

Dear Educator,

The New-York Historical Society (N-YHS) is proud to present this collection of educational materials and resources to accompany the exhibition *Grant and Lee in War and Peace*. The exhibition, presented in collaboration with the Virginia Historical Society's *Lee and Grant* sister exhibition, investigates our nation's history from the 1830s to the 1880s with a focus on the careers of Ulysses S. Grant and Robert E. Lee, two of the most remembered generals in American history. This close look at mid-19th century American military culture sheds compelling new light on more recent history and contemporary America. The exhibition runs from October 17, 2008, through March 29, 2009.

The enclosed materials explore the lives of Grant and Lee, tracking their lives from their West Point education to their military careers, and through their post-war political lives. The content, lesson plans, and primary resources were compiled for use by both teachers and students. The Teacher's Resource Guide at the beginning of this binder provides an introduction to the exhibition and an overview of the classroom materials that follow. The classroom materials explore key moments in Grant's and Lee's lives and in American history: cadetship at West Point; the Mexican American War; the Appomattox campaign and the end of the Civil War; and Reconstruction and the Lost Cause. Elements within the classroom materials, including maps, documents, and photo cards of paintings, objects, and rare pieces, weave a dramatic tale of a nation's growing pains as it expanded into unknown territory; waged war against natives, a neighbor, and itself; struggled to rebuild; and ultimately flourished into a wealthy, united country. Life Stories provide a close personal look into the lives of not only Grant and Lee but other lesser-known yet similarly important military men of the era as well.

The New-York Historical Society Education Department is committed to providing valuable historical content and reinforcing research skills for both teachers and students. This collection of educational resources has been designed both to complement and enhance school visits to the exhibition and to help teachers and students from across the country address this aspect of American history.

To learn more about the school program designed for *Grant and Lee in War and Peace*, and all history education programs, contact us at (212) 485-9293, e-mail [schoolprograms@nyhistory.org](mailto:schoolprograms@nyhistory.org), or visit the Education Department online at [www.nyhistory.org/education](http://www.nyhistory.org/education).

Sincerely,



Louise Mirrer  
President and C.E.O.  
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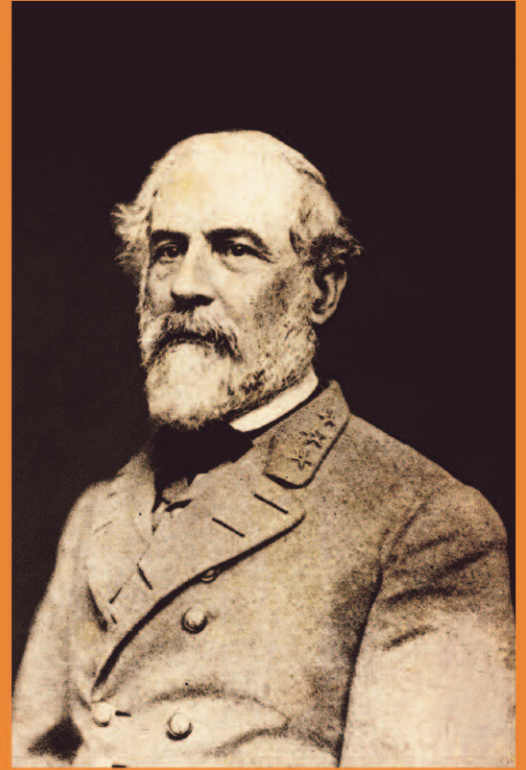


# Grant & Lee

In War and Peace

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Matter

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**A TEACHER'S GUIDE  
TO THE CLASSROOM MATERIALS  
FOR THE EXHIBITION**

# New-York Historical Society

Since its founding in 1804, the New-York Historical Society (N-YHS) has been a mainstay of cultural life in New York City and a center of historical scholarship and education. For generations, students and teachers have been able to benefit directly from the N-YHS's mission to collect, preserve, and interpret materials relevant to the history of our city, state, and nation. N-YHS consistently creates opportunities to experience the nation's history through the prism of New York. Our uniquely integrated collection of documents and objects is particularly well suited for educational purposes, not only for scholars but also for schoolchildren, teachers, and the larger public.

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**Society** | Matter

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Cover. (Left) Alexander Gardner, *Ulysses S. Grant*, c. 1864, Library of Congress.  
(Right) Julian Vannerson, *Robert E. Lee*, 1864, Virginia Historical Society.

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## ***Grant and Lee in War and Peace: About the Exhibition***

Casting a dramatic new light on the events that defined a nation, from the conflicts and rivalries of a fast-growing young republic to the fitful efforts at reconstruction after a terrible Civil War, the New-York Historical Society presents the major exhibition *Grant and Lee in War and Peace* from October 17, 2008, through March 29, 2009.

Organized by the New-York Historical Society in collaboration with the Virginia Historical Society, the exhibition explores the most critical decades in American history through the lives of two towering men. By telling the stories of Ulysses S. Grant (1822–1885), commander of the Union armies and later 18th President of the United States, and of Robert E. Lee (1807–1870), commander of the Confederate forces, the exhibition brings to life not only these two compelling figures but the forces that have shaped America, in their time and our own.

“The major achievement of *Grant and Lee in War and Peace* is its presentation of these two men as embodiments of the dilemmas of American history—not only the legacy of slavery, secession, and war, but also the rise of a powerful centralized government and the balance of military and civilian power,” said Dr. Louise Mirrer, President and CEO of the New-York Historical Society. “Visitors are sure to find parallels between the issues they confronted and those we face today.”

*Grant and Lee in War and Peace* is the third in a multiyear series of exhibitions by the New-York Historical Society, exploring concepts of liberty which began with the groundbreaking *Slavery in New York* (2005–06) and *New York Divided: Slavery and the Civil War* (2006–07). The series will continue in 2009 with a fourth major exhibition, *Lincoln and New York*.

## **From the Mexican American War to the Gilded Age**

Visitors to *Grant and Lee in War and Peace* will encounter a wealth of rare and remarkable objects and documents, drawn from the Historical Society's own important holdings and from public and private collections around the country. These materials range from authentic military equipment (including full uniforms worn by Grant and Lee) to period maps and documents (including Grant's handwritten “Terms of Surrender” for Lee), to photographs, sculptures, paintings, and drawings (such as artist Paul Philippoteaux's study for the panoramic Gettysburg Cyclorama). Joining these are dynamic multimedia installations and an interpretive video narrated by curatorial advisor Lt. Gen. (Ret.) Josiah Bunting III, which summarizes the principal themes.

Central to these themes is the interplay in American life between military power and civilian authority. During the first hundred years of American history, no fewer than half of the men elected president came from the ranks of Army generals. *Grant and Lee in War and Peace* is the first major exhibition to examine this phenomenon across a broad sweep of history, from the 1820s to the 1880s, with the Civil War as the centerpiece.

For both Grant and Lee, their participation in this history began at West Point. Lee, the son of a wealthy Virginia family with a notable Army background, graduated from West Point in 1829 as the second in his class and spent much of his early military service as an engineer. Though he distinguished himself under fire in the Mexican American War (1846–48) and later was the officer who put down the slave revolt at Harpers Ferry and captured John Brown (1859), Lee was as much a builder and administrator as a battlefield commander, undertaking large-scale construction projects around the country and serving as Superintendent of West Point (1852–55).

Grant, by contrast, was the son of a tanner, born in what was then the Western region of Ohio. Upon graduating from West Point in 1839, as 21st in a class of 39, he was assigned to the infantry. He, too, distinguished himself by his daring and bravery in the Mexican American War—a conflict that he nevertheless thought was unjustified—but then was given slow promotions and remote postings which left him unhappily separated from his family. In 1854 he resigned his commission and went back into civilian life as a farmer. By the time the Civil War broke out, Grant was in Galena, Illinois, working in his father's leather goods store. Lee at that moment was in Washington, D.C., being offered the command of the Union Army.

In telling this part of the story, *Grant and Lee in War and Peace* explores America's tradition of citizen-soldiers volunteering to fight under professional officers but still thinking like democratic citizens. The exhibition provides insights into the Army's role in an expanding United States, whether reshaping the landscape, patrolling frontiers, conquering territory, or suppressing conflicts with Native Americans. Above all, the exhibition details the increasingly bloody rivalry between free states and slave-holding states, and the reluctance of political leaders to use troops to restore the peace.

The central section of the exhibition takes visitors into the Civil War itself, with the already illustrious Lee leading Confederate forces to a series of victories in the East, and an obscure Grant struggling to receive a commission and a campaign assignment in the West. The story of these years reaches its climax on April 9, 1865, at Appomattox Court House in Virginia, when a victorious Grant made the first gesture toward national reconciliation by offering magnanimous terms upon Lee's surrender.

The exhibition's final section, which follows Grant and Lee back into civilian life, offers new scholarly assessments of the roles both men played after the Civil War. Visitors will leave the exhibition understanding why Lee was seen as the "knight on white horseback" in Southern mythology and became the enduring symbol of a noble Lost Cause. A new and more realistic image of Grant will emerge: not simply the ineffective president surrounded by corruption, as he has been known, but a determined champion of Reconstruction and the rights of freedmen, and a far-sighted leader in seeking peace and justice for American Indians.

## Key Historic Themes

Three interrelated historic themes course through these education materials and through the *Grant and Lee in War and Peace* exhibition: slavery, westward expansion, and the role of the Army in a democracy. The first two are an established part of our understanding of 19th-century America. The third, focused on the military, is likely to be new for many teachers and students, but it adds a dramatic perspective to this time period. The question of what the Army should do to further national goals in war and peace—of how it should be used and controlled—is one the nation faced as soon as it won its independence and continues to face today. During the careers of Ulysses S. Grant and Robert E. Lee, it became intertwined with the nation's desire to claim more territory and with the bitter divisions over slavery.

### Slavery

The question of slavery dominated American political life during the 19th century, and it runs through all the units of this curriculum. At West Point in the antebellum decades, young men from the North and South wore the same uniform and shared cadet life. But there were divisions among them on the subject of slavery. Ulysses S. Grant was the son of a determined abolitionist who knew and supported the young John Brown. Many of the Southern cadets, including Robert E. Lee and Jubal Early, came from families that grew wealthy on slave labor.

The Mexican American War was fought to extend the territorial limits of the United States, but westward expansion carried with it a pressing question: would the new territories be free soil or home to slave plantations? Slave plantations were established in Texas before annexation, and pro-slavery forces were among the greatest promoters of territorial expansion. The addition of new states after the Mexican American War would push the concept of balancing slave states and free states to the breaking point.

The Civil War became a war over slavery, and Appomattox marked its end. During the four years of battle, the Emancipation Proclamation was written, regiments of black soldiers took to the battlefield wearing Union uniforms, thousands of enslaved people liberated themselves and fled to Union lines as federal forces secured pockets of Southern territory. With the war's end, America's two and a half centuries of history with the "peculiar institution" of slavery came to an end.

With Reconstruction came a new question: what future awaited former slaves? While many in the South began to argue and believe that slavery had been benign, and downplayed it as a cause of the war, black Southerners themselves sought political equality, education, spiritual sustenance, economic opportunity, and personal dignity. Andrew Johnson, who became president after Lincoln's assassination, preferred instead to restore the South to white leadership and scuttle all these black aspirations. His policies were opposed by the largely Republican Congress. His successor, Ulysses S. Grant, forcefully but fitfully tried to suppress the Ku Klux Klan and to enforce civil rights legislation and the 14th and 15th Amendments to the Constitution, guaranteeing equal treatment of the laws and full political rights to freedmen. But he could not forestall the violent reimposition of racial subordination on African Americans in the South.

## **Westward Expansion**

In the half-century after 1803, the nation expanded rapidly. The ambition to stretch to the Pacific Coast required the Army to play multiple roles. West Point graduates were sent to frontier postings to protect West-bound settlers from American Indians who were fighting encroachment on their land. Army engineers were essential in building the roads, bridges, canals, and forts that made the settlement of the West possible and relatively safe.

With the passage of the 1830 Indian Removal Act, southeastern Indians forced to relocate west of the Mississippi. The Seminoles, and the former slaves who had joined them, resisted. Wars with the Seminoles had begun in 1817, and flared up again in the 1830s and 1850s. The Army fought an improvised war on unfamiliar terrain, and was repeatedly frustrated by the guerilla tactics of the Seminoles. Florida became a state in 1845, but efforts to remove the native people never fully succeeded, and some Seminoles can still be found in Florida today.

Far to the west, Mexico controlled much of the land that lay between the United States and the Pacific Ocean. When the Texas Republic joined the United States, border conflicts with Mexicans escalated and erupted. American opinion about the legitimacy of the Mexican American War was split. "Manifest Destiny" rhetoric, extolling America's continental ambition and democratic promise, clashed with fears of slavery's expansion. Much hinged on how one saw the Mexicans. Were they uncivilized brutes unworthy of the fertile lands seized by the Texans? Or was Mexico itself a young nation recovering from colonial misrule, not unlike the people of 1776 along the Atlantic seaboard?

Through the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, the United States acquired California, Nevada, and Utah, and parts of New Mexico, Arizona, Colorado, and Wyoming, all in exchange for \$15 million. While Americans and Texans exulted in the new Southwest captured from Mexico, Tejanos, and Californios, the long-time Catholic and Spanish residents of the old Southwest wondered if the terms of the Treaty guaranteeing their land titles, customs, and religion would protect them from their new political rulers. Mexican law had prohibited slavery, but the war victory opened vast new lands to American slave labor.

## **The Role of the Army in a Democracy**

After Congress itself, the Army was the first national institution composed of people from every region. Robert E. Lee, descended from a prominent Southern family, served alongside men like Ulysses S. Grant, the son of an Ohio shopkeeper.

From George Washington's day forward, the Army's cardinal principle has been to serve the national interest, as defined by civilian authority. Men of old New England and the new Southwest studied together at West Point, surveyed western territories, served together in frontier garrisons, and helped engineer coastal defenses and improve harbors. They fought American Indians in Ohio and Florida. They launched invasions of Mexico, the first large-scale use of the U.S. Army as an instrument of foreign policy.

The U.S. Army was the nation's most powerful representative in the West from 1815 onward. But political division and indecision in Washington left the Army paralyzed in Kansas in the mid-1850s. Pro-slavery militias from Missouri and anti-slavery settlers armed by New Englanders exchanged brutal raids. The most notorious was John Brown's massacre

of five Missourians at Pottawatomie Creek in May 1856, responding to a fierce raid on free-soil Lawrence. Military authority could not pacify a society torn by political extremism.

With the coming of the Civil War, the U.S. Army of 16,000 men suddenly mushroomed into two forces numbering in the hundreds of thousands. War fever helped the Union and Confederacy recruit state-level volunteer regiments. The scale of the conflict turned the warring North and South into giant military machines. Tragically, the men trained at West Point and united in national service became their own fiercest antagonists during the Civil War—306 West Point officers sided with the Confederacy—when they led their opposing armies in the deadliest combat ever witnessed.

During Reconstruction, the Army's peacetime role was again subject to uncertain political leadership. Washington was nervous about citizen reactions to the Army, as it had been in the 1850s. It hesitated before sending the U.S. Army to intervene in local clashes between vigilante mobs or organized militias largely composed of embittered Confederate veterans, on the one hand, and the black Republicans who claimed their rightful place in the legislature and municipal offices, on the other. Street battles, armed attacks on the state legislature to seat competing favorites, and assassination threats made Louisiana politics the most extreme example of resistance to a multiracial democracy. White militias, which by 1874 became formally trained and uniformed White Leagues, fought openly to prevent a radical reduction of their political power. This political power became fatefully entangled with the ideology of white supremacy.

When Ulysses S. Grant became president, the very actions and character that won him his reputation on Civil War battlefields turned into drawbacks. As a general, he gave orders, trusted his subordinates, and saw visible results. As a civilian in office, Grant seemed unaware that career politicians often fail to execute a president's policies, usually in subtle ways. Both local forces resisting national policy and rampant corruption among his appointees soon blanketed the Grant presidency with suspicion.

President Grant imagined a dramatically transformed society for black and Native American peoples. He tried to end war as a way of life for American Indians, and to settle the roaming tribes. But Reconstruction stalwarts in Congress howled that money spent on the West guaranteed failure in the Reconstruction South. Grant's plan could not "civilize" the Indians and make them into registered voters and faithful workers. On the contrary, after Little Bighorn, the public was so enraged that it pushed the Army into the very war of extinction that President Grant had so eloquently, and it turns out, futilely, condemned.

The Federal Government ended Reconstruction in a political deal over the disputed election of 1876, when Democrat Samuel Tilden ceded the presidency to Republican Rutherford B. Hayes, with the understanding that Hayes would end Army intervention in the South. Once again Congress cut Army funds, and domestic policing powers were handed to the state-level National Guards that supported white supremacist local governments without fear of federal interference.

## List of Classroom Materials

### Life Stories

Jubal Early  
Ulysses S. Grant  
Joseph E. Johnston  
Robert E. Lee  
James Longstreet  
Philip Sheridan  
William Tecumseh Sherman

### Time Line, 1802-1890

#### Unit 1: West Point

##### Background

Resource 1: View of West Point (Looking South Across the Plain)  
Resource 2: Daily Schedule for Cadets  
Resource 3: The 1829 West Point Class, Arranged in Order of Merit  
Resource 4: West Point Hi-Jinks  
Resource 5: Grant's "Black Marks"  
Resource 6: James Longstreet's Memories of Ulysses S. Grant at West Point  
Resource 7: Joseph E. Johnston Remembers Robert E. Lee at West Point  
Resource 8: Drawing of Chief Osceola  
Resource 9: Figure of Chief Osceola  
Resource 10: Engineer's Caliper  
Resource 11: Doorway at Fort Hamilton  
Resource 12: Fort Humboldt

#### Unit 2: The Mexican American War

##### Background

Resource 1: James K. Polk's Message on War with Mexico  
Resource 2: "Eight Dollars a Day"  
Resource 3: Mapa de los Estados Unidos de Méjico  
Resource 4: Drawing of a Mexican Man  
Resource 5: At the Battle of Palo Alto  
Resource 6: General Scott's Entrance into Mexico [City]  
Resource 7: The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo  
Resource 8: Grant and Lee on the Mexican American War

#### Unit 3: Appomattox

##### Background

Resource 1: Nine Days  
Resource 2: Civil War Numbers  
Resource 3: With Malice Toward None  
Resource 4: Terms of Surrender  
Resource 5: The Surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia  
Resource 6: A Confederate Parole  
Resource 7: General Lee's Farewell to His Troops

Resource 8: "What Are We to Do?"

Resource 9: Appomattox and Beyond

Resource 10: Friends in Hard Times: Excerpts from Mary Chesnut's Diary

Resource 11: Richmond

#### **Unit 4: Reconstruction and the Lost Cause**

Background

Resource 1: The Reconstruction Amendments

Resource 2: The Fifteenth Amendment

Resource 3: "Is *This* a Republican Form of Government?"

Resource 4: New Orleans Telegrams

Resource 5: "The N.O. Massacre"

Resource 6: Reflecting on Slavery and the Causes of the War

Resource 7: The Birth of the Lost Cause

Resource 8: "The Lost Cause"

Resource 9: Unveiling of the Lee Memorial

Resource 10: "Let Us Have Peace, 1865"

Resource 11: "I Fought for Virginia"

## Introduction to the Lesson Plans

This curriculum offers a documents-based approach to some of the ideas and materials in the exhibition, *Grant and Lee in War and Peace*. A visit to the exhibition will greatly enrich students' experience and understanding, but these materials are designed to function on their own, with or without a classroom visit. Four units are included: West Point, the Mexican American War, Appomattox, and Reconstruction and the Lost Cause. These units connect directly to the New York State social studies curriculum, but they are intended to supplement that curriculum with material that casts a new light on the history being studied. We encourage teachers to use these materials in whatever way works best in your classroom. Use all the units, or pick and choose among them. The materials are designed for flexibility.

*Grant and Lee in War and Peace* explores perhaps the most complex, explosive, and eventful time in American history, covering the middle decades of the 19th century—the period of westward expansion, conflict over slavery, wars, the near-fracturing of the nation, assassination, and troubled rebuilding. Many different stories can be told about this time period. Like the exhibition, this curriculum focuses on Ulysses S. Grant and Robert E. Lee, the two men who would face each other in the final two years of the Civil War, and several of their generals, including William Tecumseh Sherman and Philip Sheridan on the Union side, and Jubal Early, James Longstreet, and Joseph E. Johnston on the Confederate side. These generals are the subjects of the life stories, or short profiles, that support the units. They were all white men in elite positions of leadership. With some exceptions, this curriculum does not examine the experiences of civilians, women, common soldiers, or enslaved people. In the Classroom Resources section of this Guide, there are suggestions for materials that would help you bring these diverse perspectives into your classrooms.

The focus on Grant and Lee and their top generals opens a new door to this period for students. It allows them to consider how the military was used to deal with foreign enemies and internal unrest, a role that was evolving during this time. It also helps students see the sweep of 19th century history not as a set of separate episodes (e.g., Mexican American War, Civil War) but as an ongoing drama in which one act led to the next in a short span of time. For people born in the early years of the 19th century, this turbulent period played out against the span of their own lives.

To take just one lifetime as an example, Ulysses S. Grant saw the western frontier move from his native Ohio to the Pacific coast, doubling the size of the country and exacerbating questions about slavery in the West. He was the son of an abolitionist who married into a slave-holding family, briefly owned a slave himself, and welcomed the emancipation he helped secure. He fought in America's first foreign war and its only civil war. He mourned its first assassinated president, saw Lincoln's vision of Reconstruction shattered, and served two terms in the White House. He lived through these events as a soldier, a leader, and a human being. They were part of the story he would tell of his own times, weaving his personal narrative into the country's. The combination of the topical units and the life stories will bring this continuous narrative thread home for students.

To help students understand this "sweep of history," you may want to give students a chance to read the life stories from start to finish, either as an introductory lesson or at some point in the curriculum. You may choose to divide the class into seven groups and give each one a life story to read and discuss, or you may prefer to focus your class on Grant and Lee. In the lesson plans, students will focus on specific time periods and on the corresponding sections of the life stories. Reading these short profiles as complete narratives will help students see that these men lived through and took part in all these dramatic events, which happened in a relatively short period of time. The corresponding idea is that the major players in these events have learned from the experiences in their past, just as many of today's military and civilian leaders lived through and learned from the Vietnam War era.

## Unit 1: West Point

**Unit Aim:** Students will be introduced to a cast of cadets to learn about their daily lives and to understand how their experiences at West Point prepared them for service in the military.

**In the Classroom:** Students explore the set of behaviors and expectations that young men at the Academy shared as they became cadets. They examine the West Point careers of Ulysses S. Grant and Robert E. Lee and explore how lifelong friendships developed among cadets who would later become prominent military figures.

**New York State Standards for Social Studies:** See page 27

### Lesson 1: Daily Life for West Point Cadets

**Aim:** Students will be introduced to the cast of characters featured throughout this curriculum. They will discuss their diverse backgrounds and will learn about their daily life as West Point cadets.

**Materials:**

Life Stories: Early, Grant, Johnston, Lee, Longstreet, Sheridan, and Sherman

Resource 1: View of West Point (Looking South Across the Plain)

Resource 2: Daily Schedule for Cadets

Resource 3: The 1829 West Point Class, Arranged in Order of Merit

Resource 4: West Point Hi-Jinks

Distribute copies of Catlin's "View of West Point (Looking South Across the Plain)" or project on the classroom wall and ask students to describe what they see in the image. Who do they see in this image? What are these people doing? What are these people wearing? Are there any buildings in this image? What types of buildings do students see? What purposes do students think these buildings serve? Where is this image set? How would students describe this setting? Based on what they see in this image, what do students think about West Point? What do they think life might be like for the cadets in this image?

Break students into seven groups and distribute Life Stories, assigning one to each group. In groups, students should read the introduction to each Life Story and the section on West Point. Within their group, ask students to discuss how the person in their assigned Life Story ended up at West Point. What might have motivated this person to attend West Point? What might have prepared this person for a military education and a career in the Army? Based on what they have read, were there any factors that might have hindered this person's performance at West Point? What do students think their person would do in the Army? Once students have read and discussed their assigned Life Story, each group should nominate one student to introduce the person in their Life Story to the other groups. As a class, discuss how these cadets are different from one another in age and background. Drawing from their discussion of the Catlin painting, ask students to think about how a West Point education might have accounted for these differences and what steps might have been taken to unite such different young men for the common purpose of serving the country. Emphasize the importance of uniforms, drilling, and the Academy's remote location.

Reorganize the class into three groups and distribute copies of "Daily Schedule for Cadets," "The 1829 West Point Class, Arranged in Order of Merit," and "West Point Hi-Jinks." Each group should use the Text Document Analysis Worksheet to analyze all three documents. Once each group has completed the worksheet, lead a discussion about what they have read and understand about daily life for West Point cadets like those featured in their Life Stories. Where did West Point students come from? How old were they when they enrolled? What time did the day begin and end for West Point cadets? What did students study at West Point? Are the subjects studied at West Point in 1839 similar or different from the subjects students in your class study today? What skills were cadets expected to acquire? What were the expectations

for graduates? How were students ranked at West Point? How might the academic rigors of the West Point curriculum affect student behavior? How do students think the individuals featured in the Life Stories might have responded to the scene described in “West Point Hi-Jinks?”

Ask students to think about the many activities that make up their own day and to make a schedule of their average day, beginning with what time they wake up – and including all of their classes at school, any after-school activities in which they might take part, homework – and ending with what time they go to bed at night. (It may be helpful to provide a template for this.) How do their daily schedules compare with those of the West Point cadets in 1839?

Return students' attention to Catlin's painting of West Point. In looking again at the painting, ask students what life might be like for the cadets depicted in this image? Does this image correspond with what they have read in the Life Stories and documents? Why or why not? Do students recognize the activities taking place in Catlin's painting? What time of day is it? Ask students to refer to what they have learned from the Daily Schedule in developing their responses. Why might Catlin have chosen to represent West Point in this way? How might Catlin's travels have influenced his perspective? What does Catlin's painting tell us about how West Point might have been perceived by his contemporaries?

## Lesson 2: Grant and Lee at West Point

**Aim:** Students will compare the experiences of Grant and Lee at West Point.

### Materials:

Life Stories: Grant, Lee, Longstreet, and Johnston

Resource 3: The 1829 West Point Class, Arranged in Order of Merit

Resource 5: Grant's “Black Marks”

Resource 6: James Longstreet's Memories of Ulysses S. Grant at West Point

Resource 7: Joseph E. Johnston Remembers Robert E. Lee at West Point

Begin by asking students to think about how their performance as a student is evaluated. How do students demonstrate what they have learned to their teachers, administrators, and the school board? What other factors, such as attendance, class participation, or volunteer work, are taken into consideration when evaluating student performance?

As a class, revisit “The 1829 West Point Class, Arranged in Order of Merit.” What is this document? What does this document tell students about West Point cadets in 1829? What questions do students have after reading this document? Ask students to consider the term “Order of Merit.” What does the word “merit” mean? How might the “merit” of cadets be determined at West Point? Do students recognize any of the names on this list? What does Robert E. Lee's class rank tell students about his career as a cadet? What about his background as the son of Henry “Light Horse Harry” Lee would have made him an “ideal” cadet? What might have been his family's expectations for him as a cadet? Encourage students to refer to Lee's Life Story while engaging in this discussion.

Distribute “Grant's ‘Black Marks’” and analyze the document as a class. What is this document? When was it written? Who might have written it? What is the title of this document? What does it tell us about the rules and regulations cadets were required to follow at West Point? What do students think might have been the aim of these rules? What does this document tell us about how these rules and regulations were enforced?

Have students work in pairs or groups of three to read and categorize the type and frequency of the demerits Grant received. As a class, discuss for what was Grant most often penalized? What conclusions can students draw about Grant as a West Point cadet from the frequency and type of demerits? What does the letter quoted in the document's introduction say about how Grant viewed his demerits? How do students think Grant's performance as a cadet differed from that of Robert E. Lee? Encourage students to refer to Grant's Life Story while engaging in this discussion.

Return students to their pairs or groups of three. Distribute “James Longstreet’s Memories of Ulysses S. Grant at West Point” and “Joseph E. Johnston Remembers Robert E. Lee at West Point.” Ask students to compare and contrast the descriptions of Grant and of Lee. How are these two men described by their West Point contemporaries? What qualities do their contemporaries value? Do Grant and Lee share any of the same characteristics and qualities? How are they different from one another? Are the memories of Grant and Lee substantiated or undermined by the documents? Based on the documents and the reminiscences of Grant and Lee, what predictions can students make about each man’s future in the military?

### Lesson 3: After West Point

**Aim:** Students will understand how West Point prepared cadets for military service.

**Materials:**

Life Stories: Early, Grant, Johnston, and Lee

Resource 2: Daily Schedule for Cadets

Time Line

Resource 8: Drawing of Osceola

Resource 9: Figure of Chief Osceola

Resource 10: Engineer’s Caliper

Resource 11: Doorway at Fort Hamilton

Resource 12: Fort Humboldt

Begin by asking students how their experiences in school are preparing them for what comes next. What skills are students developing in their everyday classes that will prepare them for life outside of school? Encourage students to think about the specific tools, such as rulers, protractors, compasses, calculators, computers, books, and the Internet, that they use in their classes and how these might prove useful outside of school. How is their education setting them up to make decisions about what they will study in high school and college? Or about what career they will pursue? What have students observed from watching older siblings or cousins?

Break students into groups and distribute “Daily Schedule for Cadets.” Ask students to examine the document and predict, based on what they can learn from the document, what tasks West Point graduates will be expected to carry out as officers in the U.S. Army. What skills will cadets need for a career in the military? In what kinds of situations might they need these skills? How much time was spent preparing for battle as compared with other pursuits?

Assign each group one Life Story. Using the Life Story and the Time Line, students should work within their groups to piece together what the individual in their Life Story did following graduation. Students should pay attention to where graduates were posted, the tasks they carried out, the varied roles they played as soldiers, engineers, surveyors, etc. What skills developed at West Point did they rely on as officers in the U.S. Army? Ask each group to share what they have learned with the class and lead a discussion about the varied experiences of West Point graduates. What do these varied experiences suggest to students about the role of the U.S. military in the 1830s and 1840s? What do they reveal about the trajectory of the country at this time?

Hand out “Drawing of Chief Osceola,” “Figure of Chief Osceola,” “Engineer’s Caliper,” “Doorway at Fort Hamilton,” and “Fort Humboldt” to each group. Students should work together to identify the images and read the background information accompanying each image. Working within their group, students should prepare a letter from the individual in their Life Story to a family member back home; the letter should describe their daily tasks and should make reference to at least one of the five resources studied. If needed, students should be encouraged to use other resources to supplement their knowledge of faraway places and particular events. Once the groups have completed their letters, they should exchange them with the other groups.

## Unit Extension Activities

For further study, teachers might consider one of the following extension activities:

- Invite a West Point cadet or an officer in the Armed Forces to address the class and describe his or her daily routine. Students can compare and contrast the curricula and training program between 19th-century and present day cadets.
- Invite an engineer from the local community to address the class about his or her training and professional experience. Students can practice using real tools of the trade, like calipers, or they can make their own.
- Plan a class trip to the Harbor Defense Museum ([www.harbordefensemuseum.com](http://www.harbordefensemuseum.com)) at Fort Hamilton or to West Point ([www.usma.edu](http://www.usma.edu)).
- Write a Life Story. Students can write a Life Story for one of the other historical figures appearing in the *Grant and Lee in War and Peace* curriculum. For guidelines to writing a Life Story, teachers can refer to the Teacher's Guide for *Slavery in New York*. Some possible subjects include:
  - George Catlin (Unit 1)
  - Chief Osceola (Unit 1)
  - Julia Dent Grant (Units 1-4)
  - General Winfield Scott (Unit 2)
  - Mary Chesnut (Unit 3)
  - Ely Parker (Unit 3)
  - Thomas Nast (Unit 4)
  - Nathan Bedford Forrest (Unit 4)
  - Edward A. Pollard (Unit 4)

## Unit 2: The Mexican American War

**Unit Aim:** Students will learn the arguments for and against the Mexican American War, will understand the justifications for the War, and will explore the conclusions drawn about the War and its end result.

**In the Classroom:** Students trace the post-West Point experiences of Grant and Lee as well as their fellow graduates and friends in the larger political context of the U.S. territorial expansion. They examine the causes of the Mexican American War and how the United States dehumanized its former ally as a way to justify a war of acquisition.

**New York State Standards for Social Studies:** See page 27

### Lesson 1: Arguments For and Against the Mexican American War

**Aim:** Students will explore arguments for and against the Mexican American War and will be able to state and defend their own position about the war.

**Materials:**

Life Stories: Grant, Lee, Johnston, and Longstreet

Resource 1: James K. Polk's Message on War with Mexico

Resource 2: "Eight Dollars a Day"

Resource 3: "Mapa de los Estados Unidos de Méjico"

Begin by distributing "Mapa de los Estados Unidos de Méjico". What looks familiar about this map? What looks different? What two countries are represented on this map? Ask students to note the title, date, and publisher of the map. If this map is in Spanish, why do students think it was published in New York? What purpose might this map have served? Compare the map to a contemporary world map or map of North America. What differences do students notice between the two maps? What might account for these differences?

Break students into pairs and distribute "James K. Polk's Message on War with Mexico" to half the class and "Eight Dollars a Day" to the other half. Students should work together within their pairs to read and analyze their assigned document using the Text Document Analysis Worksheet. Encourage students to read the background information to support their analysis of their assigned document. Once students have completed their worksheet, pick two groups to represent each document and develop a "fishbowl" situation in which the two groups discuss their respective documents at the center of the room. As discussion develops, swap students in the fishbowl with students in the audience to foster fresh perspectives. Discussion should focus on the authors of the respective documents, their arguments for or against the Mexican American War, their perspectives on both the United States and Mexico. To whom are these pieces addressed? How do the authors construct their argument for their particular audience? Do students think these arguments would have been persuasive? Why or not?

Consolidate pairs into larger groups and distribute Life Stories. Working together, students should read and discuss the Mexican American War segments of the Life Stories. Lead a class discussion about what role each man played in the Mexican American War. Discuss how all four men fought at Chapultepec and how Grant, Lee, and Johnston were at Cerro Gordo. What do students think about how their experiences on the battlefield compare with their experiences at West Point? How do their experiences on the battlefield compare with the projections of the war in Polk's message to Congress? How do their experiences on the battlefield compare with the projections of the war in "Eight Dollars a Day?"

Working independently, direct students to write an argument for or against the war with Mexico. Encourage students to think creatively—this piece could be in the form of an editorial, a poem or a protest song, like "Eight Dollars a Day"—and to clearly

define their position on the war and their arguments supporting that position. They should draw on what they have learned about the wartime experiences of Grant, Lee, Longstreet, and Johnston to support their arguments for or against the war.

## **Lesson 2: Justifying the Mexican American War**

**Aim:** Students will understand how popular stereotypes were used to motivate soldiers and justify war with Mexico.

### **Materials:**

Resource 4: Drawing of a Mexican Man

Resource 5: At the Battle of Palo Alto

Resource 6: General Scott's Entrance into Mexico [City]

Begin by asking students to think about the concept of a stereotype. What is a stereotype? What purpose do stereotypes serve? Can students think of any examples of common stereotypes? Are these stereotypes harmful? How so? Can stereotypes ever be positive? Encourage students to think about how stereotypes are formed, the variety of media in which they are disseminated, as well as the dehumanizing power of stereotypes.

Project "Drawing of a Mexican Man" and read aloud the document introduction. Ask students to let their eyes wander over the picture and share what they see. Encourage students to look for details: who is at the center of this image? What is this man doing? What is he wearing? What else is in this image? Do students see any clues as to where or when this image is set? What do we know about the artist who drew this picture? What kind of contact did Abner Doubleday have with the Mexican people? How might his background have shaped his perspective on Mexicans? How might his experiences as a U.S. soldier have shaped his perspective on Mexicans? Does this drawing seem like a stereotype? Why or why not?

Distribute "At the Battle of Palo Alto" and read aloud the document introduction. Invite students to let their eyes wander over the picture and share what they see. Ask students to describe the people in this image. Can students differentiate between the United States and the Mexican soldiers? What clues can students identify to tell them apart? What are the people in this image doing? Does the scene depicted align with what students have learned about the Battle of Palo Alto from the document introduction? Why or why not? Ask one student to read the image caption aloud and focus on the phrase, "their (the Americans) humanity toward their unfortunate adversaries." How is the "humanity" of American soldiers illustrated by the image? In what ways might the Mexican soldiers be "unfortunate"? Based on the caption and what they see in the image, can students surmise the artist's perspective on the Mexican American War? How does he support this perspective through the representation of Mexican soldiers in this image? How might an image such as this, and the way it dehumanizes the Mexican enemy, be used to support war with Mexico?

Ask students to compare "Drawing of a Mexican Man" and "At the Battle of Palo Alto." Do students see any differences between how Mexicans are portrayed? Do they see any similarities? What might account for these differences and similarities? Are they stereotypes? Discuss these images in the context of the arguments for and against the war laid out in Lesson 1. How could these images support or undermine these arguments?

Conclude by asking students to think about contemporary issues. How are stereotypes of particular people and places used in debates about these issues? How are these stereotypes disseminated through television, newspapers, and other forms of media? Is this a powerful means of making an argument? Why or why not?

## **Lesson 3: Resolving the Mexican American War**

**Aim:** Students will review the end of the Mexican American War and will explore how Americans understood the war and its end.

**Materials:**

- Resource 7: The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo (excerpt)
- Resource 3: Mapa de los Estados Unidos de Méjico
- Resource 6: General Scott's Entrance into Mexico [City]
- Resource 8: Grant and Lee on the Mexican American War

Begin by reviewing how the Mexican American War began, highlighting Polk's message to Congress and Congress' resulting declaration of war. How did the war end? What diplomatic steps had to be taken to call an end to open hostilities between the United States and Mexico?

Break students into pairs or small groups and distribute the excerpt from "The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo." Working together, students should read the excerpt and answer three focus questions: What is the name of this document? What is the motivation behind this document? What is the objective of this document? Encourage students to think about the language used in the Treaty; do they find the language appropriate to the objective of the document? Do they find it surprising? Why or why not? Once students have shared their responses to the focus questions, distribute "Mapa de los Estados Unidos de Méjico" and read aloud the background information for "The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo." Review the terms agreed to by Mexico and the United States, tracing Mexico's new boundaries on the map. Do students feel these terms live up to the promise of peace and friendship made in the excerpt? Why or why not?

Distribute copies of "General Scott's Entrance into Mexico [City]" or project the image on the classroom wall. Working within their groups, ask students to "tag" objects, symbols, and people in the image (like tagging a photograph in Facebook). Encourage students to write directly on the image; if the image is projected on the wall, ask students to "tag" using post-it notes. Students should be encouraged to stick to one or two words: "soldier," "woman," "church," "cross," "American flag." Once students have finished tagging their image, ask them to list descriptive words for each tag. Again, students can write directly on the image; if using post-it notes on a projection, use a different color post-it for descriptive words. Students should feel free to come up with multiple descriptive words for each tag. When students are satisfied with their work, direct them to use their tags and descriptive words to come up with a one- or two-sentence caption for the scene being portrayed in this image. Once they have shared their captions with one another, read aloud the document introduction. What do students think about their captions in relation to the information in the document introduction? Give them an opportunity to draft a second caption for the image. How do these captions help students understand the artist's perspective?

Distribute copies of "Grant and Lee on the Mexican American War" and ask two students to read the quotations aloud. How do Grant and Lee describe Mexico? How does Grant describe the terms of surrender and the value of territory lost by Mexico? How might their experiences at West Point and in the Mexican American War have shaped their perspective on the conflict? On Mexico? On Mexican people? How might Grant and Lee have justified their actions in the war in light of these statements after the war?

Ask students to consider these quotations together with the excerpt from the "Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo." In what ways are the representations of Mexico and the United States in the quotations and the Treaty similar? In what ways are they different? Ask students to reflect on the image and the captions they wrote. Do they see any similarities or differences between these and the representations of Mexico and the United States in the quotations and the Treaty?

How might these representations of Mexico and the United States shape the way Americans understood the war? What story do they tell about the Mexican American War and its outcome?

## Unit Extension Activities

For further study, teachers might consider one of the following extension activities:

- Explore current relations between the United States and Mexico in the context of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo. How has the United States' disregard for Mexican American rights to language, property, and civil rights in the former Mexican territories shaped relations between the two countries today?
- Compare and contrast representations of Mexican American War heroes, such as General Winfield Scott. How do representations in various forms (portraits, caricatures, lithographs) reflect contemporary perspectives of Scott, the military, and the war with Mexico?
- Compare and contrast the Mexican American War with other wars in U.S. history. Students can explore how the Mexican American War, the country's first foreign war, shaped how soldiers learned to view the enemy. Students can concentrate on the conditions that led to other wars as well as the conclusions drawn about these wars and their outcomes. Students also can explore different styles of war, and the ways in which stereotypes of the enemy were used to motivate soldiers and justify war.
- Visit the Library of Congress's American Sheet Music catalogue, where students can compare and contrast protest songs from other eras. They can explore different subjects of protest, such as war, slavery, or labor conditions, as well as various genres, including spiritual or folk music. Students who play musical instruments could practice some songs and play them for the class, opening up a discussion about how music and popular culture in general are used to drum up support for or opposition to a war.

## Unit 3: Appomattox

**Unit Aim:** Students will learn about the last days of the Civil War and the terms of surrender agreed between Generals Lee and Grant at Appomattox Court House. Students will explore how soldiers and civilians on both sides of the conflict responded to news of Lee's surrender.

**In the Classroom:** Students trace the final days of an extensive military conflict and explore the impact of the surrender at Appomattox on soldiers and civilians on both sides of the conflict. They examine the terms of surrender, the expectations and fears of the winning and losing armies, and the shared concerns over how to restore national unity and peace. "Appomattox and Beyond" contains an offensive racial term and may not be appropriate for all classrooms. Read the document closely before distributing it to your students. You may also want to consult with your principal or department supervisor for direction and advice.

**New York State Standards for Social Studies:** See page 27

### Lesson 1: Nine Days to Appomattox

**Aim:** Students will create a story map illustrating the nine days leading up to Lee's surrender to Grant at Appomattox.

**Materials:**

Life Stories: Early, Grant, Lee, Johnston, Longstreet, Sheridan, and Sherman

Resource 1: Nine Days

Resource 2: Civil War Numbers

Distribute copies of "Nine Days" and read aloud. Using a classroom map, have students trace Union and Confederate movements in these crucial nine days, locating battles and identifying key military leaders that played a role in the final campaign of the Civil War. As a class, generate ideas for a map key to symbolize important people, places, and events on the classroom map.

Distribute copies of "Civil War Numbers" and ask students to consider how casualties, poor rations, and troop size might have affected the outcome of the war. How can these numbers and their importance be illustrated on the map?

Using "Nine Days" and the classroom map, lead a class discussion of Union strategy in the days leading up to Lee's surrender. How did Grant's decision to attack Petersburg on April 2nd prove to be decisive? How did this strategy lead to the defeat of the Confederate Army under Lee?

Break class into groups and distribute Life Stories. Assign one Life Story to each group and direct students to read the section discussing the final days of Lee's campaign and his surrender at Appomattox. Students should work in their groups to develop a paragraph about the role their assigned person played in the war's end. When students have completed their paragraph, have one person from each group read that paragraph aloud. The group should then place their paragraph in an appropriate position on the classroom map.

Once each group has placed their person on the map, lead a class discussion. What role did Sheridan play in Grant's victory? How did Longstreet counsel Lee regarding surrender? What was the state of the Confederate Army in the days before Lee's surrender? What might have motivated soldiers lacking food and supplies to engage in hand-to-hand combat with Sheridan's troops at Sailor's Creek?

Return students to their groups and have them create a personal reflection (for example, a journal entry, a letter, or a

telegram) dated between April 1 and April 9, 1865. These personal reflections should refer to specific people, places, and events while reflecting the perspective of the narrator. When students have completed their reflection pieces, have one person from each group read their work aloud. The group should then place their reflection piece in an appropriate position on the classroom map.

Once the story map is complete, work as a class to develop a title for the finished product.

## Lesson 2: Terms of Surrender

**Aim:** Students will learn the terms of surrender agreed between Grant and Lee at Appomattox Courthouse.

### Materials:

Life Stories: Grant, Lee, and Sheridan

Resource 3: With Malice Toward None

Resource 1: Nine Days

Resource 4: Terms of Surrender

Resource 5: The Surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia

Introduce “With Malice Toward None,” explaining that this excerpt is drawn from Lincoln’s second inaugural address and delivered just four months before Lee’s surrender at Appomattox, and read aloud. Discuss the excerpt as a class. Toward whom might Americans direct malice? What “work” is Lincoln referring to? What “wounds” will need to be addressed? Who is Lincoln referring to when he mentions “him who shall have borne the battle?” How does Lincoln envision a reunited country? Ask students to consider the date and occasion of the speech. To whom was it addressed? What might have motivated this speech?

Using “Nine Days” and the Life Stories of Lee, Grant, and Sheridan, review the events leading to Lee’s surrender. Distribute “Terms of Surrender.” Ask one student to read Grant’s letter to Lee aloud, directing students to follow along and underline any conditions listed in the letter. Ask them to read the document introduction to understand the decision to allow ordinary soldiers to keep their horses, which was not in the written terms of surrender. As a class, list these terms of surrender on the blackboard or chart paper. Discuss these terms. How will the officers and soldiers be treated? Under what one condition will Confederate soldiers be allowed to return to their homes? What personal items are officers allowed to keep? What are the Confederate soldiers allowed to keep? Ask one student to read Lee’s reply aloud. How does he respond to the terms laid out by Grant? How will these orders be carried out?

Encourage students to discuss the terms of surrender agreed between Grant and Lee in light of Lincoln’s vision for a reunited nation. What factors might explain the simplicity and generosity of the terms in light of the brutality and bitterness of the war?

Distribute copies of “The Surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia” or project on the classroom wall. Invite students to analyze the image and share what they see. Who or what is at the center of the image? What is happening? Where is this scene set? Students should pay attention to details of clothing and furniture. Ask students to select one person in the image and complete these sentences: “My name is \_\_\_\_\_. I am from \_\_\_\_\_. Today I am \_\_\_\_\_.” Students also should write one or two sentences that explain, in the first person, what the person in the image did before the image was taken, and what they will do afterwards.

Ask for 12 volunteers to take the place of their selected person in a *tableau* (a frozen picture or physical recreation of a still image) of the scene depicted in “The Surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia.” Explain that when the teacher counts down from three, the students in the tableau will become the people in the image, and that it is important that students stay in the position of the people in the image, like a snapshot photo. When they are asked questions by the

teacher, they will respond in the voice of their character. Questions to ask students in character include: What did you do yesterday? What were you doing before you entered this room? What do you think you will do when you leave? What do you think about what is happening today? What do you think of the terms of surrender?

If students have carried out more extensive research on Grant, Lee, and the experiences of Civil War soldiers on both sides of the war, the teacher may wish to hold a Q & A session between the students in the tableau and the students in the class.

### **Lesson 3: Soldiers Respond to Lee's Surrender**

**Aim:** Students will compare and contrast reactions to Lee's surrender.

**Materials:**

Resource 6: A Confederate Parole

Resource 7: General Lee's Farewell to His Troops

Resource 8: "What Are We to Do?"

Resource 9: Appomattox and Beyond

Resource 4: Terms of Surrender

Distribute "A Confederate Parole" and ask one student to read all the text aloud, including the printed text. Lead a discussion about the document: When was it written? Who wrote it? Where was it written? To whom did it belong? What does the holder's identity as a "paroled prisoner" suggest about the status of Lee's Army after his surrender? What is the holder permitted to do? In what ways does this document protect him? In what ways might it make him vulnerable in the days and weeks following Lee's surrender?

What does this document suggest to students about the nuts-and-bolts of ending a conflict like the Civil War? What provisions would leaders on both sides of the conflict need to make for prisoners, enlisted men, leaders of the rebellion, and citizens of both the former Confederacy and the Union?

Distribute "General Lee's Farewell to His Troops" and read aloud. How does Lee explain his decision to surrender? According to Lee, what factors forced his hand? How does Lee describe the performance of his troops? What do students think about how a soldier like Walter Taylor might have responded to this farewell? What sorts of questions might he have about his future?

Break students into groups and distribute "What Are We to Do?" Working together, students should read the first paragraph and make a list of the concerns described by Gordon. As a class, discuss these concerns: Do students feel they are valid? How might they be assuaged? Remind students that Grant allowed men to keep their horses or mules. Why might he have chosen to do so?

As a class, read the second paragraph of "What Are We to Do?" aloud. How did Gordon attempt to assuage the fears of his troops? To what "passion" is he referring? How does he describe the Union soldiers? Under what conditions would Union soldiers become "promoters of sectional peace and fraternity?" Read the final paragraph of "What Are We to Do?" aloud. According to Gordon, why did his prophecy not come to pass? What might have paved the way for peace despite the assassination of Lincoln?

What do students think about Gordon's "prophecy?" Ask them to reflect on the terms of surrender discussed in Lesson 2; how might Union soldiers respond to Confederates laying down arms under such terms? How might raw memories of a long and bloody war and passions of revenge and retribution affect how soldiers on both sides of the conflict viewed one another?

Distribute “Appomattox and Beyond.” Working within their groups, have students read quotations from Rosser, Alexander, Johnson, Spiller, Grimes, and Keenan, and create a chart identifying the name of the quotation author, the side on which that person fought, and his opinion of Lee’s surrender.

As a class, review the spectrum of responses to Lee’s surrender among Union and Confederate soldiers. How can students account for the variety of responses? How might such diverse responses to Lee’s surrender spell trouble for reunification of the country?

## **Lesson 4: Civilians Respond to Lee’s Surrender**

**Aim:** Students will compare and contrast reactions to Lee’s surrender.

### **Materials:**

Resource 4: Terms of Surrender

Resource 10: Friends in Hard Times: Excerpts from Mary Chesnut’s Diary

Resource 11: Richmond

Resource 9: Appomattox and Beyond

Begin by leading a class discussion on “Terms of Surrender.” How might civilians in the North and South respond to the terms of surrender agreed by Grant and Lee at Appomattox? What concerns would civilians on both sides have about reunification of the country?

Break students into five groups. Distribute “Friends in Hard Times: Excerpts from Mary Chesnut’s Diary” and read the document introduction aloud. Assign each group the following entries: Group 1 – March 27th, March 29th; Group 2 – March 30th; Group 3 – April 5th, April 7th; Group 4 – April 15th, April 19th; Group 5 – April 22nd. As they read their assigned entries, students should make note of the people, places and events Chesnut mentions in her diary. Students also should note any questions raised by their reading.

Using chart paper, create a time line based on Chesnut’s diary. Students should contribute based on the notes they made on the reading. Reflecting on the time line, do students notice any common threads? Do students recognize the names of people Chesnut mentions in her diary? Places? Events? How does Chesnut describe her feelings for the South? How does she respond to news of Lee’s surrender? Does she reveal any of her fears for what might happen after surrender? To what is she referring when she uses the term “the hanging” [March 30th]?

Lead a class discussion on Chesnut’s reactions to Lee’s surrender. How might her position as the wife of a Confederate senator influence her perspective? Do students think other Southerners might share her feelings about the South and Lee’s surrender? Students may also read quotations from Rosser, Alexander, and Grimes to broaden their understanding of Southern expectations and experiences.

Distribute copies of “Richmond” and read the document introduction aloud. Students should work within their groups to read and analyze the article using the Text Document Analysis Worksheet. Once students have completed their worksheets, lead a discussion on the article. When was this article published? What event does the article describe? What are some of the descriptive words used to describe the importance of the occupation of Richmond? According to the article, what was the Union fighting for? How does the Union view “our fellow citizens with whom we have fought?” Why, according to the article, did these “fellow citizens” secede in the first place?

Based on what students have learned from the document introduction, how might the Republican leanings of *Harper’s Weekly* influence its point-of-view? How might a Southern woman like Mary Chesnut respond to this piece? Do you think she might welcome peace? Why or why not?

Distribute “Appomattox and Beyond” and have students take turns reading aloud quotations from Lincoln, Booth, Douglass, and Chesnut. As a class, review the spectrum of responses to Lee’s surrender among civilians. How can students account for the variety of responses? How might such diverse responses to Lee’s surrender spell trouble for reunification of the country?

### Unit Extension Activities

For further study, teachers might consider one of the following extension activities:

- Explore the April 22, 1865, edition of *Harper’s Weekly*, available at the New-York Historical Society Library or, by subscription, at [www.harperweek.com](http://www.harperweek.com). Students should look for pieces on Grant and Lee. What is the tone of the piece? How does *Harper’s* describe the two men and the peace they brokered? Students can compare this historic edition of *Harper’s* with other resources available online and at the local library. For example, students can compare this issue of *Harper’s* with the August 15, 1945, edition of *The New York Times* announcing victory over Japan and the end of World War II.
- Compare and contrast the peace agreement made between Grant and Lee with treaties ending other wars. Students can use the excerpt of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo included in these materials, for example, or find transcripts of other treaties on the Library of Congress website ([www.loc.gov](http://www.loc.gov)).
- Visit the Gilder Lehrman Institute’s online exhibition, “*I take up my pen*”: *Letters from the Civil War*, which contains digitized and transcribed letters from Union and Confederate soldiers writing to their families and friends at home. Students can consider what writing home meant to soldiers so far from home and the various events and people the soldiers describe in their letters.
- The phrase “With Malice Toward None” was part of Grant’s 1868 presidential campaign. Students can explore how memories of Lincoln and his plans for Reconstruction influenced Grant’s campaign and election. How did Grant’s campaign play on his military record and his new status as a civilian to win the election?

## Unit 4: Reconstruction and the Lost Cause

**Unit Aim:** Students will understand how fundamental disagreements over civil rights for freedmen and political authority in the former Confederate states resulted in violence and ultimately shaped the course of Reconstruction. Students will know the tenets of Lost Cause mythology and will understand how this myth pervaded popular culture and shaped collective memory of the Civil War for many years to come.

**In the Classroom:** Students explore legislation, primary documents, and various images to understand how different perspectives on the causes and outcomes of war and the rights for freed people shaped the course of Reconstruction.

**New York State Standards for Social Studies:** See page 27

### Lesson 1: Civil Rights for Freed People

**Aim:** To identify the key objectives in obtaining civil rights for freed people and to understand the role the federal government played in instilling and protecting these rights, and how white supremacist groups challenged these rights.

**Materials:**

Life Story: Grant

Resource 1: The Reconstruction Amendments

Resource 2: The Fifteenth Amendment (lithograph)

Resource 3: “Is *This* A Republican Form of Government?”

Begin by asking students to think about the relationship between freedom and the law. How does the legal system protect the rights of individuals? Can students think of certain rights that are specifically protected by the law? If it helps, students can think of the rules that protect their rights within the school community. What rules must administrators, teachers, and students follow to maintain equality and promote respect?

Have students read the “The Reconstruction Amendments” and the document introduction. Lead a conversation about each amendment, asking students to explain in their own words what these amendments do. Why was it necessary to pass these amendments following the Civil War? Would anyone object to these amendments? Why or why not?

Distribute copies of “The Fifteenth Amendment.” Ask students to identify the different activities represented in the various scenes depicted in the image. How are these activities related to the rights protected by the Fifteenth Amendment? According to the image, what social, political, and religious institutions does the Fifteenth Amendment protect? Do students recognize any of the people in this image? Why would the artist choose to include these particular people in an illustration celebrating the Fifteenth Amendment? What symbols does the artist utilize to represent the Fifteenth Amendment and the freedoms protected by it?

Distribute copies of “Is *This* A Republican Form of Government?” and ask students to describe the figure in the center of the image. What does his posture and expression convey about the scene around him? What is his relationship with the people in the foreground of the image? Ask students to describe the background of this scene. What has happened to the social, political, and cultural institutions protected by the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments? Who is responsible for destroying them? Look at the title and the image together. What is the artist’s message?

Have students note the dates of the two illustrations. How many years separate their publication? What does the time between them suggest about the need to enforce the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments?

Have students read the “Reconstruction” section of the Ulysses S. Grant Life Story. How did the two key political parties

differ over the protection of civil rights for freed people in the South? How did Grant use his powers as general and as president to protect the rights of freed people? According to the two images, were his efforts successful?

## **Lesson 2: New Orleans, 1866**

**Aim:** To learn about the 1866 New Orleans Riot and understand how violence shaped the course of Reconstruction.

### **Materials:**

Life Story: Sheridan

Resource 4: New Orleans Telegrams (4-A through 4-F)

Resource 5: "The N.O. Massacre"

Read the "Reconstruction" segment of Philip Sheridan's Life Story as a class. Discuss how Sheridan's role and responsibilities changed in the transition from war to peacetime.

Break class into groups and distribute the six "New Orleans Telegrams," one per group. Have students read their assigned telegram and identify the date and time the telegram was sent; the date and time the telegram was received; to whom the telegram was addressed; and who sent the telegram. Working within their group, students should summarize the message of the telegram. (Chart paper may be useful in recording group work.) Help students place the telegrams in chronological order to piece together the events in New Orleans (if chart paper has been used, a rough time line can be created on the classroom wall) and responses to these events in Washington, DC.

Lead students in a discussion. According to the telegrams, what sparked the disturbance in New Orleans? Do the telegrams present differing perspectives on this question? What role did the military play in maintaining order? The police? How would students describe the relationship between the military and the local governments of New Orleans and Louisiana? Between the military and the federal government? Students may refer to "What Are We to Do?" from Unit 3 for a sense of what Confederate soldiers feared when the war ended, and how these fears may have fueled racism and violence. Who do students think has power in this situation?

Distribute "The N.O. Massacre" to the entire class. Ask students to concentrate on the headlines alone to identify the subject and tone of the broadside. Explain that the reference to "My Policy" refers to President Johnson's plans for Reconstruction. Why would someone publish a broadside containing confidential military communication? Is the publisher identified? Why not? What can you tell about his or her point of view? Read the communication between Sheridan and Grant aloud. Does Sheridan's description of events in New Orleans reflect positively on Johnson's plans for Reconstruction? Who does Sheridan believe was behind the violence in New Orleans? According to Sheridan, what authority is maintaining peace in New Orleans? What are his recommendations for keeping peace in the future?

What does the violent disturbance in New Orleans reveal about the obstacles the federal government faced in reuniting the country in the wake of Civil War? What does this event reveal about the transition from a military occupation to a civilian society?

## **Lesson 3: Remembering the War**

**Aim:** To understand how competing memories shaped historical interpretation of the Civil War, its causes, and its outcomes.

**Materials:**

Life Stories: Grant and Early

Resource 6: Reflecting on Slavery and the Causes of the War

Ask students to think of a memory that is important to them -- a graduation, a birthday, or moving to a new home. Ask them how this memory has been recorded – photographs and photo albums, diaries, blogs, birthday cards, souvenirs, etc. Why are these objects so important to us? Are they important to other people? Do these objects tell the whole story? Are there any details missing?

Explain that after the Civil War, the men who fought in the war recorded their memories of wartime events. These memoirs are an important resource for learning about the war; however, like our photographs and diaries, they reflect the experiences and personalities of their authors. To understand them, we need to know about the people who wrote them.

Divide the class into pairs and assign half the pairs with the Life Story for Ulysses S. Grant and half with the Life Story for Jubal Early. Working together, each pair should complete a Character Development Worksheet for either Grant or Early. Then ask each pair to nominate a representative to fill in a biographical sketch for both Grant and Early on chart paper. Hang this chart paper at the front of the room.

Ask students to return to their pairs. Distribute “Reflecting on Slavery and the Causes of the War” and ask the pairs to read the excerpt written by the person in their Life Story. As they are reading, students should identify their author’s perspective. According to the author, who was responsible for the war? Was slavery a factor in the build-up to war? Why or why not? Ask students to share their author’s views on the start of the war, in their own words, to the rest of the class. The class should work together to understand why the authors held such different perspectives.

Do these excerpts tell the whole story about why the war began? Why or why not? What other resources would students need to better understand why the war started?

## **Lesson 4: The Lost Cause**

**Aim:** To recognize the basic tenets of Lost Cause mythology and its lasting impression in historical interpretations and popular culture representations of the Civil War.

**Materials:**

Life Stories: Early, Grant, Johnston, Lee, Longstreet, Sheridan, and Sherman

Resource 7: The Birth of the Lost Cause

Resource 5 (Unit 3): The Surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia

Resource 8: “The Lost Cause” by Currier and Ives

Resource 9: Unveiling of the Lee Memorial

Resource 10: “Let Us Have Peace, 1865”

Resource 11: “I Fought for Virginia”

Introduce this lesson by telling students that in 1867, Edward A. Pollard, wartime editor of the *Richmond Examiner*, proclaimed in his book, *The Lost Cause*, “All that is left in the South is the war of ideas.” Ask students what they think Pollard means by “war of ideas.” What ideas might have divided the North and the South after the war? How is a “war of ideas” different from a war fought with armies? What is at stake for both the North and the South in this war? How would a war like this be won?

Distribute “The Birth of the Lost Cause.” Have students work in pairs or groups of three to read and analyze these selections. What does Pollard think about Lee and Grant? How does Pollard present the differences between the North

and the South? According to Pollard, how did the South think the war would end? What are Pollard's views on slavery as a cause of the war? What, in Pollard's view, was the greatest factor contributing to the demise of the Confederacy? What was lost when the Confederate Army was defeated? Ask students to think about the "war of ideas" Pollard has declared. What ideas is Pollard promoting about the South, the North, and reunion of the nation? Do students think others may have supported Pollard in his "war of ideas?" If so, how? Introduce the Lost Cause myth and explain that this interpretation was very popular in the three decades following the Civil War and shaped the way Americans thought about the war.

Break students into groups and distribute Life Stories, assigning each group one Life Story. As a group, have students read the "Reconstruction and the Lost Cause" portion of their assigned Life Story. As a class, students should share how the person in their Life Story was part of, contributed to, or challenged Lost Cause mythology. Students should be specific to the particular points made by Pollard in the selections from *The Lost Cause*.

Reorganize students into groups and assign each group one of the following media images: "The Surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia," "The Lost Cause," "Unveiling of the Lee Memorial," "Let Us Have Peace," and "I Fought for Virginia." Using the Image Analysis Worksheet, students should work together to examine their assigned images. As they are working, students should pay particular attention to the type of resource they are examining. Is their resource a photograph, a drawing, a painting, or a poster? What is the date of the image? Who created the image and why might they have done so? Who would have seen the image, or purchased it, and why? Once students have completed their worksheets, ask each group to present their image and their analysis of it with the rest of the class.

Lead a discussion about how these images reflect the Lost Cause myth. Ask students to be specific: What people, places, or events represented in these images symbolize the Lost Cause? What do these images reveal about the pervasiveness of the Lost Cause myth? Students should reflect on the variety of media, the commercial nature of some of the images, and the years that separate them. In what ways do these images indicate how the Lost Cause myth has shaped historical and popular understandings of the war? Can students think of other examples, perhaps movies, television shows, or popular songs, in which the Lost Cause myth is embraced and celebrated? Does their new understanding of the Lost Cause and its symbols change the way students think about the war and Reconstruction? Does it affect the way they think about history and how it is presented in different forms of media?

## Unit Extension Activities

For further study, teachers might consider one of the following extension activities:

- Develop Lesson 4, "The Lost Cause," into a larger media study by watching and analyzing films such as *The Birth of a Nation*, *Gone with the Wind*, *Show Boat* (1936 and 1951 editions), *Gods and Generals*, and *Gettysburg*. Students can explore the similarities and differences in the ways in which these films represent the Civil War, its causes, and its outcomes. (NB: Teachers should be aware that some of these films contain severe distortions of U.S. history, as well as significant and offensive racial stereotypes.)
- Conduct an oral history project to help students explore the relationship between memory and history. Students can interview a family member or member of the community about a particular event from living history (for example, the Civil Rights Movement, the Korean War, or JFK's assassination). In doing so, students can think critically about historical interpretation and identify the role that memory plays in our understanding of the past.
- Deepen students' understanding of Reconstruction and the Lost Cause through a study of the Civil Rights Movement. Students can explore how issues of equal rights and protection under the law left unresolved in the wake of the Civil War and the emancipation of slaves laid the foundations for the Civil Rights Movement of the 1950s and 1960s.

## New York State Standards for Social Studies

### New York State Social Studies Standards: Intermediate

| <b>History of the United States and New York</b>  |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
|---|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| Use a variety of intellectual skills to demonstrate their understanding of major ideas, eras, themes, developments, and turning points in the history of the United States and New York.  |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| <b>Key Idea 1: The study of New York State and United States history requires an analysis of the development of American culture</b>  |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
|   | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1.3 | 2.1 | 2.2 | 2.3 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 3.3 | 3.4 | 4.1 | 4.2 | 4.3 | 4.4 |
| explore the meaning of American culture by identifying the key ideas, beliefs, and patterns of behavior, and traditions that help define it and unite all Americans   | X   | X   | X   |     |     | X   |     |     | X   | X   |     |     |     |     |
| interpret the ideas, values, and beliefs contained in the Declaration of Independence and the New York State Constitution and United States Constitution, Bill of Rights, and other important historical documents  |     |     |     | X   |     | X   | X   | X   |     |     | X   |     |     |     |
| <b>Key Idea 2: Important ideas, social and cultural values, beliefs, and traditions from New York State and United States history illustrate the connections and interactions of people and events across time and from a variety of perspectives.</b>  |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| describe the reasons for periodizing history in different ways  |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     | X   |     |     | X   |
| investigate key turning points in New York State and United States history and explain why these events or developments are significant   |     |     |     | X   |     | X   | X   | X   | X   | X   | X   |     | X   |     |
| understand the relationship between the relative importance of United States domestic and foreign policies over time  |     |     |     | X   |     | X   |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| analyze the role played by the United States in international politics, past and present  |     |     |     | X   | X   | X   |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| <b>Key Idea 3: Study about the major social, political, economic, cultural, and religious developments in New York State and United States history involves learning about the important roles and contributions of individuals and groups.</b>   |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| complete well-documented and historically accurate case studies about individuals and groups who represent different ethnic, national, and religious groups, including Native American Indians, in New York State and the United States at different times and in different locations   | X   | X   | X   | X   | X   |     | X   |     | X   | X   |     |     |     | X   |
| gather and organize information about the important achievements and contributions of individuals and groups living in New York State and the United States   | X   | X   | X   | X   |     |     | X   |     |     |     |     |     |     | X   |
| describe how ordinary people and famous historic figures in the local community, State, and the United States have advanced the fundamental democratic values, beliefs, and traditions expressed in the Declaration of Independence, the New York State and United States Constitutions, the Bill of Rights, and other important historic documents |     |     | X   | X   |     | X   | X   |     | X   | X   | X   |     | X   | X   |

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| classify major developments into categories such as social, political, economic, geographic, technological, scientific, cultural, or religious   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   | X |   | X | X |   | X |
| <b>Key Idea 4: The skills of historical analysis include the ability to: explain the significance of historical evidence; weigh the importance, reliability, and validity of evidence; understand the concept of multiple causation; understand the importance of changing and competing interpretations of different historical developments.</b>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| consider the sources of historic documents, narratives, or artifacts and evaluate their reliability  | X |   |   | X | X |   |   | X | X | X | X | X | X |   |
| understand how different experiences, beliefs, values, traditions, and motives cause individuals and groups to interpret historic events and issues from different perspectives  | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| compare and contrast different interpretations of key events and issues in New York State and United States history and explain reasons for these different accounts   | X |   | X | X | X | X | X |   | X | X | X |   | X | X |
| describe historic events through the eyes and experiences of those who were there. (Taken from National Standards for History for Grades K-4)  | X | X | X | X |   | X | X | X | X | X |   |   | X | X |
| <b>World History</b>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Use a variety of intellectual skills to demonstrate their understanding of major ideas, eras, themes, developments, and turning points in world history and examine the broad sweep of history from a variety of perspectives.   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| <b>Key Idea 1: The study of world history requires an understanding of world cultures and civilizations, including an analysis of important ideas, social and cultural values, beliefs, and traditions. This study also examines the human condition and the connections and interactions of people across time and space and the ways different people view the same event or issue from a variety of perspectives.</b> |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| know the social and economic characteristics, such as customs, traditions, child-rearing practices, ways of making a living, education and socialization practices, gender roles, foods, and religious and spiritual beliefs that distinguish different cultures and civilizations   | X | X | X | X | X |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| know some important historic events and developments of past civilizations   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| interpret and analyze documents and artifacts related to significant developments and events in world history  |   |   |   | X | X | X |   | X | X | X | X |   |   |   |
| <b>Key Idea 2: Establishing timeframes, exploring different periodizations, examining themes across time and within cultures, and focusing on important turning points in world history help organize the study of world cultures and civilizations.</b>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| develop time lines by placing important events and developments in world history in their correct chronological order  |   |   |   |   |   |   | X |   |   | X |   |   |   |   |
| measure time periods by years, decades, centuries, and millennia   |   |   | X |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| study about major turning points in world history by investigating the causes and other factors that brought about change and the results of these changes   |   |   |   | X |   | X |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |

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| <b>Key Idea 3: Study of the major social, political, cultural, and religious developments in world history involves learning about the important roles and contributions of individuals and groups.</b>   |   |  |   |   |   |   |   |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| investigate the roles and contributions of individuals and groups in relation to key social, political, cultural, and religious practices throughout world history  |   |  |   | X | X | X |   |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| interpret and analyze documents and artifacts related to significant developments and events in world history   |   |  | X | X | X | X |   |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| classify historic information according to the type of activity or practice: social/cultural, political, economic, geographic, scientific, technological, and historic  |   |  | X | X | X |   |   |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| <b>Key Idea 4: The skills of historical analysis include the ability to investigate differing and competing interpretations of the theories of history, hypothesize about why interpretations change over time, explain the importance of historical evidence, and understand the concepts of change and continuity over time.</b>  |   |  |   |   |   |   |   |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| explain the literal meaning of a historical passage or primary source document, identifying who was involved, what happened, where it happened, what events led up to these developments, and what consequences or outcomes followed (Taken from National Standards for World History)  |   |  |   | X |   | X |   |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| analyze different interpretations of important events and themes in world history and explain the various frames of reference expressed by different historians   |   |  |   | X | X | X |   |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| view history through the eyes of those who witnessed key events and developments in world history by analyzing their literature, diary accounts, letters, artifacts, art, music, architectural drawings, and other documents  |   |  |   | X | X | X |   |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| investigate important events and developments in world history by posing analytical questions, selecting relevant data, distinguishing fact from opinion, hypothesizing cause-and-effect relationships, testing these hypotheses, and forming conclusions   |   |  |   | X | X | X |   |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| <b>Geography</b><br>Use a variety of intellectual skills to demonstrate their understanding of the geography of the interdependent world in which we live—local, national, and global—including the distribution of people, places, and environments over the Earth’s surface.  |   |  |   |   |   |   |   |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| <b>Key Idea 1: Geography can be divided into six essential elements which can be used to analyze important historic, geographic, economic, and environmental questions and issues. These six elements include: the world in spatial terms, places and regions, physical settings (including natural resources), human systems, environment and society, and the use of geography. (Adapted from The National Geography Standards, 1994: Geography for Life)</b> |   |  |   |   |   |   |   |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| map information about people, places, and environments  |   |  |   |   |   | X | X |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| understand the characteristics, functions, and applications of maps, globes, aerial and other photographs, satellite-produced images, and models (Taken from National Geography Standards, 1994)  |   |  |   | X |   | X |   |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| investigate why people and places are   | X |  | X | X |   | X | X |  |  |  |  |  |  |

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| located where they are located and what patterns can be perceived in these locations   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |   |   |
| describe the relationships between people and environments and the connections between people and places   | X |   | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |  |   | X |
| <b>Key Idea 2: Geography requires the development and application of the skills of asking and answering geographic questions; analyzing theories of geography; and acquiring, organizing, and analyzing geographic information. (Adapted from: The National Geography Standards, 1994: Geography for Life)</b>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |   |   |
| formulate geographic questions and define geographic issues and problems   |   |   |   | X | X | X | X |   |   |   |   |   |  |   |   |
| use a number of research skills (e.g., computer databases, periodicals, census reports, maps, standard reference works, interviews, surveys) to locate and gather geographical information about issues and problems (Adapted from National Geography Standards, 1994)   |   |   |   | X |   |   |   | X |   |   |   |   |  |   |   |
| present geographic information in a variety of formats, including maps, tables, graphs, charts, diagrams, and computer-generated models  |   |   |   | X |   |   |   | X |   |   |   |   |  |   |   |
| interpret geographic information by synthesizing data and developing conclusions and generalizations about geographic issues and problems  |   |   |   | X |   |   | X | X |   |   |   |   |  |   |   |
| <b>Economics</b><br>Use a variety of intellectual skills to demonstrate their understanding of how the United States and other societies develop economic systems and associated institutions to allocate scarce resources, how major decision-making units function in the U.S. and other national economies, and how an economy solves the scarcity problem through market and nonmarket mechanisms. |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |   |   |
| <b>Key Idea 1: The study of economics requires an understanding of major economic concepts and systems, the principles of economic decision making, and the interdependence of economies and economic systems throughout the world.</b>  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |   |   |
| explain how societies and nations attempt to satisfy their basic needs and wants by utilizing scarce capital, natural, and human resources   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   | X | X |   |   | X |  | X | X |
| define basic economic concepts such as scarcity, supply and demand, markets, opportunity costs, resources, productivity, economic growth, and systems  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |   |   |
| understand how scarcity requires people and nations to make choices which involve costs and future considerations  | X | X | X |   |   |   |   | X | X |   |   | X |  |   | X |
| understand how people in the United States and throughout the world are both producers and consumers of goods and services   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   | X | X |   |   |   |  |   |   |
| investigate how people in the United States and throughout the world answer the three fundamental economic questions and solve basic economic problems   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |   |   |
| describe how traditional, command, market, and mixed economies answer the three fundamental economic questions   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |  |   |   |
| explain how nations throughout the world   |   |   |   |   |   |   | X |   |   |   |   |   |  |   |   |

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| have joined with one another to promote economic development and growth   |  |  |  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| <b>Key Idea 2: Economics requires the development and application of the skills needed to make informed and well-reasoned economic decisions in daily and national life.</b>  |  |  |  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| identify and collect economic information from standard reference works, newspapers, periodicals, computer databases, textbooks, and other primary and secondary sources  |  |  |  | X |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   | X |   |
| organize and classify economic information by distinguishing relevant from irrelevant information, placing ideas in chronological order, and selecting appropriate labels for data  |  |  |  |   |   |   |   | X |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| evaluate economic data by differentiating fact from opinion and identifying frames of reference   |  |  |  | X |   | X | X | X |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| develop conclusions about economic issues and problems by creating broad statements which summarize findings and solutions  |  |  |  | X |   | X | X | X |   |   |   | X |   |   |
| present economic information by using media and other appropriate visuals such as tables, charts, and graphs to communicate ideas and conclusions   |  |  |  |   |   |   |   | X |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| <b>Civics, Citizenship, and Government</b>  |  |  |  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Use a variety of intellectual skills to demonstrate their understanding of the necessity for establishing governments; the governmental system of the U.S. and other nations; the U.S. Constitution; the basic civic values of American constitutional democracy; and the roles, rights, and responsibilities of citizenship, including avenues of participation.   |  |  |  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| <b>Key Idea 1: The study of civics, citizenship, and government involves learning about political systems; the purposes of government and civic life; and the differing assumptions held by people across time and place regarding power, authority, governance, and law. (Adapted from The National Standards for Civics and Government, 1994)</b>   |  |  |  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| analyze how the values of a nation affect the guarantee of human rights and make provisions for human needs   |  |  |  | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| consider the nature and evolution of constitutional democracies   |  |  |  | X |   | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| explore the rights of citizens in other parts of the hemisphere and determine how they are similar to and different from the rights of American citizens  |  |  |  | X | X | X |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| analyze the sources of a nation's values as embodied in its constitution, statutes, and important court cases   |  |  |  | X |   | X | X | X |   |   | X | X |   |   |
| <b>Key Idea 2: The state and federal governments established by the Constitutions of the United States and the State of New York embody basic civic values (such as justice, honesty, self-discipline, due process, equality, majority rule with respect for minority rights, and respect for self, others, and property), principles, and practices and establish a system of shared and limited government. (Adapted from The National Standards for Civics and Government, 1994)</b> |  |  |  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| understand how civic values reflected in United States and New York State Constitutions have been implemented through laws and practices  |  |  |  | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| understand that the New York State Constitution, along with a number of other documents, served as a model for the development of the United States Constitution  |  |  |  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |

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|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| compare and contrast the development and evolution of the constitutions of the United States and New York State   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| define federalism and describe the powers granted the national and state governments by the United States Constitution  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| value the principles, ideals, and core values of the American democratic system based upon the premises of human dignity, liberty, justice, and equality  |   |   |   | X |   | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |   |
| understand how the United States and New York State Constitutions support majority rule but also protect the rights of the minority   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   | X | X |   |   |
| <b>Key Idea 3: Central to civics and citizenship is an understanding of the roles of the citizen within American constitutional democracy and the scope of a citizen's rights and responsibilities.</b>   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| explain what citizenship means in a democratic society, how citizenship is defined in the Constitution and other laws of the land, and how the definition of citizenship has changed in the United States and New York State over time  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   | X | X | X | X | X |   | X |
| understand that the American legal and political systems guarantee and protect the rights of citizens and assume that citizens will hold and exercise certain civic values and fulfill certain civic responsibilities   |   |   |   |   | X |   | X | X | X | X | X |   |   | X |
| discuss the role of an informed citizen in today's changing world   |   |   |   |   | X |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| explain how Americans are citizens of their states and of the United States   | X | X | X | X |   |   | X | X | X | X | X |   | X | X |
| <b>Key Idea 4: The study of civics and citizenship requires the ability to probe ideas and assumptions, ask and answer analytical questions, take a skeptical attitude toward questionable arguments, evaluate evidence, formulate rational conclusions, and develop and refine participatory skills.</b> |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| respect the rights of others in discussions and classroom debates regardless of whether or not one agrees with their viewpoint  | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| explain the role that civility plays in promoting effective citizenship in preserving democracy   |   |   |   | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |   |   | X |
| participate in negotiation and compromise to resolve classroom, school, and community disagreements and problems  |   |   |   | X | X | X | X | X | X |   |   |   |   | X |

## Document Analysis Worksheet

Student's Name:

Date:

### Document Details

Title of document:

Unit number and document number (printed on document):

Type of document:

Date of document:

Author or creator of document:

### Questions to Consider

Why and for whom was this document written?

How does the document signal the writer's point of view?

What are the 2 or 3 most important points the author is trying to make?

What question or questions are left unanswered by the document?

## Character Development Worksheet

Student's Name:

Date:

### Known Details

Use this part of this worksheet to record available information about a person featured in a life story or primary source document.

What was the person's name?

What was the person's role in the story told in the unit?

What *Grant & Lee* materials are your sources of information?

Briefly, what do you know about the person? (Think of family, home, work, political or religious affiliations.)

### Interpretation

Use this part of this worksheet to speculate about the character, based on what you have learned from the documents in *Grant & Lee* and other classroom work.

What important details are missing from the person's life? What questions would you ask the character, if you could meet him or her? Based on your reading, how would you begin to answer those questions on this person's behalf? Use the context of history to think about the answers that make the most sense. See if you can start to bring the person to life in your mind.

## Image and Artifact Analysis Worksheet

Student's Name:

Date:

### Image Details

Title or caption of image:

Unit number and document number (printed on document):

Type of image:

Date of image:

Artist's name:

Major objects or people shown:

### Questions to Consider

Why and for whom was this image created?

How does the image signal the artist's point of view?

What are the 2 or 3 most important points the artist is trying to make?

What question or questions are left unanswered by the image?

## Glossary

### ARMY

In both the North and the South, this term referred to the largest forces in the field. Each side had several armies. In the North, they were generally named for rivers (The Army of the Potomac). Armies in the South were often named for states or geographic regions (The Army of Northern Virginia).

The organizational structure was virtually identical in the Union and the Confederacy. The terms below, listed from smallest to largest, refer to the number of men and to the rank of the commanding officer. As the war went on, the units did not operate at full manpower.

*Company.* Usually 10 men, commanded by a captain.

*Regiment.* Usually 19 companies, commanded by a colonel.

*Brigade.* A unit usually composed of four to six regiments, commanded by a brigadier general.

*Division.* A unit composed of as many as six brigades. Divisions in the South were commanded by a major general and were often larger than divisions in the North, which were commanded by a brigadier general or major general.

*Corps.* Two or more divisions, commanded in the North by a brigadier general or major general, and by a lieutenant general in the Confederacy.

*Army.* Usually two or more corps, commanded by a major general in the Union, or by a general in the Confederacy.

### BAYONET

A knife-like weapon that is attached to the end of a gun for hand-to-hand combat.

### BREVET

An honorary and usually temporary promotion, often awarded after bravery on the battlefield. During the Civil War, brevet promotions were often made permanent.

### CAVALRY

The branch of the Army trained to fight on horseback, as opposed to on foot.

### CONFEDERATE STATES OF AMERICA

During the Civil War, this term, and the initials CSA, identified the 11 states that seceded from the Union and considered themselves a separate nation: South Carolina, Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, North Carolina, Virginia, and Tennessee.

### GENERAL

The highest rank in the Army. At the beginning of the Civil War, the Union had two grades of general. Brigadier general was the lower of the two, and was noted by a single star. Major general was noted by two stars. In March 1864, Ulysses S. Grant became the first to hold the rank of lieutenant general, with three stars. At the same time he was named General in Chief of the Union forces, in March 1864, but this was a role, not a rank. After the war, he was promoted to full general, with four stars.

The Confederate Army had four grades of general: brigadier general, major general, lieutenant general, and general. Robert E. Lee was a full general and was named General in Chief on January 31, 1865.

### INFANTRY

The branch of the Army trained to fight on foot, as opposed to on horseback.

**INST.**

An abbreviation for “instant,” used in 19th-century letters to refer to the month the letter was written. A different term, “ult.” (for “ultimo”), referred to the previous month.

**PROVISIONAL ARMY**

In the Confederacy, the term used for the Army that was fighting the Civil War. Jefferson Davis expected that when the South won, a Regular Army would be established for the Confederate States of America.

**RECONNAISSANCE**

A search for useful military information, such as enemy positions or movements.

**REGULAR ARMY**

The permanent Army of the United States. It referred to the small peacetime Army (about 16,000 officers and men) that had been in place before the Civil War began. Authorized to increase its size to about 22,000 men, the Regular Army remained a separate service throughout the war. For the Volunteer Army, see below.

**UNITED STATES COLORED TROOPS**

Regiments of African American volunteers that were established by the U.S. War Department in May 1863 and were active throughout the remainder of the war. For more information about the U.S. Colored Troops (USCT), see “Who Will Fight the War?” This unit of *New York Divided* can be found on at [www.nydivided.org](http://www.nydivided.org).

**UNITED STATES OF AMERICA**

During the Civil War, this term identified the northern states, fighting for maintaining the union. Among the Confederates, soldiers fighting for the United States were called Federals.

**VOLUNTEERS**

Both the Union and Confederate armies were initially made up of men who volunteered to fight. As the war went on, both sides began drafting soldiers. In the North, draftees and volunteers were all part of what was known as the Volunteer Army, and accounted for the vast majority of the fighting force. They were distinguished from the Regular Army (see above). The Confederacy used the term “Provisional Army” for its combined draftee and volunteer force.

**Sources:** *The Library of Congress Civil War Desk Reference*, Margaret E. Wagner, Gary W. Gallagher, and Paul Finkelman, eds., (New York: Simon and Shuster, 2002); Richter, William L., *Historical Dictionary of the Civil War and Reconstruction* (Lanham, Maryland: The Scarecrow Press, Inc., 2004).

## Classroom Resources

### New-York Historical Society Education Materials

“Who Will Fight the War?” This is the third and last unit of the classroom materials for *New York Divided*, the 2006-2007 N-YHS exhibition focused on New York City before and during the Civil War. In exploring the effort to raise a regiment of black soldiers to fight for the Union, the unit provides a life story of Lt. Walter Thorn. Thorn was a member of the United States Colored Troops, whose regiment was part of the massive Union assault on Richmond, Virginia, in the last months of the war. A PDF can be accessed online at [www.newyorkdivided.org](http://www.newyorkdivided.org). Click on Education.

*Big River* and *Show Boat* Curriculum Guides, American Musicals Project. The curriculum guides, which are part of the American Musicals Project at the N-YHS, address the issues of slavery and Reconstruction using the classic American musicals *Big River* and *Show Boat* as well as an array of primary source materials from the collection of the N-YHS. To learn more about the American Musicals Project and how to obtain these materials, contact 212-485-9283 or [amp@nyhistory.org](mailto:amp@nyhistory.org).

### Websites

“The Mexican American War.” [http://www.pbs.org/keraweb/usmexicanwar/index\\_flash.html](http://www.pbs.org/keraweb/usmexicanwar/index_flash.html). This website explores the war in detail and includes short biographies of both American and Mexican people who played significant roles.

“A Guide to the Mexican War.” <http://www.loc.gov/rr/program/bib/mexicanwar/>. This Library of Congress website provides an overview of its collections about this war and includes a link to “California as I Saw It: First-Person Narratives of California’s Early Years, 1849-1900.” The “about the collection” section provides titles about California written by African Americans, Chileans, Native Americans, and women. The website of the American memory collection at the Library of Congress, <http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/index.html>, is easily searched for primary materials related to individual people and topics, including West Point, Reconstruction, etc.

“The Valley of the Shadow: Two Communities in the American Civil War.” <http://valley.vcdh.virginia.edu>. This extensive collection of letters, diaries, newspaper accounts, and public records exploring the lives of people in Augusta County, Virginia, and Franklin County, Pennsylvania, provides personal perspectives from both the North and the South between 1859 and 1870.

“I take up my pen”: Letters from the Civil War. <http://www.gilderlehrman.org/collection/online/gettysburg/index.html>. Adapted from an exhibition of original Civil War soldiers’ letters on display at the new Museum and Visitor Center at Gettysburg National Park, this collection contains more than 12,000 Civil War soldiers’ letters.

“Documenting the American South.” <http://docsouth.unc.edu>. A varied digitized collection of books, diaries, letters, oral histories, and other media, this website offers the Southern perspective on American history and culture.

The Library of Congress has several online Civil War collections, including one devoted to the Civil War holdings of the New-York Historical Society.

For band music of the Civil War era:

<http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/cwmhtml/cwmhome.html>

For Civil War treasures from the New-York Historical Society:

<http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/ndlpcop/nhihtml/cwnyhshome.html>

For Civil War maps:

[http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/collections/civil\\_war\\_maps/](http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/collections/civil_war_maps/)

For the Papers of Tilton C. Reynolds of the 105th Pennsylvania Volunteers:

<http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/collections/tcreynolds/>

For the Civil War diary of Horatio Nelson Taft, who worked for the U.S. Patent office in Washington, D.C., and whose physician's son tended the mortally wounded Abraham Lincoln:

<http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/tafthtml/tafthome.html>

For Civil War photographs:

<http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/cwphtml/cwphome.html>

## Children's Books

Armstrong, Jennifer, *Photo by Brady: A Picture of the Civil War*. New York: Atheneum Books for Young Readers, 2005. A book about Matthew Brady's photography studio, which sent Alexander Gardner and Timothy O'Sullivan into the battlefield and created a huge library of war photos. Some photographs in this book show dead soldiers. Non-fiction.

Garland, Sherry, *The Buffalo Soldier*. Gretna, Louisiana: Pelican Publishing Company, Inc., 2006. A picture book about a young black man who enlists in the Army after the Civil War and fights in the Indian wars and later the Spanish American War. It is written in the first person, in free verse. Fiction.

Lewis, J. Patrick, *The Brothers' War: Civil War Voices in Verse*. Washington, D.C.: National Geographic, 2007. The author is a poet who writes for children. This book presents poems on Civil War subjects – John Brown at Harpers Ferry, the battle of Bull Run, Sherman's March – accompanied by photographs from the war. Some of the photographs show dead bodies, whipped slaves, and amputees. Non-fiction.

Rappaport, Doreen, and Verniero, Joan. *United No More: Stories of the Civil War*. New York: HarperCollins, 2006. A collection of seven profiles of people on both sides of the Civil War, including three women, a member of the 54th Regiment of the United States Colored Troops, and Grant and Lee at Appomattox. Non-fiction.

## Suggested Reading List

### **GRANT**

Josiah Bunting, III, *Ulysses S. Grant*

Ulysses S. Grant, *Memoirs of the Civil War*

Horace Porter, *Campaigning with Grant*

Brooks D. Simpson, *Ulysses S. Grant: Triumph Over Adversity, 1822-1865*

Jean Edward Smith, *Grant*

### **LEE**

Roy Blount, Jr. *Robert E. Lee*

D.S. Freeman, *Lee's Lieutenants*

Gary Gallagher, *Lee and His Generals in War and Memory*

Alan Nolan, *Lee Reconsidered*

Elizabeth Brown Pryor, *Reading the Man: A Portrait of Robert E. Lee Through His Private Letters*

Emory Thomas, *Robert E. Lee: A Biography*

**MEXICAN AMERICAN WAR**

Samuel Chamberlain, *My Confession*

John D. Eisenhower, *So Far From God*

Paul Foos, *Short Offhand Killing Affair: Soldiers and Social Conflict during the Mexican American War*

Krystyna M. Libura, Luis Gerardo Morales Moreno, Jesus Velasco Marquez, eds., *Echoes of the Mexican-American War*

Michael A. Morrison, *Slavery and the West: The Eclipse of Manifest Destiny*

**JOHN BROWN**

David Reynolds, *John Brown: Abolitionist*

Peggy A. Russo and Paul Finkelman, eds., *Terrible Swift Sword: The Legacy of John Brown*

**CIVIL WAR**

Alfred Bellard, *Gone for a Soldier*

Ira Berlin, Joseph P. Reidy, Leslie S. Rowland, eds., *Freedom's Soldiers: The Black Military Experience in the Civil War*

John D. Billings, *Hardtack and Coffee*

Gabor Boritt, ed., *Why the Confederacy Lost*

Gary W. Gallagher and Joseph T. Glatthaar, eds., *Leaders of the Lost Cause: New Perspectives on the Confederate High Command*

Joseph T. Glatthaar, *Forged in Battle: The Civil War Alliance of Black Soldiers and White Officers*

Janet Sharp Hermann, *The Pursuit of a Dream*

Thomas Wentworth Higginson, *Army Life in a Black Regiment* (1870)

A. Humphreys, *The Virginia Campaign of 1864*

James M. McPherson, *Battle Cry of Freedom, This Mighty Scourge*

Elisha Hunt Rhodes, *All for the Union*

R. K. Sneden, *Eye of the Storm*

Sam Watkins, *Company Aytch*

**GENDER AND ETHNIC DIVERSITY IN THE CIVIL WAR**

Lauren Cook Burgess, *An Uncommon Soldier*

Lauren Cook and Deanne Blanton, *They Fought Like Demons: Women Soldiers of the Civil War*

Joyce Hansen, *Between Two Fires*

Lawrence M. Hauptmann, *Between Two Fires: American Indians in the Civil War*

Alvin Josephy, *Civil War in the American West*

Leizabeth D. Leonard, *All the Daring of the Soldier: Women in the Civil War Armies*

**RECONSTRUCTION**

Eric Foner, *Reconstruction*

James Hogue, *Uncivil War*

Nicholas Lemann, *Redemption*

**LOST CAUSE**

David Blight, *Race and Reunion*

Bruce Chadwick, *The Reel Civil War: Mythmaking in American Film*

Alice Fahs, *The Imagined Civil War*

Gary W. Gallagher and Alan T. Nolan, *The Myth of the Lost Cause and Civil War History*

# Grant & Lee

## In War and Peace

The exhibition *Grant and Lee in War and Peace* is organized by the New-York Historical Society in collaboration with the sister project of *Lee and Grant*, and they share many objects. *Lee and Grant* was organized by the Virginia Historical Society in partnership with the New-York Historical Society, Washington and Lee University, the Museum of the Confederacy, the Civil War and Underground Railroad Museum of Philadelphia, Arlington—the Robert E. Lee Memorial, and Stratford Hall—the Birthplace of Robert E. Lee. *Lee and Grant* was made possible by the National Endowment for the Humanities: great ideas brought to life.

Casting a dramatic new light on the events that defined a nation, from the conflicts and rivalries of a fast-growing young republic to the fitful efforts at reconstruction after a terrible Civil War, *Grant and Lee in War and Peace* explores the most critical decades in American history through the lives of two towering men. By telling the stories of Ulysses S. Grant (1822–1885), commander of the Union armies and later 18th President of the United States, and of Robert E. Lee (1807–1870), commander of the Confederate forces, the exhibition brings to life not only these two compelling figures but the forces that have shaped America, in their time and our own.

### Exhibition Dates

October 17, 2008 through March 29, 2009

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New York, New York 10024  
212-873-3400 [nyhistory.org](http://nyhistory.org)



Mathew Brady, *Grant at Cold Harbor*, 1864, New-York Historical Society.

## **Ulysses S. Grant** **1822-1885**

All his life, Ulysses S. Grant thought of himself as a Westerner. He was born in Ohio when this was America's frontier. He grew up loving horses, and he had a skill and connection with them that everyone noticed. He was shy, something of a loner. Around his hometown, people did not think he would ever amount to much.

### **West Point**

West Point was his father's idea. Grant did not want to go, had no interest in military life, and expected to flunk out. Maybe this is why he did not speak up during his application process when his birth name, Hiram Ulysses, was mistakenly written as Ulysses Simpson; he just accepted the name. On September 22, 1839, four months after he arrived at West Point, he wrote to a cousin and made fun of his new life. *My pants sit as tight to my skin as the bark to a tree and if I do not walk military. that is if I bend over quickly or run. they are very apt to crack with a report as loud as a pistol. my coat must always be buttoned up tight to the chin.... If you were to see me at a distance. The first question you would ask would be. "is that a Fish or an animal?"*

Ulysses S. Grant never did like Army uniforms, or the endless regulations of the military. A so-so student, he was recognized mostly for his extraordinary horsemanship and his perseverance: he stuck with tasks until they were done. A classmate later recalled that all the cadets had considered Grant a good mathematician, and that everyone had liked him. But Grant was reserved, and the social life at West Point made him even more reserved. Many cadets were wealthy young Southerners whom Grant did not feel comfortable with, although James Longstreet, a non-aristocrat from rural Georgia, became a lifelong friend.

Because he finished things he started, Grant made it to graduation in 1843, ranking 21st in a class of 39. He

hoped to return to West Point to teach math, so he remained in the Army. Despite his skill with horses, his low class rank earned him a place in the infantry, not the cavalry. During these years, young officers were posted to far-flung parts of the country as the nation extended its reach toward the south and west. Grant's regiment was sent to Jefferson Barracks, just south of St. Louis. This post was the Army's major headquarters on the Mississippi River. Settlers were heading further west toward the Great Plains, and the Army's job was to protect them from Indian raiders.

## **The Mexican American War**

In May 1844, about a year after graduating from West Point, Grant's regiment joined General Zachary Taylor's troops on the Texas-Mexico border in a show of force meant to intimidate Mexico. The immediate question was whether Mexico would accept America's annexation of Texas, but the United States had its eye on the vast Mexican territory between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Ocean. Americans believed it was this nation's destiny to stretch from coast to coast. Pro-slavery forces were especially eager for new territory because they hoped it would spread slavery.

Congress declared war on Mexico in May 1845, and Grant saw battle for the first time. He was 23 years old. Leading his company, he was always cool under fire, a trait noted by those who served with him throughout his life. When General Taylor ordered the Army toward Monterrey, deep in Mexican territory, Grant was named quartermaster, the officer responsible for feeding, moving, and supplying the regiment. He proved to be extremely good at it. Once, he volunteered to take his horse, Nellie, and race through sniper territory to secure ammunition. He protected himself by hanging off the side of the horse like a stunt man in a movie.

Grant continued as quartermaster, but when there were battles, he wanted to be in the thick of it. He saw action at Cerro Gordo, at Molino del Rey near Mexico City, and five days later at Chaturtepec, the decisive battle of the war. He believed his country misused its power against Mexico, but he learned the realities of war in this campaign, was promoted for his bravery, and met many of the men he would fight with and against in the Civil War.

Shortly after the war with Mexico, in the summer of 1848, Grant married Julia Dent, the cousin of his West Point friend (and best man) James Longstreet. His marriage brought the national debate over slavery squarely into his personal life. Grant's own father was a committed abolitionist. His new father-in-law ran a plantation, owned many slaves, and saw nothing wrong with it. This caused some arguments between Grant and his in-laws. Later, Julia Grant relied on slaves for help when her children were young, and Grant himself owned a slave for a time, freeing the man shortly before the Civil War.

In 1852, Grant was posted to forts in California and Oregon, and he entered a miserable time in his life. Frustrated and lonely without his family, he began drinking, sometimes heavily. After he was discovered drunk on duty, he resigned from the Army. He returned to his family and tried a number of civilian jobs, without much success. In the spring of 1860 he moved back to his hometown in Ohio to work with his brothers in a leather store.

## Appomattox

Ulysses S. Grant returned to the Army when the Civil War began in 1861. Some of the stories of his heavy drinking may have been exaggerated and made worse by gossip, but they were told and held against him. His friends had to pull strings to get him a unit to command, and later a promotion to Brigadier General. At this point he began to show the focus and determination that would make him a winner on the battlefield. In early 1862, he led a successful attack on Fort Donelson, in northern Tennessee. The Confederate in charge was an old West Point friend named Simon Buckner, who had once lent Grant money. Buckner may have expected gentle treatment when he asked for the terms of surrender, but Grant responded that there were “no terms except immediate and unconditional surrender.” The North had been losing many battles, and this tough stance and victory made Grant a hero. People said that his initials, U.S., stood for “unconditional surrender.”

Grant’s next victory was at Shiloh, but the North was shocked by the 13,000 Union soldiers lost or wounded. There were stories of Grant sitting alone and whittling during battles, not seeming to care that he had sent so many to their deaths. People thought his celebrated coolness under pressure was really just coldness. President Lincoln overlooked the criticisms. “I can’t spare this man; he fights.”

In 1863, after Grant’s long siege and hard-won victory at Vicksburg, Lincoln put him in charge of the entire Union Army. General Grant established his headquarters with the Army of the Potomac and began his long face-off with Robert E. Lee in Virginia. With a larger, better-equipped Army, Grant pressured Lee relentlessly, but the cost was staggering. At the Battle of Cold Harbor, 7,000 Union soldiers were killed or wounded in a single half hour, and now people called Grant a “butcher.” His campaign against Lee, however, was working. With the Union armies closing in, Lee was forced to protect the capital city of Richmond, Virginia. He did this by digging in around Petersburg, the capital’s main supply station some 20 miles to the south.

For months, Grant’s forces pushed against Lee’s trenches, until Lee had no option but to abandon the defense of the capital. In March 1865, Grant pursued Lee when the Army of Northern Virginia tried to escape along the Appomattox River. The Confederate soldiers were weakened after the long period of trench warfare, and they were hungry, close to starvation. Under Grant’s orders, General Philip Sheridan’s cavalry raced ahead, destroyed Confederate food supplies, and trapped Lee’s Army near the village of Appomattox Court House, Virginia. After four years of war and two years going head-to-head with Lee, Grant had won.

Grant and Lee exchanged letters on the battlefield, agreeing in gentlemanly language to meet at a farmhouse in Appomattox to discuss surrender. General Lee put on his best uniform and strapped on his engraved sword. General Grant, never a man for spit and polish, arrived at the farm house wearing the field clothes he had put on that morning when he dressed for battle. His trousers were splattered, and his boots caked with mud. He admitted later to being embarrassed. But he and Lee sat down and agreed to the liberal terms Lincoln had outlined with his generals just weeks earlier. There would be no punishment of Confederate soldiers or officers, and no prison terms. The men would be able to keep their horses—the officers could keep their personal weapons as well—and go home. Grant ordered over 25,000 Union rations to feed Lee’s men, the first real food they had had in days. General Grant was the victor, but writing about Appomattox later, he said, “I felt sad and depressed at the downfall of a foe who had fought so long and valiantly, and had suffered so much for a cause, though that cause was, I believe, one of the worst for which a people ever fought.”

## Reconstruction and the Lost Cause

In the North after the war, Ulysses S. Grant was everyone's hero. He was promoted to four-star general in 1866 by President Andrew Johnson, and in this role he commanded the weak occupying Army in the South. Like Lincoln and Grant, Johnson was a Republican. But Grant was disgusted by Johnson's unwillingness to enforce the goals of Reconstruction in the South. In 1868, with no political experience, Grant rode his popularity into the White House, with a vision for a dramatically better society for black and Native American peoples. He tried, though not consistently, to protect the rights of freed people. But his administration was increasingly caught up in scandal and corruption, the American economy was in crisis, and voters lost interest in paying for Reconstruction, which ended formally in 1877. The Democratic Party gained power in the South by appealing to former Confederates, beginning a long period of white supremacist violence toward black people.

Grant waited until after his presidency to say anything publicly about the increasingly god-like reputation of his old adversary, Robert E. Lee. In 1879, he said: "Lee was of a slow, conservative, cautious nature, without imagination or humor, always the same, with grave dignity. I never could see in his achievements what justifies his reputation. The illusion that nothing but heavy odds beat him will not stand the ultimate light of history. I know it is not true."

In the mid-1880s, Grant learned that he had throat cancer. He spent the next months feverishly writing his memoirs, hoping that their sale would provide his wife with an income. The book he finished just days before his death became the best-selling autobiography of the 19th century. When he died in 1885, people overlooked his disappointing presidency and grieved for the man who had saved the Union.

**Sources:** Josiah Bunting III, *Ulysses S. Grant* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 2004); Ulysses S. Grant, *Personal Memoirs of U.S. Grant and Selected Letters 1839-1865* (New York: Library Classics of the United States, 1990); James M. McPherson, *Battle Cry of Freedom* (New York: Ballantine Books, 1989); Brooks D. Simpson, *Ulysses S. Grant: Triumph Over Adversity, 1822-1865* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 2000); John Russell Young, *Around the World with General Grant*, Vol. II (New York: The American News Company, 1879).



Alexander Gardner, *Ulysses S. Grant*, c. 1864, Library of Congress.



Julian Vannerson, *Robert E. Lee*, 1864, Virginia Historical Society.

## **Robert E. Lee** **1807-1870**

In some ways, Robert E. Lee was born with everything. His slave-holding family had wealth and prestige. They lived in one of Virginia's grandest estates and traced their roots back to the Jamestown colony. They were the American version of aristocracy. Among his ancestors were governors, diplomats, and signers of the Declaration of Independence. His father, nicknamed "Light Horse Harry" Lee, was the best cavalry officer in the American Revolution and had fought at George Washington's side.

All was far from perfect, though. The celebrated "Light Horse Harry" had ambitions for even greater wealth, but no skill with money. He lost a fortune on bad investments, even wrote bad checks. Lee was two when his father went to debtors' prison, four when the family had to leave the estate, and six when his father ran off to escape his creditors. Lee grew up with little memory of him. Lee's mother was able to support her children with a small inheritance and help from relatives, but she was humiliated by her husband's actions. She raised Robert to make up for this disgrace – to practice self-control, to be frugal with money, and to always behave with dignity.

### **West Point**

When Robert E. Lee was admitted to West Point on July 1, 1825, he had become the young man his mother wanted, and he stood out. At 17, he was tall, powerfully built, extremely handsome. He was friendly, charming, smart, and he had gone to good schools. From the start, he was a success. He won awards for mathematics and French, but he was good at everything, including drawing. In his third year he was named corps adjutant, the highest rank among cadets. He followed the rules to a T, earning no demerits at all in four years at West Point. Every cadet probably knew who he was. One, fellow-Virginian Joe Johnston, became and remained a close friend.

In 1829, Lee graduated second in his class. His high ranking gave him the right to choose the Army department he joined. Like most top graduates, he chose the Corps of Engineers, the elite part of the Army. Engineers were critical at this time in American history, when the country was growing so fast. They had the skills to survey land, map out roads, oversee the construction of bridges, dams, and buildings. There was an urgent need to improve the defenses of the American coastline, so Lee's first assignment was in Georgia, where he worked on the building of a fort.

In 1831, Lee married Mary Custis, the great granddaughter of Martha Washington. His marriage gave him a direct link to George Washington, the man he admired most. For the next three years he worked on the building of a fort in Virginia. Then he went to St. Louis to design a plan for redirecting the Mississippi River to keep this vital harbor clear and free of silt. He was considered a first-rate engineer and was brought to New York in the 1840s to serve as the resident engineer of the new Fort Hamilton. A respected family man in his 30s, Lee was an Army captain who had never been to war. That was about to change.

## **The Mexican American War**

When war was declared with Mexico, the Army's engineers were essential. They could study the landscape, make accurate field drawings, and build roads through the wilderness. The commanding officer of the main Army of invasion, General Winfield Scott, requested Robert E. Lee as his chief engineer. With his instincts and training, Lee was able, more than once, to find routes through almost impossible terrain. The American victory at Cerro Gordo was credited to one of Lee's ingenious paths through the mountains. Ulysses S. Grant, then a young man in the same war, admired the roadways that had been "opened over chasms to the right where the walls were so steep that the men could barely climb them....The engineers...led the way and the troops followed."

Lee knew the danger he was in, from the terrain and from combat. He wrote to his wife: "[I]f my life & strength are spared, I must see this contest to an end & endeavor to perform what little service I can to my country....Goodbye my dear Mary. Teach my children to be good & virtuous & not to forget me." But he survived the war, earning a promotion for his actions at Chapultepec and entering Mexico City with Scott's forces to mark the end of the war.

Like Ulysses S. Grant, Lee learned valuable practical lessons about war from his experience in Mexico. And, like Grant, he believed that his country had bullied Mexico, but his criticism went no further. He thought Americans had fought well and fairly, and he was angered by those who saw the war as a plot to extend slavery into the west.

## **Appomattox**

Robert E. Lee called slavery "a moral and political evil," but he kept the slaves he inherited when his wife's father died in 1856. On a leave of absence from the Army, he worked to put his father-in-law's affairs in order, which included managing the slaves. He considered himself a fair slave owner, but abolitionists accused him of whipping captured runaways. Lee thought abolitionist efforts were hopeless, that only God would be able to end slavery. In 1859, when he was ordered to lead the government's effort to put down John Brown's slave rebellion at Harpers Ferry, he did not question the rightness of it.

When the Civil War began, Robert E. Lee was one of the most promising and respected officers in the Army. He was the reasonable choice to lead the Union Army, but he turned the offer down. After 35 years in the U.S. Army, he resigned in order to join the Army of the Confederate States of America. It was not an easy decision, but in the end, his loyalty to his home state won out. In 1862, he was named commander of the Army of Northern Virginia. His strength was in seeing that the Confederacy was too intent on defense—it needed to attack, despite the enemy’s greater numbers. When this led to victories, Lee planned the invasion of the North. The resulting Battle of Gettysburg in 1863 ended in a defeat that many felt the South never recovered from.

When Ulysses S. Grant was named commander of the Union forces, he and Lee became locked in a long fight over Richmond, Virginia, the capital city of the Confederacy. Grant’s men were constantly pushing at Lee’s defenses of the city and of Petersburg, which was the main supply depot for the capital. At the end of March 1865, Lee’s embattled forces abandoned their position and tried to escape along the Appomattox River. They were trapped at the Virginia village of Appomattox Court House by Grant’s men, and Lee was left with no way out.

On the morning of Sunday, April 9, 1865, General Robert E. Lee looked at his staff and said: “Then there is nothing left me to do but go and see General Grant, and I would rather die a thousand deaths.” For the first time in his life he was facing overwhelming failure, but dignity still mattered. Expecting to be taken General Grant’s prisoner, he put on a new uniform, his polished boots, and his best sword. Then he and his secretary, Charles Marshall, went to the local farmhouse where the Army of Northern Virginia would surrender. General Ulysses S. Grant arrived half an hour later, with a number of aides.

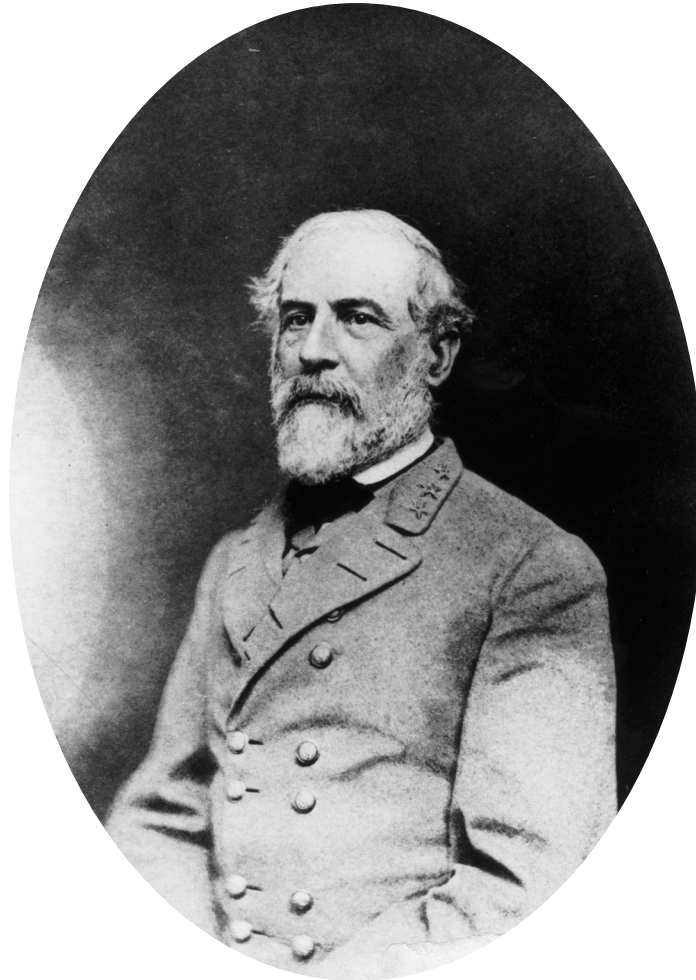
General Grant later wrote that he had no idea what Lee was thinking that day, that “his feelings...were entirely concealed.” In a supremely difficult moment, General Grant began with cordial small talk, saying he remembered General Lee from the war with Mexico. Eventually the two men sat at small separate tables and agreed to the surrender terms, which were much more generous than Lee expected. When it was over, Lee mounted his beloved horse, Traveller, and returned to his men. “Boys,” he said, “I have done the best I could for you. My heart is too full to say more.”

## **Reconstruction and the Lost Cause**

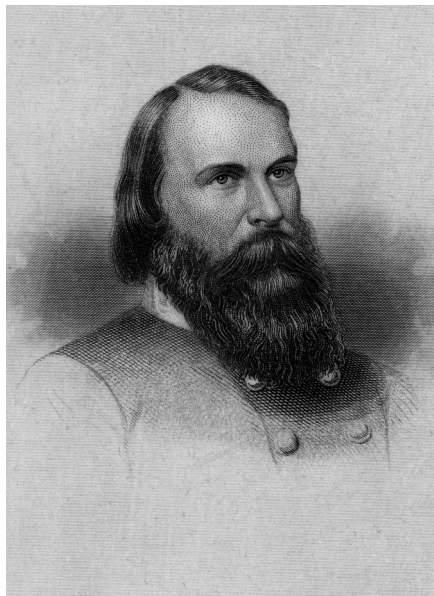
Lee was offered and accepted the presidency of Washington College in Lexington, Virginia. Like other former Confederates, he thought about the war, the pivotal loss at Gettysburg, and especially about the errors that had caused the slaughter of Confederate troops at Pickett’s Charge. Though he had taken complete responsibility at the time, later he blamed his subordinates: Jeb Stuart, James Longstreet, and E. Porter Alexander. But he was aware of the dangers of pointing fingers. He urged his fellow Southerners to forgive and forget. He had special words for Jubal Early: don’t say things that will “excite bitterness or animosity.”

The Lost Cause movement that would turn Robert E. Lee into a near god did not begin in earnest until after he died of a heart attack in 1870, at the age of 63.

**Sources:** Thomas L. Connelly, *The Marble Man: Robert E. Lee and his Image in American Society* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1977); Michael Fellman, *The Making of Robert E. Lee* (New York: Random House, 2000); William M. S. Rasmussen and Robert S. Tilton, *Lee and Grant* (Richmond: Virginia Historical Society, 2007).



Julian Vannerson, *Robert E. Lee*, 1864, Virginia Historical Society.



## **James Longstreet (1821-1904)**

Most people knew James Longstreet by his nickname, Pete. He was born in South Carolina but raised mostly in rural Georgia, where his parents owned a farm. He did not grow up in the wealthy, genteel South, and he always showed the rough, down-to-earth qualities of his country childhood. When he was nine, his father sent him to live with an aunt and uncle on their large cotton plantation in Augusta, Georgia, so he could attend military school there. He stayed in Augusta after his father died and his mother moved to Alabama. He felt great affection for the aunt and uncle who raised him. His uncle, Augustus Longstreet, was a lawyer who helped him win an appointment to West Point.

### **West Point**

Neill, *Lt. Gen. Longstreet*, New-York Historical Society.

Longstreet's career at the Military Academy did not predict that he would become one of the greatest generals of the Civil War. He was like his good friend Ulysses S. Grant in this way, but his record was worse. Longstreet finished 54th out of a class of 56, and tallied up a long list of demerits for poor conduct. Burly and well-liked, Longstreet enjoyed getting into mischief and playing cards, especially a game called brag. He was posted to Louisiana after he graduated in 1842. When Grant joined him there a year later, Longstreet introduced his friend to a young relative named Julia Dent. A few years later, Ulysses S. Grant and Julia Dent were married, with James Longstreet as best man.

### **The Mexican American War**

As part of the Eighth Infantry in General Zachary Taylor's army, Longstreet fought in most of the major battles of the war with Mexico, earning a series of promotions. As his unit charged a hill at the climactic battle of Chapultepec, he carried the regimental flag, the visible signal soldiers follow in battle. When he was badly, almost fatally, wounded in the leg, he managed to pass the flag to another officer who carried it to the summit. Longstreet's reputation for courage, even recklessness, was formed from actions like this.

### **Appomattox**

Longstreet resigned from the U. S. Army and joined the Confederacy as a Brigadier General in June 1861. A year later, Robert E. Lee selected him as his second in command, and the two became friends, almost brothers, although they differed on important military strategies. Longstreet had a reputation as a bulldog, the best fighter in the Army. Lee called him his "old war horse." In the spring of 1865, Longstreet was with Lee as the Army of Northern Virginia abandoned Richmond and fled along the Appomattox River. When they were trapped and surrender seemed unavoidable, Longstreet told Lee that he believed his old friend Ulysses S. Grant would offer them fair terms, but if not, they should keep fighting. After the surrender, Longstreet and Grant met for the first time since the war began. "Pete," General Grant said, "let us have another game of brag, to recall the days that were so pleasant."

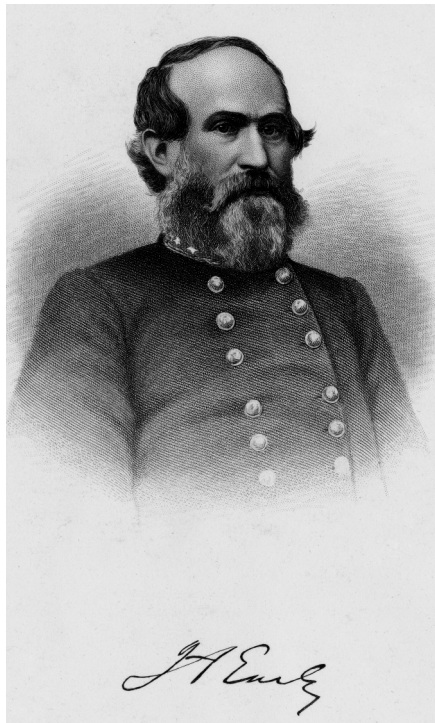
## Reconstruction and the Lost Cause

James Longstreet moved to New Orleans after the war and became a businessman. After the 1866 riots, he was the commander of the Louisiana State guards, so he was called on to put down ongoing white resistance to voting rights for freed slaves. He believed that fighting the terms of Reconstruction would only prolong the Yankee presence in the South. Like many former Confederates, he urged Southerners to accept defeat and the rules of Congress. But unlike other Confederates, he joined the Republican party—the party of Lincoln, Grant, and emancipation—and he supported his old friend Ulysses S. Grant for president in 1868.

So despite his service to the Confederacy and close relationship with Lee, white Southerners began to see him as a traitor. When Jubal Early and others began to frame the myth of the Lost Cause, Longstreet was already an outcast, a hated scalawag, and a convenient villain. Early portrayed him as the man who betrayed Lee and the South, and blamed him especially for the defeat of Lee's forces at Gettysburg in 1863. He accused Longstreet of violating Lee's direct order to appear at sunrise on the second day at Gettysburg, and of half-hearted leadership at the disastrous Picket's Charge on the third day. Longstreet brought some of the criticisms on himself. He often exaggerated his own accomplishments and even claimed that the Confederates would have won Gettysburg if Lee had followed his advice. The South did not tolerate criticism of Robert E. Lee.

Historians are still analyzing the battle of Gettysburg. Most believe that crucial mistakes were made by several Confederate generals, including Lee himself. But in the years after the war, Longstreet took most of the blame. He was seen as the Judas of the Confederacy. More than 30 years after the war ended, when Longstreet wrote his memoir, he was still defending himself against charges that he had caused the Confederate defeat. He in turn blamed Early for the smear campaign against him.

**Sources:** “Confederate General James Longstreet Discusses his Friendship with Grant,” *The New York Times*, July 24, 1885, accessed online at [www.granthomepage.com](http://www.granthomepage.com), 7/10/08, M. Waters; James Longstreet, *From Manassas to Appomattox: Memoirs of the Civil War in America* (Philadelphia: J.B. Lippincott Company, 1896); William Garrett Piston, *Lee's Tarnished Lieutenant: James Longstreet and His Place in Southern History* (Athens: The University of Georgia Press, 1987).



H. B. Hall's Sons, *Gen. Jubal A. Early*,  
New-York Historical Society.

## **Jubal Early (1816-1894)**

Jubal Early was born and raised near Rocky Mount, in southwestern Virginia. His prominent family owned a 4,000-acre tobacco plantation and a large population of slaves. Early was sent to the best local schools and private academies in the area, but he does not seem to have been impressed. In his own words, he “received the usual instruction in the dead languages and elementary mathematics.” Jubal Early had a sarcastic streak.

### **West Point**

Appointed by a Virginia member of Congress, Early entered West Point in 1833. One of his best subjects was civil engineering, which was a major course of study at West Point. Graduating officers were often posted to the frontier, where they were essential in building the roads, canals, dams, and bridges that would open the wilderness. About his career at West Point, Early wrote that “I was never a very good student, and was sometimes quite remiss, but I managed to attain a respectable stand in all.” He was 18th in his class when he graduated in 1837. He spent the next year in the campaign against the Seminoles in Florida, which was part of President

Andrew Jackson’s plan to relocate American Indians from the Southeast to lands beyond the Mississippi. Then Early resigned from the Army to practice law and try his hand at politics. Like many young men at West Point, he did not expect to spend his life in the military.

### **The Mexican American War**

Early opposed the American annexation of Texas, but when war broke out with Mexico in 1846, he considered it his duty to return to the Army. It was there that he first met Colonel Jefferson Davis of Mississippi, who would later be the President of the Confederacy and who “did me the honor of complimenting the order and regularity of my camp.” Early did not see much battlefield action during the war, acting instead as the military governor of Monterrey, Mexico. He proudly wrote later that “it was generally conceded by officers of the Army and Mexicans that better order reigned in the city during the time I commanded there, than had ever before existed, and the good conduct of my men won for them universal praise.” It mattered to Jubal Early when people thought and spoke highly of him.

### **Appomattox**

After serving in Mexico, Jubal Early returned to his law practice. He was still serving as a country lawyer in rural Virginia when his state voted to secede from the Union. He joined the Confederate Army and later served under Robert E. Lee in the Army of Northern Virginia. His men called him “old Jube.” Lee referred to him as “my bad old man,” because Early was blunt and peppered his speech with cuss words. In the summer of 1864, while most of Lee’s men protected Petersburg and Richmond, General Early was ordered to the Shenandoah Valley to defend the farmland so critical to the Confederacy. Early succeeded until a huge Federal cavalry

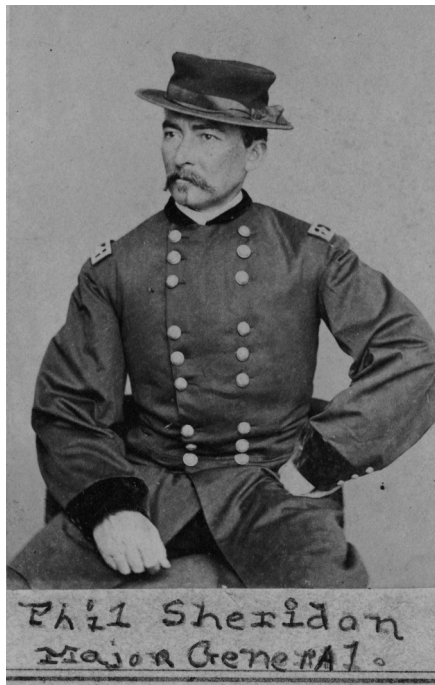
arrived under Philip Sheridan, who won a series of battles and put much of the valley to the torch. Early had been badly outnumbered by Union forces, but embittered local people and soldiers blamed him for this defeat anyway. His blunt, sometimes biting personality probably did not help. Lee realized that Early had lost too much support to be effective, so he relieved him of his command on March 30, 1865. “Thus terminated my military career,” he wrote later. Early was returning to his home near Rocky Mount when he heard the stunning news of Lee’s surrender at Appomattox.

## Reconstruction and the Lost Cause

Jubal Early never blamed General Lee for his dismissal or for the loss of the war—far from it. Returning to his law practice, he began writing and giving speeches about Lee’s military brilliance, his upstanding character, his near-perfection as a man and soldier. Early believed the South lost because the North had more soldiers, and because of fatal mistakes made by key Confederate generals at crucial moments, not because of any failure of Lee’s. As time went on, his main target was the Confederate General James Longstreet. Early claimed that Longstreet directly disobeyed Lee’s orders at Gettysburg. Many in the South believed that the Confederacy would have won the war if it had won at Gettysburg, so Longstreet was being blamed for the entire Confederate defeat.

Praising Lee and blaming Longstreet were hallmarks of the Lost Cause movement, and no one did more to promote it than Jubal Early. As one of the founders of the Southern Historical Society, he was able to present his views as serious history in the Society’s journal. Modern historians do not agree with his interpretation of Gettysburg, citing errors made by several generals, including both Lee and Early. But Jubal Early helped determine how the war would be remembered in the South, with Lee high on a pedestal and Longstreet single-handedly to blame for the outcome of the war. He gave the South a hero, a villain, and a simple way to think about its crushing defeat.

**Sources:** Jubal Anderson Early, *Lieutenant General Jubal Anderson Early CSA: Autobiographical Sketch and Narrative of the War Between the State* (Philadelphia: J.B. Lippincott Company, 1912), electronic edition accessed at <http://docsouth.unc.edu/fpn/early/early.html#early266>, 7/26/08, M. Waters; C. Osborne, *Jubal: The Life and Times of General Jubal A. Early, CSA*, (Chapel Hill: Algonquin Books of Chapel Hill, 1992).



E. & H. T. Anthony, *Phil Sheridan, Major General*, New-York Historical Society.

## **Philip Sheridan** **1831-1888**

Born to Irish immigrants, Philip Sheridan grew up in Ohio. He went to a one-room schoolhouse for four years, which is all the education that most frontier children received. He was small and Irish, so he bore the brunt of the local bullies' teasing. In response he developed a quick temper and a willingness to throw a punch. Even when he was one of the great generals of the Civil War, he was still called "Little Phil."

### **The Mexican American War**

Sheridan was too young for this war. He was just 15 when it began and working in a dry-goods store in Ohio. He had a good head on his shoulders, so he was made the store accountant. Sheridan also had a passion for history, and around the store he was seen as an authority on the subject. So when news came in from the war with Mexico, he followed it all, joined the arguments about it, and absorbed the stories of military heroics. This is what made him want to go to West Point.

### **West Point**

Given his limited schooling, Sheridan's chances for admission were not good, but he had a stroke of luck when a boy from his region failed the entrance exam. Never the shy type, Sheridan asked a customer at the store, Congressman Thomas Ritchey, to recommend him. He was accepted to West Point in 1848, and, more good fortune, he had a helpful roommate named Henry Slocum. At night they would hang a blanket over one window so Slocum could tutor Sheridan by candlelight. Sheridan managed to stay more or less in the middle of his class, until his temper got the best of him. He threatened a cadet sergeant with a lowered bayonet, and he later attacked him with his fists. He was suspended from West Point for a year. Some people would have walked away for good, but Sheridan returned and graduated in 1854. He spent the next six years with his regiment in the West.

### **Appomattox**

Ulysses S. Grant trusted Philip Sheridan completely, and in 1864 he picked him to lead the cavalry. It was a good choice. Until then, the cavalry was used mostly to collect information, but Sheridan saw bold new ways to mass the mounted forces and attack the enemy. Beginning in the fall of 1864 and continuing through the following spring, Sheridan's cavalry harassed Jubal Early in the Shenandoah Valley, defeating him soundly and ordering the farmland burned to destroy the Confederate food supply. Then Sheridan and his men joined Grant at Petersburg, where the war's last phase was beginning.

On April 1, 1865, Sheridan attacked at Five Forks and destroyed the last railroad connection that took Confederate supplies up to Richmond. The following day, when Lee's army escaped and headed west along the Appomattox River, Grant ordered Sheridan's cavalry to move at top speed, get ahead of Lee, and stop him.

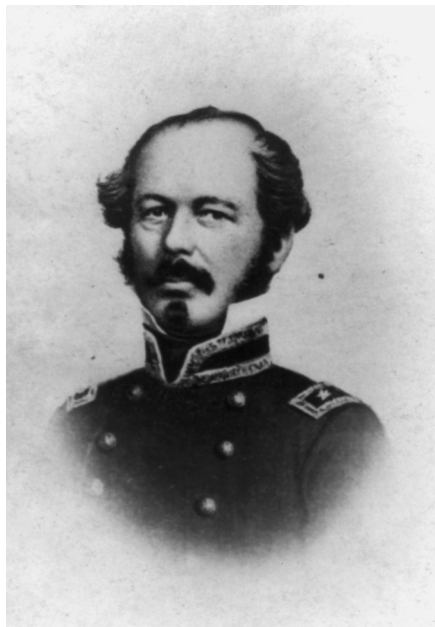
The first skirmish between the two sides was at Sailor's Creek, where Sheridan defeated the Confederates in a brutal contest and captured 6,000 men. Knowing that Lee's men were starving, Sheridan reached a waiting food supply and destroyed it before Lee arrived. On April 8, when Lee's men tried to break out, the cavalry held them, and the surrender came the next day. Grant said "I believe General Sheridan has no superior as a general, either living or dead, and perhaps not an equal." And when the pro-Union newspaper, *Harper's Weekly*, put out its issue after the fall of Richmond, the man on the cover was not Ulysses S. Grant or Robert E. Lee. It was General Philip Sheridan.

## **Reconstruction and the Lost Cause**

After the war, General Sheridan was given command over Texas and Louisiana, with his headquarters in New Orleans. He was in Texas when the New Orleans riot broke out in the summer of 1866. He hurried to the city, but arrived too late to stop the bloodshed. He confirmed the order of martial law, though Mayor John T. Monroe and city and state officials claimed that the police could maintain order without the Army. At first, Sheridan blamed the organizers for inviting violence with fiery talk. But soon he believed the Mayor and police were at fault. Sheridan was furious when President Johnson gave the *New York Times* a garbled, edited copy of his first telegram, blaming the organizers. Johnson may have been furious himself that Sheridan was not in New Orleans at the time of the convention, despite clear warning signs of violence. The President ordered Sheridan to be less heavy-handed in his response to racial unrest, but Sheridan ignored him and from then on, the two men were enemies.

Sheridan wrote his memoir late in life. Perhaps responding to the Lost Cause movement, he wrote that when Lee faced Grant, the Confederate general was overmatched for the first time. Sheridan praised Grant's intellect, tenacity, leadership, and the central role he had played in the Union victory.

**Sources:** Paul Andrew Hutton, *Phil Sheridan and His Army* (Lincoln: The University of Nebraska Press, 1985); Roy Morris, Jr., *Sheridan: The Life and Wars of General Phil Sheridan* (New York: Crown Publishers, Inc., 1992); Philip Henry Sheridan, *Personal Memoirs of P. H. Sheridan* (New York: C. L. Webster and Company, 1888), accessed online at <http://www.gutenberg.org/etext/4362>, 7/25/08, M. Waters.



Unknown artist, *Joseph E. Johnston*.  
Civil War Photograph Collection, Library  
of Congress.

## **Joseph E. Johnston (1807-1891)**

Joseph E. Johnston grew up in Virginia with six older brothers. He was related on his mother's side to Patrick Henry, so he had a blood connection to America's founding fathers. But all members of the Confederacy, which he would eventually join, saw the American Revolution as their historic starting point. So did those on the Union side.

### **West Point**

When Johnston entered West Point in 1825, he met a classmate named Robert E. Lee. There were four Virginians in the class originally, but two left, so Johnston and Lee agreed that they would work hard and make their state proud. In the process they became close friends. Other cadets called Johnston "the colonel," as if he had already set himself apart in some way. He finished 13th out of 46 cadets in his class of 1829. After graduation he was sent first to Fort Columbus in New York Harbor, then to Fortress Monroe in southwestern Virginia, where his friend Robert E. Lee was also

posted. Much of the Army's work in the decades after Johnston left West Point involved enforcing the 1830 Indian Removal Act, which mandated that American Indians living east of the Mississippi River be relocated beyond the river's west bank. Johnston saw his first combat against the Seminoles in Florida, but when it appeared that the war was won, he resigned from the Army in frustration over low pay and slow promotions. After a brief, unsuccessful civilian career, he returned to the Army and remained there for the rest of his life.

### **The Mexican American War**

Johnston was 38 years old when war was declared against Mexico. He had some combat experience from the Indian wars, but he was eager for a war with a familiar style of fighting, with uniformed armies and rules of combat. He and his friend Robert E. Lee were both assigned to the staff of General Winfield Scott, commander of the Army in Mexico. Others on this staff included future Confederate general P.G.T. Beauregard and future Union generals George McClellan and George Meade. It was not a surprising coincidence that they would all work together, since they were all trained at West Point and this was America's first foreign war. Nearly all the officers of the Regular Army, even those who had graduated from West Point years apart, met during the Mexican American War. Johnston was wounded at the battles of Cerro Gordo and Chapultepec, but he was still part of the U.S. Army's triumphant entry into Mexico City.

### **Appomattox**

Johnston did not have an easy career in the Civil War. He had numerous injuries that took him out of battle for months at a time. He argued frequently with President Jefferson Davis – over his rank, over strategy and tactics, and over his assignments. He had a reputation for not being aggressive enough on the battlefield, for falling back when he should have charged (his nickname was "Retreatin' Joe"). Davis blamed him for the Confederate defeat at Vicksburg and finally relieved him of his command in the summer of 1864. Robert E.

Lee brought him back in March 1865 to lead the Confederate effort to put a stop to William Tecumseh Sherman's campaign against the Southern countryside.

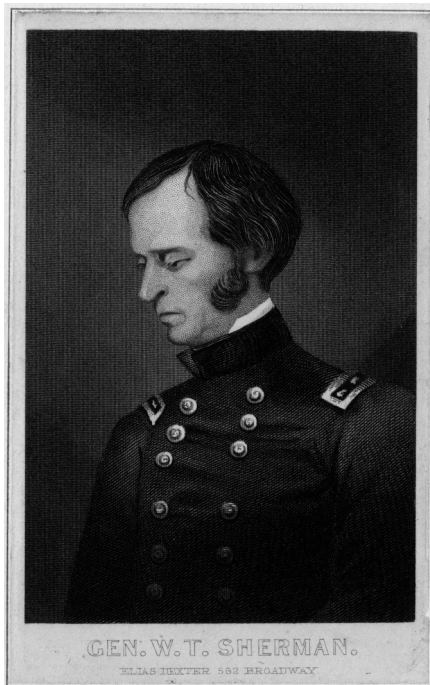
At the end of March 1865, as Lee planned to abandon Richmond and escape the grasp of General Grant, Johnston's forces in North Carolina were the light at the end of the tunnel. But the tunnel closed around Lee's army, and he surrendered at Appomattox. Johnston received a message from Davis ordering him to retreat to a safer location and keep fighting, but Johnston ignored this direct order. He surrendered to General Sherman on April 26, 1865, with the generous terms that Grant had given Lee at Appomattox. People had often accused Johnston of not being able to make a decision, but in the end he made one of the war's most historic decisions and followed the example of the friend he had first met at West Point. Over the next two months, all the Confederate generals would surrender. Jefferson Davis never forgave Johnston for surrendering when he was neither defeated nor surrounded.

## **Reconstruction and the Lost Cause**

On May 29, 1890, an elderly General Johnston was given a very public and important task. In front of 100,000 people, he dramatically unveiled the towering statue of Robert E. Lee that had been built in Richmond. Jubal Early presided over the festivities. It was a somewhat strange decision to give General Johnston this honor, since he had come up on the wrong side of the Lost Cause movement and taken his share of its attacks. His offense, in the eyes of the old Confederates, was criticizing Jefferson Davis. But everyone knew Johnston had been Lee's close friend since they were young men, and so he was asked to unveil the monument to the South's larger-than-life hero.

Less than a year later, Johnston was asked to serve as a pallbearer at the funeral of his old adversary, William Tecumseh Sherman. The two men had become friends after the war. Johnston and his wife had visited Sherman's home on occasion, and Sherman had recommended Johnston for a job in the government. The weather on the day of the funeral was rainy, but Johnston knew that men who wished to show respect removed their hats, so his head was bare. He caught a cold and died of pneumonia a few weeks later.

**Sources:** John E. Marszalek, *Sherman: A Soldier's Passion for Order* (New York: The Free Press, 1993); Craig L. Symonds, *Joseph E. Johnston: A Civil War Biography* (New York: W.W. Norton and Company, 1992); Jay Winik, *April 1865: The Month That Saved America* (New York: Harper Collins, 2001).



Elias Dexter, *Gen. W. T. Sherman*, New-York Historical Society.

## **William Tecumseh Sherman** **1820-1891**

Sherman was born and raised in Ohio. His father died when he was nine, leaving behind a large family and no money. From then on, Sherman was raised in a foster family that treated him as a son, but he felt the sting of poverty and the loss of his father all his life. It was his father who gave him the middle name Tecumseh, in honor of the great chief of the Shawnees. His nickname, “Cump,” was a shortened version of this name.

### **West Point**

His foster father helped him win an appointment to West Point. At the time, the entrance age was 16, so he had to wait until he reached this milestone. He entered West Point in 1836, later saying that he was not considered a good soldier, was not selected for any office, and remained a private for four years. “Then, as now, neatness in dress and form, with a strict conformity to the rules, were the qualifications required for office, and I suppose I was found not to excel in any of these.” His closest friend was a relative named William Irwin, and the two liked to sneak off at night

to Benny Haven’s, the tavern near the Academy. Sherman averaged about 150 demerits per year. He was a strong student, but the demerits dropped his final class ranking from fourth place to sixth.

### **The Mexican American War**

When war was declared against Mexico in 1846, Sherman was ordered to California. He arrived in the settlement of Monterey and found a small, chaotic place, but no war. The stars and stripes were already flying over the town. Sherman spent the war doing paperwork, which he hated as much as he did not being on the battlefield. The big excitement was a trip he and his commander made to investigate the stories of gold discoveries in the mountains. Sherman left California in 1850, and three years later he left the Army for civilian life.

### **Appomattox**

Sherman had unusually strong ties to the South. He had spent time there after West Point, had friends there, and supported slavery. But his allegiance to the Union was too strong for him to side with the Confederacy. He entered the Union Army in the summer of 1861 and spent the first months convinced that the North was so disorganized that it would never win the war. Meeting Ulysses S. Grant – the man he barely remembered from West Point – gave him hope. General Grant in turn trusted him completely, maybe more than any other general. In 1864, Sherman and Grant mapped out a final, massive attack against the Confederacy on several fronts. The plan was that Grant would move against Lee in Richmond, and Sherman would operate further south in Georgia. The two other lines of attack failed, but these two generals brought the Confederacy to its knees.

In April 1865, when Robert E. Lee surrendered to Grant at Appomattox, Sherman was still in the South,

following Joseph E. Johnston's weakened forces. When news came of Lee's surrender, General Johnston sent word that he was willing to discuss the surrender of his own Army. At their first meeting on April 17, Sherman showed Johnston the telegram he had received that morning, announcing Lincoln's assassination. Both men understood how much this could change Northern feelings about the South. They moved forward with their negotiations, which had to be confirmed by Washington. On April 26, they agreed formally to the same terms Lee had accepted at Appomattox.

Sherman believed in what he called "soft peace," meaning easy terms for the loser. But during the war, he and General Grant, as well as Abraham Lincoln, agreed that the South needed to be crushed, or fighting would continue without end. Sherman called this "hard war," which meant targeting civilians, not to kill them but to make their lives so miserable that they would stop supporting the war. He made no excuses for this. "War is cruelty," he wrote, "and you cannot refine it." So in the South, Sherman had waged a war against supplies and crops, anything the Confederacy might need, and against people's sense of well-being. In pursuit of Johnston, he burned his way across Georgia. He left behind a 60-mile wide path of scorched earth and bitter, despairing people.

## **Reconstruction and the Lost Cause**

Southerners were not alone in trying to write the history of the Civil War in their own terms. Sherman worried that the Lost Cause movement in the South would distort the Union's accomplishment. In 1874, he wrote "we the victors must stamp on all history that we were right and they wrong – that we beat them in Battle as well as in argument." He wrote his own memoirs to state the truth once and for all. Some reviewers admired his book, and Grant said it was accurate, but others attacked him as egotistical and unreliable. In his effort to protect Grant's reputation and his own, he carried on a heated exchange of accusations with Jefferson Davis, former Confederate president. Like many former generals on both sides, he went to his grave reliving and retelling the war.

**Sources:** John F. Marszalek, *Sherman: A Soldier's Passion for Order* (New York: The Free Press, 1993); William Tecumseh Sherman, *Memoirs of General William T. Sherman* (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1886), accessed at <http://books.google.com/books>, 7/28/08, M. Waters.

## Background: West Point

After the Revolution, Americans were suspicious of professional standing armies, which smacked of monarchs and oppression. They preferred the model that had worked in George Washington's war, when ordinary men put down their plows to fight, and later returned home. But the nation was growing, potential threats existed, and many believed that a trained military seemed prudent. When the U.S. Military Academy was founded in 1802, it was something of a compromise, a school to train officers for war and peace. The curriculum would stress engineering, so that graduates could help build the roads, buildings, and waterways that would open up the interior to settlement. If there was a war, state militias would provide the fighting men whom the trained officers would lead.

The site chosen for the Academy was at West Point, New York. Cadets came to this location from all over the country by coach, rail, and boat, sometimes traveling alone for the first time. Many were stunned by the dramatic location above the Hudson River, near where George Washington had held maneuvers during the Revolution.

The Academy's goal was a mixed student body—some upper-class boys, some farmers' sons. In the early years, classes were also mixed by age, with incoming cadets as young as 14 or as old as 20. It went without saying that all cadets were white males; blacks were not admitted until after the Civil War, and women not until 1976. To be admitted, a young man had to be nominated by a member of Congress. Many letters were written by parents and others to lobby for those nominations, because a West Point education was free. When cadets arrived at the Academy, they faced a live examination in mathematics and a vision test that required them to know whether a dime held up 14 paces away was showing heads or tails. If they passed, they began a course of study that was strict and demanding. Many cadets – sometimes nearly half the class – did not make it past the first year or two.

Young lieutenants were awarded their field orders based on their class rank rather than according to their talents, so the high-performing Lee was assigned to the engineering corps; the low-performing Grant—despite his gifted horsemanship—to the infantry. Most West Point graduates were then posted to the country's most far-flung regions, where frontier life was isolated and lonely. Before the Civil War, more than 79 forts were thinly manned with as little as a single detachment of 50 to 100 men.

Postings in remote areas often meant building, maintaining and protecting trails west, along with patrolling these routes against Indian raiders. In the South and West, the U.S. Army coped with settlers eager to encroach on Indian lands. In Florida, the Army waged several indecisive wars to subdue the Seminoles. When the Texas Republic joined the United States, border conflicts with Mexicans escalated, and West Point graduates of the late 1840s reported directly to the war front. These young officers were nearly as raw as the volunteer regiments they commanded in Mexico.

## Resource 1: View of West Point (Looking South Across the Plain)



George Catlin, “View of West Point (Looking South Across the Plain),” 1827. United States Military Academy at West Point.

**Resource 1:** American painter George Catlin is best known for his many paintings of American Indians in the frontier. This West Point painting, done before Catlin’s journey to the West, was one of a number he devoted to sites in New York State, including Niagara Falls and the then brand-new Erie Canal. Another West Point painting portrays a similar scene, with uniformed cadets lined up in a drill exercise.

**Resource 2: Daily Schedule for Cadets**

| Fourth  | Third   | Second  | First  | Class.                                     |
|---|---|---|--|--|
| Reveille at 5 o'clock in summer and 6 in winter. Roll call immediately after. Police. Cleaning arms and accoutrements, &c. Inspection of rooms 30 minutes after roll call. Study of the lessons to be recited during the morning. |   |   |  | From 7 A.M. to 7 A.M.                      |
| Breakfast at 7—Guard mounting at half past 7—Recreation and class parade at 8.  |   |   |  | From 7 to 9 A.M.                           |
| Recitation in Mathematics.  | Recitation in Mathematics.  | Recitation in Natural Philosophy.                                 | Recitation in Civil or Military Engineering, or Drawing in the same branches of study.                             | From 8 to 11 A.M.                          |
| Recitations in French and study of the same or Mathematics.   | Recitations in French, History, Geography and Grammar. Study of the same and Mathematics. | Recitation in Chemistry, and study of same or Natural Philosophy. | Recitation in Moral or Political Science, and Rhetoric, and fencing exercises. Study of lessons for the afternoon. | From 11 to 1 P.M.                          |
| Dinner at 1—Recreation until 2.   |   |   |  | 1 to 2 P.M.                                |
| Recitation in French—and study of French and Mathematics.   | Drawing of Topography—and the human figure.   | Drawing of Landscape, in plain tint, and in colors.               | Recitation in Mineralogy, Geology, Tactics, or Artillery—or study.   | From 2 to 4 P.M.                           |
| Military exercises, or recreation. Dress parade at sunset.  |   |   |  | 4 to sunset.                               |
| Supper after parade. Call to quarters 30 minutes after Supper.  |   |   |  | Sunset to three quarters past.             |
| Study of lessons for next day.  | Study of lessons for next day.  | Study of lessons for next day.                                    | Study of lessons for next day.   | Three quarters past sunset to half past 9. |
| Tatto at half past 9. Lights extinguished and inspection of rooms, at 10 o'clock, P. M.   |   |   |  | From half past 9 to 10.                    |

Employment of time during the day, at the United States Military Academy.

A. (See par. 41.)

Employment of Time During the Day, at the United States Military Academy. *The Regulations of the United States Military Academy*, 1839. United States Military Academy Library.

**Resource 2:** West Point cadets had little free time and almost no control over their schedule. From early morning reveille until lights out, they followed a strict routine that accounted for every minute. This schedule, published as part of the Military Academy's regulations in 1839, taught important lessons about army discipline in addition to academic and military subjects. Engineering and related topics, like mineralogy and geology, formed the heart of the curriculum. Drawing was an essential skill for soldiers and engineers in the days before photography. Both Grant and Lee learned to draw well at West Point. (The class that was about to graduate was called the First Class. Those who had just begun their West Point career were members of the Fourth Class.)

**Resource 3: The 1829 West Point Class, Arranged in Order of Merit**

7

**FIRST CLASS.**

| No. | Name.                 | State | Date of Admission. | Age at Time |      | Remarks. |
|-----|-----------------------|-------|--------------------|-------------|------|----------|
|     |                       |       |                    | Yrs.        | Mos. |          |
| 24  | Albemarle Cady,       | N. H. | July 1, 1825,      | 18          | 4    |          |
| 25  | Thomas A. Davies,     | N. Y. | July 1, 1825,      | 15          | 11   |          |
| 26  | Albert G. Blanchard,  | Mass. | July 1, 1825,      | 14          | 10   |          |
| 27  | Chileab S. Howe,      | N. Y. | July 1, 1825,      | 15          | 11   |          |
| 28  | Caleb Sibley,         | Mass. | July 1, 1825,      | 19          | 2    |          |
| 29  | James H. Wright,      | S. C. | July 1, 1824,      | 18          | 4    |          |
| 30  | George A. Sterling,   | Conn. | July 1, 1825,      | 15          | 1    |          |
| 31  | Joseph H. Pawling,    | Penn. | July 1, 1825,      | 16          | 10   |          |
| 32  | Antes Snyder,         | Penn. | July 1, 1825,      | 18          | 9    |          |
| 33  | William H. Warfield,  | Md.   | July 1, 1825,      | 17          | 10   |          |
| 34  | James Clark,          | Penn. | July 1, 1825,      | 15          | 8    |          |
| 35  | James Allen,          | Ind.  | July 1, 1825,      | 19          | 8    |          |
| 36  | Jonathan Freeman,     | N. J. | July 1, 1825,      | 15          | 9    |          |
| 37  | John P. Davis,        | Me.   | July 1, 1825,      | 18          | 8    |          |
| 38  | George R. Sullivan,   | Mass. | July 1, 1825,      | 15          | 8    |          |
| 39  | Edwin R. Long,        | N. C. | July 1, 1825,      | 15          | 8    |          |
| 40  | Benjamin W. Brice,    | Ohio. | July 1, 1825,      | 18          | 7    |          |
| 41  | Robert W. Burnett,    | Ohio. | July 1, 1824,      | 16          | 0    |          |
| 42  | James S. Moore,       | Geo.  | July 1, 1825,      | 18          | 4    |          |
| 43  | Charles May,          | Vert. | July 1, 1825,      | 16          | 10   |          |
| 44  | Theophilus H. Holmes, | N. C. | Sept. 1, 1825,     | 19          | 10   |          |
| 45  | Edward R. Williams,   | Conn. | July 1, 1825,      | 16          | 9    |          |
| 46  | Richard B. Screven,   | S. C. | July 1, 1825,      | 17          | 3    |          |

6

**FIRST CLASS.**

| No. | Name.                  | State. | Date of Admission. | Age at Time |      | Remarks.                   |
|-----|------------------------|--------|--------------------|-------------|------|----------------------------|
|     |                        |        |                    | Yrs.        | Mos. |                            |
| *1  | Charles Mason,         | N. Y.  | July 1, 1825,      | 20          | 8    |                            |
| *2  | Robert E. Lee,         | Vir.   | July 1, 1825,      | 19          | 4    | Acting Asst. Prof. [Math.] |
| *3  | William H. Harford,    | Geo.   | July 1, 1825,      | 19          | 2    |                            |
| *4  | Joseph A. Smith,       | Penn.  | July 1, 1825,      | 15          | 4    |                            |
| *5  | James Barnes,          | Mass.  | July 1, 1825,      | 19          | 4    |                            |
| 6   | Cath. P. Buckingham,   | Ohio.  | July 1, 1825,      | 17          | 3    |                            |
| 7   | Joseph B. Smith,       | D. C.  | July 1, 1825,      | 16          | 10   |                            |
| 8   | John Mackay,           | Geo.   | July 1, 1825,      | 19          | 7    |                            |
| 9   | Charles W. Hackley,    | N. Y.  | July 1, 1825,      | 17          | 4    |                            |
| 10  | Miner Knowlton,        | Conn.  | July 1, 1825,      | 20          | 10   |                            |
| 11  | John C. Casey,         | N. J.  | July 1, 1825,      | 15          | 8    |                            |
| 12  | William R. M. Kee,     | Ken.   | July 1, 1825,      | 16          | 9    |                            |
| 13  | Joseph E. Johnston,    | Vir.   | July 1, 1825,      | 18          | 5    |                            |
| 14  | John F. Kennedy,       | Md.    | July 1, 1825,      | 18          | 10   |                            |
| 15  | Ormsby M. K. Mitchell, | Ohio.  | July 1, 1825,      | 15          | 11   |                            |
| 16  | Gustavus Brown,        | Ken.   | July 1, 1825,      | 17          | 11   |                            |
| 17  | Sidney Burbank,        | Mass.  | July 1, 1825,      | 17          | 9    |                            |
| 18  | William Hoffman,       | N. Y.  | July 1, 1825,      | 16          | 7    |                            |
| 19  | Charles Peigru,        | S. C.  | July 1, 1825,      | 18          | 10   |                            |
| 20  | Franklin E. Hunt,      | N. J.  | July 1, 1824,      | 15          | 5    |                            |
| 21  | Lancaster P. Lupton,   | N. Y.  | July 1, 1825,      | 17          | 9    |                            |
| 22  | Seth Eastman,          | Me.    | July 1, 1824,      | 16          | 6    |                            |
| 23  | Thomas Swords,         | N. Y.  | July 1, 1825,      | 18          | 8    |                            |

Register of the Officers and Cadets of the United States Military Academy, June 1829. New-York Historical Society. The Register is online at <http://digital-library.usma.edu/libmedia/archives/oroc/v1829.pdf>.

**Resource 3:** A small yearbook, printed in June 1829, listed each member of the graduating class at West Point, along with his home state and age at the time of admission. Cadets were listed by their ranking in the class, which was determined not only by their grades but by their conduct. Demerits would lower a cadet's ranking. A separate "conduct roll" printed the number of demerits of the students in all four classes, so it was very public information. Along with five other members of his class, Robert E. Lee finished West Point with no demerits. He was one of the five students identified with an asterisk as the "most distinguished cadets." Charles Mason, who ranked first in his class, left the military after graduation.

## Resource 4: West Point Hi-Jinks

When I first came to the Academy [in 1824], it was the custom for the cadets to give a 4<sup>th</sup> of July dinner, to which the professors and officers were invited. At those dinners wine flowed freely....As a very natural consequence, many of the cadets, as was the habit at most public, and many private dinners, in those days, became grossly intoxicated and the dinner usually broke up in considerable of a row. On the 4<sup>th</sup> of July, 1825, the dinner was more than usually joyous, and ended by the cadets carrying Major Worth to camp on their shoulders and a jolly, as well as a boisterous time they had that night. This I believe was the last of the dinners.”

Albert E. Church, *Personal Reminiscences of the Military Academy from 1824 to 1831: A Paper Read to the U.S. Military Service Institute, West Point, March 28, 1878*. Accessed online at <http://digital-library.usma.edu>, 7/30/08, M. Waters.

**Resource 4:** Albert Church entered West Point at 16, a year before Robert E. Lee arrived at the age of 20. It was not unusual for incoming cadets to be older than those who were ahead of them. When Church graduated first in his class in 1828, he joined the artillery because the engineers' corps was filled. He returned to West Point in 1837 to teach mathematics, and remained in this role until he died in 1878. Not long before his death, he offered his personal memories of West Point when he was a student. The party he describes took place three days after Robert E. Lee was admitted. And while these dinners were cancelled after this experience, cadets could still sneak off to the local tavern called Benny Haven's.

## Resource 5: Grant's "Black Marks"

| U. S. Grant, (Ohio) |   |   |                    |   |   |
|---------------------|---|---|--------------------|---|---|
| Date                | Delinquencies,  |   | Date               | Delinquencies,  |   |
| 1839<br>Augt. 6     | Not keeping closed marching to and from Sup.                        | 1 | 1840<br>Augt. 18   | Sitting down on post-5 <sup>th</sup> , A.M.           | 8 |
| " 8                 | Late at Artillery drill roll call                                   | 1 | " 27               | Fatigue packet out of order at g <sup>d</sup> mount'g | 1 |
| Sept. 11            | Not keeping closed march.g from par.                                | 1 | " 30               | Pan out of order at Batt. Insp.                       | 1 |
| " 16                | Musket out of order feather spring rusty at g <sup>d</sup> mount'g. | 1 | Sept. 3            | Bedding not folded up. 5 <sup>th</sup> , A.M.         | 1 |
| " 18                | Loitering on Sentinels post, 7 and 8 PM                             | 2 | " 19               | Floor not swept at morning insp.                      | 3 |
| " 26                | Late at B. roll call  | 1 | " 22               | Late at drill roll call                               | 1 |
| Oct. 1              | Late at drill roll call   | 1 | Oct. 3             | Late at reveille                                      | 1 |
| " 6                 | Late at relief par.   | 1 | " 6                | Falling in ranks at E. par. with bayonet-fixed        | 1 |
| " 24                | Visiting, 3 and 4, P.M.   | 5 | " 22               | Late at B. mess parade                                | 1 |
| " 26                | Shoes out of order at Insp.   | 1 | 1841<br>January 16 | Late at B. roll call                                  | 1 |
| " 27                | Late at B. Mess-parade  | 1 | " 10?              | Musket rusty at insp.                                 | 1 |
| " 28                | Late at reveille roll call,   | 1 | " 20               | Late at retreat roll call                             | 1 |
| Nov. 2              | Visiting, 12 and 1, P.M.,   | 5 | " 20               | Ab. from B.Ks. on-the-river bank, 3 & 4 P.M.          | 5 |
| " 15                | Late at B. roll call  | 1 | " 20               | Visiting, 3 & 4, P.M.                                 | 5 |
| 17                  | Room not Swept at morning Insp.                                     | 3 | " 21               | Lock of musket not Sprung at insp. of qrs.            | ? |

Record of Demerits for Grant, 1843. United States Military Academy Library.

**Resource 5:** On September 22, 1839, four months after his arrival at West Point, 17-year-old Ulysses S. Grant wrote to his cousin McKinstrey Griffith to joke about his new life. After describing the dangers of his skin-tight uniform, Grant wrote: "I came near forgetting to tell you about our demerit or 'black marks.' They give a man one of these 'black marks' for almost nothing and if he gets 200 a year they dismiss him. To show how easy one can get these a man by the name of *Grant* of this state got *eight* of these 'marks' fer not going to Church today. He was also put under arrest so he cannot leave his room perhaps fer a month, all this fer not going to Church. We are not only obliged to go to church but must *march* there by companys. This is not exactly republican."

West Point kept track of each cadet's demerits, since they affected his final standing in his class. The greater the offense, the more demerits it earned, from 1 for minor errors to a maximum of 10 for the most serious. This page shows a partial list of the demerits Grant received in 1839 and 1840, which never totaled enough to end his career at West Point. Since the eight demerits Grant mentioned in his letter do not appear here, it may be that he was pulling his cousin's leg.

*M. S. Grant,*

| <i>Date</i>     | <i>Delinquencies,</i>                                       |          | <i>Date</i>     |
|-----------------|---|----------|-----------------|
| <i>1839</i>     |   |          | <i>1840</i>     |
| <i>Augt. 6</i>  | <i>Not Keeping closed marching to and from Sup.</i>         | <i>1</i> | <i>Augt. 18</i> |
| <i>" 8</i>      | <i>Late at Artillery drill roll call,</i>                   | <i>2</i> | <i>" 21</i>     |
| <i>Sept. 11</i> | <i>Not Keeping closed march. from par.</i>                  | <i>1</i> | <i>" 30</i>     |
| <i>" 16</i>     | <i>Musket out of order feather Spring rusty at g. mount</i> | <i>1</i> | <i>Sept. 3</i>  |
| <i>" 18</i>     | <i>Loitering on Academy's post, 7 and 8 P.M.</i>            | <i>2</i> | <i>" 16</i>     |
| <i>" 26</i>     | <i>Late at P. roll call</i>                                 | <i>1</i> | <i>" 20</i>     |

## Resource 6: James Longstreet's Memories of Ulysses S. Grant at West Point

“Ever since 1839, I have been on terms of the closest intimacy with Grant. I well remember the fragile form which answered to his name that year. His distinguishing trait as a cadet was a girlish modesty; a hesitancy in presenting his own claims; a taciturnity born of his modesty; but a thoroughness in the accomplishment of whatever task was assigned him. As I was of large and robust physique I was accomplished at most larks and games. But in these young Grant never joined because of his delicate frame. In horsemanship, however, he was noted as the most proficient in the Academy. In fact, rider and horse held together like the fabled centaur.”

James Longstreet to a *New York Times* reporter, Gainesville, Georgia, July 23, 1885, the day of Grant's death. Printed in the *Times* July 24, 1885.

**Resource 6:** On July 23, 1885, the day of Ulysses S. Grant’s death in upstate New York, a *New York Times* reporter went to James Longstreet’s home in Gainesville, Georgia, to deliver the news. Longstreet and Grant were long-time friends who were on opposite sides during the Civil War, as most of America knew. Longstreet recovered from his emotions and said that Grant “was the truest as well as the bravest man that ever lived.” Then he sat with the reporter and reminisced about his friend, including the years they had spent together at West Point.

A “lark” was a prank or practical joke.

## Resource 7: Joseph E. Johnston Remembers Robert E. Lee at West Point

“No one among men but his own brothers had better opportunity to know General Lee than I. We entered the Military Academy together as classmates, and formed then a friendship never impaired. It was formed very soon after we met, from the fact that my father served under his in the celebrated Lee’s Legion. we had the same intimate associates, who thought as I did, that no other youth or man so united the qualities that win warm friendship and command high respect. For he was full of sympathy and kindness, genial and fond of gay conversation, and even of fun, while his correctness of demeanor and attention to all duties, personal and official, and a dignity as much a part of himself as the elegance of his person, gave him a superiority that every one acknowledged in his heart. He was the only one of all the men I have known that could laugh at the faults and follies of his friends in such a manner as to make them ashamed without touching their affection for him, and to confirm their respect and sense of his superiority.”

Joseph E. Johnston, quoted in A. L. Long, *Memoirs of Robert E. Lee: His Military and Personal History* (New York: J. M. Stoddart & Company, 1886), 71.

**Resource 7:** After the Civil War, and particularly after Robert E. Lee's death in 1870, many biographies were written about the great Confederate leader. Brig. General Armistead L. Long had fought with the Army of Northern Virginia during the war, and served as Lee's military secretary. He wrote *Memoirs of Robert E. Lee: His Military and Personal History* some 20 years after the war ended, calling on former Confederates to contribute to the effort. Interviewed by General Long specifically for this volume, Joseph E. Johnston recalled the young Robert E. Lee at West Point.

## Resource 8: Drawing of Chief Osceola



George Catlin. *Seminolee* (plate 69), 1866-68 (based on drawing from 1838). New-York Historical Society.

**Resource 8:** Chief Osceola of the Seminoles fiercely resisted the Indian Removal Act of the 1830s, and died a prisoner in Fort Moultrie, South Carolina, after being tricked during a truce. Outraged by his mistreatment, artist George Catlin (1796-1872) visited Osceola in prison to paint his portrait. The two men became friends, and Osceola posed for many of Catlin's renderings. This drawing shows Osceola standing with his rifle, his two wives by his side.

## Resource 9: Figure of Chief Osceola



*Seminole Chief Osceola*, mid-19th century. New-York Historical Society. Gift of George A. Zabriskie

**Resource 9:** This carved wooden figure by an unidentified artist is roughly life-size at 5 feet tall. Based on a George Catlin drawing of the Seminole chief, it captures Osceola's strength and prominently features the rifle he used in defending his homeland. Despite the power of this figure, wooden carvings of Native Americans were common props at the front doors of tobacco shops in the 19th century. The clothing was often a mish-mash based on the artist's imagination, and today "cigar store Indians" are viewed as prevalent examples of 19th-century racial stereotypes.

## Resource 10: Engineer's Caliper



David R. Griffith, *Caliper*, c. 1850-70. New-York Historical Society. Gift of Dr. Frederick Griffith

**Resource 10:** A caliper was an engineer's tool for measuring the diameter of a cylindrical, spherical, or other curved work. The caliper was laid over the item, then opened or closed until both points just touched the outer edges. The wing nuts were locked to keep the opening stable, and then the caliper was laid on a ruler so the opening could be measured. The caliper is a dependable, exacting version of the human thumb and forefinger. The tool in this photograph is 22 ½ inches long and made of steel with brass wing nuts.

In addition to calipers, an engineer's tool kit could include a compass (an instrument for showing direction), a protractor, sector, and transit (all tools for measuring angles), and a pantograph (a device for reproducing a map or drawing to the same or a different scale).

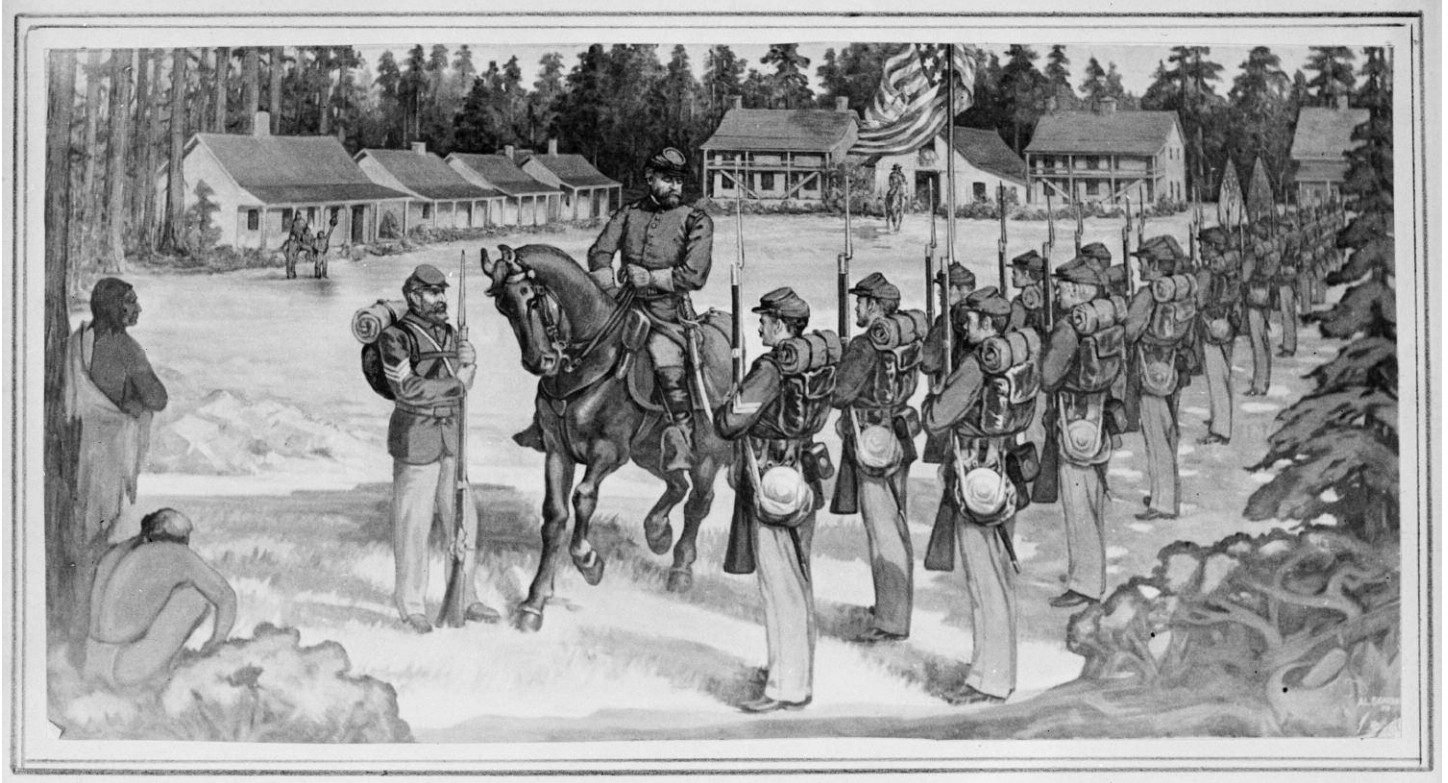
## Resource 11: Doorway at Fort Hamilton



Clare Richfield, *Fort Hamilton Doors*, 2007.

**Resource 11:** Depending on where they were posted, young West Point–trained engineers applied their skills in different ways. If they were out west, they might need to plan a road through a hilly virgin forest, or redirect a river to keep a harbor clear. Or they might be assigned to design and oversee the construction of a coastal fort, like Fort Hamilton in New York Harbor. This required a knowledge of architecture and local building materials, as well as an understanding of the weaponry that might be used against the fort. Robert E. Lee did not design Fort Hamilton, but he was assigned there and to other eastern forts in the 1830s and 1840s. Later, during the Civil War, he knew these forts would not withstand bombardment by the new artillery at his disposal.

## Resource 12: Fort Humboldt



Al Sondag, "Fort Humboldt," 20th century illustration based on old photographs of the fort. California State Military Museum.

**Resource 12:** Captain Ulysses S. Grant's assignment in January 1854 put him on the far Pacific coast, as far west as it was possible to go without a ship. Fort Humboldt was only a year old and was the only army post for miles around. It was built to protect the area's few hundred inhabitants from hostile Indians, and it also served as a supply depot for other forts along the coast. The garrison closed after the Civil War.

Grant spent five lonely months at Fort Humboldt. Four weeks after his arrival, he wrote to his wife: "You do not know how forsaken I feel here!...I feel...as if I had been separated from you and Fred. long enough and as to Ulys. I have never seen him. He must by this time be talking about as Fred. did when I saw him last. How very much I want to see all of you...I do nothing here but set in my room and read and occasionally [sic] take a short ride on one of the public horses....I got one letter from you since I have been here but it was some three months old. I fear very much that I shall lose some before they get in the regular way of coming. There is no regular mail between here and San Francisco so the only way we have of getting letters off is to give them to some Captain of a vessel to mail them after he gets down. In the same way mails are recieved [sic]...I hope the next mail we get to have several from you....Kiss our little ones for me. A thousand kisses for yourself dear Julia."

## **Background: Mexican American War**

In the early 19th century, Mexico and America were very different countries, the result of their very different colonial histories. Mexico admired the republican spirit of its stronger neighbor, but worried about its territorial ambitions. When Texas seceded from Mexico in 1836, Mexicans suspected that America was behind it. Nine years later, responding to pressure from the South to bring another slave state into the Union, America annexed Texas outright. Mexico did not object, but the United States dispatched an army to Corpus Christi, led by General Zachary Taylor. Young Ulysses S. Grant was among his forces.

President James K. Polk argued that slavery was not the issue in the Mexican War, but anti-slavery forces saw things very differently. Polk had run for president on a platform that included annexing Texas to enlarge the slave-holding area of the United States. Thanks to slave states' greater power in the U.S. Senate, the Wilmot Proviso, which would have prohibited the spread of slavery into territory won from Mexico, failed in 1846 and many times thereafter. The growing political power of slave states in Washington led to fears that slavery would be introduced in newly acquired Western territories, further adding to the power of pro-slavery forces. The delicate balance that the country had sought to maintain between slave and free states was profoundly at risk.

In the spring of 1846, General Taylor provoked the Mexican army to cross the Rio Grande, which the Americans had declared the border between the countries. Mexico believed the border to be the Nueces River, several miles to the north. So the land between the rivers was contested. When 11 of Taylor's soldiers were killed, President Polk told Congress that "American blood had been shed on American soil," and war was declared on May 13, 1846. Hostilities ended 16 months later, when General Winfield Scott's army won the final battle at Chapultepec and took the capital, Mexico City, which had been deserted by the Mexican military.

The war that began over Texas ended with an America that stretched from the Atlantic to the Pacific coast. For a generation of West Point graduates, it provided an introduction to combat and an opportunity to know nearly all the officers then in the Regular Army—the men they would serve with and against in the Civil War. And it presented the nation with unresolved questions about the expansion of slavery into the West, which the Compromise of 1850 would try in vain to resolve.

## Resource 1: James K. Polk's Message on War with Mexico

Ex. Doc. No. 60

Hostilities by Mexico.

Message from the President of the United States, relative to the invasion and commencement of hostilities by Mexico.

May 11, 1846.

Read, and referred to the Committee of the Whole House on the state of the Union.

To the Senate and House of Representatives:

The existing state of the relations between the United States and Mexico renders it proper that I should bring the subject to the consideration of Congress. ...

The grievous wrongs perpetrated by Mexico upon our citizens throughout a long period of years remain unredressed; and solemn treaties, pledging her public faith for this redress, have been disregarded. A government either unable or unwilling to enforce the execution of such treaties, fails to perform one of its plainest duties. ...

The cup of forbearance had been exhausted, even before the recent information from the frontier of the Del Norte; but now after reiterated menaces, Mexico has passed the boundary of the United States, has invaded our territory and shed American blood upon American soil. She has proclaimed that hostilities have commenced, and that the two nations are now at war.

As war exists, and, notwithstanding all our efforts to avoid it, exists by the act of Mexico herself, we are called upon by every consideration of duty and patriotism to vindicate with decision the honor, the rights, and the interest of our country. ...

In further vindication of our rights, and defence of our territory, I invoke the prompt action of Congress to recognize the existence of the war, and to place at the disposition of the Executive the means of prosecuting the war with vigor, and thus hastening the restoration of peace. ...

James K. Polk, Executive Document Number 6. Library of Congress.

**Resource 1:** James K. Polk was elected president in 1844 because he appealed to voters' hunger for national expansion. On this subject, he had enormous ambitions that were largely fulfilled during his one term in office. He wanted Texas to be an American state, and Congress passed a resolution annexing Texas even before he took office. He claimed the Oregon territory, which was in British hands. He offered Mexico \$20 million for California and the New Mexico country – neither area had the state boundaries they have today. When the Mexican government declined the purchase offer, Polk sent the U.S. Army to intimidate Mexico with a show of force. The two sides did not agree on where the border lay between Texas and Mexico. Mexico believed it was the Nueces River; the United States claimed it was further south, at the Rio Grande. When the U.S. Army entered the disputed territory between the rivers, Mexico attacked and killed 11 American soldiers. In this address to Congress, President Polk roused war fever by claiming that American blood had been shed on American soil. Knowing that this land could also be considered *Mexican* soil, his opponents in the Whig party passed a resolution declaring that the war had been “unnecessarily and unconstitutionally begun by the President.”

## Resource 2: “Eight Dollars a Day”



J. J. Hutchinson, “Eight Dollars a Day” (Boston: Oliver Ditson, 1848). Library of Congress.

**Resource 2:** The Hutchinson Family was a popular singing group of four siblings: Abby, Asa, John, and Judson, with their brother Jesse writing the lyrics. They performed in the 1840s, singing songs about country life and politics. They supported abolition and temperance, and opposed the war with Mexico as little more than a strategy for spreading slavery. “Eight dollars a day” was then the pay of Congressmen, and a good deal more money than was made by most Americans or, as the song points out, by the soldiers fighting in the war. Here are the first and ninth verses:

*At Washington, full once a year do politicians throng  
Contriving there by various arts to make their sessions long  
And many a reason do they give why they're obliged to stay,  
But the clearest reason yet adduced is Eight dollars a day.*

*Then the cry of war runs through the land for Volunteers to go  
And fight in the war for slavery on the plains of Mexico  
Seven dollars a month and to be shot at that is the common soldier's pay  
While those who send the poor fellows there get Eight dollars a day.*

### Resource 3: Mapa de los Estados Unidos de Méjico



John Disturnell, “Mapa de los Estados Unidos de Méjico,” 1847. Library of Congress.

**Resource 3:** The language of this map is almost entirely Spanish, but it was created by an American map-maker and published in New York, probably around the time fighting ended in September of 1847. The map shows Texas within the area labeled “Estados Unidos,” or United States, with the Rio Grande as its southern border. The states of Mexico are shown in pastels. Seven issues of this map were created in 1847, one of which was used as the official map during negotiations of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.

Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, Article V:

*The boundary line between the two Republics shall commence in the Gulf of Mexico, three leagues [about 9 miles] from land, opposite the mouth of the Rio Grande... from thence up the middle of that river... to the point where it strikes the southern boundary of New Mexico; thence, westwardly, along the whole southern boundary of New Mexico (which runs north of the town called Paso) to its western termination; thence, northward, along the western line of New Mexico, until it intersects the first branch of the river Gila...thence down the middle of the said branch and of the said river, until it empties into the Rio Colorado; thence across the Rio Colorado, following the division line between Upper and Lower California, to the Pacific Ocean.*

*The southern and western limits of New Mexico, mentioned in the article, are those laid down in the map entitled “Map of the United Mexican States, as organized and defined by various acts of the Congress of said republic, and constructed according to the best authorities. Revised edition. Published at New York, in 1847, by J. Disturnell,” of which map a copy is added to this treaty, bearing the signatures and seals of the undersigned Plenipotentiaries.*

## Resource 4: Drawing of a Mexican Man



Abner Doubleday, *Sketchbook and Scrapbook: Mexican War, 1846-47*. New-York Historical Society. Gift of Mrs. Thomas H. Eddy.

**Resource 4:** There is considerable doubt that Abner Doubleday really invented the game of baseball, but none about his role as a military man. Born near Cooperstown, New York, he was a year ahead of Ulysses S. Grant at West Point, where he developed his drawing skills. He spoke Spanish and loved Spanish literature. This drawing is one of several portraits of local people he did when he was serving in the Mexican American War. He was a general on the Union side during the Civil War.

### Resource 5: At the Battle of Palo Alto



At the Battle of Palo Alto, 1846. New-York Historical Society.

**Resource 5:** In early May 1846, the first major battle of the Mexican American War was fought on a Texas plain that was surrounded by tall trees (*palo alto* in Spanish). The Americans were outnumbered but better equipped, and they won with few casualties. Many of the Mexican soldiers, led by General Mariano Arista, were killed or wounded. The caption of this lithograph focuses on the outpouring of generosity by American troops. But the image itself portrays the winners and losers of this battle in starkly different ways.

In the Mexican American War, as in every war, the U. S. soldiers were also citizens with opinions about the justice of the war and the character of the people they were fighting. An image like this, portraying the Americans as successful and generous, and the enemy as weak and uncivilized, helped motivate the soldiers to fight. Similar images can be found for other wars, showing the enemy as inferior or monstrous.

## Resource 6: General Scott's Entrance into Mexico [City]



Carl Nebel, *General Scott's Entrance into Mexico [City]*, published in George Wilkins Kendall and Carl Nebel, *The War Between the United States and Mexico Illustrated* (New York and Philadelphia, 1851). Virginia Historical Society, Paul Mellon Collection.

**Resource 6:** When the Americans won at Chapultepec on September 13, 1847, Mexican forces abandoned the capital, Mexico City. The following day, U.S. forces entered the city and raised the American flag over the imperial palace. Robert E. Lee was among the first to enter the city's grand plaza, followed by General Winfield Scott's troops in full dress uniform, with Scott in his plumed hat. With this event, the war ended. This lithograph was done by a German artist named Carl Nebel, who probably witnessed the event. The soldiers portrayed are all Americans. Though Ulysses S. Grant later remembered that the city streets had been empty, angry stragglers from the Mexican Army hid on rooftops and behind curtains to shoot at the arriving conquerors.

## Resource 7: The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo (excerpt)

### IN THE NAME OF ALMIGHTY GOD

The United States of America and the United Mexican States animated by a sincere desire to put an end to the calamities of the war which unhappily exists between the two Republics and to establish Upon a solid basis relations of peace and friendship, which shall confer reciprocal benefits upon the citizens of both, and assure the concord, harmony, and mutual confidence wherein the two people should live, as good neighbors have for that purpose appointed their respective plenipotentiaries, that is to say: The President of the United States has appointed Nicholas P Trist, a citizen of the United States, and the President of the Mexican Republic has appointed Don Luis Gonzaga Cuevas, Don Bernardo Couto, and Don Miguel Atristain, citizens of the said Republic, Who, after a reciprocal communication of their respective full powers, have, under the protection of Almighty God, the author of peace, arranged, agreed upon, and signed the following:

Treaty of Peace, Friendship, Limits, and Settlement between the United States of America and the Mexican Republic.

Library of Congress.

**Resource 7:** After a long series of negotiations, this Treaty, concluded February 2, 1848, ended the Mexican American War. President Polk thought the U.S. negotiator, Nicholas Trist, had been too generous with Mexico, and tried to recall him during the negotiations. At General Winfield Scott's urging, Trist ignored the President, completed the discussion, and signed the Treaty. In exchange for peace and \$15 million, Mexico lost half of its territory.

## Resource 8: Grant and Lee on the Mexican American War

“To this day [I] regard the war...as one of the most unjust waged by a stronger against a weaker nation.... It is to the credit of the American nation, however, that after conquering Mexico, and while practically holding the country in our possession so that we could have retained the whole of it, or made any terms we chose, we paid a round sum for the additional territory taken; more than it was worth, or was likely to be, to Mexico.”

Ulysses S. Grant, Personal Memoirs, p. 41-2.

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“It is true we bullied her [Mexico]. Of that I am ashamed, as she was the weaker party.”

Robert E. Lee to Mary Custis Lee, February 13, 1848.

**Resource 8:** Late in his life, Ulysses S. Grant wrote: “Generally the officers of the army were indifferent whether the annexation [of Texas] was consummated or not; but not so all of them.” He then went on to point out his own strong feelings against the war. Robert E. Lee voiced similar sentiments in a letter to his wife written less than two weeks after the Treaty was signed. Neither man, however, questioned America’s desire or right to acquire more territory. They objected to the way it had been done.

## **Background: Appomattox**

During the Civil War, the Confederacy had its own constitution, its own president, and its own capital city in Richmond, Virginia. The Confederate government met there, and President Jefferson Davis lived in a mansion called the White House of the Confederacy. Three years into the war, Ulysses S. Grant led a massive campaign to capture this city, believing it would defeat the South for good.

Grant chose not to attack the well-defended capital directly. Instead, he focused on Petersburg, about 20 miles to the south. Most of Richmond's supplies came through this city. Beginning in the summer of 1864, Union forces lay siege to Petersburg, destroying highways, railroads, and bridges. Confederate forces under General Robert E. Lee defended Petersburg from a line of trenches, but they were badly outnumbered. The Confederate Congress debated whether to arm slaves to fight as soldiers, which would have increased the size of the Army dramatically, but the decision to do so came too late to affect the outcome of the war.

In March 1865, General Lee proposed to Jefferson Davis that the Army abandon Petersburg, sacrifice Richmond, and escape to merge with General Joe Johnston's 20,000 troops in North Carolina. Free of the need to defend the cities, the combined force could continue the war for as long as it took to win. This is just what Grant feared might happen as he continued the siege of Petersburg. On March 30 and 31, 1865, Federal forces tried repeatedly to destroy the last rail link from Petersburg to Richmond. Defending the rail line from a crossroads called Five Forks, the Confederates beat back the Union Army each time. But the tide was turning, and the events of the next nine days would be swift, dramatic, and conclusive.

## Resource 1: Nine Days

On March 31, 1865, Confederate troops were defending the capital city of Richmond, Virginia. On April 9, they surrendered to Union forces. This is what happened in the dramatic days in between.

### April 1, 1865

In the late afternoon, a massive Federal force, led by General Philip Sheridan's cavalry, attacked the Confederates at Five Forks, the junction of four roads south of Petersburg, Virginia. It was not the first effort, but this time Sheridan succeeded in capturing the South Side Railroad, the last major supply route to Richmond. In response, General Lee sent a telegram to the Confederate Secretary of War, later delivered to Jefferson Davis, advising that "all preparation be made for leaving Richmond tonight." Davis responded that a hasty departure would mean the loss of many valuables. Lee recognized the importance of civilian rule of the military, but the realities of the battlefield took precedence. He advised President Davis that it was "absolutely necessary" to leave Richmond within hours.

### April 2, 1865

Just after midnight, Grant began a full-scale attack on Petersburg. Lee sent a note to President Davis, recommending the evacuation of Richmond. In the darkness, Lee and his Army of 35,000 men made their escape, heading west along the Appomattox River. The Confederates had enough food for only one day, but Lee ordered more rations to be delivered by train to the town of Amelia Court House. Richmond was in chaos during the day as residents began to flee. Confederate weapons and tobacco warehouses were torched to keep them out of Federal hands, but the fire surged out of control and engulfed the city.

### April 3, 1865

Lee's Army continued westward, now nearly out of food. Grant was in pursuit, a few hours behind.

### April 4, 1865

The Confederate Army arrived at Amelia Court House, but due to a stunning mix-up, the train they found was filled with weapons, not food. Lee asked local people for any provisions they could spare, losing valuable time as he waited for their response.

### April 5, 1865

Amelia's residents reported they had no food to give, and Lee had no choice but to order his hungry men to keep marching. He ordered emergency supplies sent to Burkville, one day's march away. The weakened men began to collapse, and desertions increased. General Sheridan's cavalry was closing in, forcing deadly skirmishes with Lee's rear guard.

### April 6, 1865

The Confederates were attacked by Sheridan's cavalry at Sailor's Creek. Despite their condition, Lee's men put up a fierce hand-to-hand fight that involved scratching and biting. In the end, the Federals won and captured 6,000 Confederate troops, with another 2,000 killed or wounded. Lee then had fewer than 30,000 weak, starving men. Grant's Army was well-fed, well-equipped, and 80,000-strong.

### **April 7, 1865**

Grant, closing in, sent Lee a message asking for the surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia. Lee replied that he did not see the situation as hopeless, but asked what the terms of surrender would be.

### **April 8, 1865**

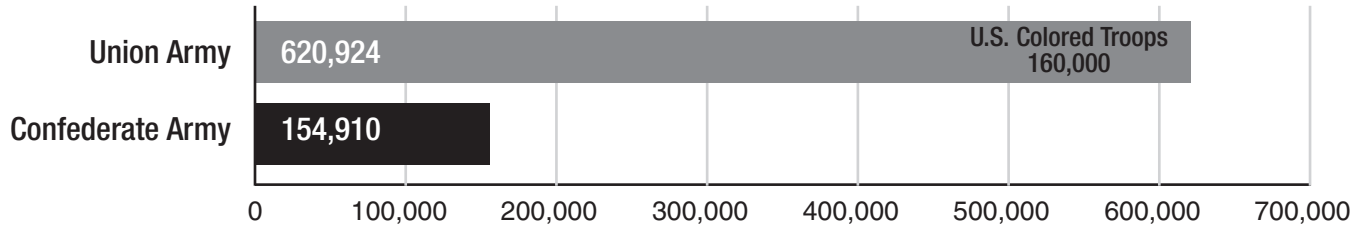
Lee met with his officers. Generals E. Porter Alexander suggested that Lee disband the Army immediately and let the men run off to regroup further south and begin a guerilla campaign against Federal forces. Lee said no, that the soldiers would become nothing but mobs forced to forage and steal, destroying the countryside and delaying the recovery of the South. Another message arrived from Grant, spelling out the terms of surrender. Lee did not respond.

### **April 9, 1865**

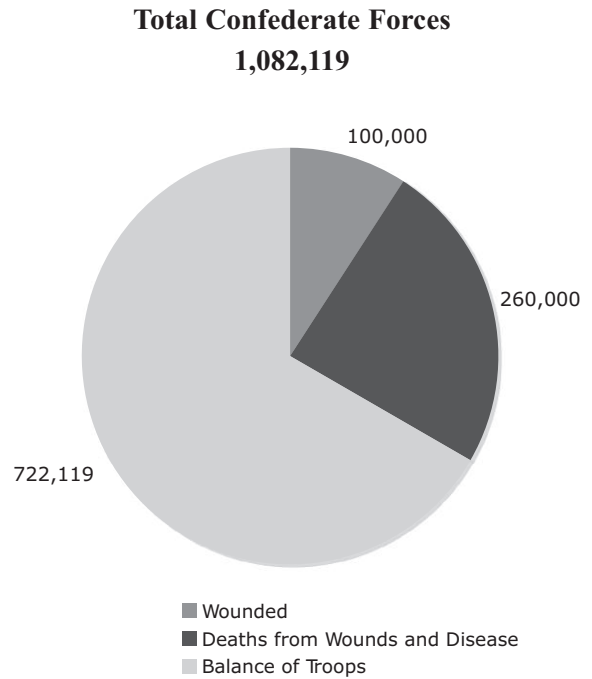
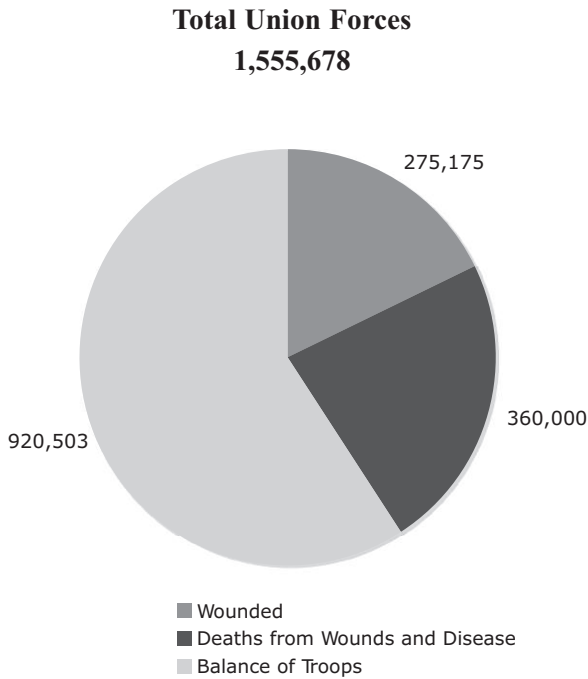
At dawn, hoping his Army could fight its way through Union lines, Lee sent General John Gordon to lead the breakout. Gordon's men saw a huge Union force, two miles wide. Learning of this, Lee had a choice: a suicide mission for his soldiers or surrender. He sent a message to Grant asking for a meeting, indicating that he would surrender. The two generals met in the parlor of Wilmer McLean's house and signed the terms of surrender that President Lincoln had outlined.

## Resource 2: Civil War Numbers

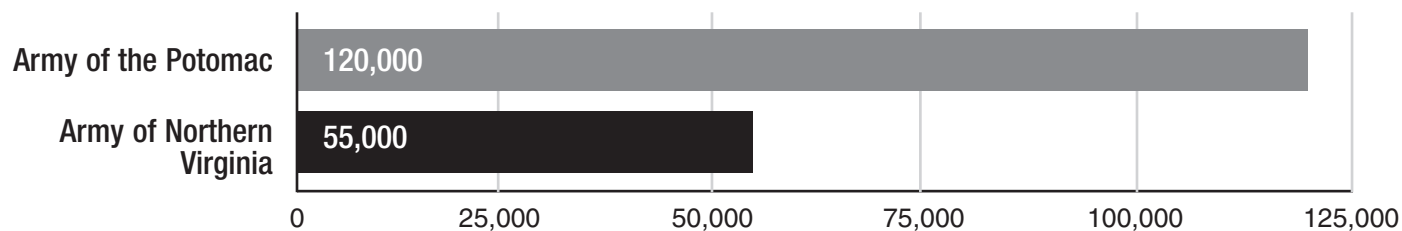
### The Size of the Armies, January 1, 1865



### Total Number of Killed and Wounded, 1861-1865



### The Size of the Armies at the Siege of Petersburg



### Confederate Army at Appomattox

|  |        |
|--|--------|
| Number of Confederate soldiers surrendered.....                          | 26,115 |
| Approximate number of Union rations delivered to Confederate ranks ..... | 26,000 |
| Number of cannons surrendered .....                                      | 159    |
| Number of regimental colors surrendered.....                             | 71     |
| Number of small arms surrendered .....                                   | 15,918 |
| Approximate number of wagons, caissons, etc. surrendered .....           | 1,100  |
| Approximate number of horses and mules surrendered.....                  | 4,000  |

*This list is based on an article in the Richmond Whig, April 26, 1865, and other sources.*

### Resource 3: With Malice Toward None

“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.”

Abraham Lincoln, Second Inaugural Address, March 4, 1865.

**Resource 3:** One of the most familiar passages in American history, this paragraph provided the closing lines of Abraham Lincoln’s second inaugural address on March 4, 1865. It was the most public way possible for the President to say that in the interests of healing the country, the South would not be punished when the war ended. Twenty days later, Lincoln traveled to General Grant’s headquarters at City Point, Virginia, and stayed for two weeks. At a meeting aboard the ship, *River Queen*, Lincoln talked about the next steps with General Grant, General William Tecumseh Sherman, and Admiral David Porter of the U.S. Navy. Sherman asked Lincoln what should be done with the Confederates after they surrendered. “Let them go, officers and all...I want no one punished; treat them liberally all round. We want those people to return to their allegiance to the Union and submit to the laws.” Ulysses S. Grant recognized – just as Robert E. Lee recognized – that the Army in a democracy was under the control of the president. But Grant was in complete agreement with Lincoln’s view, which formed the basis of the agreement at Appomattox.

## Resource 4: Terms of Surrender

Appomattox C. H. Va.  
Ap' 1 9<sup>th</sup>, 1865

Gen. R. W. Lee,

Comd'g C.S.A.

Gen.:

In accordance with the substance of my letter to you of the 18th inst., I propose to receive the surrender of the Army of N. Va. on the following terms, to wit: Rolls of all the officers and men to be made in duplicate. One copy to be given to an officer designated by me, the other to be retained by such officer or officers as you may designate. The officers to give their individual paroles not to take up arms against the Government of the United States until properly exchanged, and each company or regimental commander sign a like parole for the men of their commands. The arms, artillery and public property to be parked and stacked, and turned over to the officer appointed by me to receive them. This will not embrace the side-arms of the officers, not their private horses or baggage. This done, each officer and man will be allowed to return to their homes, not to be disturbed by United States authority so long as they observe their paroles and the laws in force where they may reside.

Very respectfully,  
U.S. Grant,  
Lt.-Gen.

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Headquarters Army of Northern Virginia  
April 9, 1865

General:--I received your letter of this date containing the terms of the surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia as proposed by you. As they are substantially the same as those expressed in your letter of the 8th inst., they are accepted. I will proceed to designate the proper officers to carry the stipulations into effect.

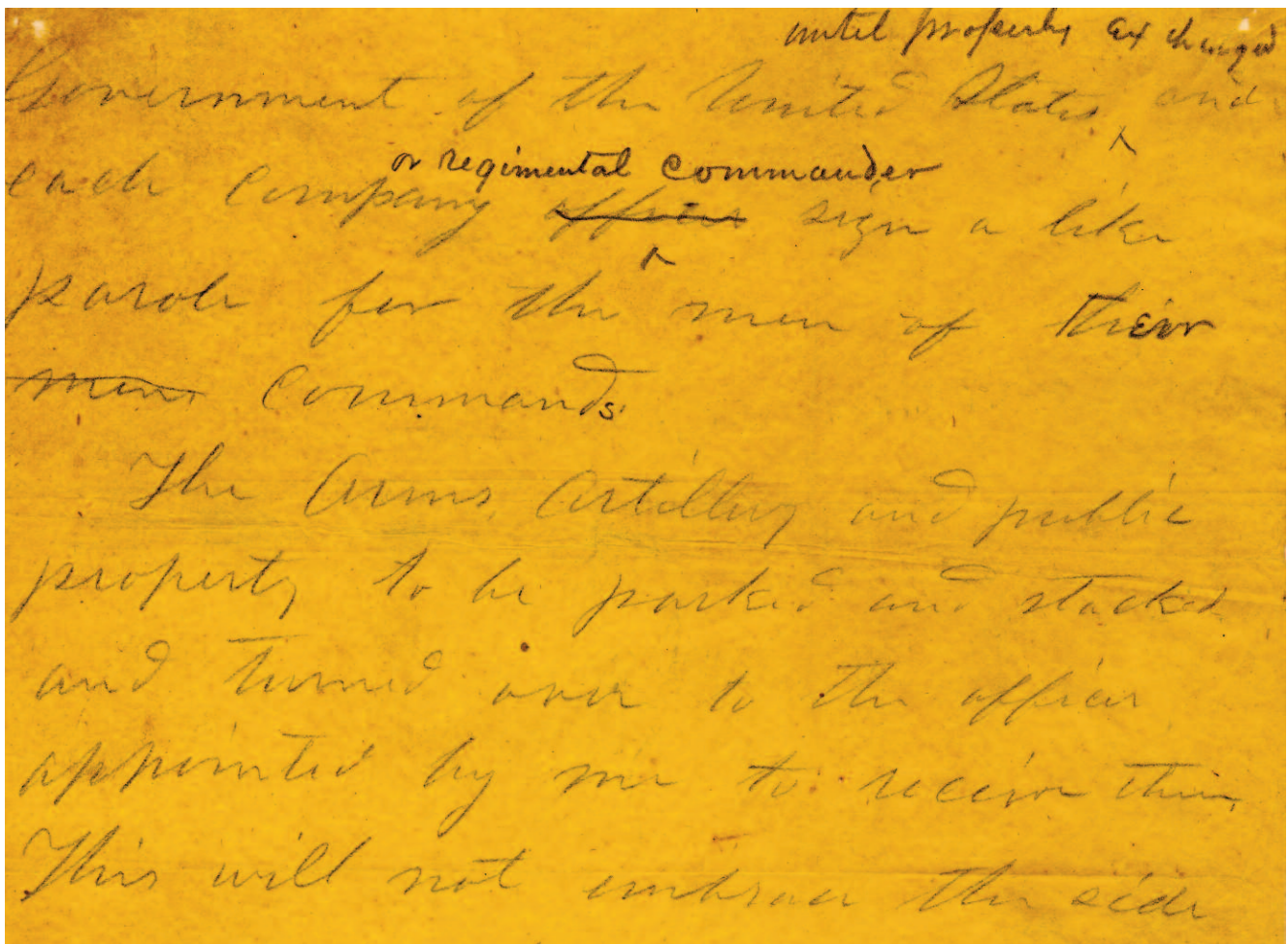
R. E. Lee, General

U. S. Grant to R. E. Lee, *Terms of Surrender*, April 9, 1865. Stratford Hall Plantation.

**Resource 4:** On Civil War battlefields, messages between the two sides were handwritten and delivered by a courier carrying a flag of truce. The series of letters that would end the war began on April 7, 1865, when Grant first asked Lee to surrender. Lee responded that he did not see the need to surrender, but he asked what the terms might be. Over the next two days, the two generals exchanged more letters as the armies continued to move toward Appomattox Court House. On the morning of April 9, after the last effort to break out failed, General Lee asked for “an interview” to discuss the surrender terms Grant had outlined. The two men met in the parlor of a nearby farmhouse. General Grant wrote out the terms, which his aide, Ely Parker, later rewrote in a clear hand. General Lee wrote his own brief note of acceptance and surrendered the Army of Northern Virginia. There was never a formal treaty ending the Civil War, just these personal letters between the two generals.

Confederates were allowed to keep their side arms and horses, but were required to turn in military arms, bayonets, and ordnance. Grant authorized 25,000 rations for the hungry Confederates, demonstrating the tremendously effective Northern supply system established by the end of the war. He also insisted that demobilized soldiers get free passage on the railroads, thus encouraging the dispersal of the defeated Army in time to plant crops. Few of the rail lines, however, were still operating.

“Until properly exchanged” referred to the practice of trading prisoners of war. When Lee surrendered at Appomattox, other Confederate armies were still fighting and the war was not yet over. So Lee’s Confederate soldiers, while free and allowed to return home, were technically prisoners of war until they were exchanged for their Union counterparts.



Government of the United States, and  
each company <sup>or Regimental Commander</sup> ~~officer~~ sign a like  
parole for the men of their  
respective commands.

The Arms, Artillery and public  
property, to be packed and stacked  
and turned over to the officer  
appointed by me to receive them.  
This will not embrace the side

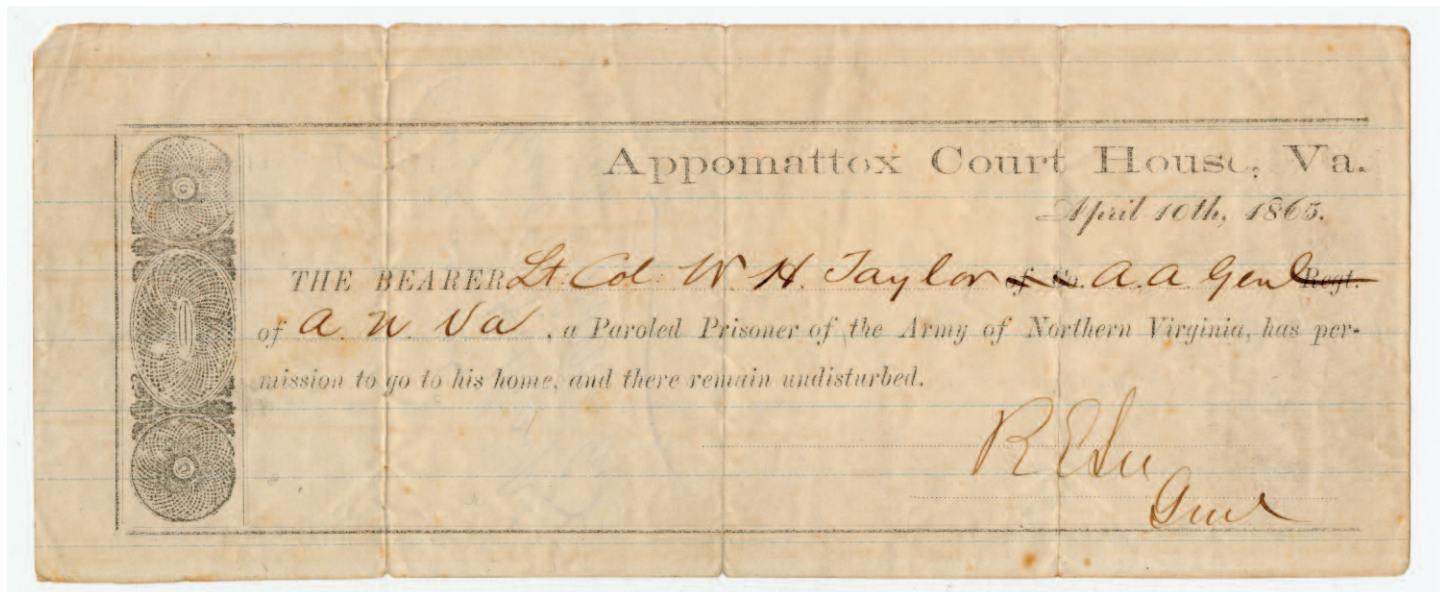
## Resource 5: The Surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia



Louis M. D. Guillaume, *The Surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia*, 1867. Appomattox Court House National Historical Park.

**Resource 5:** The Civil War was extensively photographed, but no one with a camera was present when Grant and Lee met in Appomattox. The event has been painted many times since, beginning with this 1867 rendering by a French-American artist. Based on written reports, it is relatively accurate, although the two generals actually sat at separate small tables. The two men at the left are (wearing gray) Charles Marshall, General Lee's aide, and (wearing blue) Ely Parker, who would write a clean copy of the surrender terms for General Grant. Parker was a Seneca Indian and Union general who later worked in President Grant's administration. After the signing, General Lee greeted General Parker, saying he was "glad to see a real American here." Parker captured several meanings when he answered: "We are all Americans."

## Resource 6: A Confederate Parole



Parole of Walter Herron Taylor, 1865. The Museum of the Confederacy.

**Resource 6:** All former soldiers of the Army of Northern Virginia was given a pass that identified them as a paroled prisoner of the Army of Northern Virginia. Without it, they might easily have been captured by Union forces still fighting against Confederate armies in the South. “There remain undisturbed” meant the soldiers would not be arrested and tried for treason. A similar phrase, “not to be disturbed by United States authority” appeared in the original surrender terms, with the same meaning.

## Resource 7: General Lee's Farewell to His Troops

After four years of arduous service, marked by unsurpassed courage and fortitude, the Army of Northern Virginia has been compelled to yield to overwhelming numbers and resources. I need not tell the brave survivors of so many hard fought battles, who have remained steadfast to the last, that I have consented to this result from no distrust of them. But feeling that valor and devotion could accomplish nothing that could compensate for the loss that must have attended the continuance of the contest, I determined to avoid the useless sacrifice of those whose past services have endeared them to their countrymen. By the terms of the agreement, officers and men can return to their homes and remain until exchanged. You will take with you the satisfaction that proceeds from the consciousness of duty faithfully performed; and I earnestly pray that a Merciful God will extend to you His blessings and protection.

With an unceasing admiration of your constancy and devotion to your Country, and a grateful remembrance of your kind and generous consideration for myself, I bid you all an affectionate farewell.

R. E. Lee, Gen.  
General Order Number 9  
April 10, 1865

Robert E. Lee, *General Orders No. 9*, April 9, 1865. Virginia Historical Society.

**Resource 7:** On April 10, 1865 – the day after the surrender – General Lee issued “General Orders Number 9.” In this final message to his men, Lee acknowledged that his forces had been outnumbered, praised his men’s bravery, explained his reasons for surrendering, and closed the door to further fighting.

## Resource 8: “What Are We to Do?”

“During these last scenes at Appomattox some of the Confederates were so depressed in spirit, so filled with apprehensions as to the policy to be adopted by the civil authorities at Washington, that the future seemed to them shrouded in gloom.... ‘What are we to do? How are we to begin life again?’ they asked. ‘Every dollar of our circulating medium has been rendered worthless. Our banks and rich men have no money. The commodities and personal property which formerly gave us credit have been destroyed. The Northern banks and money-lenders will not take as security our lands, denuded of houses and without animals and implements for their cultivation. The railroads are torn up or the tracks are worn out. The negroes are freed and may refuse to work. Besides, what assurance can we have of law and order and the safety of our families with four million slaves suddenly emancipated in the midst of us and the restraints to which they have been accustomed entirely removed?’

“...I was inclined to take a more hopeful view of the future...Sitting on my horse in the midst of them, I spoke to them for the last time as their commander.... I closed with a prophecy that passion would speedily die, and that the brave and magnanimous soldiers of the Union army, when disbanded and scattered among the people, would become promoters of sectional peace and fraternity.

“That prophecy would have been speedily fulfilled but for the calamitous fate that befell the country in the death of President Lincoln; and even in spite of that great misfortune, we should have much sooner reached the era of good-will and sectional concord if the spirit of the soldiers who did the fighting had animated the civilians who did the talking.”

General John B. Gordon, *Reminiscences of the Civil War* (New York: Charles Scribner’s Sons, 1904), 447-450.

**Resource 8:** In the days and weeks before Appomattox, some members of the Confederate government believed they would be hanged for treason if the South lost. Soldiers themselves feared they would be sent to prison camps. This had happened to captured soldiers on both sides during the war. When Lee's men learned they would be allowed to return home after the surrender, a new fear rose about the ruin the war had brought to the South. The landscape and culture had been devastated, and the men knew they would not simply go home and resume the life they had left four years earlier. In addition, the men feared a fundamentally changed social order created by the end of slavery. They had never lived in a world in which black people were free and all laborers were paid.

## Resource 9: Appomattox and Beyond

### Thomas Lafayette Rosser, C.S.A. (Confederate States of America)

“I for the first time became alarmed. Early that morning [April 9], a communication came in to me from the Yankees addressed to Gen. R. E. Lee....We all soon would be prisoners!”

Rosser, Thomas Lafayette. “Memorandum, Report of Operations Around Richmond After Retreat to Appox. CH.” [n.d.] New-York Historical Society Manuscript Collection, Misc. Rosser.

### General Edward Porter Alexander, U.S.A.

“Of course I met at the Federal headquarters many old army friends... One of my class-mates named Warner from Pa...said: ‘Aleck, I guess you fellows haven’t much money about you but Confederate, just now, & in your present situation it may be a little inconvenient.... I will really be very much obliged to you if you will let me lend you two or three hundred dollars, that you may return, if you insist upon it, sometime in the future.’ That touched me very deeply, coming from one to whom I had really no special relations at all; but it is only a fair sample of the spirit that breathed everywhere.”

*Fighting for the Confederacy: The Personal Recollections of General Edward Porter Alexander*, Gary W. Gallagher, ed., Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1989.

### Major Alexandria S. Johnson, U.S.A.

“After advancing some eight hundred yards the brigade was ordered to halt and form in line of battle...Some eight hundred yards away was the Army of Northern Virginia, with its three lines of battle awaiting us. We had not been at a halt more than twenty minutes when news of Lee’s surrender reached us. Our brigade celebrated the event by firing volleys of musketry in the air. Officers hugged each other with joy. About four hundred yards to the rear was a portion of the Twenty-fourth Corps, which had been marching to our support. The men in that long line threw their caps upwards until they looked like a flock of crows. From wood and dale came the sound of cheers from thousands of throats. Appomattox will never hear the like again.”

Major Alexandria S. Johnson, 116th Phalanx Regiment, United States Colored Troops. Quoted in Joseph T. Wilson, *The Black Phalanx: A History of the Negro Soldiers of the United States* (Hartford, Connecticut: American Publishing Company, 1888), 457.

### William Spiller, U.S.A

“After many years of war it seems reasonable that the Northern army should have gone nearly wild with joy – but we did not.... I remember how we sat there and pitied, and sympathized with those courageous Southern men, who had fought for four long and dreary years all so stubbornly, so bravely and so well.”

William H. Spiller, quoted in S. Millet Thompson, *Thirteenth Regiment of New Hampshire’s Volunteer Infantry in the War of the Rebellion, 1861-1865: A Diary Covering Three Years and a Day*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin and Company, 1888, p. 587.

### **Major-General Bryan Grimes, C.S.A.**

[Confederate General Gordon] informed me that we would be surrendered. I expressed very forcibly my dissent to being surrendered, and indignantly upbraided him for not giving me notice of such intention, as I could have escaped with my division and joined General Joe Johnston, then in North Carolina....[He placed] his [119] hand upon my shoulder, asked me if I were going to desert the army and tarnish my own honor as a soldier; that it would be a reflection upon General Lee, and an indelible disgrace to me, that I, an officer of rank, should escape under a flag of truce, which was then pending.

Bryan Grimes, *Extracts of Letters of Major-General Bryan Grimes, to his Wife, Compiled by Pulaski Cowper*, Raleigh, NC: Alfred Williams & Co, 1884, p. 118-119.

### **Abraham Lincoln**

“We meet this evening, not in sorrow, but in gladness of heart. The evacuation of Petersburg and Richmond, and the surrender of the principal insurgent army, give hope of a righteous and speedy peace whose joyous expression can not be restrained....The colored man too, in seeing all united for him, is inspired with vigilance, and energy, and daring....Grant that he desires the elective franchise....”

From Abraham Lincoln’s address to the crowd, delivered by candlelight in the rain, from a balcony at the White House. April 11, 1865.

### **John Wilkes Booth**

“That means nigger citizenship. Now, by God, I’ll put him through. This is the last speech he will ever make.”

John Wilkes Booth, after listening to Abraham Lincoln’s April 11 speech on Reconstruction. James M. McPherson, *Battle Cry of Freedom*, 852.

### **T. R. Keenan, U.S.A.**

“Our joy is dampened by the foul murder of the ‘good man’ – our beloved President. I wish I could, in the least, give you an idea of the feeling in our army – it is awful! I never saw such a desperate set of men in my whole life, as I see in every company. Go where you will, nothing but the most fearful curses and cries for revenge can be heard.... If fighting had continued...the South would have been deluged with blood.”

Letter from T.R. Keenan, 17th Mass. Volunteers, Raleigh, NC, April 20, 1865. From Lydia Minturn Post, *Soldiers’ Letters*, (New York: Bunce & Huntington, Publishers), 1865, 466-467.

### **Mary Chesnut**

“We are scattered – stunned – the remnant of heart left alive with us, filled with brotherly hate.”

Mary Chestnut, Richmond, Virginia, May 16, 1865.

### **Frederick Douglass**

“May we not justly say, will it not be the unquestioned sentiment of history that the liberty which Mr. Lincoln declared with his pen General Grant made effectual with his sword – by his skill in leading the Union armies to victory?”

Frederick Douglass, “U.S. Grant and the Colored People.” 1872

## Resource 10: Friends in Hard Times: Excerpts from Mary Chesnut's Diary

March 27th. - I have moved again [to Chester, S.C.], and now I am looking from a window high, with something more to see than the sky. We have the third story of Dr. Da Vega's house.... Again am I surrounded by old friends. People seem to vie with each other to show how good they can be to me.

...Here was my first help toward housekeeping again. Mrs. Pride has sent a boiled ham, a loaf of bread, a huge pancake; another neighbor coffee already parched and ground; a loaf of sugar already cracked; candles, pickles, and all the other things one must trust to love for now. Such money as we have avails us nothing, even if there were anything left in the shops to buy.

March 29th. - I was awakened with a bunch of violets from Mrs. Pride. Violets always remind me of [my sister] Kate and of the sweet South wind that blew in the garden of paradise part of my life. Then, it all came back: the dread unspeakable that lies behind every thought now.

Thursday [March 30]. - ....Wigfall says, "It is all over; the game is up." He is on his way to Texas, and when the hanging begins he can step over into Mexico....

Yesterday while I was driving with Mrs. Pride, Colonel McCaw passed us! He called out, "I do hope you are in comfortable quarters." "Very comfortable," I replied. "Oh, Mrs. Chesnut!" said Mrs. Pride, "how can you say that?" "Perfectly comfortable, and hope it may never be worse with me," said I. "I have a clean little parlor, 16 by 18, with its bare floor well scrubbed, a dinner-table, six chairs, and - well, that is all; but I have a charming lookout from my window high. My world is now thus divided into two parts - where Yankees are and where Yankees are not."

As I sat disconsolate, looking out, ready for any new tramp of men and arms, the magnificent figure of General Preston hove in sight. He was mounted on a mighty steed, worthy of its rider, followed by his trusty squire, William Walker, who bore before him the General's portmanteau. When I had time to realize the situation, I perceived at General Preston's right hand Mr. Christopher Hampton and Mr. Portman, who passed by. Soon Mrs. Pride, in some occult way, divined or heard that they were coming here, and she sent me at once no end of good things for my tea-table.

April 5th. - Miss Middleton's letter came in answer to mine, telling her how generous my friends here were to me. "We long," she says, "for our own small sufficiency of wood, corn, and vegetables. Here is a struggle unto death, although the neighbors continue to feed us, as you would say, 'with a spoon.' We have fallen upon a new device. We keep a cookery book on the mantelpiece, and when the dinner is deficient we just read off a pudding or a creme. It does not entirely satisfy the appetite, this dessert in imagination, but perhaps it is as good for the digestion."

*A Diary from Dixie, as Written by Mary Boykin Chesnut, Wife of James Chesnut, Jr., United States Senator From South Carolina, 1859-1861, and Afterward an Aide to Jefferson Davis and a Brigadier-General in the Confederate Army*, edited by Isabella D. Martin and Myrta Lockett Avery (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1905, p. 369-380). Accessed at <http://docsouth.unc.edu/southlit/chesnut/menu.html>, 7/24/08, M. Waters.

April 7th. - Richmond has fallen and I have no heart to write about it...

April 15th. - What a week it has been - madness, sadness, anxiety, turmoil, ceaseless excitement...Yankees were expected here every minute. Mrs. Davis came. We went down to the cars at daylight to receive her. She dined with me...People sent me things for Mrs. Davis, as they did in Columbia for Mr. Davis. It was a luncheon or breakfast only she stayed for here. Mrs. Brown prepared a dinner for her at the station. I went down with her. She left here at five o'clock. My heart was like lead, but we did not give way. She was as calm and smiling as ever. It was but a brief glimpse of my dear Mrs. Davis, and under altered skies.

April 19th. - Just now, when Mr. Clay dashed up-stairs, pale as a sheet, saying, "General Lee has capitulated," I saw it reflected in Mary Darby's face before I heard him speak. She staggered to the table, sat down, and wept aloud....

April 22nd. -... It has been a wild three days, with aides galloping around with messages, Yankees hanging over us like a sword of Damocles. We have been in queer straits. We sat up at Mrs. Bedon's dressed, without once going to bed for forty-eight hours, and we were weary.

Colonel Cadwallader Jones came with a despatch, a sealed secret despatch. It was for General Chesnut. I opened it. Lincoln, old Abe Lincoln, has been killed, murdered, and Seward wounded! Why? By whom? It is simply maddening, all this.

...[T]his foul murder will bring upon us worse miseries. Mary Darby says, "But they murdered him themselves. No Confederates are in Washington." "But if they see fit to accuse us of instigating it?" "Who murdered him? Who knows?" "See if they don't take vengeance on us, now that we are ruined and can not repel them any longer."

**Resource 10:** Mary Chesnut (1823-1866) was born and raised in South Carolina. At the outbreak of the war, her husband, James Chesnut, became the first U.S. Senator to resign his position and join the Confederacy. Because she was the wife of a Confederate general and member of the government, she came to know many of the leaders well, including President Jefferson Davis and his wife, Varina. Although her husband was a defender of slavery, Mary Chesnut found it cruel and unjust. She nevertheless remained a fierce defender of the South. Her wartime diary captured moments great and small in her life and the lives of the people she knew.

## Resource 11: Richmond

**HARPER'S WEEKLY.**  
SATURDAY, APRIL 15, 1865.  
RICHMOND.

**W**HEN OLIVER CROMWELL won a vast and decisive victory his earnest heart thanked God for a "crowning mercy;" and we may be sure that nothing less than the consciousness of a great deliverance could have set every bell ringing, every flag flying, every heart beating, and have brought merchants and bankers to the steps of the Exchange at high noon of Monday, April 3, 1865, to unite in solemnly singing "Old Hundred" and "John Brown." The Virginian capital, dextrously defended for years as the very heart of the rebellion, was not surrendered by military or civil negotiation: the armies of the United States did not occupy it by permission of any man or body of men. They entered victorious, and liberated thousands of their fellow-citizens from the most relentless despotism.

It was fit that the old flag should be restored to the city of Richmond by soldiers of the race to secure whose eternal degradation that flag had been pulled down; and it was peculiarly fit that the army of the Potomac so brave and steady and persistent, so long baffled by various fortune, should at last justify their own patient heroism and the national confidence by striking the final blow. Nor less pleasant is it that the concluding operations of the war in its chief battle-field of Virginia should have been personally directed by the simple, silent, sagacious, tenacious soldier, whose name will be always precious in the national heart, the Lieutenant-General of the armies of the United States.

It is a natural speculation to wonder what the rebels will do next. Their leaders are not men who will relinquish the struggle until the defeat and disappearance of their soldiers assure them that there is no other alternative. Those soldiers comprise the most desperate men of the insurrection, and their fighting at Fort Steadman, and Bentonville, and through the tremendous days that destroyed their cause before Petersburg, shows that then, at least, they were not demoralized. If LEE can escape with any

considerable force tolerably well organized he will join JOHNSTON, and either make for the mountains or for the Southwest; or, possibly, upon a calm military survey of the situation, considering his ghastly disaster in Virginia and the comparative fewness of his defeated troops, surrender unconditionally. If he can not escape, and is compelled to face GRANT again, the question will be decided before these words are read.

As for the country, solemnized by the war and inspired by its success, it has learned what it did not know at first—and that is, what it is fighting for. While it has been defending its Government, assailed by rebels, it has learned that the assault was made in the interest of a system inconsistent with free government, as it is with manly honor and Christian civilization. An earlier and easier victory would have blinded its eyes, and have delivered it once more to the deadly political corruption of slavery, which would have made the next shock of inevitable war even more perilous than this has been. Bull Run was a bitter pang, but it was a higher wisdom that caused us to

"Wait beneath the furnace blast  
The pangs of transformation,"

until the costly blood of its noblest children washed the national blindness away, and every man saw the reality of the terrible conflict between humanity and brutality, civil order and barbarism.

And now, with no hatred of our fellow-citizens with whom we have fought, and whom we know were deluded by leaders who can never be forgiven, without scorn or vituperation, but with devout gratitude to Almighty God for this crowning mercy, let us all, remembering the young and brave by whom we have been saved, the eyes that are dim and the hearts that are breaking, even in this hour of jubilee, resolve that the peace they have secured for us shall be as broad as liberty and as eternal as justice.

*Harper's Weekly*, April 15, 1865. New-York Historical Society.

**Resource 11:** *Harper's Weekly* was a New York journal founded in 1857 that grew to a circulation of 200,000 in just three years, with many readers in the South. Before war broke out, it was fiercely on the side of the Union and wrote moderately about slavery to avoid offending Southern readers and fueling talk of secession. Anti-slavery forces sometimes called the journal *Harper's Weekly*. After the war began, its editorial position sharpened. It applauded Lincoln's handling of the crisis and became a prominent supporter of the Republican Party. With reporters and artists in the battlefield, and a crew of engravers in New York, *Harper's Weekly* provided the most up-to-date information and images that the technology of the day allowed. After the war, *Harper's Weekly* played an important role in Ulysses S. Grant's election to two terms as president.

Issues of *Harper's Weekly* went to press each Wednesday and were published the next Saturday, carrying the issue date of the following Saturday. So, the April 15, 1865, edition went to press on April 5 and was published on April 8, before Lee's surrender at Appomattox. Writing this article between April 3 and April 5, the reporter was aware that Lee was trying to escape and join Joseph E. Johnston, and he knew that if Lee faced Grant again, "the question will be decided before these words are read."

## **Background: Reconstruction and the Lost Cause**

Pressing questions faced the country after the Civil War. How would former Confederate states be brought back into the Union? What were the rights of former slaves, now freedmen? How were those rights to be protected and guaranteed? How was the nation to move beyond war and occupation, to unity and stability? As Washington leaders argued over whether to require former Confederate states to accept the 14th Amendment before being readmitted as full members of the Union, Southern resistance to rights for freedmen hardened. Conflict arose in Mississippi, South Carolina, and other states. Bitter divisions exploded in New Orleans in the summer of 1866.

In 1864, New Orleans had been Union territory, and under President Lincoln's order, it had held a convention to draft a new state constitution based on the abolition of slavery. Two years later, as former Confederate politicians returned to power and brought white supremacist positions to the city and state, a group consisting of freedmen, black Union soldiers, local black leaders, and relocated anti-slavery whites (the hated carpetbaggers) decided to continue the 1864 convention and to add voting rights for blacks to the state constitution. The date for reconvening was set for July 30, 1866. They had the support of Governor Wells, the Republicans, and the U.S. Congress. They were opposed by the New Orleans Mayor and by the city police and state legislature, which were both dominated by former Confederates.

The organizers of the state convention were also opposed by President Andrew Johnson, who did not support black suffrage or any requirements for former Confederate states re-entering the Union. He argued that the states should be restored to their former positions in the Union simply by his executive order. Congress disagreed vigorously. This conflict put the Army in New Orleans in an uncertain role, made more tenuous by the absence of commanding officer General Philip Sheridan, who was in Texas. The 1866 riot, the focus of documents in this unit, was the first round in an ongoing conflict over political control of Louisiana. Today, it reads as a case study in the failed transition from war and occupation to a peacetime civilian society.

This unit looks at the New Orleans riots as one example of Southern efforts to restrict rights for freedmen, but it brings in a second issue to introduce students more generally to Southern thinking after the war. The Lost Cause movement was a campaign to write the history of the Civil War in terms favorable to the South. The phrase referred to the failed dream of an independent Confederate nation. The term first appeared as the title of a book by Edward A. Pollard in 1866. But the movement itself developed after the 1870 death of Robert E. Lee, and was shaped largely by former Confederate General Jubal Early.

The Lost Cause created a much-larger-than-life hero in Robert E. Lee, who was exonerated of any blame for the South's defeat. It held that Lee had been perfect as a man and a general, beyond reproach, and something close to a god. It blamed the defeat of the Confederacy on the Union's larger armies and on fatal mistakes made by a few Confederate generals under Lee's command, especially James Longstreet at the Battle of Gettysburg. It reframed the reason for the war, arguing that slavery was the North's convenient excuse for hostilities between two parties that had become each other's opposites and rivals. It held that the people of the South were better than those of the North. Southerners were gallant, gentle, and honorable. Northerners were

brutal, crude, and – a reference to the many European immigrants among the Union’s troops – alien. One Southern general claimed that the bodies of fallen Confederate soldiers had decomposed much more beautifully than those of the Union.

Now widely discredited by historians, the Lost Cause held a powerful and lasting grip on memory in the old Confederacy, and its attitudes are visible today in both the North and the South. It recast Lee, Longstreet, and slavery itself to give the South a story it could live with.

## Resource 1: The Reconstruction Amendments to the U.S. Constitution (Excerpts)

### **The 13th Amendment**

Passed by Congress January 31, 1865. Ratified December 6, 1865.

Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

### **The 14th Amendment**

Passed by Congress June 13, 1866. Ratified July 9, 1868

All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor to deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

### **The 15th Amendment**

Passed by Congress February 26, 1869. Ratified February 3, 1870.

The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

The United States Constitution. Available online at <http://www.gpoaccess.gov/constitution/index.html>

**Resource 1:** Three landmark Reconstruction Amendments were passed after the Civil War, and with each one, Congress believed that the legal structure to end slavery and guarantee the rights of freedmen was in place. The 13th Amendment outlawed slavery and was ratified quickly. When the South instituted Black Codes to impose restrictions on freedmen, the 14th Amendment was passed to guarantee the rights of citizenship to former slaves. The 15th Amendment was meant to close the last loophole used to deny rights to former slaves and protect the voting rights of freed people, but new loopholes prevented most blacks from voting in the South until the Voting Rights Act was passed in 1965.

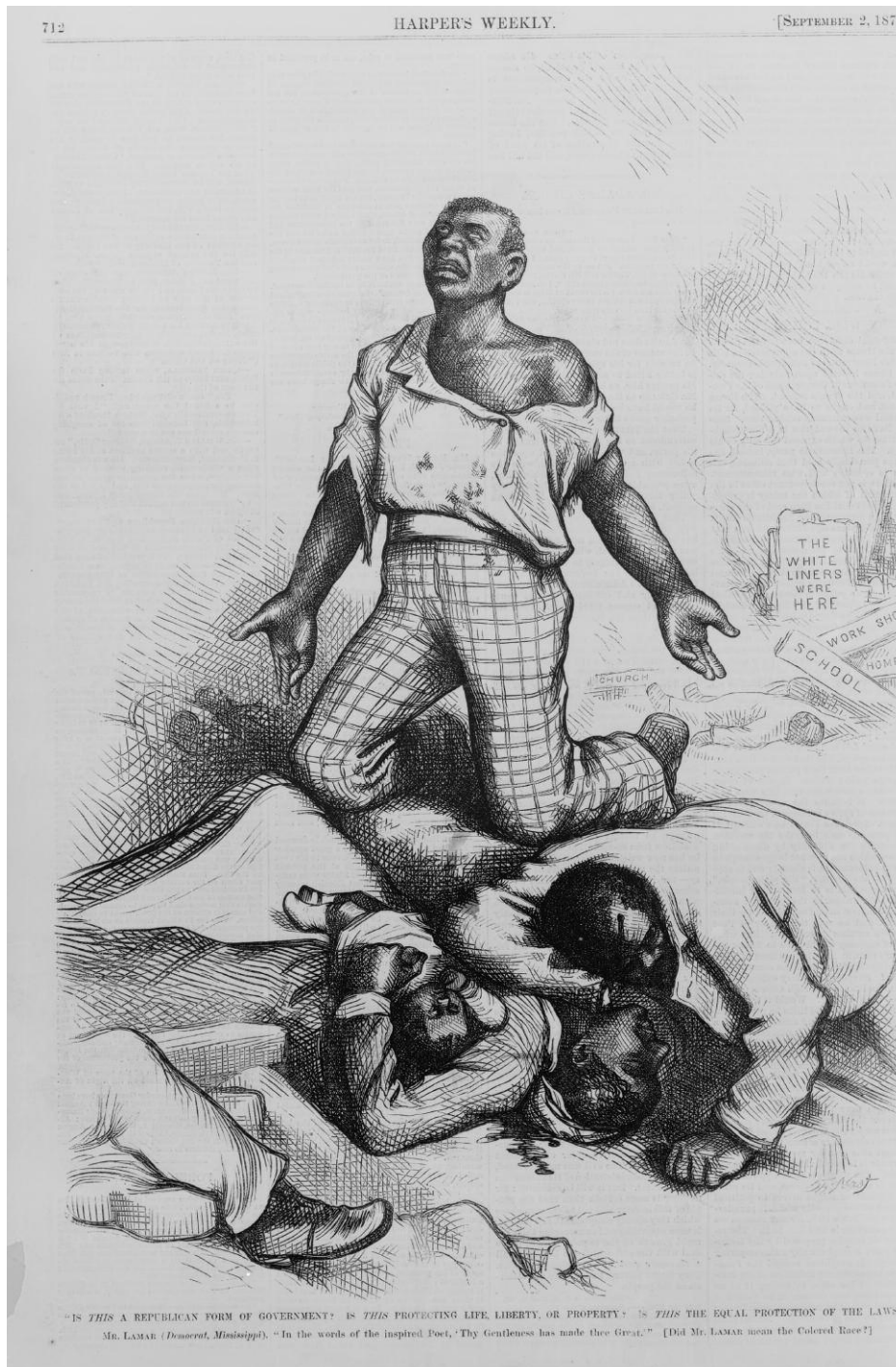
## Resource 2: The Fifteenth Amendment



Thomas Kelly, *The Fifteenth Amendment*, May 19, 1870. New-York Historical Society.

**Resource 2:** Several celebrations were held after the Fifteenth Amendment was ratified on February 3, 1870, but the biggest was in Baltimore, Maryland—one of the five slave states that had not seceded from the Union. The parade lasted five hours and drew 20,000 spectators. This lithograph, published soon after the event, shows the parade itself in the center, under a portrait of black leaders Martin Delaney, Frederick Douglass, and Hiram Rhodes Revels. President Ulysses S. Grant, Abraham Lincoln, Vice President Schuyler Colfax, and John Brown are represented in bust portraits. Surrounding the central image are a series of vignettes that capture the hopes the amendment raised for freedmen.

### Resource 3: “Is *This* A Republican Form of Government?”



Thomas Nast, “Is *This* A Republican Form of Government?” *Harper's Weekly*, September 2, 1876. Library of Congress.

**Resource 3:** Thomas Nast (1840-1902) was the most famous political cartoonist of his time. Born in Germany and raised in New York, he published his work in *Harper's Weekly* and other outlets. A strong supporter of the Union, Abraham Lincoln, Ulysses S. Grant, and rights for black people, he was often critical of the failed Reconstruction policies of President Andrew Johnson. Over the course of his career, Thomas Nast helped to define the political cartoon itself, using exaggerated physical traits to telegraph the identity and character of his subjects. He left a lasting mark on American politics when he chose to symbolize Democrats as donkeys and Republicans as elephants.

## Resource 4-A: New Orleans Telegrams

The following telegram, received 10.20 p.m. July 28, 1866, from New Orleans, Louisiana, July 28, 1866:

Hon. EDWIN M. STANTON, Secretary of War.

A convention has been called, with the sanction of Gov. Wells, to meet here on Monday. The lieutenant governor and city authorities think it unlawful, and propose to break it up by arresting the delegates. I have given no orders on the subject, but have warned the parties that I could not countenance or permit such action without instructions to that effect from the President.

Please instruct me at once by telegraph.

A. BAIRD,  
Brevet Major-General.

*New Orleans Riots. Message from the President of the United States, in answer to a resolution of the House of the 12th ultimo, transmitting all papers relative to the New Orleans riots. January 29, 1867. U.S. Congressional Serial Set Vol. No. 1292, Session Vol. No.10, 39th Congress, 2nd Session, H.Exec.Doc. 68, p. 4-5, 9, 12-14.*

**Resource 4-A:** Violence and turmoil gripped Louisiana in the summer of 1866 over the issue of voting rights for former slaves. A group consisting of black leaders in New Orleans, veterans of the U.S. Colored Troops, and supportive whites met to continue an earlier effort to draft a state constitution, this time including voting rights for blacks. On their side were the U.S. Congress and many of the black soldiers then in the federal army that was occupying New Orleans. But the convention was opposed by the New Orleans mayor and police, the Louisiana legislature, and President Andrew Johnson. Given the battle in Washington between Congress and the President, the role of the army was unclear.

The telegraph provided the communication link between Washington and New Orleans. The writers of these telegrams include Brevet Major-General Absalom Baird, who was acting head of the federal army in New Orleans while the commander, Major-General Philip Sheridan, was in Texas. A “cipher telegram,” like the one General Sheridan sent to President Andrew Johnson, was written in code so it could only be read by the recipient.

## Resource 4-B: New Orleans Telegrams

The following telegram, received 12.45 p.m., July 31, 1866, from New Orleans, Louisiana, July 30, 9 p.m., 1866:

The SECRETARY OF WAR:

A serious riot has occurred here to-day. I have been in full consultation with the city authorities, and have kept my troops well in hand for such an emergency. The riot commenced unexpectedly, and before the troops could reach the scene of action a number of persons were killed and wounded. I have felt compelled to declare martial law, and have appointed a military governor of the city. All is quiet now. Several prominent gentlemen connected with the convention are killed and wounded.

A. BAIRD, Brevet Major-General

*New Orleans Riots. Message from the President of the United States, in answer to a resolution of the House of the 12th ultimo, transmitting all papers relative to the New Orleans riots. January 29, 1867. U.S. Congressional Serial Set Vol. No. 1292, Session Vol. No.10, 39th Congress, 2nd Session, H.Exec.Doc. 68, p. 4-5, 9, 12-14.*

**Resource 4-B:** Violence and turmoil gripped Louisiana in the summer of 1866 over the issue of voting rights for former slaves. A group consisting of black leaders in New Orleans, veterans of the U.S. Colored Troops, and supportive whites met to continue an earlier effort to draft a state constitution, this time including voting rights for blacks. On their side were the U.S. Congress and many of the black soldiers then in the federal army that was occupying New Orleans. But the convention was opposed by the New Orleans mayor and police, the Louisiana legislature, and President Andrew Johnson. Given the battle in Washington between Congress and the President, the role of the army was unclear.

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## Resource 4-C: New Orleans Telegrams

The following telegram received in cipher, 6.15 p.m., August 1, 1866, from New Orleans, Louisiana, August 1, 1866:

U.S. GRANT, General:

You are doubtless aware of the serious riot which occurred in this city on the 30th. A political body styling itself the convention of 1864 met on the 30th, for, as it is alleged, the purpose of remodelling the present constitution of the State. The leaders were political agitators and revolutionary men, and the action of the Convention was liable to produce breaches of the public peace. I had made up my mind to arrest the head men, if the proceedings of the convention were calculated, to disturb the tranquility of the department, but I had no case for action until they committed the overt act. In the mean time official duty called me to Texas, and the mayor of the city, during my absence, suppressed the convention by the use of their police force, and in so doing attacked the members of the convention and a party of two hundred negroes with fire-arms, clubs, and knives, in a manner so unnecessary and atrocious as to compel me to say that it was murder. About forty whites and blacks were thus killed, and about one hundred and sixty wounded. Everything is now quiet, but I deem it best to maintain a military supremacy in the city for a few days until the affair is fully investigated. I believe the sentiment of the general community is great regret at this unnecessary cruelty, and that the police could have made any arrest they saw fit without sacrificing lives.

P.H. SHERIDAN, Major-General, Commanding.

*New Orleans Riots. Message from the President of the United States, in answer to a resolution of the House of the 12th ultimo, transmitting all papers relative to the New Orleans riots. January 29, 1867. U.S. Congressional Serial Set Vol. No. 1292, Session Vol. No.10, 39th Congress, 2nd Session, H.Exec.Doc. 68, p. 4-5, 9, 12-14.*

**Resource 4-C:** Violence and turmoil gripped Louisiana in the summer of 1866 over the issue of voting rights for former slaves. A group consisting of black leaders in New Orleans, veterans of the U.S. Colored Troops, and supportive whites met to continue an earlier effort to draft a state constitution, this time including voting rights for blacks. On their side were the U.S. Congress and many of the black soldiers then in the federal army that was occupying New Orleans. But the convention was opposed by the New Orleans mayor and police, the Louisiana legislature, and President Andrew Johnson. Given the battle in Washington between Congress and the President, the role of the army was unclear.

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## Resource 4-D: New Orleans Telegrams

Executive Mansion  
Washington, D.C.  
August 4, 1866

Major-General SHERIDAN,  
Commanding, &c., New Orleans, La.:

We have been advised here that, prior to the assembling of the illegal and extinct convention, elected in 1864, inflammatory and insurrectionary speeches were made to a mob, composed of white and colored persons, urging upon them to arm and equip themselves for the purpose of protecting and sustaining the convention in its illegal and unauthorized proceedings, intended and calculated to overturn and supersede the existing State government of Louisiana, which had been recognized by the government of the United States. Further, did the mob assemble and was it armed for the purpose of sustaining the convention in its usurpation and revolutionary proceedings? Have any arms been taken from persons since the 30th ultimo, who were supposed or known to be connected with this mob? Have not various individuals been assaulted and shot by persons connected with this mob without good cause, and in violation of the public peace and good order? Was not the assembling of this convention and the gathering of the mob for its defence and protection the main cause of the riotous and unlawful proceedings of the civil authorities of New Orleans? Have steps been taken by the civil authorities to arrest and try any and all those who were engaged in this riot, and those who have committed offences, in violation of law? Can ample justice be meted by the civil authorities to all offenders against the law? Will General Sheridan please furnish me a brief reply to the above inquiries, with such other information as he may be in possession of. Please answer by telegraph at your earliest convenience.

ANDREW JOHNSON,  
President of the United States.

*New Orleans Riots. Message from the President of the United States, in answer to a resolution of the House of the 12th ultimo, transmitting all papers relative to the New Orleans riots. January 29, 1867. U.S. Congressional Serial Set Vol. No. 1292, Session Vol. No.10, 39th Congress, 2nd Session, H.Exec.Doc. 68, p. 4-5, 9, 12-14.*

**Resource 4-D:** Violence and turmoil gripped Louisiana in the summer of 1866 over the issue of voting rights for former slaves. A group consisting of black leaders in New Orleans, veterans of the U.S. Colored Troops, and supportive whites met to continue an earlier effort to draft a state constitution, this time including voting rights for blacks. On their side were the U.S. Congress and many of the black soldiers then in the federal army that was occupying New Orleans. But the convention was opposed by the New Orleans mayor and police, the Louisiana legislature, and President Andrew Johnson. Given the battle in Washington between Congress and the President, the role of the army was unclear.

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## Resource 4-E: New Orleans Telegrams

The following cipher telegram, received 4.30 p.m. August 6, 1866, from New Orleans, Louisiana, August 6, 12 m., 1866:

His Excellency ANDREW JOHNSON, President United States:

I have the honor to make the following reply to your dispatch of August 4. A very large number of colored people marched in procession on Friday night, July twenty-seventh, (27.), and were addressed from the steps of the City Hall by Dr. Dostie, Ex-Governor Hahn, and others. The speech of Dostie was intemperate in language and sentiment. The speeches of the others, as far as I can learn, were characterized by moderation. I have not given you the words of Dostie's speech, as the version published was denied; but from what I have learned of the man, I believe they were intemperate.

The Convention assembled at twelve (12) m., on the thirtieth, (30th,) the timid members absenting themselves, because the tone of the general public was ominous of trouble. I think there were but about twenty-six (26) members present. In front of the Mechanics' Institute, where the meeting was held, there was assembled some colored men, women, and children, perhaps eighteen (18) or twenty, (20,) and in the Institute a number of colored men, probably one hundred and fifty (150.) Among those outside and inside there might have been a pistol in the possession of every tenth (10th) man.

About one (1) p.m. a procession of, say, from sixty (60) to one hundred and thirty (130) colored men marched up Burgundy street and across Canal Street, towards the convention, carrying an American flag. These men had about one pistol to every ten men, and canes and clubs in addition. While crossing Canal street a row occurred. There were many spectators on the street, and their manner and tone towards the procession unfriendly. A shot was fired, by whom I am not able to state, but believe it to have been by a policeman, or some colored man in the procession. This led to other shots, and a rush after the procession. On arrival at the front of the Institute there was some throwing of brickbats by both sides. The police, who had been held well in hand, were vigorously marched to the scene of disorder. The procession entered the Institute with the flag, about six (6) or eight (8) remaining outside. A row occurred between a policeman and one of these colored men, and a shot was again fired by one of the parties, which led to an indiscriminate fire on the building through the windows by the policemen. This had been going on for a short time, when a white flag was displayed from the window of the Institute, whereupon the firing ceased, and the police rushed into the building.

From the testimony of wounded men, and others who were inside the building, the policemen opened an indiscriminate fire upon the audience until they had emptied their revolvers, when they retired, and those inside barricaded the doors. The door was broken in and the firing again commenced, when many of the colored and white people either escaped through out the door or were passed out by the policemen inside; but as they came out the policemen who formed the circle nearest the building fired upon them, and they were again fired upon by the citizens that formed the outer circle. Many of those wounded and taken prisoners, and others who were prisoners and not wounded, were fired upon by their captors, and by citizens. The wounded men were stabbed while lying on the ground, and their heads beaten with brickbats in the yard of the building, whither some of the colored men had escaped

*New Orleans Riots. Message from the President of the United States, in answer to a resolution of the House of the 12th ultimo, transmitting all papers relative to the New Orleans riots. January 29, 1867. U.S. Congressional Serial Set Vol. No. 1292, Session Vol. No.10, 39th Congress, 2nd Session, H.Exec.Doc. 68, p. 4-5, 9, 12-14.*

and partially secreted themselves. They were fired upon and killed or wounded by policemen. Some men were killed and wounded several squares from the scene. Members of the convention were wounded by the policeman while their hands as prisoners—some of them mortally.

The immediate cause of this terrible affair was the assembling of this convention; the remote cause was the bitter and antagonistic feeling which has been growing in this community since the advent of the present mayor, who, in the organization of his police force, selected many desperate men, and some of them known murderers. People of clear views were overawed by want of confidence in the mayor and fear of the thugs, many of which he had selected for his police force. I have frequently been spoken to by prominent citizens on this subject, and have heard them express fear and want of confidence in Mayor Monroe. Ever since the intimation of this last convention movement, I must condemn the course of several of the city papers for supporting, by their articles, the bitter feeling of a bad man. As to the merciless manner in which the convention was broken up, I feel obliged to confess strong repugnance.

It is useless to attempt to disguise the hostility that exists on the part of a great many here towards northern men, and this unfortunate affair has so precipitated matters that there is now a test of what shall be the *status* of northern men. Whether they can live here without being in constant dread or not; whether they can be protected in life and property, and have justice in the courts. If this matter is permitted to pass over without a thorough and determined prosecution of those engaged in it, we may look for frequent scenes of the same kind, not only here, but in other places. No steps have as yet been taken by the civil authorities to arrest citizens who were engaged in this massacre, or policemen who perpetrated such cruelties. The members of the convention have been indicted by the grand jury, and many of them arrested and held to bail. As to whether the civil authorities can mete out ample justice to the guilty parties on both sides, I must say it is my opinion unequivocally that they cannot. Judge Abell, whose course I have closely watched for nearly a year, I now consider one of the most dangerous men that we have here to peace and quiet of the city. The leading men of the Convention—King, Cutler, Hahn, and others—have been political agitators and are bad men. I regret to say that the course of Governor Wells has been vacillating, and that during the late trouble, he has shown very little of the man.

P. H. SHERIDAN,  
Major-General Commanding.  
[Cipher.]

**Resource 4-E:** Violence and turmoil gripped Louisiana in the summer of 1866 over the issue of voting rights for former slaves. A group consisting of black leaders in New Orleans, veterans of the U.S. Colored Troops, and supportive whites met to continue an earlier effort to draft a state constitution, this time including voting rights for blacks. On their side were the U.S. Congress and many of the black soldiers then in the federal army that was occupying New Orleans. But the convention was opposed by the New Orleans mayor and police, the Louisiana legislature, and President Andrew Johnson. Given the battle in Washington between Congress and the President, the role of the army was unclear.

The telegraph provided the communication link between Washington and New Orleans. The writers of these telegrams include Brevet Major-General Absalom Baird, who was acting head of the federal army in New Orleans while the commander, Major-General Philip Sheridan, was in Texas. A “cipher telegram,” like the one General Sheridan sent to President Andrew Johnson, was written in code so it could only be read by the recipient.

## Resource 4-F: New Orleans Telegrams

War Department  
Washington City  
August 7, 1865

Major General P. H. SHERIDAN,  
Commanding, [etc.?] New Orleans, La.:

The President directs me to acknowledge your telegram of the sixth (6th,) in answer to his inquiries of the fourth (4th) instant. On the third (3d) instant instructions were sent you by General Grant, in conformity with the President's directions, authorizing you to "continue to enforce martial law so far as might be necessary to preserve the public peace, and ordering you not to allow any of the civil authorities to act if you deem such action dangerous to the public safety; and also that no time be lost in investigating the causes that led to the riot, and the facts which occurred." By these instructions the President designed to vest in you, as the chief military commander, full authority for the maintenance of the public peace and safety, and he does not see that anything more is needed pending the investigation with which you are intrusted. But if in your judgment your powers are inadequate to preserve the peace until the facts connected with the riot are ascertained, you will please report to this department for the information of the President.

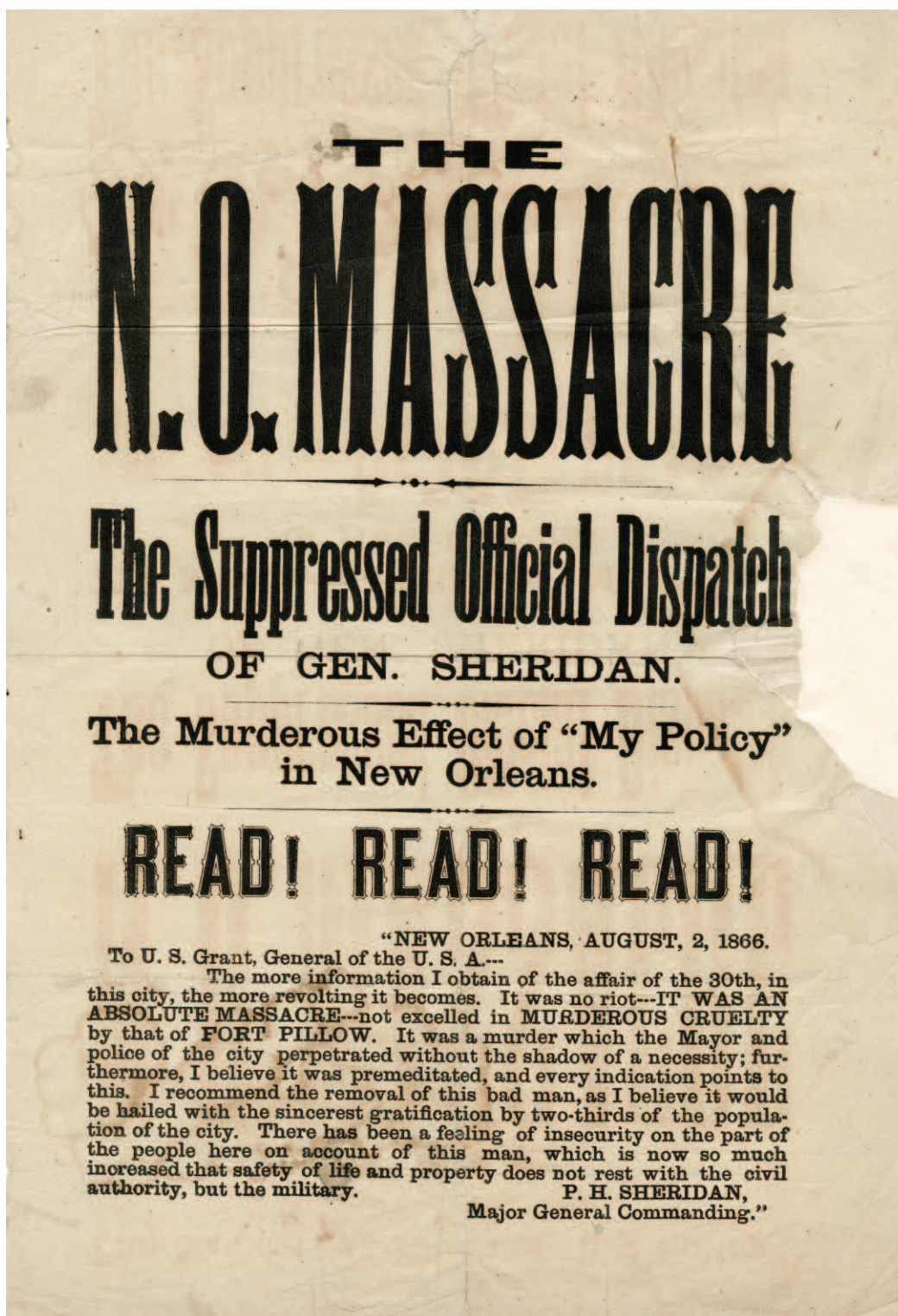
EDWIN M. STANTON, Secretary of War.

*New Orleans Riots. Message from the President of the United States, in answer to a resolution of the House of the 12th ultimo, transmitting all papers relative to the New Orleans riots. January 29, 1867. U.S. Congressional Serial Set Vol. No. 1292, Session Vol. No.10, 39th Congress, 2nd Session, H.Exec.Doc. 68, p. 4-5, 9, 12-14.*

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Resource 5: "The N.O. Massacre"



Philip Henry Sheridan, "The N. O. Massacre," 1866. New-York Historical Society.

**Resource 5:** The writers of this broadside have found or been given a copy of a ciphered (coded) telegram sent from Major-General Philip Sheridan to General Ulysses S. Grant in Washington on August 2, 1866. Just a day earlier, Sheridan had written an earlier telegram (see the document entitled “New Orleans Telegrams”) using milder language to describe what he saw immediately after his return from Texas. But after a day on the scene, Sheridan was convinced that the city of New Orleans had seen a massacre. He compared it to the events at Fort Pillow during the Civil War, when Confederate forces under Nathan Bedford Forrest (later the imperial wizard of the Ku Klux Klan) executed hundreds of surrendering Union soldiers.

The broadside blames the New Orleans tragedy squarely on President Andrew Johnson, who referred to his plan for Reconstruction in the South as “my policy” to distinguish it from the congressional plan that focused on black suffrage.

## Resource 6: Reflecting on Slavery and the Causes of the War

### Ulysses S. Grant

There is little doubt in my mind now that the prevailing sentiment of the South would have been opposed to secession in 1860 and 1861, if there had been a fair and calm expression of opinion, unbiased by threats, and if the ballot of one legal voter had counted for as much as that of any other. But there was no calm discussion of the question. Demagogues who were too old to enter the army if there should be a war, others who entertained so high an opinion of their own ability that they did not believe they could be spared from the direction of the affairs of state in such an event, declaimed vehemently and unceasingly against the North; against its aggressions upon the South; its interference with Southern rights, etc., etc. They denounced the Northerners as cowards, poltroons, negro-worshippers; claimed that one Southern man was equal to five Northern men in battle; that if the South would stand up for its rights the North would back down. Mr. Jefferson Davis said in a speech, delivered at La Grange, Mississippi, before the secession of that State, that he would agree to drink all the blood spilled south of Mason and Dixon's line if there should be a war. The young men who would have the fighting to do in case of war, believed all these statements, both in regard to the aggressiveness of the North and its cowardice. They, too, cried out for a separation from such people. The great bulk of the legal voters of the South were men who owned no slaves; their homes were generally in the hills and poor country; their facilities for educating their children, even up to the point of reading and writing, were very limited; their interest in the contest was very meagre—what there was, if they had been capable of seeing it, was with the North; they too needed emancipation. Under the old régime they were looked down upon by those who controlled all the affairs in the interest of slave-owners, as poor white trash who were allowed the ballot so long as they cast it according to direction.

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Ulysses S. Grant, *Personal Memoirs*, 1885–86. Electronic edition accessed at <http://www.bartleby.com/1011/16.html>, 8/28/08, E. Grant.

### Jubal Early

During the war, slavery was used as a catch-word to arouse the passions of a fanatical mob, and to some extent the prejudices of the civilized world were excited against us; but the war was not made on our part for slavery. High dignitaries in both church and state in Old England, and puritans in New England, had participated in the profits of a trade by which the ignorant and barbarous natives of Africa were brought from that country and sold into slavery in the American Colonies. The generation in the Southern States which defended their country in the late war, found amongst them, in a civilized and Christianized condition, 4,000,000 of the descendants of those degraded Africans. ... The conditions of domestic slavery, as it existed in the South, had not only resulted in a great improvement in the moral and physical condition of the negro race, but had furnished a class of laborers as happy and contented as any in the world, if not more so. Their labor had not only developed the immense resources of the immediate country in which they were located, but was the main source of the great prosperity of the United States, and furnished the means for the employment of millions of the working classes in other countries. Nevertheless, the struggle made by the people of the South was not for the institution of slavery, but for the inestimable right of self-government, against the domination of a fanatical faction at the North; and slavery was the mere occasion of the development of the antagonism between the two sections. That right of self-government has been lost, and slavery violently abolished.

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Jubal Anderson Early, *Lieutenant General Jubal Anderson Early CSA: Autobiographical Sketch and Narrative of the War Between the States* (Philadelphia: J.B. Lippencott Company, 1912). Electronic edition accessed at <http://www.docsouth.unc.edu/fpn/early/early.html#early266>, 8/28/08, E. Grant.

**Resource 6:** In the years after the Civil War, most of the generals and many men of lower rank published memoirs detailing their own experiences and their thinking about the war. Battles were re-fought on the page, acts of heroism were recalled, and the positions of the two sides were restated and defended at length. The most important argument, and the source of great disagreement, centered on slavery. Many in the South claimed that slavery had not been the cause of the war, and that the real reason that Southern states seceded was their wish not to be ruled by the federal government in Washington. The “states’ rights” argument is still heard today, though historians have long agreed that the Civil War was fought over slavery.

## Resource 7: The Birth of the Lost Cause

“We shall not enter upon the discussion of the moral question of slavery. But we may suggest a doubt here whether that odious term “slavery,” which has been so long imposed, by the exaggeration of Northern writers, upon the judgment and sympathies of the world, is properly applied to that system of servitude in the South which was really the mildest in the world; which did not rest on acts of debasement and disenfranchisement, but elevated the African, and was in the interest of human improvement....[Slavery] was significant only of a contest for political power, and afforded nothing more than a convenient ground of dispute between two parties, who represented not two moral theories, but hostile sections and opposite civilizations.”

“The civilization of the North was coarse and materialistic. That of the South was scant of shows, but highly refined and...presented a striking contrast in their well-balanced character to the conceit and giddiness of the Northern people.” (p. 51)

“Lee...showed himself [Grant’s] master in every art of war, and indeed left Grant not a single branch of generalship in which he might assert his reputation.” (p. 606-7)

“It was generally supposed in Richmond that if the Confederate cause was ever lost it would be only when this force had been massed, and a decisive field fixed for a grand, multitudinous battle. This idea had run through the whole period of the war; it was impossible in Richmond to imagine the close of the contest without an imposing and splendid catastrophe....How far fell the facts below those dramatic anticipations!” (p. 726)

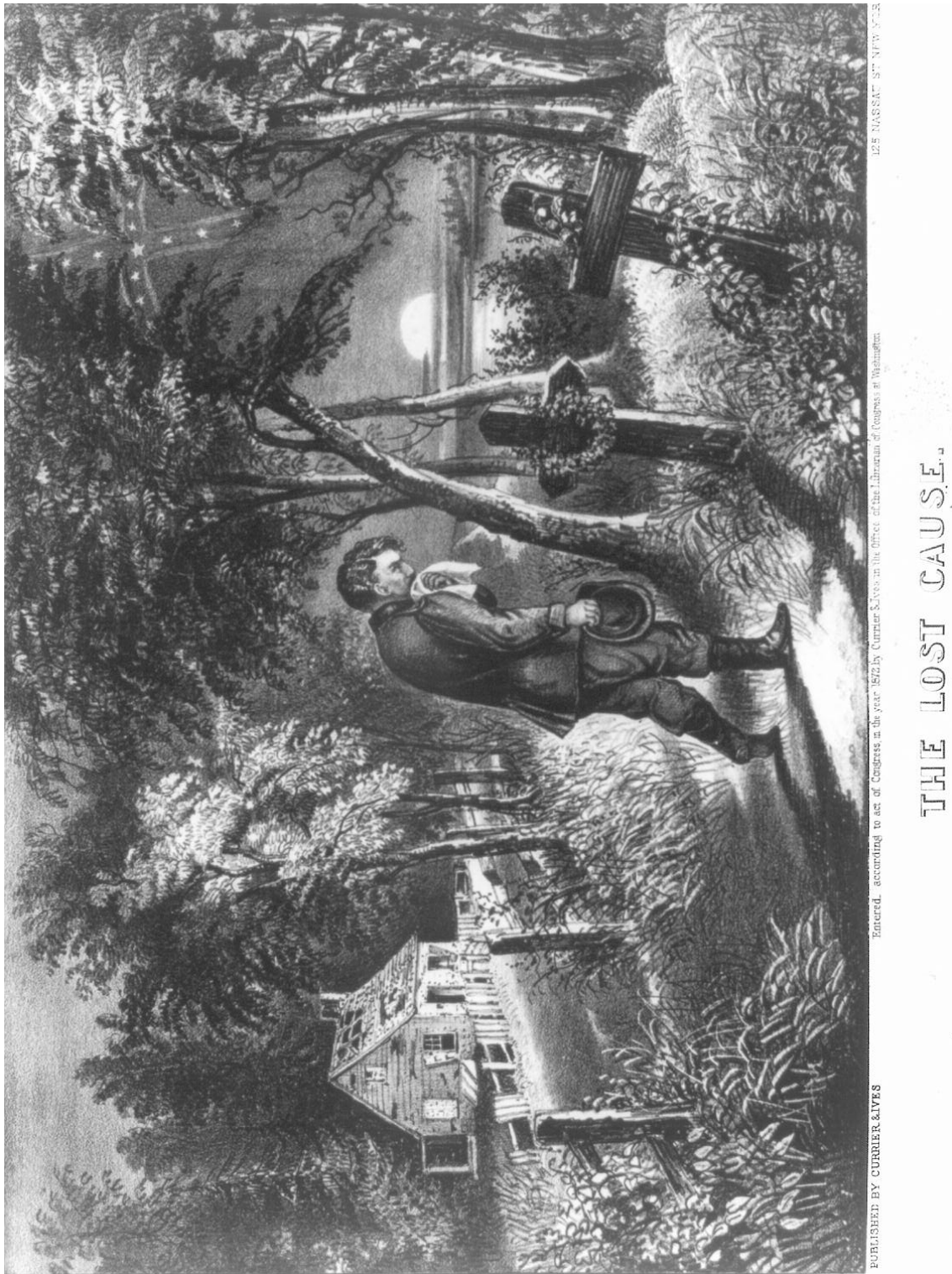
“Whatever may be the partial explanations of the downfall of the Southern Confederacy, and whatever may be the various excuses that passion and false pride, and flattery of demagogues, may offer, the great and melancholy fact remains that the Confederates, with an abler Government and more resolute spirit, might have accomplished their independence.” (p. 729\*)

“The Confederates have gone out of this war, with the proud, secret, deathless, *dangerous* consciousness that they are THE BETTER MEN, and that there was nothing wanting but a change in a set of circumstances and a firmer resolve to make them victors.” (p. 729)

Edward A. Pollard, *The Lost Cause: A New Southern History of the War of the Confederates* (New York: E. B. Treat, Publisher, 1890). Originally published 1866. Accessed online at <http://books.google.com>, 7/19/08, M. Waters.

**Resource 7:** *The Lost Cause* by Edward A. Pollard marked the first appearance of the term “lost cause” in reference to the Confederacy. Originally published in 1866, it is a massive work written by a 34-year-old Virginian who had been one of the editors of the *Richmond Examiner* during the war. He wrote several books, including one about the months he spent in a federal prison and another critical of President Jefferson Davis.

## Resource 8: “The Lost Cause” by Currier and Ives



Currier and Ives, “The Lost Cause,” c. 1872. Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division.

**Resource 8:** Currier and Ives were New York City lithographers who published popular prints that people could buy, frame, and put on their walls at home. This was one of many prints marketed to Southerners that focused on the sentimental aspect of the Lost Cause. It shows a lone soldier weeping over the graves of two loved ones, with his destroyed home in the background and the sun setting on his dreams.

## Resource 9: Unveiling of the Lee Memorial



*Lee Monument, Richmond, 1890. Virginia Historical Society.*

**Resource 9:** After the war, statues and monuments commemorating the bravery of soldiers sprouted in city parks and town squares all over the country. They provided a focus for the terrible grief Americans were struggling with. In Richmond, Virginia, once the capital of the Confederacy, an enormous monument to Robert E. Lee was ready for public viewing on May 29, 1890. The streets were mobbed as former Confederate general Joseph E. Johnston was honored with the task of unveiling the statue by French sculptor Jean-Antonin Mercié. The people in attendance were white, since African Americans viewed the Lost Cause, and the giant monument, as a measure of accelerating racism. Celebrating Lee's heroism and leadership, and downplaying the pre-war conflict over slavery as a cause of the war, helped shape how the Civil War was remembered in the South and to some degree in the North. Although many in the North disagreed sharply, the *New York Times* said that Lee's memory was "a possession of the American people, and the monument... a National possession." (Blight, 270)

**Resource 10: “Let Us Have Peace, 1865”**



John Leon Gerome Ferris, *Let Us Have Peace, 1865*. c. 1920, Virginia Historical Society, Lora Robins Collection of Virginia Art.

**Resource 10:** American painter Jean Leon Gerome Ferris was just two years old when Grant and Lee met at Appomattox. Throughout his career, he painted moments from American history, like the first Thanksgiving and George Washington’s first inauguration. He gave these subjects an idealized, heroic look that symbolized the best qualities of the American spirit. The title of this painting, ‘Let Us Have Peace,’ is a phrase often credited to Grant at Appomattox, though it was actually a line from a letter he wrote in 1868.

Ferris was born and raised in Philadelphia, but this painting reflects attitudes about Lee and Grant that had been promoted by the Lost Cause movement in the South. Lee was shown as a glowing, god-like figure, Grant as smaller, darker, and more hesitant. By the early years of the 20th century, the Lost Cause mythology had permeated the North as well as the South. It was seen not only in paintings like this, but in movies like “The Birth of the Nation.”

**Resource 11: “I Fought for Virginia”**



*I fought for Virginia. Now it's your turn! Join the Lee Navy Volunteers, 1942. Virginia Historical Society*

**Resource 11:** In 1942, during the Second World War, the memory and image of Robert E. Lee was used on this recruiting poster to prompt young Virginians to volunteer and fight as bravely as the General of the Confederacy. Nearly 60 years had passed since the end of the Civil War and the young men whose services were needed for another war had no personal memory of Robert E. Lee. But they had grown up accepting the mythology of the Lost Cause and saw Lee as the greatest of America's heroes, a perfect Southerner and a perfect man.

## Time Line

- 1802 West Point opens
- 1807 Robert E. Lee is born
- 1817 First Seminole War
- 1822 Ulysses S. Grant is born
- 1829 Joseph E. Johnston and Robert E. Lee graduate from West Point
- 1830 Indian Removal Act is signed into law
- 1832 Second Seminole War begins
- 1837 Jubal Early graduates from West Point
- 1840 William Tecumseh Sherman graduates from West Point
- 1842 James Longstreet graduates from West Point
- 1843 Ulysses S. Grant graduates from West Point
- 1845 U.S. annexes Texas
- 1846 U.S. declares war on Mexico
- 1847 Mexican American War ends
- 1848 Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo is signed
- 1850 Compromise of 1850 attempts to resolve slavery issue in new states
- 1853 Philip Sheridan graduates from West Point. Third Seminole War begins.
- 1859 Robert E. Lee leads force against John Brown at Harper's Ferry
- 1861 Civil War begins
- 1863 Battle of Gettysburg
- 1865 March 4 Lincoln's Second Inaugural Address
  - April 9 Robert E. Lee surrenders to Ulysses S. Grant at Appomattox
  - April 26 Joseph E. Johnston surrenders to William Tecumseh Sherman
  - December 6 Congress passes 13th Amendment to outlaw slavery
- 1866 June 13 Congress passes 14th Amendment granting citizenship to freedmen
  - July 31 New Orleans riot
- 1868 Ulysses S. Grant elected president of the United States
- 1869 Congress passes 15th Amendment granting voting rights to freedmen
- 1870 Robert E. Lee dies
- 1885 Ulysses S. Grant dies
- 1890 Unveiling of Robert E. Lee monument in Richmond, Virginia