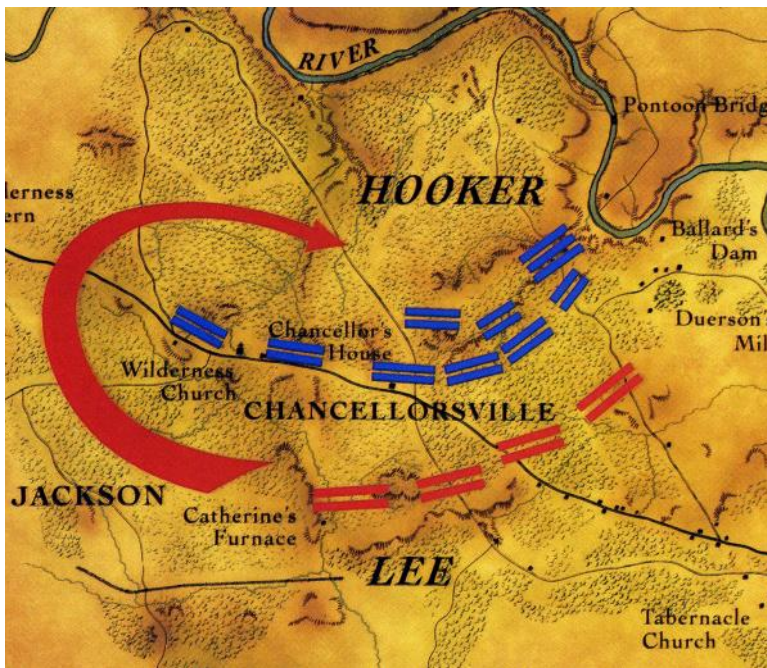
As Hooker was retreating from Chancellorsville, Grant's army was marching towards Vicksburg, the last Confederate strong hold on the Mississippi. For three weeks, cut off from all communication, Grants army marched 180 miles, winning five battles on his way to surrounding Vicksburg itself. Located high on a bluff on the Mississippi River, Grant surrounded the city trapping 31, 000 Confederate soldiers and many more civilians within the city; several assaults failed before Grant settled in for a siege. On May 15, Jefferson Davis summoned Lee to Richmond to do something about Grant. Lee's bold scheme was to invade Pennsylvania, forcing Grant north to defend Washington. Lee was certain that a Confederate victory would leave Lincoln without political support in the next election, forcing him negotiate a peace treaty; Southern independence was finally within sight.

As Lee moved 70,000 men north, Hooker followed along with a much larger army to protect Washington in case Lee turned his army to the east. After Hooker complained that he needed more men, and refused to obey Lincoln's orders to attack, Lincoln replaced him with a new commander, George Meade. As Lee pushed north toward Pennsylvania, Lee's army seized animals, food, wagons, and clothing from civilians; and any free blacks that were captured were sent south back into slavery.

If the Union generals were not sure where Lee was going, Lee had no idea where the Union army even was. As Union infantry troops were moving up from Maryland, cavalry Union Commander Buford learned that the Confederates were coming quickly in his direction. Realizing the danger of Confederate troops reaching Gettysburg first, Buford decided to make a stand on the ridges west of Gettysburg to hold off the rebels until the federal troops arrived and could mass and hold the high ground near Cemetery Hill; in reality, Lee had no intention of fighting at Gettysburg, but Buford's stand forced him to engage before he was ready. Every Confederate and Union division in the area now converged on Gettysburg and both armies continued to gather throughout the night. As fighting broke out on July 2, the second day of the battle, some forty thousand rounds were fired in the first hour and a half. Confederate troops retreated and counterattacked several times, but were finally forced to yield their position by the end of the day. Lee's final decision to attack the Union center on the third day of the battle has long been debated to be a grave tactical error. His Lieutenant General Longstreet urged Lee to disengage and go around the Federal flank but Lee refused; he was determined to win this decisive battle in northern territory. Meanwhile, Meade still held the high ground and was resolved to stay and fight it out. 90,000 Union troops and 70,000 Confederates clashed on the third day of the battle.

A survivor described the awful sounds of the struggle by writing, "The screaming and bursting of shells, the sounds of canister and shrapnel as they tore through the struggling masses of humanity, the death screams of wounded animals, the groans of their human companions, wounded and dying trampled underfoot by hurrying batteries, rider less horses, and the sounds of moving lines of battle...a perfect hell on earth." Another private wrote, "Seconds are centuries, minutes ages. Men fire into each-other faces not five feet apart; there are bayonet thrusts, sabre strokes, pistol shots...men going down on their hands and knees, spinning around like tops, throwing out their arms, gulping blood, falling- legless, armless, headless. There are ghastly heaps of dead men."

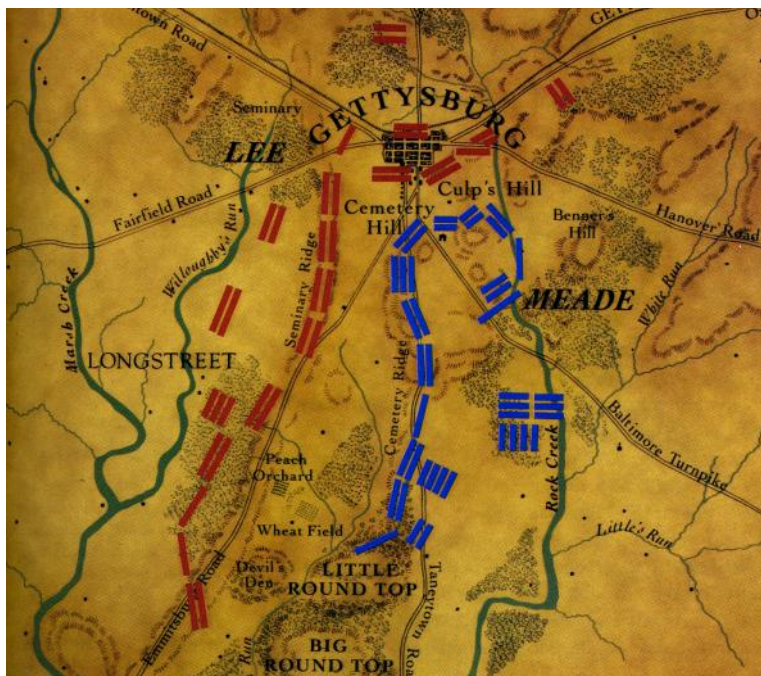
Gettysburg, where almost one-third of those engaged were lost, was the bloodiest battle of the war; Union losses came to just over 23,000, while Confederate losses were estimated to be about 27,000; the line of ambulances filled with wounded stretched back for 17 miles. In the evening of July 4, the Army of Northern Virginia began its long retreat back to Virginia. Lee's gamble to crush the Army of the Potomac had failed and only weakened the Confederacy. Despite urgings from Washington, Meade was too weary to attack Lee's retreating army rendering yet another opportunity lost to crush Lee's army; Lincoln was found by his son Robert crying in his room over the lost opportunity.



(Top Left) The Chancellor house, in which Hooker made his headquarters and where he concentrated his army, to the delight of the enemy. Lee divided his army, sending Jackson with 28,000 men to attack the Union from the rear.

(Bottom left) The Battle of Gettysburg begins when the two opposing cavalry's run into one another; each send for help with the rebels arriving first. Federal troops take cover behind the headstones of Cemetery Hill until reinforcements arrive. By the second day, 150,000 Union and Confederate troops clash.

(Bottom right) After crossing the Mississippi at Bruinsburg and leaving behind his supply line, Grant strikes at the rebels five times on his way to lay siege to Vicksburg, located high on a bluff on the river's eastern side.



Still more good news for the Union came the next day as Vicksburg had fallen into Union hands; with control of the Mississippi at stake, this was a vital battle. Vicksburg was bordered by the Mississippi on the west, steep bluffs to the north, and a forested, swampy, bayous type landscape to the east with very few usable roads. A well-placed cannon devastated any Union fleet floating down the Mississippi. After several failing attempts, Grant was resolved to march his men down the western bank of the Mississippi and cross the river several miles to the south of Vicksburg at Brainsburg; it was a bold plan which his chief Lieutenants balked at. But Grant knew that Lincoln and the Union needed Vicksburg - so on March 31 the long March began. Grants cavalry was ordered to destroy the railroads to the south in Mississippi, which carried supplies to Vicksburg; this attack also provided the needed diversion to protect Grants crossing of the river from attack by the rebel army. Grants army swiftly moved inland, cut off from its supply line the army was forced to live off the land. Rather than moving north towards Vicksburg as expected, Grant moved east, defeating gray coat armies, burning railroad yards, factories, arsenals, and civilian homes nearby; this destruction of the enemy's infrastructure and civilian property would become the precedent for the balance of the war.

Grants boldness put the Confederates in full retreat, shattering their confidence. As Grants army massed around Vicksburg, two forward assaults on May 19 and again on the May 22 were greeted with massive artillery bombardment, inflicting heavy Union losses. Although these failures were disheartening to Grant, he surrounded the city with 70,000 Union troops and settled in for a five week siege. The Unions constant artillery barrage and scarcity of food tested the Confederates nerves and physical stamina. The soldiers and trapped civilians went on quarter rations, succumbing to skinning rats. Despite the harsh conditions, the Confederates remained defiant, believing Johnston's army would soon attack and lift the siege. But hovering east of the city was seven Federal divisions totaling 30,000 men under Sherman. At the end of June, under immense pressure from Jefferson Davis, Johnston probed with his five divisions to no avail against Sherman. As the soldiers within Vicksburg grew weaker, half were on the sick list. Coming to the realization no relief was forthcoming, the troops declared, "if you cannot feed us, you had better surrender." On July 3, the southern General Pemberton surrendered 30,000 Confederate soldiers, 172 cannons, and 60,000 muskets to Ulysses S. Grant; a total of 20,000 Confederate and Union soldiers were lost in the campaign. On July 4, Union troops victoriously marched into the city; the Union now controlled the strategic Mississippi River to New Orleans. With the Confederacy split in two- cattle, metals, and grains from the west would rarely again find their way to the Confederate states east of the Mississippi.

But the war was not over, and Lincoln needed another 300,000 fresh troops to finish the job. Capitalizing on the intense patriotism inspired by the Confederate invasion of the north, Lincoln called for 100,000 more troops from the militias of Pennsylvania, Maryland, Ohio, and the new state of West Virginia. As news spread of the dual Union victories at Gettysburg and Vicksburg, celebrations were taking place in hundreds of cities with torchlight parades, songs, jublations, and refreshments. But soon troubling events in New York city would divert the nation's attention. July 11 was the date the names of all men eligible for the first draft in American history would be placed in a giant wheel and drawn randomly until the prescribed quota was filled. A provision in the Conscription Act that allowed a draftee to either pay \$300 or provide a substitute provoked further discontent; both Stanton and Lincoln had objected to this feature to the bill. A crowd of 500 stormed the draft building with stones and clubs; the terror unfolded as rioters stoned drafting officers, smashed the giant wheel, shredded the list and records of names, and then set the building on fire. The riots continued unchecked for five days while victims who were beat to death were strung up in trees; the final result left more than 1,000 people killed before a regiment of soldiers from Pennsylvania entered the city. Though some advised Lincoln to suspend the draft indefinitely, he insisted that it go forward. The summer of 1863 marked another crucial development in the Union war effort - the organization and deployment of black regiments that would eventually amount to 180,000 soldiers, making up nearly one-tenth of the Union army by the end of the war.

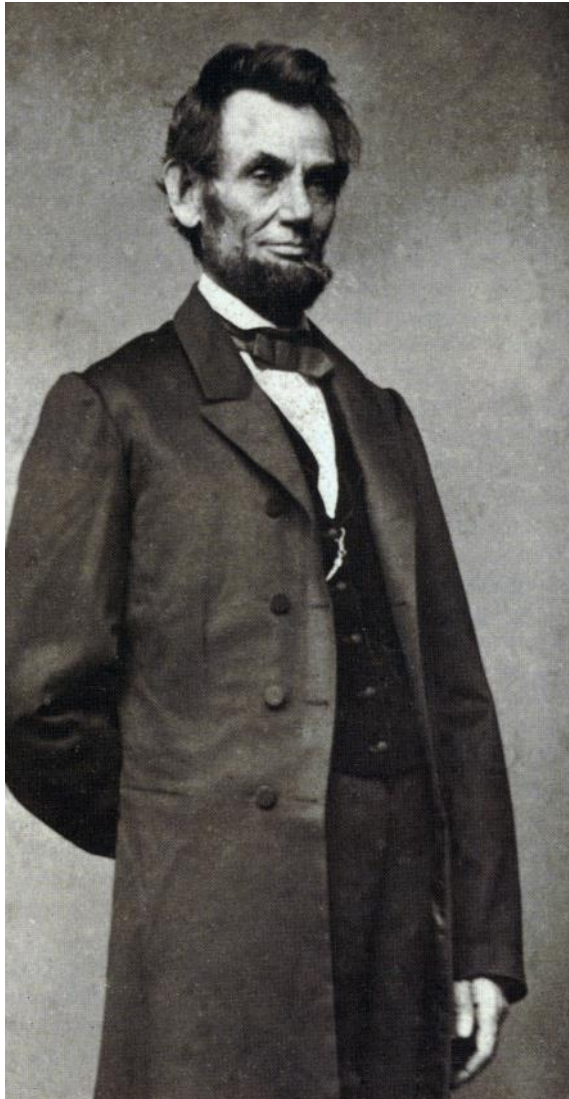
Spurred by Washington to duplicate the successes of Gettysburg and Vicksburg, Major Rosecrans and the Army of the Cumberland moved to drive the Rebels out of Tennessee and further divide the Confederacy. As General Burnside marched on Knoxville, the capitol of East Tennessee, Rosecran's army marched unopposed into Chattanooga, situated on the Tennessee River. To the dis-

may of Jefferson Davis, the Confederates evacuated Chattanooga. Determined to turn this battle around, Davis ordered Bragg's army from northern Georgia, two divisions of Johnston's army, and the bulk of Longstreet's Army of Northern Virginia, to attack the Union forces at Chattanooga. The Battle of Chickamauga began on September 19, forcing a surprised Rosecrans' army to retreat behind Chattanooga's fortifications after 34,000 Union and Confederate casualties. Rosecrans and his army found themselves in an unusual situation: a Union army occupying a southern city besieged by a Confederate army. By October food was running out for the Union troops as Bragg had cut off all but one fragile supply line. If Rosecrans were to surrender, Union momentum would have stalled considerably. In mid-October, Lincoln reorganized the Union's command structure by placing Grant in command of all the territory between the Appalachians and the Mississippi. Grant immediately placed Thomas as commander of the Army of the Cumberland, put new supply lines in place, and ordered Sherman to come with 17,000 fresh troops. After repeated assaults on November 25 headlong into the Confederate front, which was strongly defended on Missionary Ridge outside Chattanooga, Union troops finally prevailed. The results of the battle were clear - Grant had won and opened a path to Atlanta and the Southern heartland.

Up to this point Lincoln had largely accepted the traditional view that the President, once elected, had no direct voice with the public. By mid-summer of 1863 it became desperately important that the administration's policies should be understood. On no issue was this need so great as on the abrogation of civil liberties, or the curtailment of the freedom of speech and of arrests of dissenters and the disloyal. Aware of the widespread public unhappiness, Lincoln grew uncomfortable at remaining a prisoner of the White House. The protest of a group of New York Democrats against the arrests gave him the opportunity for which he was waiting. Drawing on the notes he had collected in his drawer, he began drafting a letter to the public disarming the condemning politicians. He eloquently tackled the question concerning whether the military arrests of radicals and suppression of radical newspapers were constitutional. Lincoln conceded in normal times these would be violations of constitutional guaranteed rights, but he pointed out the Constitution provided for the suspension of these liberties "in cases of rebellion when the public safety may require it." 500,000 copies of the letter were published and read by over ten million citizens. So successful was Lincoln's first attempt to reach out to the public, he lost no time in following it up with a second public letter defending the draft and defending its constitutionality.

After the victories of Gettysburg and Vicksburg, many leading politicians and citizens were encouraging Lincoln to address the public on the basic issues of the war and the terms on which the southern states should be restored to the Union. In November, the opportunity came to do just what many were urging; the President was invited to attend a dedication of the cemetery at Gettysburg, where thousands of men were killed in battle. Lincoln accepted, and during the following weeks he gave much thought to the brief remarks that he would make on November 19. As he boarded the special four-car presidential train on November 18 for Gettysburg, decorated in red, white and blue, his son Tad lay sick in bed. Lincoln had written half of his address and had the rest in his mind, and he would only need a few minutes of quiet to write it all out.

He chose his words deliberately, choosing an hourglass form as he moved from the past to the present to the future: he opened with an account of past events that led up to Gettysburg, three brief sentences on the present occasion, and a final, more expansive view of the nation's future. Lincoln read his draft to no one before he reached Gettysburg, and he explained to no one why he accepted the invitation, yet his text suggested his purpose. Lincoln wanted to drive home his belief that the United States was not just a political union of states, but a nation. He reminded his listeners it was with the Declaration of Independence that our founding fathers brought forth a new nation, conceived in liberty and that all men were created equal; it was a nation pledged not merely to Constitutional liberty but to human equality. He did not have to mention slavery and that the Confederacy did not share these values. He continued into the present by referring to the brave men who struggled on the battlefield at Gettysburg to renew the promise of the Declaration of Independence. He then concluded by saying, that these dead shall not have died in vain if we pledge that this nation shall have a new birth of freedom.



Abraham Lincoln in 1863

Lincoln was accompanied to the stage by nine governors, members of Congress, foreign ministers, military officials, and three cabinet officers. An audience of roughly nine thousand stretched away from the platform in a half circle. Following a two-hour speech by the former conservative Whig, Edward Everett, Lincoln's 272-word address took less than three minutes to deliver; when Lincoln finished, the assemblage stood motionless and silent; his message was clearly a defense of his administration, and an explanation why the war, with all its horrors, must continue. He had translated the story of his country and the meaning of the war into words and ideas accessible to every American. Immediately afterward, Lincoln may have felt that his address was not successful, but responses to his address quickly made it clear that his words reached the general public's beliefs and convictions. Praise for the President's address mounted as newspaper after newspaper printed glowing comments on his words and the impact of the address. Another measure of the significance of the address was the amount of criticism leveled against it by his opponents, many of whom used the address as proof Lincoln was broadening the scope of the war to obtain equality for the slaves. Lincoln returned from Gettysburg only to come down with a mild case of smallpox which would last for several weeks.

Lincoln's Gettysburg Address

Four score and seven years ago our fathers brought forth on this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal. Now that we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battlefield of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field as a final resting-place for those who here gave their lives that the nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this. But, in a larger sense, we cannot dedicate - we cannot consecrate - we cannot hallow - this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here have consecrated it, far above our poor power to add or detract. The world will little note, nor long remember, what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us the living, rather, to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us - that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion - that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain - that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom and that the government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth.

By the fall of 1863, Washington DC had swelled to a population of 200,000 people. Among the newcomers were freed negroes, blockade runners, office seekers, gamblers, liquor dealers, embalmers, manufacturers of artificial limbs, patent-medicine peddlers, burglars and thieves. High class gambling houses

lined Pennsylvania Avenue while 10,000 head of cattle grazed around the unfinished Washington monument. Public buildings and private mansions were filled with dying and wounded soldiers and shed-like- hospitals covered acres of land outlying the city. The White House in 1863 contained armed men hidden in the shrubbery and in the basement were armed troops with muskets and bayonets; two rifleman in bushes stood ready to shoot any suspicious person approaching the buildings entry. Lincoln's main executive office and workroom was located on the second floor of the White House. The 25 by 40 foot room contained a large white marble fireplace and a large oak table for cabinet meetings. Among the books that could be found on the large table were the *United States Statutes*, the Bible, books on the science of war, and Shakespeare plays. Maps on the walls with blue and red pins told where the armies were moving. The President was often at his desk before seven in the morning, ate very light throughout the day, drank little or no wine, and never used tobacco. His son Tad meant more to Lincoln than anyone else and he would often be found sitting on his father's knee while working in his office. Tad would routinely come to the President's office late at night and fall asleep on the floor and was known to abruptly burst into the President's office whenever he wanted - they were chums. The President held two public levees during the winter social schedule - every Tuesday and Saturday evening; most were in formal dress and the president met all who came. But nothing gave the President greater respite than to immerse himself in a play at either Grover's or Ford's theater. It was estimated that during his four years as president, he had visited the theater more than one hundred times.

In the fall of 1863, Lincoln occupied a commanding political position. His Emancipation Proclamation, recent public letters, his Gettysburg address, combined with Union military victories, had all done much to rally public opinion behind his administration. His Treasury Secretary Chase's decision to pursue the Republican Presidential candidacy from within the President's cabinet, rather than resign his seat and openly campaign was discerning to Lincoln. But so long as Lincoln remained confident he had the public's support, he could afford to let Chase's game play out.

1864

It was clear to Lincoln the contest for the next presidential election would center around how to restore the Southern states to the Union. Lincoln was aware of three plans that had been simmering for months: one advocated by Democrats, one insisted on by conservative Republicans, and a third by radical Republicans. Lincoln was careful to stay neutral; however he did ultimately reveal his Proclamation of Amnesty and Reconstruction program in his annual message to Congress, which rallied broad support. Looking to the future, Lincoln told Southerners, the Union government would give amnesty to all who wanted it, and forget what had been. Reconstruction would bring together again the departed brothers of the Union. Lincoln cited his constitutional pardoning power, stating he was authorized to extend pardons and amnesty on conditions he deemed expedient. Lincoln believed Southerners must accept emancipation as an essential condition for reconstruction and, by a sworn oath to uphold legislation and emancipation proclamations to end slavery. He also believed all white southerners from rebellious states must occupy a lower legal status than that of the citizens of loyal slave states. He would require rebellious southerners to take a loyalty oath before they would be pardoned, restored the rights of property, and be able to participate in government. In addition, rebellious states had ceased to be fully equal states in a constitutional sense and requirements would need to be fulfilled before these states could be readmitted to the Union. Reactions from the country at large were equally favorable. The Chicago Tribune wrote, "Old Abe has the inside track so completely that he will be nominated by acclamation when the Republican convention meets."

Ulysses S. Grant arrived in the nation's capital on March 8, 1864 to take command of all of the Union armies. A grateful Congress had revived the grade of lieutenant general, not held since George Washington, and Lincoln had nominated Grant to receive the honored rank. With Grants promotion, Halleck became Chief of Staff, and Sherman assumed Grant's old command of the Western armies.

Grant's entrance into Washington was consistent with his image as an unpretentious man of action. He walked into the Willard Hotel for a room at dusk, accompanied by his son, Fred. After dining in the lobby at the hotel, he walked over to the White House where a large crowd had gathered for the president's weekly reception. Grant met Lincoln for the first time in the Blue Room where a large crowd immediately surrounded Grant. After mingling with the crowd for an hour, he made his way to the drawing room to meet with Lincoln, Seward, and Stanton to discuss tomorrow's ceremony. At one o'clock the next day, Lincoln and Grant delivered their two messages at a small ceremony in the White House which were immediately telegraphed to the world. After the ceremony, Grant and Lincoln met in private. Lincoln explained how he was forced to issue military orders in the past due to procrastinating commanders, but all he wanted was for Grant to take responsibility and act, leaving him to the task of mobilizing the government.

Jefferson Davis was under attack in the south by his own people. In the spring of 1864, the Confederacy was a beleaguered nation as the South's finances were shaky, their currency was unsound, and the European relationship was never encouraging. There was a real suffering among the people - food riots had broken out in Richmond and Atlanta, and clothing was in such short supply that shops were being vandalized. The impact of the blockades were having a devastating effect upon the citizens of the Confederacy. Jefferson Davis's health gradually succumbed to the strain and his innate despondency deepened; he was withdrawn and alone.

It was a tribute to Lincoln's skill to manage men that, even while giving the assurances of independence to Grant, he succeeded in reshaping his strategy. After convincing Grant a more punishing, direct pursuit of Lee's army was necessary to end the war, Lincoln had heartily approved Grant's plan to move in three directions at once: the Army of the Potomac would strike Lee head-on, forcing him to retreat south toward Richmond; Sherman would move through Georgia from west to east, with the objective to capture Atlanta; Butler, meanwhile, would move northeast against Richmond from West Virginia. This concerted effort is what Lincoln wanted all along.

Much depended on the success of Grant's plans. Lincoln was facing a re-election battle, and his party had split over his policies. Hard line radical Republicans, convinced Lincoln had mismanaged the war and could not be re-elected, were decamping to the Radical Democracy Party or "Copperheads," who supported a peace platform, constitutional prohibition of slavery, restoration of free speech and free press, and the reconstruction of southern states left up to Congress. This new party convened in late May in Cleveland, Ohio, and nominated the ever-popular soldier politician, John Fremont for President. Republicans still loyal to Lincoln felt they could not win unless they joined with "War Democrats" under the label of the new Union National Republican party.

Naming Grant to head the Union armies won Lincoln a brief political respite from the pressure to produce a military victory. And while Lincoln had complete confidence in Grant, he feared that Lee would select his own ground, and wait and attack, which would give him great advantage; Lincoln's fears proved correct. As Grant moved his army of 120,000 men, 4,300 supply wagons, and 850 ambulances south on May 4, Lee awaited for him with 60,000 Confederates in an area just west of Fredericksburg known as the Wilderness - an unforgiving maze of craggy ravines and slippery bogs, dense with vines and thorn bushes. The gloomy terrain provided cover for Lee's earthworks and prevented Grant's superb artillery from being used, and it effectively negated the Union's superiority of numbers. After several days of fighting a blind and bloody hunt to death in bewildering thickets, Grant wept in his tent as brushfires raged, burning hundreds of wounded men alive. Grant made a decision on May 7 to call off the attacks and slide left and south to cut off the routes to Richmond. Grant pushed relentlessly southeast to Spotsylvania, where Lee had anticipated Grant's move and had his troops dug in behind a forbidding arc of earthworks. Grant hammered away at Lee's defenses for two weeks; the air was continuously heavy with rain while thousands of soldiers wallowed in the mud and blood, screaming and firing at point-blank range; fierce hand-to-hand struggles surged back and forth while the incessant shooting continued for twenty hours or more without a lull; even the darkness brought no respite from the slaughter, muzzles flashed in the dark, and falling trees could be heard,

sheared by the volume of lead. Men on both sides had to climb over the dead and dying, laying in some places in piles three to four deep. Failing to pry Lee out of his earthworks, Grant began to hurriedly move his men south on May 21, still aiming to get between Lee and Richmond. On June 1, the two armies both arrived at Cold Harbor. The field fortifications that the Confederates had been working on was now perfected in the flat fields around Cold Harbor. Grant thought one big push might divide Lee's army. At 4:30 a.m. on June 3, the signal for 60,000 Union soldiers to attack an unseen enemy was given. Volley after murderous volley tore through the blue-clad ranks; entire lines were cut down as 7,000 charging Union men were fallen in the first seven minutes, whole regiments disintegrated. The campaign resulted in 86,000 Union and Confederate casualties in a space of seven weeks. Grant buried the dead and sent the wounded to Washington, where they arrived by the thousands. Lee's strategy was straightforward: destroy the Union's resolve to wage war. To offset Grant's superior numbers, force him to attack fortified positions to make the cost in lost men so high the northern public would turn on Lincoln and sue for peace. Even though Lee had managed to stall Grant's superior army, Lincoln never lost faith in Grant after receiving one message from the general that read, "There will be no turning back. I propose to fight it out on this line if it takes all summer." Lincoln is known to have said, "Any other general would have retreated after sustaining such terrible losses." Never before had Lee's Army of Northern Virginia been pressed from point to point and day to day fighting without rest; a new physical and psychic factor was entering the war.

Suddenly, Grant made a complete shift in his style of fighting. After encountering an extreme loss of men, Grant decided to change strategy and move against the Confederate supply lines, especially the five railroads intersecting in Petersburg, just south of Richmond. During the night of June 12, to Lee's surprise, Grant's army of 120,000 men vanished during the night. The 2,500 troops at Petersburg were protected by formidable fortifications and were able to hold Grant off until Lee's army arrived. After six weeks of steady combat, Grant's exhausted troops dug in for what would become ten months of siege warfare. Hundreds of miles of entrenchments were built; the men lived in trenches, plagued by flies, open to rain and fierce sun, and exposed to continuous artillery fire. Lee hoped if he could hold out long enough, the defeat of Lincoln in the November presidential election may hold the key to Confederate independence. Grant redoubled his efforts to weaken the Confederate line and continued his war of maneuver. By late October, with winter approaching, the Union had cut all supply routes to Petersburg except one; The prospects were looking very bleak for Lee's army.

Meanwhile, while Grant was fighting Lee, Sherman launched his march toward Atlanta on May 7 with 110,000 soldiers. The wily Confederate commander, Joseph Johnston, with only half of Sherman's troop strength, was a master of the military delaying game as he continually blocked the 80-mile road to Atlanta for six months with strong defensive works.

A few months earlier on June 8, Lincoln breezed to a unanimous nomination at the Presidential Convention in Baltimore for the newly forged Union National Republican Party. The Union party selected Andrew Johnson, a War Democrat from the Southern state of Tennessee as Lincoln's running mate. At Lincoln's urging, the convention was opened declaring a party platform to declare for an amendment to the Constitution that will positively prohibit African slavery in the United States. Nothing better indicated the nation's transformation since the Chicago Convention four years earlier: That slavery was the cause and now constitutes the strength of this rebellion....to eradicate slavery from the soil of the Republic.

Immediately following his nomination, with Grant's and Sherman's troops stalled by Lee and Johnston in the heat of mid-summer, the people of the North saw the war as going nowhere, and Lincoln's chances of reelection looked very dim. Other problems were plaguing Lincoln's popularity as well. The government was facing mounting deficits from the horrendous cost of the war, Congress was reluctant to enact a realistic tax program, and the price of gold was up ten percent relative to a falling greenback. After ordering a draft of 500,000 men in February, and another 200,000 in March, Lincoln was forced to draft an order for another 300,000 men in May. Again in August, he faced an unpopular choice to draft another 500,000 men. This time the draft was going to hit comfortable middle-class families because Congress had abolished the law allowing a man to transfer

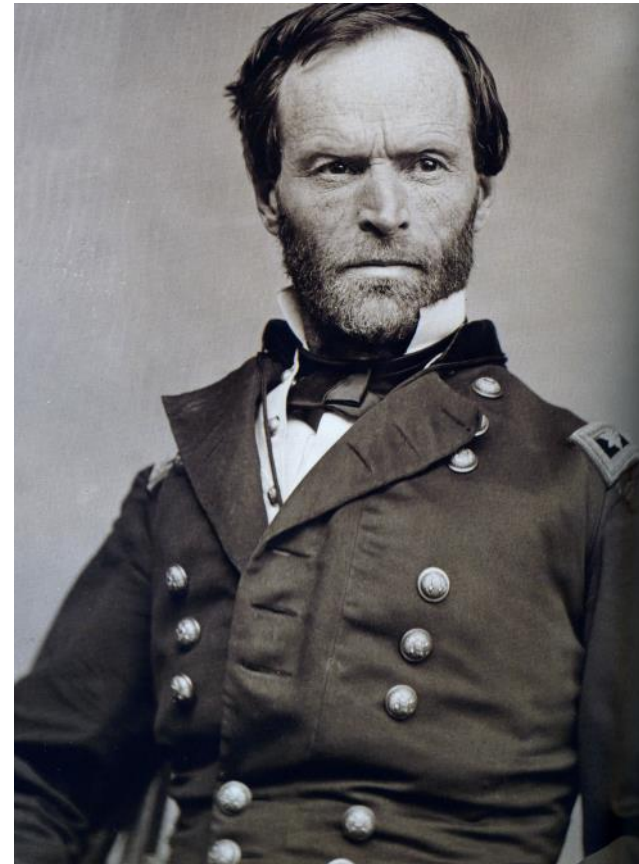
his military obligation by paying \$300 for a substitute. In addition, the government had just announced a new \$200 million dollar loan, but the credit of the government was so poor it had difficulty finding purchasers. The outcry against Grant and the President made Lincoln want to see for himself what was happening with the Army of the Potomac. On June 20, accompanied by his son Tad, Lincoln made an unheralded visit to Grant's headquarters at City Point, 180 miles from Washington. He had lunch with Grant, viewed the earthworks surrounding Petersburg, and wept as black troops rushed toward him shouting, "The Lord save Father Abraham." He took great satisfaction in repeating what Grant told him: "You will never hear of me farther from Richmond than now, till I have taken it."

Those surrounding Lincoln found him deeply depressed, indeed quite paralyzed. War weariness was spreading, and demands for peace negotiations to end the killing were becoming strident. The Democrats were organizing a peace platform for their national convention the end of August and the Republicans were badly divided. To make matters worse, on July 9, Lee ordered Jubal Early to command 15,000 men from the Army of Northern Virginia to relieve Grant's pressure on Richmond by waging war across the Potomac. His small force was strong enough to ravage the Maryland countryside and threaten the weak defenses protecting Washington. With the capitol in peril, Grant dispatched veteran troops to assist in the defense of Washington and push the Confederates into full retreat back into Virginia.

As the burdens of a never-ending war weighed ever more heavily on Lincoln, he found comfort in the Bible; he was not a member of any Christian church, but found solace in the scriptures. Again and again he reverted to the idea that behind all the struggles and losses of the war a divine purpose was at work. This comforting thought allowed the President to live with himself by shifting some of the responsibility for all the suffering.

During the tumultuous summer period, Lincoln was told representatives of the Confederate government were on the Canadian border with full authority to negotiate a peace.

Lincoln correctly suspected an attempt to influence the November election, knowing that the President could not reject an offer to negotiate peace. Lincoln responded with a letter stating, "any proposition which embraces the restoration of peace, the integrity of the whole Union, and the abandonment of slavery...will be received and considered by the executive government of the United States." The condition requiring the abandonment of slavery, which went beyond the Emancipation Proclamation, came as a surprise and was widely criticized by Democratic newspapers. Lincoln had wisely sent his own peace mission to Richmond. The remarks of Jefferson Davis were



General William T. Sherman (1820-1891) was an American soldier, businessman, educator and author. He was born into a prominent political family in Ohio, graduated from West Point in 1840, and was the father of eight children. In 1864 he was promoted to commander of the western theater of the war. After capturing Atlanta, he marched through Georgia and the Carolinas destroying large amounts of crops, livestock, and supplies, undermining the ability of the Confederacy to continue fighting.

also printed: "Unless you acknowledge our right to self-government, the war must go on till the last man of this generation falls in his tracks." Knowing that the public was wild for peace, many felt Lincoln's chances for reelection were impossible with the public's knowledge the President will only listen to peace terms on the condition of the abandonment of slavery.

Lincoln further alienated himself from radical Republicans during the summer over the Wade-Davis bill, a reconstruction effort by Congress. Lincoln, by executive power, had already initiated a moderate reconstruction program of his own, labeled the Ten-Percent Plan, which went into operation in several Union controlled southern states late in 1863. Lincoln's priority was to speed up reconstruction and reunite the country as painlessly as possible. Under the plan, Lincoln would pardon any rebel and restore the rights of property upon swearing allegiance to the Union and accepting emancipation. When the number of loyal men reached ten percent of the votes cast in the 1860 election, they could reestablish a state government. Lincoln further split the Republican Party by pocket vetoing the Wade-Davis Bill, which laid down a more rigid formula for bringing seceded states back into the Union. The bill required a majority of a state's citizens to take an oath of allegiance to the Union before the reconstruction process could begin. In addition, voting rights would be denied to all those who held civil or military office in the Confederacy, and emancipation would be imposed by Congress. Leading Republicans were upset by Lincoln's reconstruction veto, but also his peace efforts. In August, a growing movement was under way to call a new National Union Convention to supplant Lincoln and elect a new presidential candidate.

In the last days of August, the Democratic Convention in Chicago selected General George McClellan as its candidate for President. Their platform called for an end to the fighting and was immediately labeled "the Chicago surrender." After some delay, McClellan accepted the nomination but disavowed the peace platform, making a mockery of the Democratic party.

On September 4, timed perfectly to mock the Democratic announcement that the war was a failure, came a message from Sherman as ashes drifted over the city: "Atlanta is ours." Sherman was able to put Atlanta under siege and force its evacuation; the four railroads leading into Atlanta, the Confederates largest Southern industrial base and second largest city to Richmond, were cut and the city glowed in red flames, devouring 80 freight cars of ammunition. In the months leading up to conquering the "Gate City to the South," the North and South suffered 50,000 casualties. Almost simultaneously with Sherman's victory message arrived news of the fall of Mobile, Alabama, the last major port in Confederate hands from which the rebels received vitally needed munitions and supplies. These Union victories, combined with McClellan's nomination on a peace platform, devastated the radical Republicans plans to replace Lincoln. Within weeks presidential candidate Fremont agreed to drop out of the race for a military promotion to major general and to help assure Lincoln's victory against McClellan.

Twenty days before the November election, Phil Sheridan gave the North one of the most dramatic victories of the war, following a methodical devastation of the Shenandoah Valley of Virginia. 2,500 prisoners were taken, barns were burned, and whatever would nourish man or provide feed for cattle was taken, burned, or spoiled.

Regarding the election, Lincoln trusted the bond he had developed with the soldiers during his many trips to the front. Consequently, Secretary of War Stanton worked to make sure all the power and influence of the War Department was employed to secure the election of Lincoln with the soldiers vote. Provisions for the 850,000 Union soldiers to cast absentee ballots in the field had recently been introduced in thirteen states while four other states allowed soldiers to vote by proxy. Most impressively, the soldiers vote had swung overwhelmingly in Lincoln's favor, earning Lincoln eight out of every ten soldier's votes. By supporting Lincoln, the soldiers understood that they were voting to prolong the war, but they voted with their hearts for the president they loved and the cause they embodied. In the end, Lincoln would win all but three states - Delaware, New Jersey, and Kentucky - in the lopsided Electoral College win, giving him 212 electoral votes to McClellan's 21. Lincoln carried 55 percent of the popular vote with 2,203,831 votes to McClellan's 1,797,019. The Republican Union Party also gained thirty-seven seats in Congress, won twelve governor offices, and seized control of most of the state legislatures with the power to name the next round of U.S senators. After the election,

George Strong wrote, "The crisis has been past, the most momentous popular election ever held has decided against treason and disunion. Language cannot describe nor imagination conceive its importance to our country and to the world. It is the greatest political event in all history." Until now it has not been known to the world that a people's government could sustain a free national election, in the midst of a great civil war.

After persuading Lincoln and Grant that a march to Savannah along the coast was a good idea for placing his troops in easy reach of transportation north to Petersburg, Sherman left Atlanta in flames on November 15. He marched 62,000 soldiers in two columns, 20-40 miles apart, with 2,500 supply wagons, 300 miles to Savannah in less than one month. During Sherman's march to the sea, the soldiers destroyed railroads by ripping up the tracks, they devoured all of the livestock, stripped the farms of their crops, burnt barns, and houses; the estimated damage during the march was estimated at \$100 million. Savannah was garrisoned by 10,000 soldiers and a ring of defenses including 100 siege guns; its defenders resisted bravely but futilely. Sherman burned the navy yard but spared the town, presenting it instead to Lincoln as a Christmas gift.

1865

Facing certain defeat, a few rebels began to think the only way to avert Confederate defeat was by removing Lincoln; although more planning was given to kidnapping than to assassinating him. The thinking believed Lincoln could be used as a hostage to secure the release of some 200,000 Confederate prisoners. Stanton's growing anxiety that the President was in danger was reflected by increased security for Lincoln. Wearing civilian clothing and carrying concealed weapons, these men were supposed to accompany the President on his walks, escort him to the theater, and stand guard outside his private rooms in the White House. Like many other American presidents before him, Lincoln took few precautions to protect his security.

Nothing on the home front in January, 1865, engaged Lincoln with greater urgency than the passage of the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution, abolishing slavery. He had long feared that his Emancipation Proclamation would be discarded once the war came to an end. The previous spring, the Thirteenth Amendment had passed in the Senate by two-thirds but failed to garner the necessary two-thirds vote in the House. In his annual message in December, Lincoln urged Congress to reconsider the amendment now rather than wait for the new Republican dominated Congress to be seated in March. Congressman Ashley of Ohio reintroduced the amendment into the House on January 6, 1865. Lincoln set to work at once to sway the votes of moderate Democrats and border state Unionists. Utilizing the power of his office, Lincoln won the favor of five Democrats to change their votes, who without the amendment would have lost. In front of a packed gallery and House floor, the amendment passed with a constitutional majority two-thirds vote of 119 ayes and 56 noes. The news was greeted with wild rejoicing and by a 100-gun salute in Washington D.C. To make the measure binding, three-quarters of the states would need to ratify the new amendment and Lincoln took this to mean three-quarters of all states, including those in the South who seceded. As the war came to an end, it was made known to former Confederate states that acceptance of the Thirteenth Amendment was a precondition for full re-admission into the Union. The required state quorum was achieved on December 6, 1865; it was the first time in over sixty years a new amendment was added to the Constitution. Finally, the country had "a King's cure for all the evils."

Lincoln had kept the debates and adoption of the Thirteenth Amendment quiet while Confederate commissioners were on their way to Washington to negotiate peace. On the morning of February 6, Seward joined Lincoln and the three Confederate peace commissioners aboard the Presidential steamer at Fort Monroe. The Confederates asked, "Well, Mr. President is there no way of putting an end to the present war.....and bringing about a restoration of harmony between the different states and sections of the country?" Lincoln replied that there was but one way the he knew of, and that was, for those who resisted the laws of the Union to cease that resistance. The Confederates then asked what terms of reconstruction would be offered if the Confederate states agreed to return to the Union. Lincoln made it clear the Southerners must surrender their arms against the United States and rec-

ognize National authority. As to slavery, Seward dropped a bomb-shell by telling the commissioners of the recently passed Thirteenth Amendment. Lincoln added, "If I were in your place, I would go home and get the governor of your state to call the legislature together, ratify the new Constitutional amendment abolishing slavery, and to recall all of the state troops from the war." The commissioners gagged at Lincoln's terms, viewing them nothing more than unconditional surrender. Lincoln reported to Congress the peace negotiations a complete failure. Jefferson Davis responded by announcing, "I can have no common country with the Yankees." He predicted that before another year has passed, the South would be able to secure peace on its terms, with separation of the countries and slavery intact.

Meanwhile, the war front continued to generate good news for the Union. After capturing Savannah, Sherman turned his troops north toward Columbia, the capitol of South Carolina. On February 17, the city of Columbia's 458 buildings go up in flames, and Columbia's fall led to the evacuation of Charleston. In honor of the restoration of the American flag over Fort Sumter, Stanton ordered a national salute fired from every U.S. arsenal and headquarters of the United States.

Inauguration Day, March 4, 1865, began wet and windy. First came the swearing in of Vice-President Johnson, which took place in the Senate Chamber. Then the presidential party moved onto the platform at the east front of the capitol. As Lincoln's tall figure appeared, cheer upon cheer arose, bands played, and flags waved all over the scene. As the President stepped forward to deliver his inaugural address, the sun burst through the clouds and flooded the new capitol dome, topped with the statue of Freedom. The president's address was rooted in his religious beliefs, weaving together past, present, and future; the mere 703 words of his address redeemed the suffering of the Civil War, and offered reconciliation and hope to a wounded nation and the alienated citizens of the South. Lincoln referenced the past by saying, "four years ago all thoughts were anxiously directed to an impending Civil War. All dreaded it... all sought to avert it.....but one of them would make war rather than let the nation survive, and the other would accept war rather than let it perish, and war came.....These slaves constituted a particular and powerful interest. All knew that this interest was somehow the cause of war.While the government claimed no right to do more than to restrict the territorial enlargement of it." Lincoln proceeded to absolve both the North and the South from the burden of the never-ending bloodshed to a higher power by suggesting that God had given, "to both North and South this terrible war" as punishment for their shared sin in slavery. Speaking as eloquently as a prophet he continued, "The almighty has his own purpose. Woe to the world because of offenses ...If we shall suppose that American slavery is one of those offenses which, in the providence of God,.....he now wills to remove it.....and until every drop of blood drawn with the lash, shall be paid by another with the sword, as was said three-thousand years ago, so still it must be said, the judgments of the Lord are true and righteous altogether." By leaving the execution of the war to the judgment of the Almighty, Lincoln could turn his final paragraph to a plea to the responsibility of his countrymen, "With malice toward none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right as God gives us to see the right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in, to bind up the nation's wounds, to care for him who shall have borne the battle and for his widow and his orphan, to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and lasting peace among ourselves and with all nations." His address completed, the crowd cheered loudly, the artillery fired a round of salutes, and the band played. That evening the gates of the White House were opened for a public reception in which Lincoln tirelessly shook the hands of over 5,000 people.

In late March, Lincoln, Mary, and Tad journeyed to City Point to visit General Grant, Sherman, and Admiral Porter where he met with the three commanders aboard the Presidential River Queen on March 28. Lincoln discussed the end of the war, and talked of offering the most generous terms in order to get the rebel armies disarmed and back to their homes and families. He repeated, "I want no one punished; we want all those people to return to their allegiance to the Union and submit to the laws." More important, Lincoln wanted to underscore his directive to Grant that he should only converse with Lee about the capitulation of his army, but not to decide, discuss, or confer upon any political questions.

On March 29 Grant launched another probe to the western end of Lee's line and two days later the Union breakthrough had finally

been achieved; Lee's last remaining lines of communication to the west and south were cut off, leaving his position untenable. Lee knew it was only a matter of time before Sherman's forces would be able to link up with Grant's army and complete his encirclement. To avoid that scenario, Lee sent word to Jefferson Davis that he had to extricate his army as soon as possible as he believed Petersburg would fall and Richmond itself would have to be abandoned. On April 2, Grant launched an all-out attack along Lee's lines of fortification and by the following morning Petersburg was in Union hands. On that same day Jefferson Davis, along with all civil authorities, abandoned Richmond and gave orders to torch everything of military value. By the time the first Union attachments arrived the next morning on April 3, the Southern capitol was in ruins with 25 percent of the buildings ablaze. Jefferson Davis had summoned his cabinet to an emergency session where he made preparations for a special train to carry leading officials and government papers south west to Danville, where a new capitol could be established; Davis issued a defiant promise to his cabinet to continue the struggle.

Meanwhile, Lincoln wanted to be in on the finish to the war and on April 4, set out with a small party to visit the demolished cities of Richmond and Petersburg. Lee was hoping to move his men to Amelia Court House where he could feed his hungry men and then evacuate his army to Danville, Virginia by rail, where President Davis was waiting. From Danville he hoped to rendezvous with Johnston's army of North Carolina to continue the fight. Anticipating Lee's movements, Grant ordered the rail links to the south cut off. Lee's starving, exhausted army was forced to march westward for several days and nights in heavy rains, where it eventually reached Appomattox Court House 90 miles west of Richmond. With Grants army in pursuit, Lee's Army of Northern Virginia - what was left of it - was finally trapped. Faced with a situation he had sought to avoid, Lee called a meeting of his commanders where it was agreed to dispatch a message to Grant to discuss "the surrender of his army." Grant and Lee met at the McLean's home on April 9 to draft and sign the formal act of surrender; surprisingly, the terms Grant offered proved more generous than Lee had expected. To end the war, Joseph Johnston's army surrendered to Sherman on April 26 and Jefferson Davis would eventually be captured in a Georgia pine forest on May 10th, where he was hiding-out with his family.

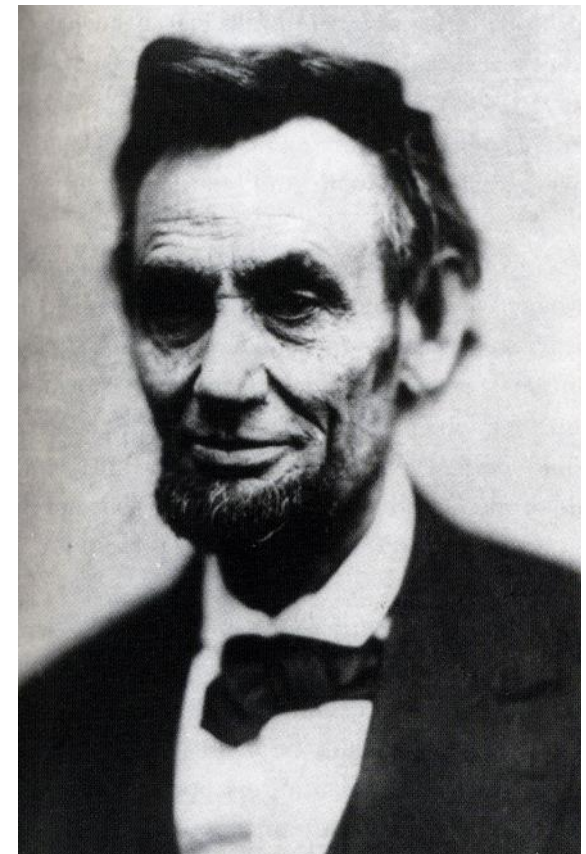
At daylight, the next day after Lee's surrender, the firing of five hundred cannons gave the news to the entire capitol. Guns fired, bells rang, and laughing men waved flags throughout the entire day. On April 11 it seemed that the whole city turned out to celebrate. All the government buildings and homes were illuminated, including the new capitol dome and Lee's home across the Potomac. An immense throng of people carrying banners gathered on the lawn of the White House calling for the President. Lincoln appeared in a second-story window and read from a carefully prepared manuscript where the larger part of his address focused on reconstruction.

John Wilkes Booth was in the crowd outside the White House listening to Lincoln speak, fuming with hatred for the President. Born in Maryland in a slave-holding community, he seemed destined for the theater; from his debut at the age of seventeen he was constantly on stage. It was in the Southern theaters, notably Richmond, that he gained recognition. When the war broke out, Booth made no attempt to conceal his sympathies for the Confederacy cause, his views ardently favored slavery and supremacy of the white man. On April 11, Booth devised a plan to give President Davis, Johnston's army, and the Confederacy one last chance to rally by decapitating the Union government. Booth conspired a plot to have 20-year-old Powell assigned to kill Secretary of State Seward, while 29-year-old Atzerodt was instructed to murder Vice President Johnson, while Booth would take it upon himself to assassinate Lincoln. The timing of the attack was settled when Booth heard that Lincoln was to attend a performance at Ford's Theater on the evening of Good Friday. Booth knew the theater well as he had performed there many times and was a familiar figure backstage. The National Republican newspaper had announced Grant and his wife would be joining the Lincoln's in the President's Box that night, but the Grants were anxious to get home to their children. Sneaking into the presidential box with his pistol, Booth shot the President in the head from behind and leaped down onto the stage, broke his leg, and managed to limp to his waiting horse to flee the city. Booth's two accomplices were less successful. Powell entered Seward's home and made his way to the bedroom where the statesman was laying injured with a broken arm and jaw from a carriage accident; when his gun jammed, Powell pulled a

knife and stabbed Seward repeatedly, but not fatally. As for Atzerodt, his courage failed him and he spent the evening drinking in the hotel where he was supposed to slay Johnson in his room. Lincoln was taken from the theater across the street to a boarding house where he died at 7:22 a.m. on April 15. Lincoln's casket lay in state in the East Room of the White House, then in the rotunda of the Capitol. His funeral train took fourteen days, traveling 1,662 miles through several cities where thousands of mourners gathered at each stop. It finally ended in Springfield on May 4 where the coffin laid open in the Illinois State House of Representatives before he and his son Willie were buried together in a vault at Oak Ridge Cemetery. Both Powell and Atzerodt were apprehended within one week after the assassination. Booth managed to evade capture until April 26, when he was trapped to a barn in Virginia and shot dead. Others who were party to the plot were all captured, tried, and four of the eight were hung on July 7th.

Right—March 1865, the last photograph of Abraham Lincoln at the age of 56

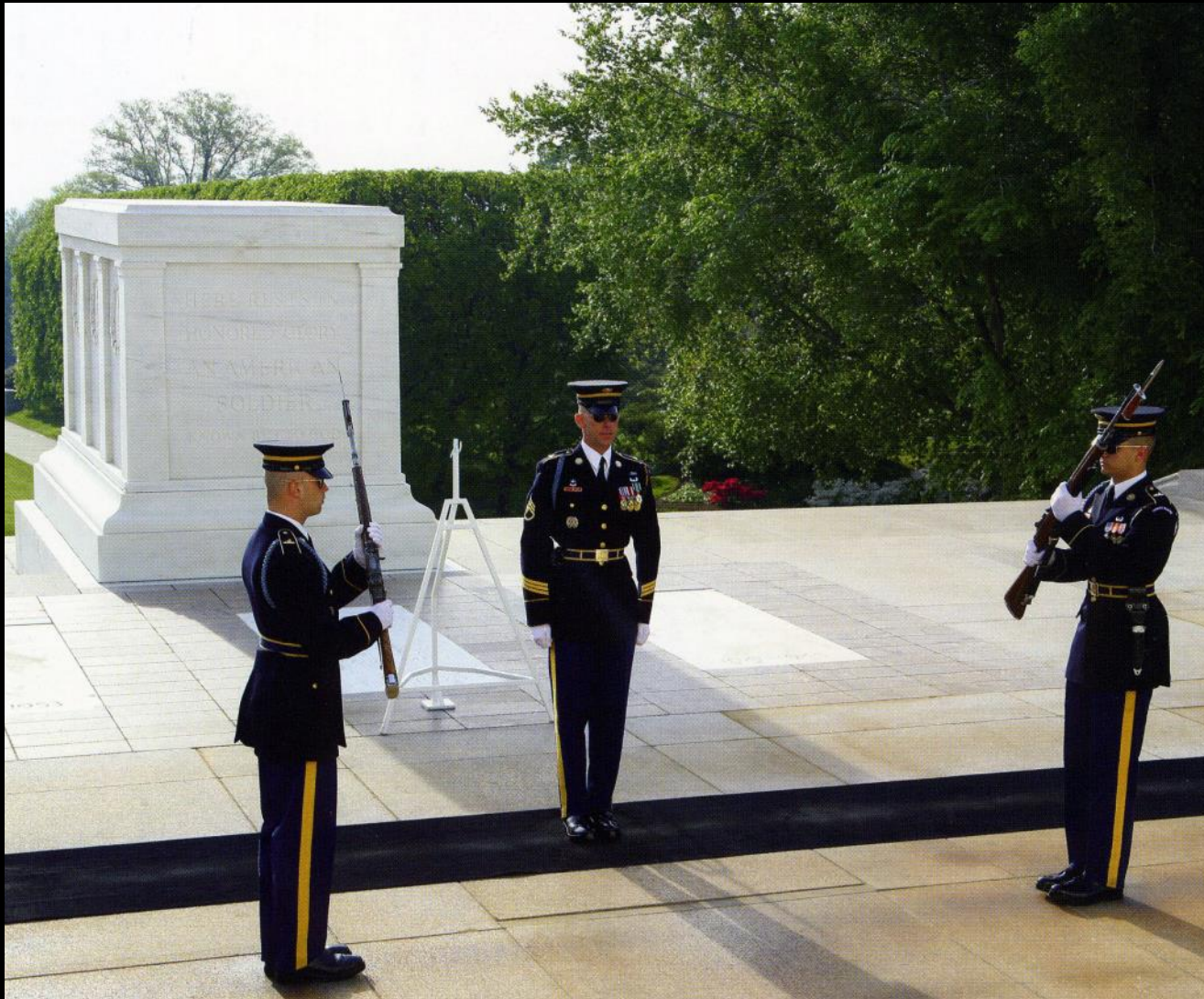
Left—The actor, John Wilkes Booth, Lincoln's assassin.





Arlington National Cemetery, Washington D.C.

General Robert E. Lee's "Arlington" estate (pictured upper left) was built in 1802 by George Washington and Martha Custis Washington's grandson. The estate passed to his daughter, who married Robert E. Lee. With both Union cemetery's full in Washington D.C., the U.S. government purchased the vacant 624 acre Lee estate at a back-tax sale in 1864 for a national cemetery. The Lee home still stands today above President John F. Kennedy's grave site.



The Tomb of the Unknown Soldier

The Tomb of the Unknown Soldier in Arlington Cemetery contains the unidentified remains of one dead soldier; the tomb symbolizes the sacrifices of anyone who has been killed in the service of the nation. The inscription on the tomb reads, "Here rests in honored glory an American soldier."

The Reconstruction Era of the South after the Civil War

1865—1877

The cost of the Civil War was devastating in cost of human lives and dollars and cents. The approximate 10,455 military engagements during the Civil War resulted in total casualties of 1,094,453 civilian and military deaths. The Federalists lost 334,680 soldiers in battle and lost to disease, while the Confederates lost 258,000 soldiers for a total of 592,680. In January of 1863, the U.S. government estimated the war was costing \$2.5 million daily. Later official estimates placed the total cost for the Federal government to be close to \$6.2 billion while the Confederacy spent perhaps another \$2.1 billion; by 1906 another \$3.3 billion was spent for veteran's benefits.

Reconstruction played out against an economy in ruin. The Confederacy in 1861 had 297 towns with a total free population in urban areas of 835,000 people - 162 of these towns with a population of 681,000 people were at one point occupied by Union forces. Eleven major towns were severely destroyed by war, including Atlanta, Charleston, Columbia, and Richmond; the eleven destroyed towns contained 115,000 people or 14 percent of the urban population. Farms were in disrepair, and the horses, mules, and cattle were depleted; two-fifths of the South's livestock had been killed. The transportation infrastructure lay in ruins, with little rail or river boat service available to move crops and livestock to market. By 1865 the Confederate currency was worthless due to run-away inflation, resorting the South to bartering services for goods. With the emancipation of the slaves, the entire economy had to be rebuilt; the elite minority of landed gentry, having lost their huge investment in slaves and unable to pay freedmen workers, resorted to a system of breaking up large plantations for sharecropping- the South was transformed into a tenant farming agricultural system. Over a quarter of the white men of military age - the backbone of the labor force - died during the war. Per capita annual income for white Southerners declined to a low of \$80 in 1879, leaving the South locked into a system of poverty well into the twentieth century.

Reconstruction addressed how the eleven seceding states would regain what the Constitution calls a "republican form of government" and be reseated in Congress, reinstate the civil status of the former leaders of the Confederacy, and establish the constitutional and legal status of freedmen, especially their civil rights and whether they should be given the right to vote.

Prior to his assassination, Lincoln pursued moderate positions designed to bring the South back to into the Union as quickly as possible. Vice President Johnson took a harder line and spoke of hanging rebel Confederates, but when he succeeded Lincoln as President, Johnson took a much softer line, pardoning many Confederates. Jefferson Davis was held in prison for two years, but otherwise there were no treason trials. Only one person - Captain Wirz, the commander of the "death" prison camp in Andersonville, Georgia - was executed for war crimes. Regrettably, Andrew Johnson's conservative view of reconstruction did not include blacks.

Northern anger over Lincoln's assassination and the immense human cost of the war led to vengeful demands for harsher policies against the South from Radical Republicans. In 1866 Congressional elections turned on the issue of reconstruction, and produced a sweeping republican victory. It gave Radical Republicans enough control of Congress to override Johnson's vetoes and began what is called "Radical reconstruction" in 1867. The Republican Congress removed civilian governments in the South in 1867 and put the former Confederacy under the rule of the U.S. army; military districts were established where army personnel administered the region until new governments loyal to the Union could be established. The army held new elections in which the freed slaves could vote, while whites who held positions under the Confederacy were temporarily denied the vote and were not permitted to run for office. Twenty-thousand U.S troops were deployed to enforce the Reconstruction act of 1867.

In ten states, coalitions of freedmen, recent black and white arrivals from the North (carpetbaggers), and white Southerners who supported reconstruction (scalawags), cooperated to form Republican biracial state governments. They introduced various recon-

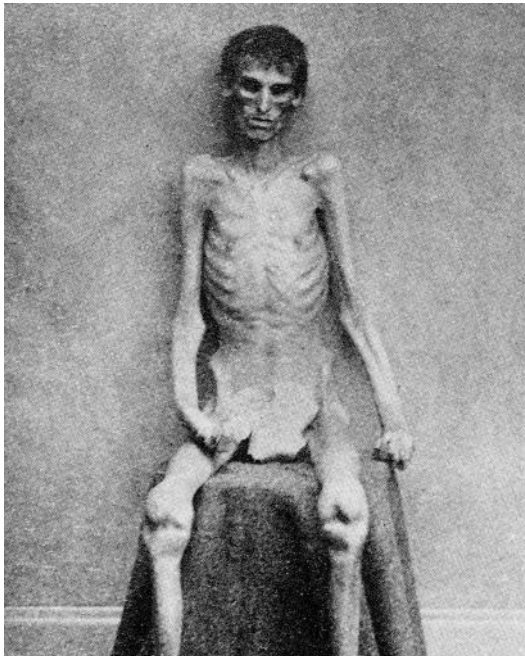
struction programs including: funding public schools, establishing charitable organizations, raising taxes, and offering massive support to rebuild rail and shipping transportation. In response to the Republican regimes, terrorist groups, like the Klu Klux Klan, became a violent threat to blacks and supporters of reconstruction.

A heated contested issue in the South was the issue of whether four million freedmen should be allowed to vote. In regards to that issue, three Constitutional amendments, known as the Reconstruction amendments, were adopted. The 13th amendment abolishing slavery was ratified by the required three-quarters of the states in 1865; approving the 13th amendment was a requirement for Southern states to be readmitted to the Union. The 14th amendment proposed in 1868, guaranteeing United States citizenship and granting civil rights to all persons born or naturalized in the United States, was ratified in 1868. The 15th amendment proposed in 1869, decreed that the right to vote could not be denied because of race, color, or previous servitude, and was passed in 1870.

Grant opposed President Johnson by supporting the Reconstruction acts passed by the Radicals. In 1868, the Republicans unanimously chose Ulysses S. Grant to be the Republican Presidential candidate. Grant won the favor of the Radicals and won the presidential election. Upon his inauguration in 1869, Grant bolstered reconstruction by prodding Congress to readmit Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas into the Union, while ensuring their constitutions protected every citizen voting rights; he also won passage of the Fifteenth Amendment giving African American's the right to vote. By the end of 1870, Congress had admitted all Southern states to representation in Congress, the last being Georgia. In 1871, it was necessary for Grant to send additional federal troops to South Carolina to suppress Klan violence. He also deployed additional troops to protect black and white Republican voters in Petersburg, Virginia.

A deep national economic depression following the Panic of 1873 led to major Democratic gains in the north, the collapse of railroad reconstruction in the South, and a growing sense of frustration in the North over the struggles with reconstruction. The depression hit the South especially hard and disillusioned many republicans who had financially invested in pulling the South out of its poverty. The price of cotton fell by half, and many small landowners, local merchants, and cotton wholesalers went bankrupt. As a result, sharecropping for black and white farmers became more common as a way to spread the risk of owning land. Nationally, President Grant was blamed for the depression and abolitionists in the North were losing interest in reconstruction, resulting in the Republican Party losing 96 seats in the 1874 congressional election; reconstruction was all but dead as the Democrats took control of the House.

The campaigns and election for President in 1876 were marked by murderous outbreaks and heightened violence across the entire Deep South against freedmen. Historians have estimated 150 blacks were killed in the weeks before the election in South Carolina alone and many blacks were barred from voting throughout the South. After Republican Rutherford Hayes was awarded the disputed election by the Electoral Commission, a "back-room deal" was negotiated with Southern Democrats to remove federal troops from the Southern states. On March 4, 1877, President Hayes removed the federal troops from the remaining capitols of Reconstruction states, officially ending the period of reconstruction. With the Democrats taking complete control of the Senate in 1877, and a Democratic House, Hayes had no method to enforce Reconstruction. Hence, Republican control collapsed, which was followed by a period labeled Redemption, in which white - dominated Southern state legislatures enacted Jim Crow laws. The new legislation disenfranchised most blacks and many poor whites through a combination of Constitutional amendments and electoral laws containing new voter registration regulations. The white Democrat Southerners played a major role in imposing the system of white supremacy and second-class citizenship for blacks, known as the age of Jim Crow. U.S. Supreme Court rulings upheld the provisions of these new Southern constitutions and voting laws; as a result, most blacks were prevented from voting in the South until the 1960's. Full federal enforcement of the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments did not occur until after the race riots in the 1960's and the passage of new Civil Rights legislation.



Images of the devastation of the Civil War

(upper left) A barely living Union prisoner from the Confederate Andersonville prison

(lower left) The destruction of Atlanta. Railroad tracks were torn up as the factories were blown up. A Union private wrote, "We have utterly destroyed Atlanta. I don't think anyone will want to try to live here now."

(lower right) Nine hundred Richmond buildings were destroyed and hundreds more were badly damaged as the Union troops took Richmond. In the background is the American flag flying above the State House of Richmond, which served as the Confederate Executive Mansion.



The Transcontinental Railroad

1863-1869

Next to winning the Civil War and abolishing slavery, building the first transcontinental railroad, from Omaha, Nebraska, to Sacramento, California, was the greatest achievement of the American people in the nineteenth century. The gigantic project could not have been done without a representative, democratic political system, without skilled and ambitious engineers, without free labor markets, without immigrants coming to America seeking a better life, without the trees and iron available in America, and most of all, without a capitalist system allowing men willing to take high risks for profit.

The transcontinental railroad gave Americans the ability to expand and take land far in excess of what any European nation had been able to successfully control. The railroad promised Americans that towns, cities, and industries could be built anywhere as long as they were tied to the rest of the Union by rail. There were bountiful farm lands that were waiting for immigrants to turn the soil. But without railroads there was no way to move products from the west to the east coast. Railroads going coast to coast were inevitable in a country that was so big, with so many immigrants coming in, creating a desperate need for transportation.

By 1859 just under half of the world's railroad tracks were in the eastern United States, mostly in the north. In 1834 there were but 762 miles of track, in 1844 it was up to 4,311 miles, in 1854 the track age numbered 15,675, and in 1864 the amount completed was 33,860 with another 16,000 under construction.

The dream of the transcontinental railroad all began in 1853 when Congress called for a survey of possible routes, but the explorers could not settle the question of where to build. As long as the United States remained half slave, half free, the exact route would never be agreed upon. Theodore Judah's tenacity and brilliance would culminate in a railroad bill in 1862, six years after he and his wife, Anna, made their first of six trips from California to Washington D.C. to promote the transcontinental railroad to Congress. Judah, also a talented surveyor, is credited with finding the route through the Sierra Nevada Mountains at Donner Pass. He founded the Central Pacific railroad and persuaded U.S. Congress to fund the railroad with loans of bonds and gifts of land. More than any other individual he made the CP railroad a reality, although he did not live long enough to see a single rail spiked. Judah was bitten by a mosquito carrying the yellow fever virus as he shielded woman and children from torrential rains while crossing through the Panama Isthmus on his way to New York. He died November 2, 1863, at the Metropolitan Hotel exactly seven years before the final spike was driven into the rail at Promontory Point.

The Pacific Railroad Bill that was passed in 1862 called for the creation of a corporation, the Union Pacific that would build west from the Missouri river, while the Central Pacific would build east from Sacramento. The bill contained provisions almost exactly as Judah supported. Both roads would have two hundred feet right of way on both sides of the road and would be given five square miles of land on each side of the road for every mile of track completed. The railroad corporations would receive financial aid in the form of government bonds at \$16,000 per mile for flat land, \$32,000 for foothills, and \$48,000 per mile for mountainous terrain. When forty miles of road was approved by the government, the corporations would get advance money in the form of 6 percent government bonds and the bonds would constitute a first mortgage on the railroads. The entire road was to be completed by July 1, 1876, under pain of forfeiture.

The Central Pacific's stock was controlled by Charles Crocker, Collis Huntington, Leland Stanford, and Mark Hopkins, collectively known as the Big Four. These four speculating entrepreneurs were in this venture to make big money, and they believed that to be only possible by milking the construction company they created under the name, Crocker Contract and Finance Company. On January 8, 1863 they had their ground - breaking ceremony and on October 26 the first CP rail was spiked to a tie. On November

(top right) Theodore Judah (1826-1863) founded the Central Pacific Railroad and discovered the route through the Sierra Nevada mountains.

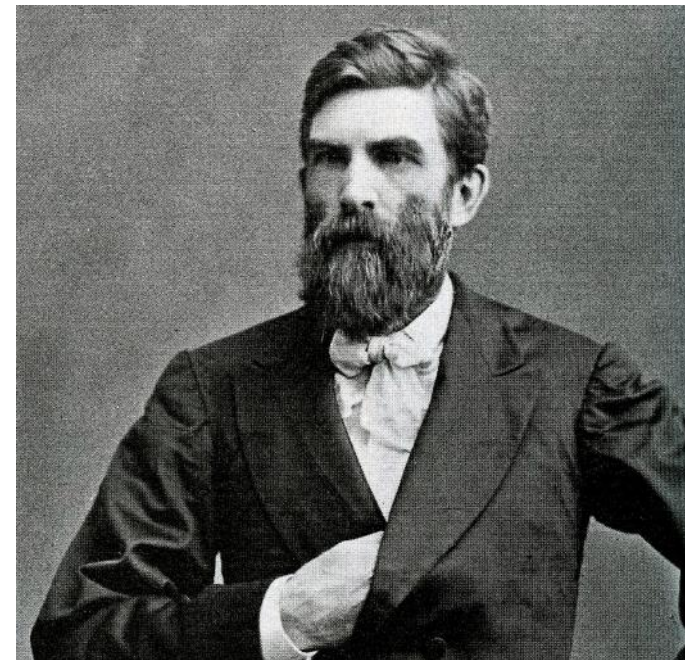
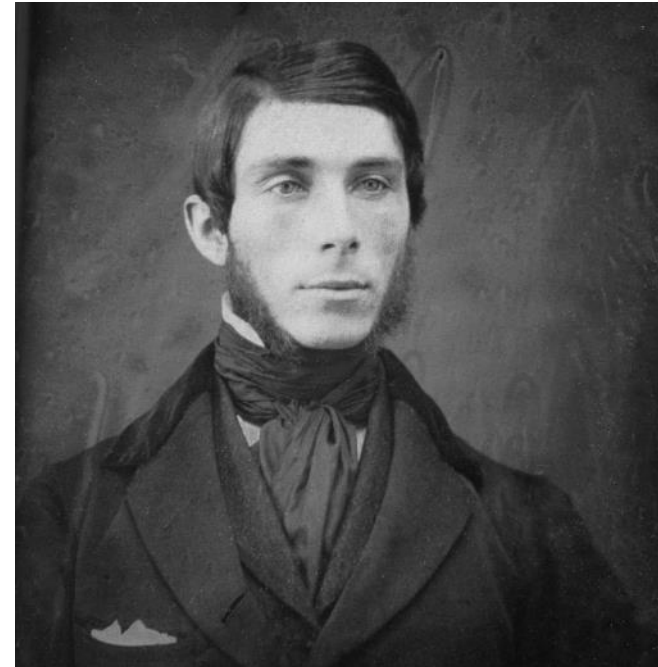
(lower right) General Grenville Dodge (1831-1916) was the chief engineer for the Union Pacific Railroad. He was the most influential person in building the railroad from Omaha west to Promontory Point.

10, the first locomotive arrived in California at a cost of \$13,688; it was ten feet tall, fifty feet long, and weighed forty-six tons.

In the first thirty-one miles from Sacramento to Newcastle, the grade grew to nearly 116 feet per mile, steeper than any ascent in the Sierra Nevada. The Bloomer cut, just beyond Newcastle, would take months to complete; it was a sixty-three foot deep cut that ran for eight hundred feet in length, composed naturally of cemented gravel that had to be blasted and moved one wheelbarrow at a time. By November of 1864 the Bloomer cut had been finished but not yet tracked. The bad news is that the cost to build the first thirty-six miles in 1863 and 1864 was nearly \$3 million; hence, despite the favorable publicity, the CP was going broke. The state had not paid what it pledged and the bonds from the U.S government could not be collected until forty miles of road had been completed. As a result, the Big Four had to give personal obligations for the money necessary to carry the CP from month to month.

The real leader of the Union Pacific was Doc Durant. He and Trainer were the two principals in Credit Mobilier of America, the construction company who was assigned all of the construction contracts to build the UP railroad. Just like the Big Four, Durant believed the big money would be made building the line, not operating it. For these insiders it meant excessive profits and vested control of the stock in the Union Pacific. The ground-breaking ceremony took place on December 1, 1863 in Omaha, with the starting point of the line going west along the north side of the Platte River.

The building of the railroad was a well-orchestrated assembly line of 20,000 men working towards one another from opposite ends of the country. Many of the men working for the UP were Irish, while the vast majority of the men



working for the CP were Chinese. The Union Pacific and the Central Pacific were the first big businesses in America. The railroads had to invent everything: how to recruit thousands of men, how to sell stock and bonds, how to lobby politicians, how to compete, what to build themselves and what to buy, how to order and store items that numbered in the hundreds of thousands. Only the government and the armies of the Civil War had organized on such a scale. Where the railroads went, they created stopping points complete with water tanks, repair facilities, boarding terminals, unloading equipment, eating places, and hotels; from these grew farms, villages, and cities.

Leading the construction were the surveyors searching for the line with the least amount of fills and cuts; they had nearly 2,000 miles to cover, over every kind of terrain, with no topographical maps, and nothing to indicate lakes or rivers, or the shape of the mountains. They had only a vague idea of what lay ahead and, except for Salt Lake City, there were no settlements between Omaha and Sacramento to help with information. Behind the surveyors came the graders who were lured West by promises of steady work and high wages - as much as \$2 or even \$3 a day. Much of the labor was comprised of veterans of the Civil War, with little or nothing to go home to. The men worked with shovels, picks, and wheelbarrows to cut and fill the road to the proper grade; the job of all was to lay out a grade for the track, one that was level with only a bit of a curve, two feet or more above the ground so it would not be flooded out, and twelve feet wide from shoulder to shoulder. Mainly that required digging dirt from unbroken ground and moving it by wheelbarrow. Behind the graders came the tie layers, who needed seventy-five teams of horses and wagons to haul the ties forward along the side of the track bed. Right behind the grading laborers were the track layers with their rails, spikes, fishplates, distance markers, and sledgehammers. Behind the men pulling off the rails and putting them into place, came the gaugers, then the spikers and bolters, who all swarmed to the rails in rapid succession. The construction of the rails required ten thousand spikes and 2,250 ties per mile. After them the carpenters, who built the roundhouses, depots, and other buildings arrived. Every segment of the great labor and machine and supply line must be in constant motion as so many rails must be put down and so much done every minute of every working-hour or losses accrue.

It required one-thousand support men with four locomotives pulling ten cars each to bring the rails, ties, bridging, fastening, fuel, and supplies for the men and animals; and to make it more challenging, everything had to be transported from distant locations. Ahead of the construction trains was the general repair train that held a blacksmith shop, feed store, saddlers shop, carpenter shop, telegraph office, a kitchen, and much more.

Another main challenge west of Columbus, Nebraska was to curb the Indians, who had done great damage; they wanted the western half of the continent as a buffalo pasture and hunting ground. Witnessing the start of the railroad, the Indians had already killed countless numbers of soldiers and civilians, as well as burnt every building along the Platte River. One soldier was reported to have his hands and feet cut off, his heart torn out, his head scalped, and over 100 arrows in his body. The Indians despised the iron rail as it meant doom for their way of life. No longer could they be free and independent, living off the buffalo herds. They could either follow the way of the Pawnee and live on reservations, cared for by the white man, or get killed.

By December 31, 1865, the UP had laid forty miles of track west of Omaha. By October of 1866, the track had reached 247 miles west of Omaha. While the UP was crossing Nebraska, the Central Pacific was attacking the Sierra Nevada Mountains in California. The

(upper right) The CP built the Long Ravine Bridge in September, 1865. It was 120 feet long and 56 miles east of Sacramento.

(lower left) One of the thirteen tunnels the CP drilled through the Sierra Nevada mountains. The Summit Tunnel was the longest at 1,659 feet; drilling began in the fall of 1865 with Chinese working 24 hours a day. The first train went through the tunnel on November 30, 1867.

(lower right) A freight train rounding Cape Horn, California; the dangerous cut was three miles long. The slope of the mountain was seventy-five degrees and the American River was 2,200 feet below the rail line. The three mile line took nine months to complete.



idea of driving a railroad over or through the Sierra Nevada Mountains was an audacious thought; and certainly nothing like it had been done anywhere in the world. To get a locomotive through that granite would require tunnels, for without them, no locomotive could get over the summits and tunnels through granite had no precedent.

By June of 1865 the CP was ready to begin its assault on the Sierra Nevada's, which would require thousands of laborers. White men were flocking to California in droves to get rich, and almost two-thousand signed up for work on the CP railroad, yet fewer than one hundred were left after a week. As a result, Crocker suggested hiring Chinese. There were in California at the time some sixty-thousand Chinese, mostly young males. California law discriminated against them in every way possible: they were denied citizenship, they could not vote, nor could they testify in court. While they were small and limited to work as domestics, they were persistent and accomplished far more than the Caucasian labor.

The deep ravines in the mountains were crossed with trestles; they stood with their massive multiple pairs of legs from immense pines, planted at 16 foot intervals, their feet braced in masonry. The timber came from hundreds of thousands of feet of lumber cut in the coastal forests of the Northwest, brought to the site by schooner and flat cars. Rails, which were made of iron in the Eastern part of the United States, had to be shipped via the Panama Isthmus to San Francisco and up the Sacramento River. It took a full year to lay road for the seventeen miles to Dutch flat; but the toughest, the hardest, the most expensive, would be the next fifty miles to the Summit. There would be gorges to be bridged, massive pinewood stands to be cleared, numerous tight curves to be blasted out of the side of the mountain, and fifteen tunnels to be drilled. One of the most feared stretches ran three miles along the North Fork of the American River, nicknamed: Cape Horn. The slope was at an angle of seventy-five degrees, and the river was twelve hundred to twenty-two hundred feet below the rail line. There were no trails, not even a goat path. The rail line would be sculpted around the side of the mountain, creating a curved roadbed either going up grade or down. Men had to be lowered in a boson's chair from above to place the black powder, fix, and light the fuses. After nine months of blasting and grading, the track around Cape Horn was completed in the spring of 1866.

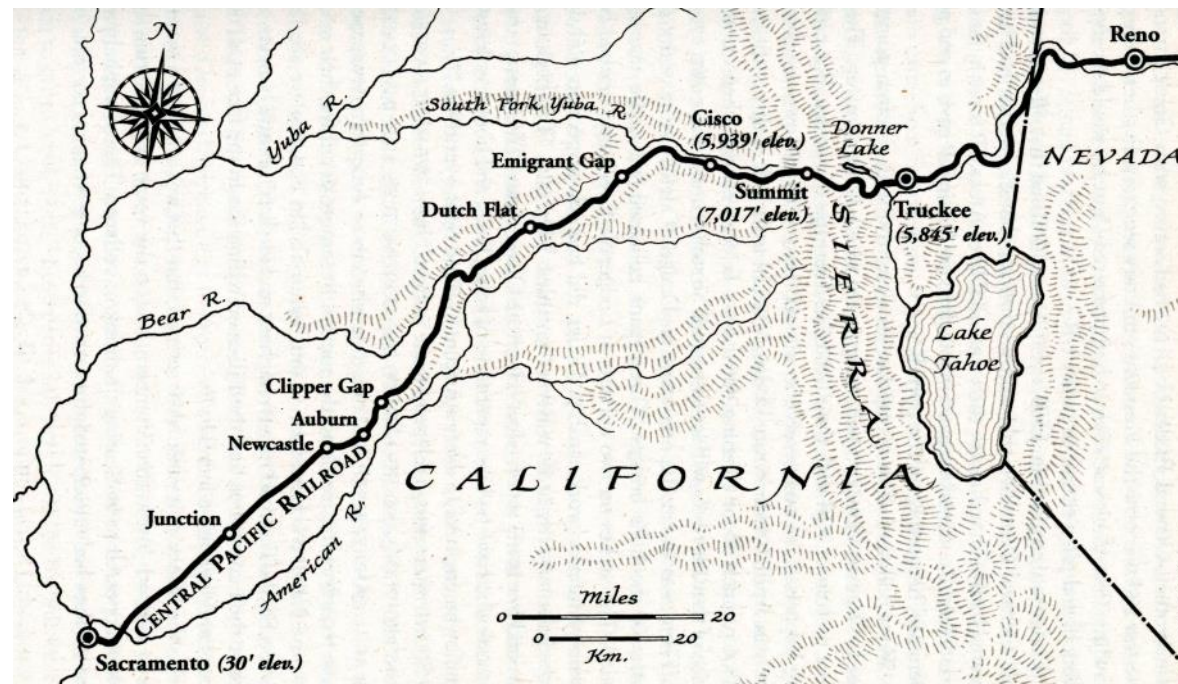
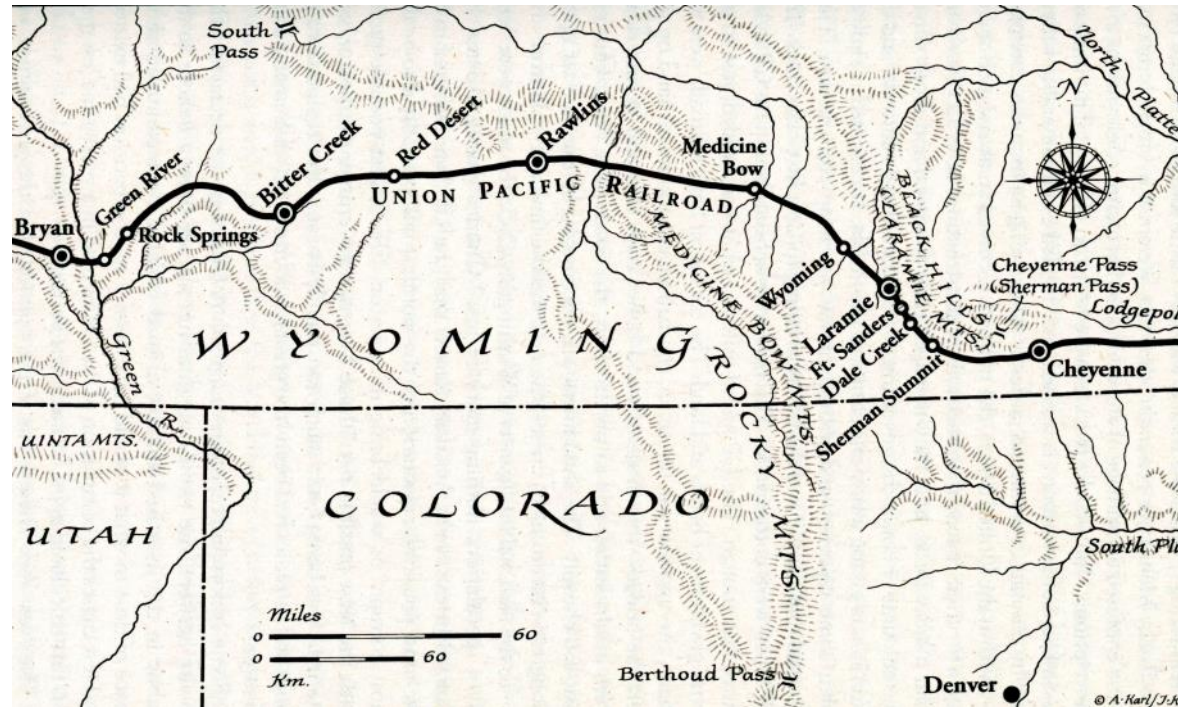
The CP went to work on the tunnels in the fall of 1865. Six of the thirteen, which would have to be blasted out before getting to the east slope, were clustered in a stretch of two miles along the climb to the summit. The biggest, No. 6, right at the summit was 1,659 feet long and as much as 124 feet beneath the surface. At the Summit Tunnel alone, three hundred kegs of blasting powder a day went up, costing up to \$67,000 per month. Progress was incredibly slow; with men working round the clock, between six and twelve inches of progress per twenty four hours was typical. Fortunately, the Chinese were exceptional workers. During the winter months, with the snow pack averaging eighteen feet thick, they lived in the tunnels and worked in shifts twenty-four hours per day; they provided cheap labor, did as they were told without complaint, and were extraordinarily productive; the food they ate along with their habit of boiling water for tea kept them healthy, and they kept themselves clean by washing themselves and their clothes daily. By the end of 1865, the CP had spiked another twenty miles of track at an astounding cost of \$6 million. Whatever the anticipation, the sober truth was the CP had scarcely penetrated the Sierra Nevada.

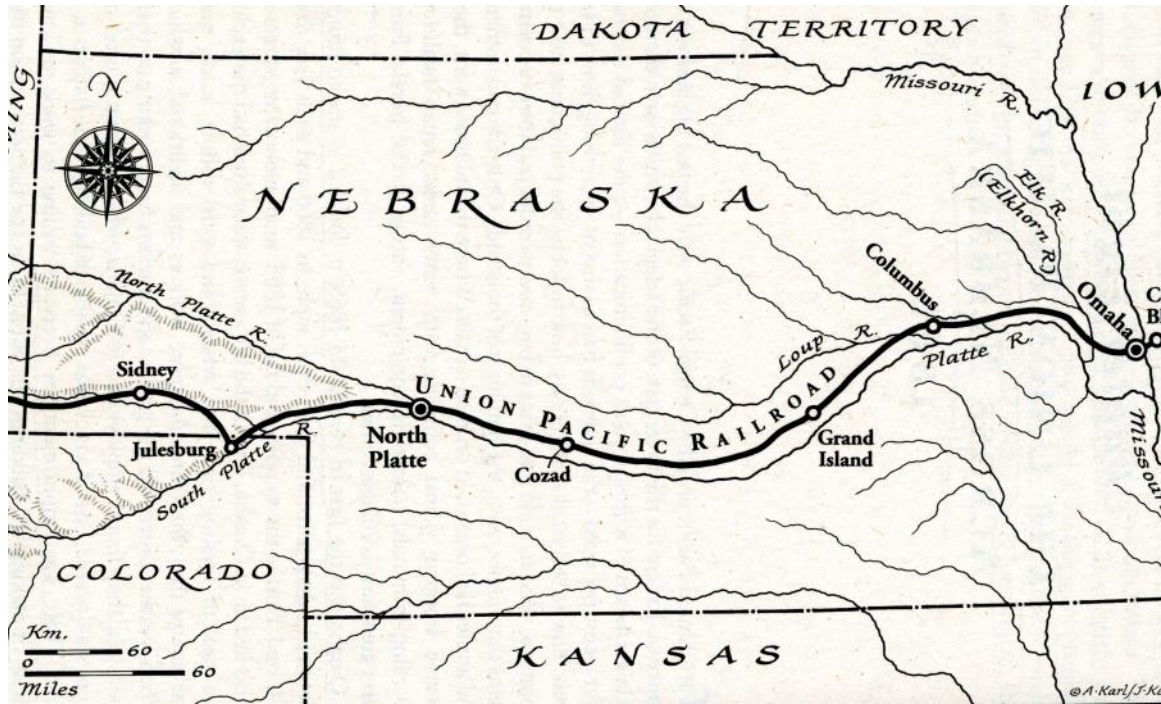
In 1866, Huntington wanted an amendment to the railroad bill of 1864 allowing the CP to build east until it ran into or past the tracks of the UP. On July 3, 1866, President Johnson signed the amendment authorizing the CP to construct their road eastward until they connected with the Union Pacific. The great race was on!

(top right to left) The Union Pacific's route from Omaha westward through Nebraska and Wyoming.

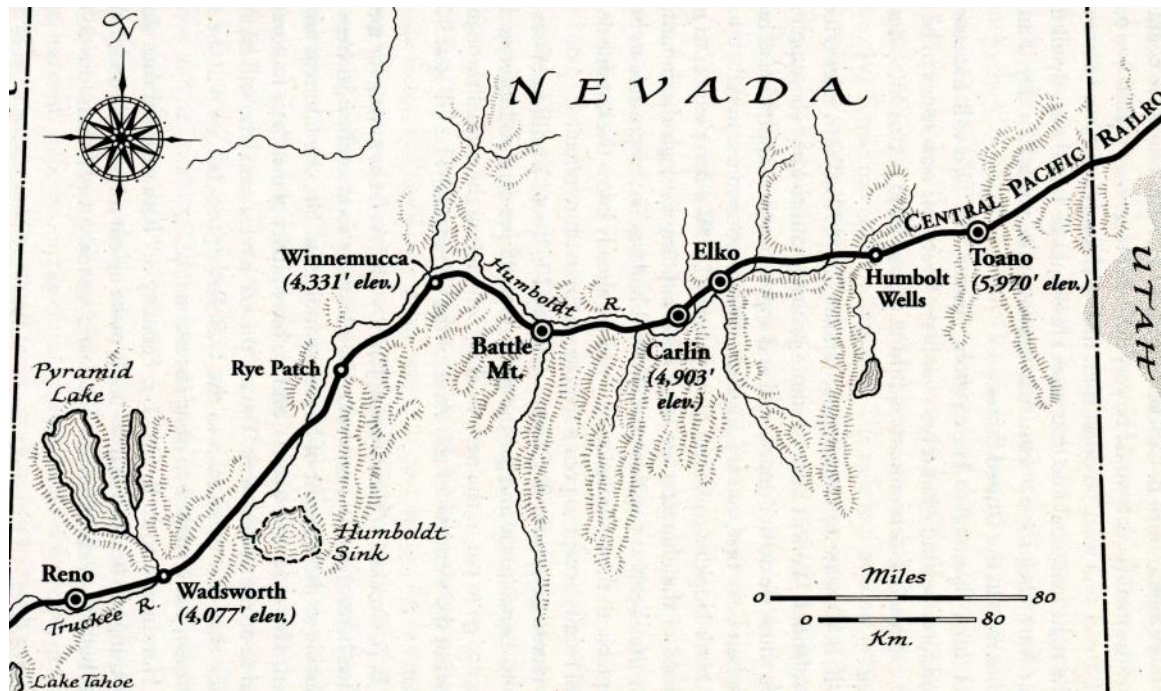
(bottom left to right) The Central Pacific's route from Sacramento through California and Nevada.

The CP was becoming a mechanized machine. Hopkins was in charge of the finances, Stanford the politicians, Crocker managed the construction, while Huntington supervised the loans and purchased the equipment and supplies. By the spring of 1866, they had hired over 10,000 employees, of which eight-thousand of them were Chinese; the CP had become the largest company in America. To keep its large work force employed, and to beat the UP to Salt lake City, the CP decided to not wait for the Summit Tunnel to be cut but instead pushed beyond the Sierra Nevada and Donner Pass to start laying track east through Nevada. By the last day of 1866, the CP was able to announce it was in daily operation with ninety-two miles of track to Cisco, within twelve miles of the Summit. However, it would take until September of 1867 to complete the Summit tunnel.





Meanwhile, the UP had extended its line 300 miles west of Omaha by the end of 1866. Dodge was engineering a twenty-three-hundred-foot-long trestle bridge built on cedar piles to cross the North Platte River. The surveyors had figured out a route through the Black Hills of Wyoming, a run to Salt Lake City and beyond to California. By mid-April, 1867, the UP had started their armies of labor westward. The numbers - 3,500 graders working as far as 200 miles in advance of the end of the track, 450 track men, 100 surveyors, several thousand tie cutters, as many as 1,000 shop men - approaching 10,000 total. What united them all was the fierce determination not to let down those laborers coming on from behind. In addition, the Chicago Howe Truss Bridge Company, with well over 1,000 employees, was supplying the UP with prefabricated sections for bridges.



The weather could slow down construction, and even stop it, but the Indians threatened to put it out of existence. What the construction crews had, the Indians wanted - livestock, rifles, ammunition, hats, jackets, food in cans. Then there were the scalps! Most of all there

was the land, which the Indians regarded as theirs. The protective soldiers seldom if ever could detect, prevent, or defeat an Indian raiding party; unfortunately, the majority believed the remedy to the Indian problem was extermination.

By November of 1867, the UP had completed track to Cheyenne, Wyoming, 500 miles from Omaha. UP bond sales sold well, totaling \$3,822,000 during the last quarter of 1867. The U.S. government had accepted 240 miles of track accounting for \$8,160,000 in government loans while the UP was also making a profit of \$2,061,000 from the operation of fifty-three locomotives, eleven hundred freight cars, and ten passenger cars. During the same year the CP was penetrating the summit of the Sierra Nevada Mountains; it was not collecting any money on government bonds for completed track, selling any bonds or CP stock, or selling any land grants. Yet the CP was spending tons of money. Eight thousand Chinese were working on the tunnels, who worked inside dim-lit snow tunnels, never saw the light of day during the winter months, and tolerated ear-ringing explosions and choking dust. Averaging only one foot per day with blasting powder, the CP switched to nitroglycerine - eight times more powerful than the black powder. Finally the Summit tunnel was completed and on November 30, 1867, the first scheduled train from Sacramento arrived on the east side of the Sierra Nevada Mountains. Now that they were through the Summit, they were ready to enter into competition with the UP. There was big money at stake. The real profits for the CP lie in the road beyond the mountains to secure the line to Salt Lake City, Utah.

The anticipation of the transcontinental railroad mounted throughout 1868 as the UP entered Wyoming and the CP entered Nevada. Every newspaper in America carried the story nearly every day. By April 5, the UP had reached the summit in the Black Hills of Wyoming at 8,242 feet, the highest point of any railroad anywhere. At Dale creek a bridge was completed, made entirely of wood, 126 feet above the creek and seven hundred feet long; it was one of the greatest engineering feats of the nineteenth century. Laying three to four miles of track a day, the UP had laid 890 miles of track west of Omaha by the end of 1868, just short of the Utah state line.

On June 18, 1868, the CP ran its first train from Sacramento through the Sierra Nevada Mountains to Reno. Once the snow had melted in June, the CP devoted 2,500 men to building fifty miles of snow sheds to protect the tracks from snow. The longest shed ran twenty-nine miles and required one hundred million board feet of lumber at a cost of \$2 million to protect the tracks from the Sierra Nevada snowfalls; one season sixty-five feet of snow piled up. As the CP entered Nevada they discovered the country offered nothing except a vast waste of sand and sagebrush; there was not a tree in sight for making ties, water was scarce, and everything had to be hauled in from 600 to 740 miles away, including barley and oats for the horses. There was only one good thing about the desert - it was flat. The Chinese were systematic workers and picked up speed in the desert. When the sun cleared the horizon, a train of thirty cars appeared carrying ties, rails, spikes, bolts, telegraph poles, wire, and more; the cars were unloaded at the end of the track. Following the tie crews were the rail gangs, placing two rails on the ties, while a man on each side distributed spikes, two to each tie. Simultaneously, wagons were distributing telegraph poles along the grade. Men nailed cross bars to them while another gang dug holes for the poles. As the poles were erected, the wire was brought forward, unwound from a reel and fastened to the insulators. Twice a day the camp train moved to the end of the track - at noon to deliver a hot dinner and at night to give super and sleeping accommodations. By the end of 1868, the CP had constructed another 362 miles of track and was about to enter Utah. The UP and CP had a lot at stake in Utah- government bonds, land grants, the sale of their own stocks and bonds, future trade, and more.

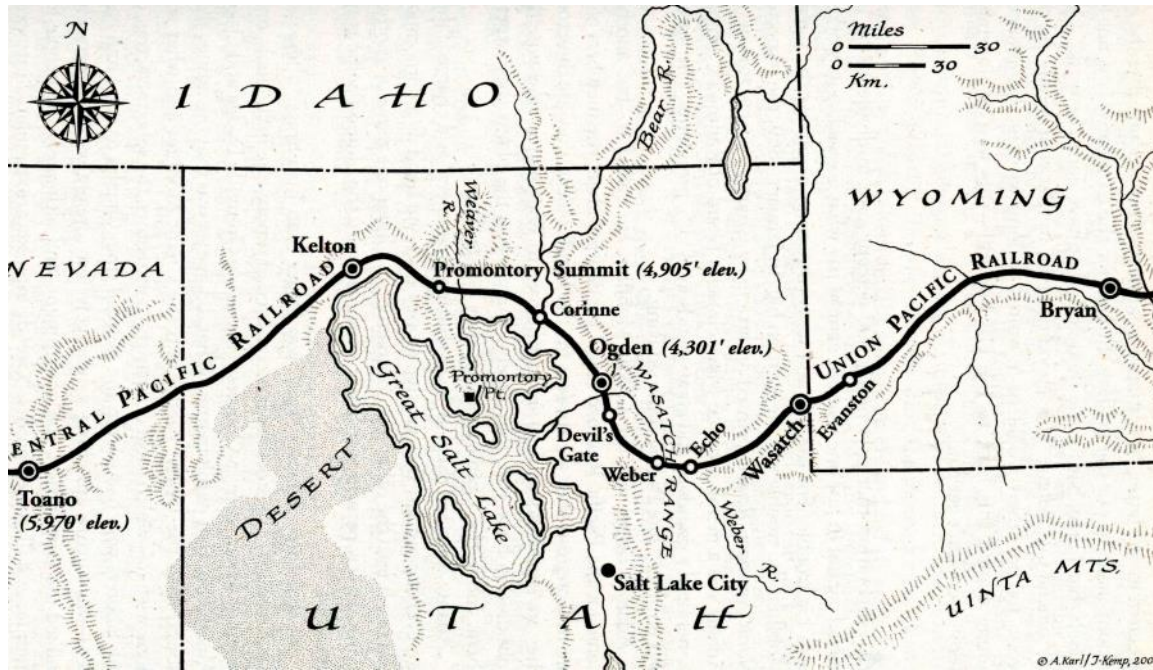
Brigham Young founded Salt Lake City and made it and his Mormon religion into a great city and religion, one thousand miles from the nearest settlement. Brigham Young was keenly aware of the economic benefits the railroad would bring to his people and was thus involved with the Union Pacific from the beginning; in fact he was also one of the original stockholders. Young promised as many as five thousand men to work under contract for the UP, grading the road west from Echo Canyon. But Brigham Young was outraged at the UP's inability to pay the men. Doc Durant of the UP had spent far too much money to get through Nebraska and

Wyoming fast to beat the CP through Utah. In 1868, while the company owed around \$10 million in debts, it still paid out \$3 million in dividends to its stockholders. Getting supplies was another problem shared by both the UP and the CP. For example, in January of 1869, the CP had thirty-five ships bound for San Francisco; unbelievably, there was not a rail on the CP line that had not been brought a distance of six thousand miles. In Omaha, mills worked around the clock to meet the UP's orders for millions of ties. One order for ties alone required six-hundred flat cars to travel four hundred miles.

Both lines were laying track as fast as possible through Utah, as much as 4 miles a day. Meanwhile, the UP was completing three tunnels of their own through the Wasatch Range in eastern Utah, the longest being 772 feet. On April 9, Dodge and Huntington met in Washington, where both companies came to an agreement. The two lines would meet in the basin of Promontory Summit, however the terminus for the CP coming from Sacramento, and the UP coming from Omaha, would be Ogden, Utah. The CP would pay the UP \$4 million for the completed track from Ogden to Promontory Summit. On April 30, the CP had finished, laying five hundred miles of track from the summit in the Sierra Nevada Mountains in less than eighteen months. In the last thirteen months the UP had laid 555 miles of track. By mutual consent, the board of directors fixed the date for the two lines to meet on May 8, 1869 where the ceremony brought together all Americans, Confederates alongside Yankees. At the moment the golden spike was hit, the telegraph operator closed the circuit and the wire went out all over America, "DONE." Across the nation, bells rang, cannons boomed, 220 in San Francisco alone; everywhere there was fireworks, singing, and prayers. There were celebrations and parades in every major city in America including Chicago's parade which was the biggest of the century - seven miles long.

Of all the things done by the transcontinental railroad, nothing exceeded the cuts in time and cost for people traveling across the continent. Before 1869, it took a person several months and might cost more than \$1,000 to go from New York to San Francisco. But less than a week after pounding the golden spike, a man or woman could go from New York to San Francisco in seven days and the cost, as listed in the summer of 1869, was \$150 for first class, \$110 for second, and \$65 for third, which meant sitting on a bench for the entire trip. Freight rates by train were incredibly less than horse-drawn wagons, sailboats or steamers. Mail that once cost dollars per ounce and took forever, now cost pennies by train and got from Chicago to San Francisco in two days. The telegraph, meanwhile, could move ideas, thoughts, and messages all over the continent instantly.

The transcontinental railroad and the telegraph made modern America possible. Things that could not be imagined before the Civil War now became commonplace. A nationwide stock market, a continent-wide economy in which people, agricultural products, coal, and minerals moved whenever someone wanted to send them, cheaply and quickly. When mail, popular magazines, and books could now move from the east coast to the west coast for pennies in a few days, a continent-wide culture was possible, which tied the nation together. With the transcontinental railroad and telegraph in place, America had the Civil War behind it and the second industrial revolution ahead.



The final route of the Union Pacific laying track from east to west, and the Central Pacific working from west to east, meet at Promontory Summit, Idaho.



The UP and the CP join rails with the last spike on May 8, 1869 at Promontory Summit, Utah. DONE!

The Second Industrial Revolution

The Second Industrial Revolution corresponds to the latter half of the 19th century until World War I. The Second Industrial Revolution was first characterized by the build-out of railroads, large scale steel production, widespread use of machinery in manufacturing, the rapid movement of communication from the expanding telegraph, and the use of oil (kerosene). The early twentieth century witnessed the combustible engine, the ensuing explosion of motor cars, a plethora of consumer products and productivity gains from the expansion of electricity, as well as communication technologies (telephone, and radio).

The second industrial Revolution was the result of many factors coming together after the completion of the Transcontinental Railroad in 1869: human rights protected by the United States Bill of Rights attracted thousands of people to immigrate to America to escape persecution, a growing population in the United States generated a growing work force, financial incentives derived from the U.S Constitution supported a banking charter to originate business loans as well as the absence of personal income taxes - both creating the opportunities for wealth, free land, rail transportation in 6 days from coast to coast, and instant communication from New York to San Francisco.

It is said the second industrial revolution was built out of steel and lubricated by oil. The Bessemer process, invented by Sir Henry Bessemer, was the first cheap industrial process for the mass-production of steel from molten pig iron; by 1900 the cost of steel dropped by 90 percent. The availability of cheap steel allowed building large bridges, skyscrapers, and large ships. Steel cable, rods, and sheet steel enabled large, high-pressure boilers as well as more powerful engines, gears, and axles to power a new wave of manufacturing processes. Cheap steel also provided the basis for the accelerated construction of rail transportation; steel rails lasted over ten times longer than iron rails. This allowed the use of more powerful locomotives, which could pull longer trains, all of which increased productivity and lowered freight costs.

Following the Civil War, the oil rush in Pennsylvania in 1880 spurred another boom. The new drilling and refining manufacturing processes of oil provided kerosene to light homes and factories as well as lubrication for machinery to run the expanding manufacturing sector. In 1880 the United States was refining 26 million barrels of kerosene and lubricants and by 1920 the industry was producing 442 million barrels of oil annually for heating homes and powering motor cars.

By 1830, more than one-third of the population lived west of the original thirteen colonies; from 1850 to 1896 the United States physically expanded from thirty-one states to forty-five states. A transportation revolution that first improved roads, canals and steamboats, and later the growth of a network of railroads, encouraged people to move west. The growth of a transportation system together with industrialization hastened the transition of the United States from a rural/agricultural nation to an urban/industrial one by the end of the nineteenth century.

With the connection of the east coast to the west, the railroads became the driving economic force of America in the second half of the nineteenth century, backed by government land grants and multi-national investments. The discovery of gold in California, silver in Nevada, and other mining rushes across the west, drew hundreds of thousands of people west and shifted the balance of economic at-

tention in the United States.

Free land, under the Homestead Act of 1862, allowed any U.S. citizen to claim 160 acres of land with the promise to farm the land for five years. Those who did not file homestead claims bought their land, often from the railroads who had received it for free from the federal government in land grants. To encourage ever larger waves of migrants into rural areas of the West, Congress passed an act in 1909 enlarging the Homestead Act to 320 acres in the twelve western states. 2.5 million settlers benefited from private ownership of free land.

By the Civil War, already a third of the national economy was powered by manufacturing versus agriculture. Following the war, the American economy was driven by innovation and invention that spurred tremendous growth of industrial infrastructure. It was a time when manufacturing saw tremendous gains in productivity as a result of advances in mass production. Rather than agriculture, now Individual business enterprise became the backbone of the United States economy. It was a "Gilded Age" in America, built by entrepreneurs in manufacturing and commerce, which was largely driven by individual protection by the U.S. constitution to profit from patent protection, new legislation after the Civil War to allow any individual to easily start a corporation and be personally protected from corporate debt, and the absence of personal and corporate income taxes in the United States until 1913.

The new technology of electricity, the telephone, and the combustible engine powered the second industrial revolution well into the twentieth century. In 1885 there were 250,000 light bulbs in use where by 1902 there were 18 million in use. The first mass transit utilizing electric street cars made its debut in Chicago in 1896; nationally, this new electric transportation would move 5 billion passengers every year. The electrification of homes was much slower, however, when the commonly used DC current was changed to the less expensive AC current, electrical expansion into homes became more rapid in the 1920's. Telephones, dominated by the monopo-

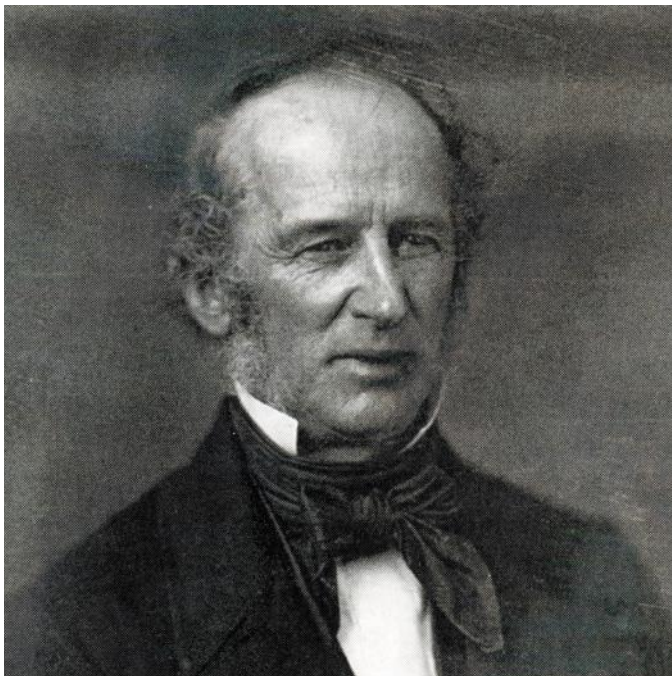


The efficient production line of the early twentieth century moved the product to a stationary worker, vastly improving productivity per man hour and lowering prices.

ly of Bell telephone, grew more slowly during this period due to lack of competition to drive down pricing. Regardless, the industry did grow from 250,000 phones in 1893 to 6 million by 1907. The lower priced Model T manufactured by Ford Motor Company exploded car ownership. Private ownership of motor cars grew from 468,000 in 1910 to 9 million in 1920. The model T changed the face of America.

During the 1800's, the U.S. government expenditures were 2 percent of national output; the government derived all of their income from tariffs on imports and excise taxes. A Populist movement in the early 1900's envisioned a progressive personal income tax as a means to counter the monopolies and concentration of wealth which had developed in America. Eventually, in 1913, the 16th Amendment to the Constitution was ratified creating the federal income tax as a vehicle to raise public revenues for the purpose of social justice. It only took the federal government until 1917, during World War I, to raise the top marginal personal tax rate from 7 percent to 67 percent and to tax corporations as well, which became an important new revenue source for the government. There is no doubt the laissez-faire policy of government towards business during the eighteenth century aided the success of the second industrial revolution, however, the economic imbalances in society became alarming to the majority. The next twenty years, from 1900 to 1920, would witness a political shift to more government regulation of business and promotion of economic equality for the masses.

Three Great Industrialists and two inventors of the “Gilded Age.”



Cornelius Vanderbilt (1794 - 1877), was an American business magnate who built his wealth in railroads and shipping. He became the patriarch of the Vanderbilt family and one of the richest men in American history. Quitting school at the age of eleven, Vanderbilt began working on his father's ferry in New York and at the age of sixteen decided to start his own ferry service between Staten Island and Manhattan. At the age of nineteen he married Sophia Johnson and became the parents of thirteen children between 1814 and 1839. In 1817, while operating his schooner to trade food and merchandise, Vanderbilt accepted a job from a ferry entrepreneur named Thomas Gibbons, who asked him to captain his steamboat between New Jersey and New York; Vanderbilt also became his business manager, learning how to operate a large and complicated business. Meanwhile his wife operated a very profitable inn, using the proceeds to feed, clothe, and educate their children. Even though Vanderbilt operated his own business on the side, he left Gibbons in 1829 to work entirely for himself. Step by step he started several steamer shipping lines between New York and the surrounding region.

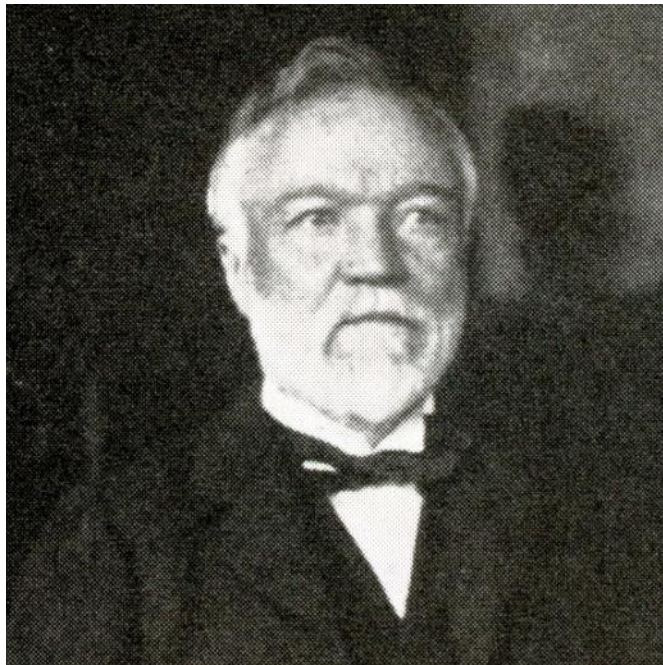
During the 1830's the United States was experiencing an industrial revolution as textile mills were being built in large very numbers. At this time, some of the first railroads in the United States were built from Boston to Long Island Sound, to connect with

steamboats that ran to New York. By the end of the decade, Vanderbilt dominated the steamboat business on the Sound, and began to take over the connecting railroads as well. By 1847 he took control of the most attractive of these lines, the New York Providence and Boston Railroad.

When the California gold rush began in 1849, Vanderbilt added ocean-going steamships, constructing a monopoly to Panama. He then turned to transatlantic steamship lines, bought control of a major shipyard, as well as a leading manufacturer of marine steam engines. During the fifties he also took ownership in several railroads serving New Jersey and New York.

By 1864 he had sold his last ship, concentrating on the booming expansion of railroads. He bought the Hudson River railroad in 1864, the New York Central in 1867, the Michigan Southern and the Canada Southern in 1869. In 1870 he consolidated the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad, one of the first giant corporations in American history. In 1869 he began construction of the Grand Central Depot in Manhattan to serve as his lines terminus in New York.

Cornelius Vanderbilt died at his residence in 1877 at the age of eighty-two and was buried on Staten Island. His fortune at the time of his death would be valued at \$143 billion in 2007. He willed 95 percent of his estate to his son William (Billy), who he believed to be capable to manage the business empire. The descendants built the famous Vanderbilt homes that characterize America's Gilded Age.



Andrew Carnegie (1835 - 1919), was a Scottish American industrialist who led the enormous expansion of the American steel industry in the late nineteenth century. He was born in Scotland in a typical one room weaver's cottage. Falling on hard times, the family immigrated to Pennsylvania in 1848. Andrew's first job was as a bobbin boy in a cotton mill in Pittsburg; at the age of thirteen he worked twelve hours a day, six days a week for \$1.20 a week. In 1850 he became a telegraph messenger boy for \$2.50 a week, where within a year he was promoted to an operator. Carnegie's education and passion for reading and learning was given a boost by Colonel Anderson, who opened his 400 volume library to working boys each Saturday night. Starting in 1853, Thomas Scott of the Pennsylvania Railroad employed Carnegie as a secretary-telegraph operator at a salary of \$4.00 per week. At the age of eighteen he made rapid advancement through the company and learned much about management and cost control. Scott took a liking to the ambitious Carnegie and also helped him with his first investments.

In 1855, Scott made it possible for Carnegie to invest \$500 in Adams Express to carry messengers; the investment being secured by his mother securing the loan with a mortgage on her \$700 home. Over the years he reinvested his returns in railroad-related investments: sleeping cars, iron, bridges, and rails. Carnegie slowly accumulated capital through these investments, which was the basis for his later success.

In 1864 Carnegie invested \$40,000 in Story Farm in Pennsylvania and in one year the farm yielded over \$1,000,000 in cash dividends plus petroleum from oil wells, which sold profitably. During the war years, Pittsburg became the center of wartime production for iron products. Carnegie, holding some iron investments from before the war, began working with others in establishing a steel rolling mill. After the war, Carnegie left the railroads to devote all his energies to the ironworks trade. He eventually formed the Keystone Bridge Works and Union Ironworks Company in Pittsburg. Although he had left the Pennsylvania Railroad Company, he remained close to Scott and Thompson and used his connection to acquire contracts for his iron companies. He also gave stock to Scott and Thompson to insure their best interest in the growth of his company and, as a result, Pennsylvania Railroad was his best customer.

Carnegie chose not to marry during his mother's lifetime, instead choosing to take care of her. After she died in 1886, Carnegie married Louise Whitfield, who was more than twenty years his junior. In 1897, the couple had their only child, a daughter whom they named Margaret.

Carnegie made his fortune in the steel industry, controlling the most extensive integrated iron and steel operations ever owned by an individual in the United States. One of his two great innovations was in the cheap and efficient mass production of steel by adopting and adapting the Bessemer process for steel making; the result was lower prices for steel, leading to the replacement of iron and use of steel for rails and bridges. The second was his vertical integration of all suppliers of raw materials. By the late 1880's, Carnegie was the largest manufacturer of pig iron, steel rails, and coke in the world; he also owned coal and iron fields, as well as railroad lines and steamships for shipping the raw materials.

In 1892, Carnegie combined his assets, and those of his associates, to launch Carnegie Steel Company. In 1901, at the age of sixty-six, Carnegie considered retirement and reformed his enterprises into conventional joint stock corporations. John P. Morgan, perhaps America's most important financial deal maker, observed how efficiently Carnegie produced profits. Morgan envisioned an integrated steel industry that would cut costs, lower prices, and produce in greater quantities. To this end, he needed to buy out Carnegie and several other major producers and integrate them into one company, eliminating duplication and waste. He concluded negotiation in 1901, and formed the U.S. Steel Corporation. It was the first corporation in the world with a market capitalization over \$1 billion. Carnegie's share was \$225 million or \$6.4 billion in 2014 dollars.

Carnegie spent the last of his years as a philanthropist, giving away nearly 90 percent of his fortune. Carnegie died on August 11, 1919, in Lenox, Massachusetts, of bronchial pneumonia. The remainder of his estate was given away to foundations and charities after his death,

John D. Rockefeller (1839 - 1937), was the co-founder of Standard Oil Company, which dominated the oil industry and was the first great U.S. business trust. Rockefeller was the eldest son born in Richford, New York, to con artist William (Bill) Rockefeller and Eliza Davison. His father Bill, opted for a vagabond existence of shady schemes and philandering, returning to the family infrequently. Eliza, a homemaker and devout Baptist, struggled to maintain a semblance of stability at home.

In 1853, his family moved to Cleveland, a boomtown of 30,000 inhabitants. Rockefeller attended Cleveland Central High School and then took a ten-week business course at the commercial college, where he studied bookkeeping. In 1855, when Rockefeller was sixteen, he got his first job as an assistant bookkeeper for a real estate and mining company, working for three months as an apprentice before he saw his first check for \$4.00 a week. He worked diligently by dim whale oil lamps from 6:30 A.M. to after



10:00 P.M. No less than his business life, his private life was ruled by bookkeeping entries as well. He minutely recorded every penny of receipts, expenditures, savings, and charitable donations. Rockefeller's social life revolved around the church where he faithfully tithed six to ten percent of his wages to charity. Rockefeller left his employer, Hewitt and Tuttle, after they refused his demands of \$800 a year in wages (or about \$15 per week).

By 1859, Rockefeller had saved enough money to go into the produce commission business with a partner, Maurice Clark. He and Clark nimbly bought and sold carloads of produce - grain, fish, water, lime, plaster, salt. During his first year, Rockefeller hired someone to look after the books while he took to the open road to drum up business, traveling widely in Ohio and Indiana. By the end of the first year the company had net a respectable \$4,400 and by 1862, their annual profits had soared to \$17,000. Though Rockefeller and his partner secured no government contracts during the Civil War, they profited from the enormous inflation in commodity prices and general business surge from demand during wartime. Selling mostly on commission, they dealt in numerous foodstuffs and farm implements. While still in his twenties, the Civil War had converted Rockefeller into a wealthy man, giving him the funds to capitalize a new industry flowering in the northeast corner of Pennsylvania - oil.

In the 1850's there was no cheap illuminant that burned in a bright, clean, safe manner. Both industrialization and urbanization sped the search for an illuminant that would spread day into night. The petroleum industry was hatched when Drake arrived in the pine and hemlock forest of Oil Creek Valley in Titusville, Pennsylvania. Although oil had stained the surface of the creek, Drake had no geological knowledge of underground oil structures. Borrowing a method used for salt wells, Drake constructed a tall wooden structure, known as a derrick, and started to dig for oil. Drake's feat of developing a controlled method for pumping oil from the earth touched off a fortune seekers pandemonium.

John Rockefeller did not recognize its potential in a sudden revelatory flash, but instead made an incremental transition from produce to oil. In 1860 Samuel Andrew's, a self-taught chemist and born tinkerer, distilled the first oil based kerosene manufactured in Cleveland. Andrew's was a friend of Clark, Rockefeller's partner, and an acquaintance of Rockefeller from the Street Baptist Mission Church where they were both members. Andrew's, being an expert on illuminant, was enthralled by the properties of kerosene and was convinced it would outperform and outsell other sources of light. Finances were tight in the Andrew household, but by 1862 Andrew's was searching for financial backers for a new oil refining business. In 1863, the twenty-four year old Rockefeller and his partner Clark, invested \$4,000 into the oil venture with Andrew's. Years later Rockefeller said he was doubtful that oil would ever supersede their main commodity business.

By mid-1863, twenty oil refineries operated in Cleveland. By November of that same year, there became direct railroad access from Cleveland to the Pennsylvania oil fields as well as New York City. At first, the profits came in so thick and fast that everybody - big and small, clever and inept, made handsome profits. In the early days Rockefeller was often seen going into the refinery at

6:30 A.M., rolling out barrels, stacking hoops, and searching for improvements to cut expenses and develop by-products from the waste materials. Within a year refining had overtaken produce as the most profitable side of the business.

By 1865, Rockefeller had decided success in the oil business required a bullish, nearly unbridled plan for expansion. But before deciding to enter the business on a large scale, he needed to dissolve his partnership with Clark and his brothers, who were skeptical of the future of oil and resented the pace Rockefeller wished to expand. After securing Andrew's commitment to partner with him, Rockefeller maneuvered Clark into asking for a break-up of the company. Clark's attorney auctioned off the business for \$72,500 (equivalent to \$625,000 today) to the highest bidder, who was Rockefeller. The new company, Rockefeller & Andrews, was already twice the size of its nearest rival - and ranked as one of the world's largest refining facilities.

For all of his success as a young businessman, Rockefeller was unsettled in his private life. He had fathomed his own needs and sought a woman who would be pious and loving, dedicated to the church, and strongly supportive of his career. During his brief period at Central High School, Rockefeller befriended the literate and well-off Laura (Cettie) Spelman; she was from a blue-ribbon family who lived in a grand house and whose father owned a dry goods business. Cettie's father was elected to the Ohio State Legislature and both her parents were very active in church causes. In 1862, Rockefeller, buoyed by his rising wealth in the produce business, began to woo Cettie in earnest. Cettie, being a teacher, in those days had to remain single or end her career. But despite her constant reluctance, Rockefeller pursued her with quiet persistence and in September of 1864 they were married.

The period after the Civil War was the most fertile in American history in which to grow rich. And oil, not cotton, is the king in the world of commerce, and soon Rockefeller would dominate that world. In December of 1865, Rockefeller and Andrew's inaugurated a second refinery, the Standard Works, which brother William operated. By 1866, fully two-thirds of the Kerosene being produced in Cleveland was flowing overseas. But to implement Rockefeller's audacious expansion schemes he needed massive amounts of capital; fortunately, the Civil War introduced a new greenback currency and a national banking system that stoked the postwar economy with generous credit. In March, 1867 a new partnership was formed - Rockefeller, Andrews, and Fagler. With the recruitment of Fagler, Rockefeller began to assemble a team of capable executives who would transform the Cleveland refiner into the world's strongest industrial company.

In 1870 Rockefeller started a campaign to replace competition with cooperation in the industry. The solution was to create economy of scale by buying refineries that were a source of overproduction, to heighten efficiency, and to build cash positions to endure the downturns in the price of oil. To accomplish these lofty goals would require a great deal of money. The solution presented by Fagler was to incorporate, which would enable them to sell shares to outside investors; luckily, many states had now passed laws permitting companies to incorporate. In 1870 the partnership was abolished and replaced by a joint-stock firm called Standard Oil Company; the new company became an instant landmark when it raised \$1 million in capital. In 1872, the firm boosted its capital to \$3.5 million to support its historic decision to purchase certain refineries in Cleveland and elsewhere. This seemingly innocuous resolution was the opening round of a bloody skirmish known as "the Cleveland massacre." During the year of 1872, Rockefeller swallowed up twenty-two of the twenty-six competitors in Cleveland. As refiners became alarmed at reports of Standard Oils destructive competition and their inability to secure crude oil, they fell over each other in their haste to sell out.

In 1872, Western Union telegraph, New York Central railroad, U.S Steel, and Standard Oil were all companies whose leaders hoped to control pricing and production throughout their industry. Rockefeller's goal was to smooth out the severe price fluctuations that made the oil business so hazardous. Unencumbered by antitrust laws, Rockefeller forced refiners upon selling to sign restrictive contracts prohibiting their entry back into the oil business. Rockefeller saw himself as an "angel of mercy" absorbing the weak while making the industry stronger, more efficient, and more competitive.

Standard Oil gradually gained almost complete control of oil refining and marketing in the United States through horizontal and vertical integration. It added its own pipelines, tank cars, and home delivery network to cut out wholesale jobbers. It kept oil prices low to stave off competitors while keeping its products affordable to the average household to increase market penetration - the price of kerosene dropped nearly 80 percent over the life of the company. It developed over 300 oil based products from tar to paint to Vaseline petroleum jelly. By the end of the 1870's, Standard Oil was producing 90 percent of the oil in the United States.

At the time many legislatures had made it difficult to incorporate in one state and operate in another. As a result, Rockefeller owned dozens of corporations, each operating in one just state. In 1882, Standard Oil Trust was formed. The "trust" was a corporation that operated the other 41 corporations. By the 1880's, Standard Oil Trust included 20,000 domestic wells, 4,000 miles of pipeline, 5,000 tank cars, and over 100,000 employees. Its share of world oil refining topped out at above 90 percent. However change is inevitable and the invention of the light bulb gradually began to erode dominance of kerosene for illumination. But Standard Oil adapted, expanding into natural gas production in the United States, then into gasoline for automobiles, which until then had been considered a waste product.

In 1890, the Sherman Antitrust Act, originally enacted to control unions, but later was central to the breakup of the Standard Oil Trust. It wasn't until 1911 that the Supreme Court of the United States ruled Standard Oil was conducting illegal monopoly practices and ordered it to be broken up into thirty-four companies. These companies today are part of ConocoPhillips, Amoco now part of British Petroleum, Chevron, Pennzoil, and ExxonMobil. At the time of the breakup, Rockefeller's wealth grew to \$900 million in 1915 dollars.

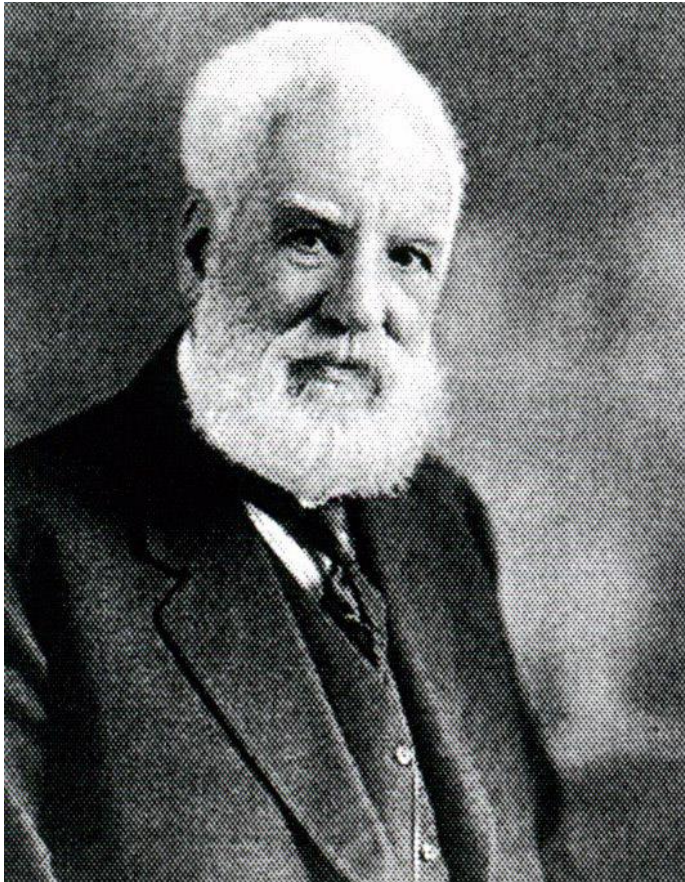
From his very first paycheck, Rockefeller tithed ten percent of his earnings to the church. As his wealth grew, so did his giving, primarily to education and public health causes. Rockefeller died of arteriosclerosis on May 23, 1937, less than two months shy of his 98th birthday.

Alexander Graham Bell (1847 - 1922), was an eminent Scottish-born scientist, inventor, engineer, and innovator who is credited with inventing the first practical telephone. Bell was deeply affected by his mother's gradual deafness and by the age of twelve had learned a manual finger language to tap out the families conversations. Both his grandfather and father were associated with teaching elocution - instruction for deaf-mutes.

Bell received early schooling at home before enrolling at the Royal High school in Edinburgh, Scotland. At age fifteen, he left school to travel to London with his grandfather where he secured a position as a "pupil-teacher" of elocution and music. The following year he attended the University of Edinburgh and in 1868 was accepted to the University of London.

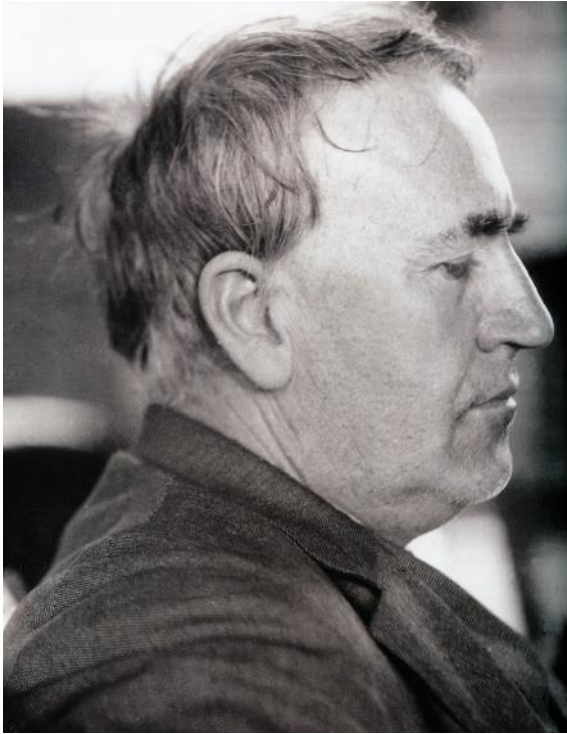
While attending the University of London, Bell continued as a teacher and tutor for the deaf mute. He also experimented with conveying sound, using electricity, over a telegraph wire. After losing his two brothers to tuberculosis, he joined his father, mother, and sister-in-law in hastily moving to the "new world" where the family purchased a farm of ten acres near Brantford, Ontario.

Once the family was settled, both Bell and his father made plans to establish a teaching practice in visible speech. Bell also continued experiments based on Helmholtz's work with electricity and sound. In 1871, Bell traveled to Boston to train the school's instructors in the visible speech system. The next year he opened his "School of Vocal Physiology and Mechanics of Speech" in Boston, which the first year attracted thirty deaf pupils; one of his most famous pupils was Helen Keller, who came to him as a young child unable to see, hear, or speak. In the following year Bell became professor of vocal physiology at Boston University and was swept up by the excitement generated by the many scientists and inventors. In the fall of 1873, Bell made the fateful decision to concentrate on his experiments in sound.



In 1874 telegraph traffic was rapidly expanding; Western Union hired Edison and Elisha Gray to find ways to send multiple messages on each telegraph line, saving the cost of constructing new lines. When Bell mentioned to Hubbard and Sanders that he was working on a method of sending multiple tones on a telegraph wire using a multi-reed device, the two wealthy businessmen financed Bell's experiments. With their financial support, Bell hired Watson, who was an experienced electrical designer. In June, 1875, Bell and Watson accidentally transmitted an indistinct, voice-like sound, over a single reed device. By March of 1876, Bell was applying for patents covering the method of, and apparatus for, transmitting vocal or other sounds telegraphically.

On October 9, 1876, Bell and Watson talked by telephone to each other over a two-mile wire stretched between Cambridge and Boston. After western Union refused to buy Bell's patent for \$100,000, Bell began a series of demonstrations to introduce his new invention to the public. A demonstration at the 1876 Centennial Exhibition in Philadelphia brought the telephone to international attention. The Bell Telephone Company was created in 1877, and by 1886 more than 150,000 people in the U.S. owned telephones. On July 11, 1877, Bell married Mabel Hubbard (1857 - 1923) and had four children together. Although the telephone appeared to be an instant success, it was not initially a profitable venture; Bell's main source of income was from lectures until 1897. In January of 1915, Bell made the first transcontinental telephone call through 3,400 miles of wire stretched from New York to San Francisco. Bell died of complications from diabetes on August 2, 1922, at his private home in Nova Scotia at age 75.



Thomas Edison (1847 - 1931), was an American inventor and businessman. He developed many devices that greatly influenced life around the world, including the phonograph, the motion picture camera, and a long lasting, practical light bulb. Edison was a prolific inventor, holding 1,093 U.S patents. More significant than the number of Edison's patents was the widespread impact of his inventions: electric light and power utilities, sound recording, and motion pictures all established major new industries world-wide. Edison developed a system of electric-power generation and distribution to homes, businesses, and factories - a crucial development in the modern industrialized world.

Thomas Edison was born in Ohio, grew up in Michigan, and was the last of seven children. By the age of eight he was labeled a failure at school. Edison's salvation was his very protective and devout Presbyterian mother, Nancy; she read the classics to him, and when he kept asking questions (What is electricity), she put in his hands Parker's book, *A School of Natural and Experimental Philosophy* which illustrated simple experiments in chemistry and electricity; at the age of nine Edison attempted every one of the experiments. At the same age his father secured him his first job, boarding the Port Huron train at 7 a.m. with a bundle of newspapers to sell to passengers on the three-hour journey to Detroit. During his daylong layovers,

he studied at the Detroit Library, things like quantitative analysis and Newton's principles.

In 1862, at the age of fifteen, Edison became a telegraph operator. In 1866 he moved to Louisville, Kentucky, where as an employee of Western Union, he worked the Associated Press news wire; he purposely requested the night shift to spend time on his two favorite past times - reading and experimenting.

On December 25, 1871, Edison married sixteen year-old Mary Stilwell (1855 - 1884), whom he had met two months earlier. After having three children together, Mary died at the age of 29 in 1884. In 1886, at the age of thirty-nine, Edison married twenty year-old Mina Miller (1866 - 1947) and also had three children together.

Edison began his career as an inventor in Newark, New Jersey, with the automatic repeater and other improved telegraphic devices. At the age of 22, in 1869, he moved to New York City where he sold his first invention, a stock ticker, to Western Union for \$40,000. Between 1870 and 1876, Edison successfully contracted to deliver 1,200 stock tickers to Western Union. While supervising 50 pieceworkers, Edison invented the quadruplex, by which two telegraph messages could be sent in one direction and two in the other; his invention was worth a fortune to Western Union.

By 1876, Edison was able to raise enough capital from the quadruplex invention to open his own research laboratory, Menlo Park. By 1878 Edison was becoming excited about the idea of sending electricity along a wire and into a filament in a small incandescent lamp. In fifty years of experiment, nobody had been able to keep an incandescent light alive for more than a few moments.

Edison boasted to the New York Herald he had found a way to create an incandescent bulb, would produce them by the thousands, and be able to light the entire lower part of New York. He insisted the same electricity wire that would bring homes light would also power cooking, heating, and other mechanical devices. The statement sent a mocking chorus reverberating across the Atlantic. Small resistance was the key to incandescent light. Edison pursued experiments to gain an understanding of the relationship between voltage, current, and resistance. Edison would also have to discover a filament that would not oxidize but had high resistance, then heat it up to incandescence in a bulb as close to airless as they could get. Plus Edison would have to develop a dynamo that could generate constant voltage current efficient for high-resistance lights.

In the fall of 1879, Edison and his team developed a carbon filament to be no thicker than fifteen-thousandths of an inch inside a bulb evacuated to one-millionth of an atmosphere. On October 21, the bulb burnt for 13 hours at 30 candles or three times gas-light; the measured resistance was an economical 113-140 ohms. On November 16 they used a piece of cardboard for a filament which produced light for 45 hours.

But Edison had learned there was a huge difference between completing an invention and putting a manufactured article successfully on the market. In order to market an electric light bulb, he would have to invent the electric industry. He had to conceive a system and then develop and manufacture everything in it. That would mean building a central power station, design and manufacture his own dynamos to economically convert steam power into electric energy, ensure an even flow of current, connect several miles of underground wiring, insulate the wire against damaging moisture, install safety devices against fire, design commercially efficient motors to use electricity for printing presses, lathes, and the like, design and install meters to measure individual consumption of power, and invent and manufacture switches, sockets, fuses, distributing boxes and lamp holders.

Edison the industrialist organized a coherent group of companies in 1880-81, the progenitors of Con Edison and General Electric. Edison put up most of the money himself, about half a million, along with \$80,000 from directors of Edison Electric. He then proceeded to organize the day to day management and rewarded them with equity.

In December of 1881 he started to dig up the cobblestone of Pearl Street in New York to lay conduit. On September 3, 1882, the steam engine was started to power the six dynamos to light 106 lamps. By then, 200 companies across America had already signed up with Edison Company for isolated lighting, using 45,000 lamps a day.

When competition started to hurt, Edison exclaimed, the best means to defeating competition is to out-invent, and under-sell them. Between 1881 and 1883, Edison won no fewer than 259 patents relating to electric light and power; he was constantly inventing quicker, cheaper, and safer ways to do things. To meet the hunger for electricity toward the end of the decade, the Edison Company needed more capital. Edison was persuaded to merge his companies into Edison General Electric for a 5 percent stake, which yielded him \$1,750,000 in stock and cash. He later liquidated his General Electric stock to finance new inventions.

At the time of Edison's death, the electricity industry was worth 15 billion. He was the starting point for at least three major industries - electricity, motion pictures, and musical entertainment - each generating billions of dollars. When he died, he turned over a resilient business based on five products: musical phonographs, dictating machines, primary batteries, storage batteries, and cement. His estate was worth 12 million.

Destination America



In the latter half of the 1800's people in many parts of the world decided to leave their homes and immigrate to the United States. Fleeing crop failure, land and job shortages, rising taxes, and famine, many came to the United States because it was perceived as the land of economic opportunity. Others immigrated seeking personal freedom or relief from political and religious persecution. With hope of a brighter future, nearly 12 million immigrants arrived in the United States between 1870 and 1900. During the 1870's and 1880's, the vast majority of these people were from Germany, Ireland, and England. Another major wave of immigration to the United States began around 1890 and ended with the outbreak of World War I in 1914. For the first time, the majority of the immigrants came not from Northern Europe, but from Central, Southern, and Eastern Europe - people from Italy, Poland, the Austrian-Hungarian Empire, and



Generations of immigrants would remember their first sight of the statue of liberty and Ellis Island as they streamed into New York Harbor. Between 1892 and 1914 about 12 million immigrants came through Ellis Island for processing into the United States.



Russia, including more than two million Jews. With the arrival of steamships after around 1850, passage time across the Atlantic was greatly reduced from the six week crossings under sail; by the 1870's the average steamship transatlantic crossing took two weeks. The conditions in steerage varied from ship to ship. Aboard the biggest Atlantic liners, which could carry as many as 1,000 passengers in steerage, accommodations were tight but clean, with adequate sanitation and food. However, there were plenty of smaller, older ships where steerage remained dirty, overcrowded, and unhealthy. On all ships, families were segregated from single people, and single people were segregated by sex. For many steerage passengers, the lack of privacy in the dormitory-style living was the worst part of the voyage. Between 1870 and 1900, 7.9 million people immigrated from Northern and Western Europe, 3.1 million from Southern and Eastern Europe, 244,000 from Asia, 215,000 from China, 92,000 from South America, and 28,000 from Japan.

Why did so many come to America? Following the desire for a better material life for themselves and their children, the desire for religious freedom probably motivated more immigrants to come to America than any other concern. The founding of European colonies in North America coincided with the Protestant Reformation - one of the watershed events in human history. The Refor-

mation not only split Europe along Catholic and Protestant lines, it also spawned a variety of religious groups whose members suffered persecution from both religious and civil authorities; refusing to conform to local religion many times meant death. To those suffering from harassment or maltreatment in the Old World, the New World offered space to create new societies in which they could worship without interference. This guarantee of religious freedom in the Constitution and Bill of Rights, inspired countless immigrants to journey to the United States. As a result, the United States today is the most religiously diverse nation on earth with some 2,000 distinct religious groups.

The American traditions of representative government and protection of the individual rights has attracted countless freedom-seeking immigrants to the united states. These political concepts are rooted deeply in the Enlightenment, an intellectual movement that flourished in Europe during the 1700's. At the heart of Enlightenment was the idea that the human condition could be improved through the application of reason and the spread of knowledge. The Enlightenment overlapped, and was influenced by, the rise of modern philosophical sciences. The ideas of English philosopher John Locke had a profound effect on the political development of the United States. In his works, *Two Treatises of Government* (1690), he rejected the prevailing view that rulers derived their authority from God, and thus were entitled to unlimited power. Instead, Locke argued that all people possessed fundamental rights to life, liberty, and property, and that it was the government's duty to protect these rights. French philosopher, Montesquieu, maintained that an ideal government would be structured in such a way that no one branch would have the power to dominate the other - an idea that led to the checks and balances set out in the U.S. Constitution. The French philosopher Voltaire, not only called for the tolerance of different religions, but promoted free speech on the basis that in a "free market" of ideas, the best would prevail. The United States success in establishing a constitutional republic inspired millions of immigrants who sought political reform, as well as safety from persecution, to come to America.

Events of 1866 and 1867

The Klu-Klux-Klan formed secretly to discourage free blacks from voting, issuing in a brutal and violent era amid southern states.

Secretary of State Seward consummates the purchase of Alaska from Russia for \$7.2 million or two cents per acre.

Christopher Sholes invents the first practical typewriter which is marketed by E. Remington in 1874.

Events of 1868 and 1869

George Westinghouse invents the air brake for railroad trains. Westinghouse would go on to patent four hundred inventions and found sixty companies, including Westinghouse Electric.

The impeachment trial of President Johnson begins in the Senate; he is acquitted by one vote.

Republican Ulysses S. Grant is elected the 18th President of the United States.

The Transcontinental Railroad is completed

The first Women's Suffrage law passes in the territory of Wyoming.

Events of 1870

The 15th Amendment to the Constitution is ratified, giving the right to vote to black Americans.

The Confederate States of America is officially dissolved when the last Confederate state of Georgia is readmitted to the Union.

The 1870 census indicates a national population of 38,558,371; an increase of 22.6 percent from 1860.

Hiram Rhodes Revels, a Republican from Missouri, is the first African American to be sworn into the U.S Senate.

Events of 1871

The first professional baseball game league, the National Association, debuts with a game between Cleveland and Fort Wayne.

The great fire of Chicago burns 1.2 million acres, destroyed 17,450 buildings, killed 250 people, and left 90,000 homeless.

Events of 1872

President Grant signs legislation enabling Yellowstone as the first national park.

President Grant signs the Amnesty Act, restoring civil rights to the citizens of the South, except for 500 Confederate leaders.

Susan B. Anthony, women's suffragette, illegally casts a ballot at Rochester, New York in the presidential election to publicize the cause of a women's right to vote.

Events of 1873

The Seventh Cavalry under the command of Lt. Colonel George Armstrong Custer, protecting a railroad survey party in Montana, engaged the Sioux in one of the many Indian Wars which raged throughout 1873.

An economic depression begins when the New York stock market crashed, setting off a financial panic that caused bank failures. The impact of the depression would continue for five years.

The Women's Crusade is started in a New York march against retail liquor dealers, leading to the creation of the Woman's Christian temperance Union.

Events of 1875

The Civil Rights Act is passed, giving equal rights to blacks in jury duty; it would be overturned in 1883 by the U.S. Supreme Court.

The first Kentucky Derby is run at Churchill Downs in Louisville, Kentucky.

A report on the Indian Wars pronounces that hundreds of Sioux and Cheyenne under Sitting Bull and Crazy Horse are openly hostile against the United States.

Events of 1876

The United States government issues a decree ordering all Native Americans into a system of reservations throughout the western lands of the United States.

The Philadelphia Centennial Exhibition, a world's fair meant to celebrate the 100th birthday of the United States, features Bell's newly patented telephone, Edison's phonograph, Westinghouse's air brakes, and the first public showing of the top portion of the Statue of Liberty. Over 9.9 million people saw the first large scale world's fair in the United States, surpassing the exhibits and inventions in Europe.

Legislation approved for the federal government to complete the privately sponsored, incomplete, Washington Monument.

Samuel Tilden, Democratic presidential candidate, outpolls Rutherford Hayes, Republican, in the popular vote but the outcome is reversed in the Electoral College by one vote. The election would not be decided until March of the next year, however, when the disputed votes in four states would be thrown to Hayes, who agreed to end reconstruction in the South.

Events of 1878 and 1879

The first commercial telephone exchange is open.

Thomas Edison patents the cylinder phonograph. The Edison Electric Company begins operation.

President Hayes signs a bill that allowed female attorneys to argue in Supreme Court cases.

The first five and dime store is opened in New York by Frank Woolworth with \$300 of borrowed money. By 1911 their corporation owned 586 stores.

Events of 1880 and 1881

The national population reached 50,189,209 people, an increase of 30.2% over the 1870 census.

James A. Garfield, a Republican, is sworn in as the twentieth President of the United States.

Thomas Edison and Alexander Graham Bell form the Oriental Telephone Company

On July 2, 1881, President Garfield is shot by lawyer Charles Guiteau in the Baltimore Railroad Station in Washington D.C. He would die two months later on September 19, 1881 from an infection and be succeeded in the presidency by Vice President Chester Arthur on September 20.

Events of 1883 and 1884

Vaudeville, the entertainment and theatrical phenomena, begins when the first theatre is opened in Boston, Massachusetts.

Five standard time zones are established by the United States and Canadian Railroad companies to end confusion over thousands of local time zones.

The federation of Organized Trades and Labor Unions call for an eight-hour workday.

Events of 1885 and 1886

Democratic nominee, Grover Cleveland is sworn in as the twenty-second President of the United States.

American Telephone and Telegraph (AT&T) is incorporated in New York City as a subsidiary of American Bell Telephone Company.

Ulysses S. Grant, U.S. President and Civil War General, dies in New York.

Dr. John Pemberton, a Georgia pharmacist, invents Coca-Cola, a carbonated beverage.

President Grover Cleveland marries Francis Folsom in the White House, the sole marriage of a president at the White House.

The Statue of Liberty is dedicated by President Cleveland in New York Harbor.

Events of 1888 and 1889

The prototype for the commercial phonograph is completed by Thomas Edison.

Benjamin Harrison becomes the twenty-third president of the United States.

President Harrison opens up Oklahoma lands to white settlement, beginning April 22, 1889, when the first five land runs started. More than 50,000 people waited at the starting line to race for one hundred and sixty acre parcels.

Running between Willamette Falls and Portland, Oregon, a distance of fourteen miles, the first long distance electric power transmission line in the United States is completed.

Events of 1890 and 1891

The battle of Wounded Knee, South Dakota, occurs in the last major battle between the United States troops and Indians.

Hundreds of Indian men, women, and children are slain.

The 1890 census indicates a population of 62,979,766, an increase of 25% since the 1980 census.

The first showing to a public audience of Thomas Edison's new strip motion picture film occurred in Edison's New Jersey laboratory.

Alternating current is transmitted for the first time by Ames Power plant near Telluride, Colorado.

Events of 1892 and 1893

Ellis Island, in New York Harbor, opens as the main east coast immigration center.

The first official basketball game is played at the YMCA in Springfield, Massachusetts.

The first recital of the Pledge of Allegiance in U.S. public schools is done to mark the 400th anniversary of Columbus Day.

Grover Cleveland returns as U.S. President with his victory over incumbent President Benjamin Harrison.

The New York stock exchange collapses, starting the financial panic of 1993. It would lead to a four year depression.

The Chicago Worlds Exposition hosts fifty nations and twenty-six colonies. Over 25 million attended over a span of 179 days.

Women in Colorado are granted the right to vote.

Events of 1897 and 1898

Republican William McKinley becomes the twenty-fifth president of the United States.

The escalator is invented by Jesse Reno.

The era of the subway begins when the first underground public transportation in North America opens in Boston.

The blockade of Cuba begins when the United States Navy aids independence forces within Cuba. Several days later, the United States declares war on Spain. The U.S. Navy destroys the Spanish fleet in the Philippines and takes control of Guam and Puerto Rico. The Peace Treaty ending the Spanish-American war is signed in Paris on December 10, 1898. Cuba is granted independence while Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Philippines are ceded to the United States.

The United States annexes the independent republic of Hawaii.

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