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CIVIL LIST, the term used in England to refer to items of income granted annually to the British sovereign for personal use and for the maintenance of the royal household.

At the beginning of each reign the amounts in the civil list are fixed in an act of the parliament of the United Kingdom upon the recommendation of a select committee of the House of Commons. This committee may consult with the new monarch and in constitutional form the list is the result of negotiation and bargain between parliament and the monarch, the latter forgoing certain of his hereditary revenues in exchange for the annual grant. The amounts determined at the beginning of a reign continue throughout the reign, and the same act of parliament ordinarily provides for annual grants to other members of the royal family then living, but these last are not now regarded as part of the sovereign's civil list.

In addition to this income the sovereign retains rights to hereditary revenues from the duchies of Lancaster and Cornwall and has private properties from which substantial income is received.

The civil list in England once referred to the whole appropriation for civil government, but as the distinction came to be drawn between the king's household and the civil service and judiciary the present much more limited meaning of the term came into use. The phrase was once used in the United States to denote civilian expenditures, or revenues for this purpose, but it is no longer current.

CIVIL RIGHTS. Those limitations on governmental action which people enjoy as a result of fundamental law are called civil rights. Though some of these freedoms are available only to citizens or nationals, most are available as a matter of right to all inhabitants of a state or a nation. Civil rights are both substantive, as in the case of freedom of speech, and procedural, as in the right to a fair hearing in a civil matter or to a trial by jury in a criminal case. Although the movement for the gaining of such rights and the principle of limited sovereignty or of government under law is a product of western civilization, it has affected political movements all over the world. Insofar as the conflict between totalitarian and free countries is a conflict of principle, it is conflict over the individual freedoms from governmental action which people shall generally have.

The argument for a system of civil rights has been based on doctrine, prudence, and expediency. The doctrinal arguments were formulated in the 17th and 18th centuries with the assertion of natural rights which governments

ought to respect belonging to all mankind. John Locke in England and Jean Jacques Rousseau in France were exponents of this point of view, which attacked the doctrine of the absolute right of rulers, generally justified as a divine right. More common in the last century are arguments based on the judgment that a system of popular government requires the free expression of ideas and criticism in order that the better ideas for public policy may prevail, and that current governments, even though popularly elected, need to be restrained from administrative excesses affecting individuals. Stated positively this is a judgment that a system of individual rights is an essential complement to popular government. An illustration of the argument of expediency is found in the notion that it is better to let radical critics propagate their beliefs publicly than to court the risks of secret "underground" movements.

Issues regarding the definition, interpretation, and enforcement of civil rights in the United States run through its history from the Revolution to the present. The American Revolution was fought in part in the name of the transgressed rights of Englishmen and the natural rights of men. Each state constitution has from the beginning included a list of individual freedoms which the government, created by the Constitution, was to respect. When the constitutional convention at Philadelphia in 1787 presented its work to the states the most urgent criticism of the Constitution was that it did not include a bill of rights, and this lack was supplied by the adoption of the first ten amendments to the Constitution in 1791. The Sedition Act of 1798 prohibiting the defamation of the national government and its officers raised cries that Congress was disregarding the First Amendment to the Constitution by "abridging the freedom of speech and of the press."

Each war, beginning with the Civil War, has brought instances of the withdrawal or diminution of civil liberties, with the justification in each instance that the security of a nation must be assured if the nation is to serve in the future to protect individual liberty. Out of the Civil War came the 13th (1865) and the 14th (1868) Amendments to the Constitution, which are the principal additions to civil rights in American history. The 13th in forbidding slavery made civil rights meaningful to the whole population. The 14th Amendment was in large part designed to assist the freed slaves in gaining full status as citizens and in preventing state action discriminating against them. Although these objectives have not been wholly attained, the 14th Amendment has become the constitutional basis for a broad national system of civil rights. The civil rights guaranteed by the Bill of Rights

(first 10 amendments to the United States Constitution) are limitations on the national government alone. The 14th Amendment, however, says that:

"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 deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws."

This portion of the amendment placed within the possible jurisdiction of the federal courts the acts of any state or local government body or official, the acts of which might be said to deprive individuals of the rights there guaranteed; and the history of civil rights since the adoption of this amendment may be read in large part in the Supreme Court decisions interpreting these constitutional phrases.

The post-Civil War congresses undertook by the so-called Civil Rights Acts, preceding and supplementing the 14th Amendment, to effectuate full civil rights for Negroes. The first act passed in 1866, and in part repassed in 1870 after the ratification of the 14th Amendment because of doubtful validity of the earlier act which relied on the 13th Amendment for validity, conferred citizenship and the privileges and immunities of citizens on the former slaves, with emphasis on free access to the courts for the enforcement of these rights. The second act passed in 1875 sought to ensure Negroes privilege to serve on juries and prohibited discrimination against Negroes in schools, public conveyances, hotels, and theaters. These latter provisions were made constitutionally ineffective in the decision of the Supreme Court in the Civil Rights Cases in 1883. In these cases Negroes had been denied hotel facilities and seats in theaters and in a railroad car. The court held that the 13th Amendment in forbidding slavery did not create civil equality and that the relevant portions of the 14th Amendment referred to deprivations by states and not by private individuals as in these cases.

In interpreting the 14th Amendment and other constitutional provisions relative to civil rights the Supreme Court annually hands down decisions on many of the following issues: freedom of religion, freedom of the press and speech, freedom of assembly, equal protection of the laws; and the fairness with which judicial and governmental administrative procedures have been carried out.

The court's views on these issues have changed from time to time but they have tended generally in recent times toward greater protection of freedom of speech, press, and assembly against state intervention through interpreting the 14th Amendment as including these rights, although they are not there mentioned. There has also been some tendency to interpret the equal protection clause to the advantage of Negroes, as well as other groups, in public school, transportation, and housing issues. Regularly throughout the period there has been a strict insistence by the Supreme Court in the cases brought to it on the following of fair procedures in the determination of private rights by the lower courts and administrative agencies. The greatest concern is as to whether the courts can preserve adequately during prolonged periods of international crisis the rights of freedom of belief and expression from the limiting acts of agencies of the national government and private organizations.

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CIVIL SERVICE. Generally used to designate those professional officials who are employed by the state outside of the judicial and military services, the term civil service is thought to have originated in the British administration of India, and to have been first applied to corresponding domestic branches of the government in England by Sir Charles E. Trevelyan (q.v.) in 1853. But the official and professional branches of government to which the term refers are necessarily as old as the history of formal government itself, and were parts of the earliest Chinese, Egyptian, Greek, and Roman administrations.

Modern Civil Service.—The term civil service, however, has a more modern connotation, particularly in the United States, where it usually applies to systems of public employment in which selection for positions is required by law to be based upon the merit and fitness of applicants as determined by examination. Government employees may thus be said to be under, or not under, civil service, depending solely on whether or not their particular positions have been obtained through merit as established by means of a test.

Recruitment for modern civil service through tests appears to have arisen first, at least in the west, in the latter half of the 19th century in Prussia. Public appointment previously had been made, there as elsewhere, chiefly through patronage on a basis of social and political preferment; but as a result of the establishment of tests for public appointment under William I (1797-1888, q.v.) functional competence began to outweigh other considerations there about 1870.

In England open competitive examinations were first established—tentatively—in 1854. As in Prussia, a uniform examination was provided for civil service regardless of what branch the successful candidate might enter, but less emphasis was laid on prerequisite training and education, a circumstance which opened the lists to a wider field and placed greater weight upon mental alertness, aptitude, and general ability. At the same time, polish and urbanity of manner became something of a traditional prerequisite in England, as distinguished from the growing emphasis laid in Prussia upon purely technical capabilities, with the result that the consequent greater suavity of the British official was frequently contrasted in later years with the more abrupt qualities of the Prussian. In France no single examining board evolved, as in England; instead individual departments drew up their own lists of qualifications.

A question related to civil service which has received constantly growing attention is whether associations composed of employees of the state may affiliate with organized labor; whether they are entitled to the right of collective bargaining with their employer, the state; and whether, under any circumstances, such employees have the right to strike. In practically every country civil service employees have been denied the right to strike on the grounds that their services are indispensable. Every country has granted its civil service employees the right of association; but the right of associations composed of civil service employees to affiliate with organized labor has been variously interpreted. This right was denied in France before World War II; granted in pre-Nazi Germany; not specifically denied in the United States; and remained an unsettled question in prewar Britain. (F.F.)

UNITED STATES FEDERAL SYSTEM

The federal executive civil service consists of the headquarters offices of the various government departments and agencies (Department of Agriculture, Department of Commerce, Federal Security Agency, and so forth) most of which are located in Washington, D.C., and the field establishments of these departments and agencies, located throughout the country and outside the continental United States.

Most positions in the federal executive civil service are filled in accordance with requirements of the Civil Service Act of 1883. This act established a "merit system" under which appointments are made solely on the basis of merit and fitness. Persons desiring appointment to merit-system positions must pass a civil service examination, conducted by the United States Civil Service Commission, thereby showing that they are able to do the work.

The Civil Service Act does not apply to the judicial branch of the government, except for positions in the Administrative Office of the United States Courts, or to the legislative branch of government.

Early History of the Federal Civil Service.—The principle of the selection of government employees on the basis of character and ability was recognized and adhered to in practice by the founders of the federal government. Familiar with the maladministration and corruption of politically appointed British colonial governors, the first presidents exercised their power of appointment and removal with wisdom and unselfishness. Officers were selected carefully, nepotism was avoided, and removals from office for political reasons were comparatively rare.

The practice of choosing employees on the basis of the service they had rendered or might render to the political party in power, and of removing adherents of the other party in order to make room for them, known as the *spoils system*, entered the federal civil service amid public excitement over the French Revolution. In an effort to weaken Thomas Jefferson's followers, whom he regarded as radicals, President John Adams tried to pack the courts and the government departments with his own supporters on his last night in office. Jefferson, upon becoming president, retaliated by removing a number of these "midnight appointees," and by securing the repeal of the law under which many others held office. Although the legality of some of Jefferson's acts was questioned by Chief Justice John Marshall in the case of *Marbury v. Madison*, the precedent of making appointments and removals for political purposes had been set, and the practice became common a quarter of a century later.

The custom of permitting federal officers to retain their offices during good behavior was broken by the passage of the Four-Year Tenure of Office Act of 1820, which fixed the terms of office of district attorneys, collectors of customs, and certain other officers at four years. Thereafter, incoming presidents and department heads could terminate the employment of certain officeholders of the other party, regardless of their merit, without the formality of a removal. The author of the act, William H. Crawford, was accused of an intention to use his increased patronage as secretary of the treasury to secure

the presidency. If this was Crawford's aim, he was unsuccessful, but limitations on tenure of office were used effectively by many later politicians.

Impetus was given to the extension of the spoils system by Andrew Jackson, who stated in his first annual message that "the duties of all public offices are, or at least admit of being made, so plain and simple that men of intelligence may readily qualify themselves for their performance; and I cannot but believe that more is lost by the long continuance of men in office than is generally gained by their experience." Appointments and removals for political reasons, previously the exception, became increasingly common, and during the years 1845 to 1875 the spoils system was at its height. It was now the accepted doctrine that the loss of power by a political party should be followed by the removal from office of all its members. "To the victor belong the spoils," exclaimed Senator William Learned Marcy. Usefulness to the party, or to a particular faction, was almost the sole test in selection; even members of the party in power were in danger of being dismissed to make room for more effective party workers. While men of ability hesitated to accept the precarious government positions, men who had failed in private business or professional life besieged the White House with pleas for admission to the government payroll. President William Henry Harrison died after four weeks in office, worn out by their constant importunities; and President Lincoln, who could hardly find time to read reports from the front because of their interruptions, said of the system which they represented: "I am afraid this thing is going to ruin republican government."

Other statesmen had perceived the dangers of the spoils system. As early as Jackson's administration, John C. Calhoun, Henry Clay, and Daniel Webster had made vigorous attacks upon spoils methods. In 1853 each of the major departments had been required by law to establish boards to examine applicants for certain positions at Washington. These examinations, however, were often perfunctory, were given only to persons nominated for them, and offered no assurance that the best men available had been selected. Competitive examinations were tried as a basis for selecting employees in the Interior Department under an administrative order issued by Secretary Jacob D. Cox in 1870. In 1871 a group of reformers secured legislation, which is still in effect, granting the president "authority to prescribe such regulations for the admission of persons into the civil service of the United States as may best promote the efficiency thereof." A civil service commission was thereupon established by President Ulysses S. Grant to assist in the preparation of rules prescribing the method of appointment to the federal service and to supervise the holding of competitive examinations for positions. After much useful work, the commission's activities were discontinued because of the failure of Congress to grant appropriations after 1873.

The Civil Service Act.—The assassination of President James A. Garfield on July 2, 1881, by a disappointed office seeker, Charles J. Guiteau, roused the American people to the need for action. In the fall election of 1882, civil service reform was the deciding issue in a number of congressional districts. In the next session of Congress, the reformers pressed a

bill drafted by Dorman B. Eaton, one of their leaders, and introduced by Senator George H. Pendleton of Ohio. Facts and figures drawn from previous experience with competitive examinations in the federal service were used to support their claims as to the efficiency, economy, and democracy of the competitive method, and to refute the arguments of their opponents. After receiving substantial majorities in both the House and the Senate, the bill was approved by President Chester A. Arthur on Jan. 16, 1883.

The Civil Service Act of 1883 is still the primary statute governing the method of appointment to the federal service. Its fundamental purpose was to establish, for positions subject to its provisions, a merit system under which selections for appointment should be made upon the basis of relative fitness as demonstrated in open, competitive examinations, without regard to political, religious, or similar considerations. It established a bipartisan board of three civil service commissioners—the United States Civil Service Commission—to administer the merit system, to hold examinations, and to aid the president of the United States in preparing suitable rules for carrying the act into effect.

Under Reorganization Plan No. 5 of 1949, the chairman (formerly president) of the Civil Service Commission is responsible for the administrative direction of the agency's work. The 3-member bipartisan commission is responsible for determining policy, acting on appeals, and making recommendations to the president of the United States.

The names of persons who obtain eligible ratings in examinations are entered on appropriate lists of eligibles in the order of their ratings, except as this order may be modified by legal requirements, such as those relating to veteran preference and residence. Appointments to positions of the type for which the examination is held are made by government agencies, as vacancies occur, from the names at the top of the list. Discrimination against any person on the list because of his political views is forbidden, except where evidence of disloyalty to the government of the United States is involved; discrimination because of religious views, marital status or race is also forbidden. Appointees (other than those who receive temporary appointments) are required to serve a period of probation during which their fitness is further tested by their actual performance on the job.

In 1883 the competitive service (the positions subject to the competitive requirements of the Civil Service Act) comprised only 13,900 positions, or about 10.5 per cent of the federal executive civil service. Under succeeding administrations, additional positions were placed in the competitive service, which in 1951 covered more than 90 per cent of the federal civil-service positions in the continental United States.

Supplementary Civil-Service Legislation.—A number of legislative changes in the civil-service system have been made since passage of the Civil Service Act of 1883:

(1) The civil service rules forbid the removal of employees in the competitive service for political or religious reasons. They do not, however, preclude summary dismissal on other grounds. The Lloyd-LaFollette Act of Aug. 24, 1912, as amended by Public Law 623, 80th Congress, requires that employees in the competitive service whose removal is sought be notified of

the charges against them and allowed a reasonable time to answer them prior to removal, but grants no right to a trial or hearing. An act of Aug. 26, 1950, permits the summary suspension of employees of certain federal agencies (the Departments of State, Commerce, Justice, Defense, Army, Navy, Air Force, and Treasury, the Atomic Energy Commission, the National Security Resources Board, and the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics), by the heads of those agencies, in the interest of national security.

(2) The Hatch Act of Aug. 2, 1939, extended to virtually all employees in the federal executive civil service a provision in the civil service rules which prohibited employees in the competitive service from taking an active part in political management or in political campaigns. Amendments approved on July 19, 1940, extended this prohibition to certain state and local employees participating in federally financed activities. (See under CORRUPT PRACTICES ACTS—*Hatch Act*.)

(3) The Veterans' Preference Act of 1944 grants preference to veterans "in certification for appointment, in appointment, in reinstatement, in reemployment, and in retention in civilian positions," permanent or temporary, in the executive branch of the federal government.

Of the numerous benefits provided, the most familiar is the adding of 5 or 10 points to the ratings earned in civil service examinations by competitors entitled to veteran preference. Ten-point preference is granted to certain veterans on the basis of disability; it is also granted under certain conditions to widows, wives, and mothers of veterans. Veterans who are not disabled receive 5-point preference.

(4) The Classification Act of 1949, which superseded the Classification Act of 1923, provides for the classification of positions in federal agencies on the basis of their duties and responsibilities, and for the fixing of salaries in accordance with this classification. The 1949 act revised and simplified the position-classification and salary structure provided by the old law, and included positions in the field service (other than postal) for the first time. Eighty per cent of the positions in the Washington, D.C., headquarters offices of agencies and nearly 40 per cent of the positions in the field service are subject to the act. (About 30 per cent of field-service positions are covered by the Postal Pay Act; most of the remainder are trades positions which are paid at rates adjusted from time to time to correspond with local rates in private industry.)

(5) The Civil Service Retirement Act of May 22, 1920, as amended, provides for the compulsory retirement on annuity of employees who have reached the age of 70 after 15 or more years of service; optional retirement is permitted at earlier ages after specified periods of service. The act also provides for annuities for employees retired because of disability after five or more years of service, and for annuities for the widows and minor children of deceased employees or annuitants. The fund from which these annuities are paid is made up of contributions by the government and of compulsory deductions of 6 per cent from the salary of each employee subject to the act.

Recruitment in World War II.—During World War II, an enormous recruiting job faced

the federal government—a job which had to be done with great speed. The government's shipyards, arsenals, and air bases expanded and had to be manned with the best available employees. Hundreds of thousands of workers were needed to perform the new wartime functions of government and to serve as replacements for employees who entered the armed forces.

A significant step taken was to stop making permanent appointments. Instead, positions were filled on an indefinite basis for "not to exceed the duration of the war and six months thereafter." This was done in order to protect the rights of millions of American citizens who were in the armed forces or in war industry and who thus could not compete for government positions at the time.

The wartime needs of the government also called for a streamlining of the civil-service procedures under which recruiting, examining and placement activities were carried on in peacetime. One of the steps taken by the Civil Service Commission, the central personnel agency of the government, was to decentralize examining operations by authorizing its 14 regional offices to announce and conduct examinations for most jobs in the field service. The regional offices, in turn, delegated a greater degree of examining authority to the hundreds of boards of examiners that represent the Civil Service Commission in field establishments of federal agencies. This decentralization effectively speeded up recruiting.

At the end of the war, the Commission continued the decentralized program in the interest of efficiency and economy.

Executive Order of February 24, 1947.—

On February 24, 1947, the president issued an executive order promulgating new civil service rules. The new rules stated broad policies for the administration of the Civil Service Act of 1883 and the Veterans' Preference Act of 1944, and authorized the Civil Service Commission to issue regulations designed to carry out those policies.

The new rules and regulations consolidated existing instructions, regulations, and executive orders and continued the best and most successful policies developed during the war years. For example, the policy of delegating to the agencies the authority to act in individual personnel matters (such as promotions, reassignments, and transfers), subject to post-audit and inspection by the Civil Service Commission, was confirmed and extended. The executive order also defined the personnel-management responsibilities of the Civil Service Commission and the operating agencies of the government. It required the commission to provide leadership in personnel matters throughout the federal service; to this end, the commission administers or sponsors government-wide programs for development and placement of executive personnel, recruitment of recent college graduates, intern training, and promotion.

Federal Employees Loyalty Program.—

An executive order of March 21, 1947, established a federal employees loyalty program, the purpose of which is to protect the United States against the infiltration of disloyal persons into the ranks of employees of the executive branch of the government, and to protect loyal employees from unfounded accusations of disloyalty.

Between October 1, 1947 (the beginning of

the program) and April 28, 1951, the program involved loyalty checks on 3,500,000 employees and applicants.

The procedure followed is for the Federal Bureau of Investigation to check identifying information about each person, and his fingerprints, against its files. If the person is an applicant or a new appointee, the Civil Service Commission checks additional files and records and sends inquiries to his former employers, schools he attended, persons named as references, and law-enforcement agencies.

When a question of loyalty arises as a result of a check, the FBI conducts a full investigation. The report of investigation is referred to a loyalty board for adjudication—to a board established in the agency in which the person involved is employed, or to a regional board. Regional boards, established in the Civil Service Commission's 14 regional offices, have jurisdiction when the person involved is an applicant for employment in the competitive service or was conditionally appointed in that service subject to a loyalty check.

Persons whose cases are referred to loyalty boards have the right to a hearing on specific charges. Adverse decisions may be appealed. The right of appeal from decisions of regional boards is direct to the Loyalty Review Board of the Civil Service Commission, which is the highest appellate body under the program and which is also responsible for general coordination of the program. The right of appeal from decisions of agency boards is first to the head of the agency and then to the Loyalty Review Board.

Commission on Organization.—In 1949 the Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government issued its report on Personnel Management, which contained 29 recommendations for changes in the civil service system. They included recommendations for further decentralization of examining authority to the agencies and for reorganization of the Civil Service Commission, and several with regard to pay. A number of them—some in modified form—have been put into effect.

Postwar Reconversion.—The period following the cessation of hostilities in 1945 was devoted by the Civil Service Commission to returning the federal executive civil service to a peacetime basis. The number of employees was reduced from a wartime peak of 3,769,646 in June 1945 to 1,950,408 in February 1950. During this period, employees with war-service appointments were either dismissed or given regular appointments as a result of passing examinations with ratings high enough to win such appointments.

Korean Emergency.—The Korean emergency occurred as the work of reconversion was being completed. The size of the executive branch began to increase. The Congress, by a rider to the Supplemental Appropriation Act, 1951 (section 1302), directed that, effective Sept. 1, 1950, all appointments, reinstatements, transfers, and promotions to federal civil-service positions be made, with rare exceptions, on a temporary basis. The purpose of the rider was to prevent increases in the number of permanent personnel.

As a result, the status of new appointees was the same as the status of war-service employees during the war. The only difference was that their appointments were for indefinite periods.

means of exchange of information and technique which may improve the quality of public personnel administration. State and local employees are organized in an increasing degree in employee unions. Some of the organizations, known generally as employee associations, are not affiliated with the labor movement and operate only in particular localities or states. The American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees (AFL), the Government and Civic Employees Organizing Committee (CIO), and the United Public Workers of America (formerly CIO, but expelled from that organization in 1950) are active on a national scale in organizing and representing state and local government employees. The latter two also have local organizations among federal employees. There is also a national organization of firemen which is affiliated with the labor movement. The unions of government employees are generally favorable to the merit system of employment, because of its possibilities for equitable employee treatment.

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CIVIL WAR IN AMERICA. The American war of the 1860's was not a civil war in the usual sense of the word. The contestants were not fighting for control of the government, but over the attempt of one of them to become a separate nation. Save in border areas, the conflict was not one of brother against brother or neighbor against neighbor, but rather it was a sanguinary clash between two separate communities. Moreover, the term Civil War, at least from the Southern viewpoint, does not take into sufficient account that the Confederate States of America was an organized, responsible government, possessed of the attributes of sovereignty. "Civil War" is, however, about as accurate as most of the other designations—such as War of the Rebellion, War Between the States, or War of Secession—applied to the struggle, and the brevity of the term, combined with the sanction of usage, has given it an ever increasing acceptance.

The Civil War (1861–1865) had a number of distinctive features. It was in many respects the biggest war that the world had ever known. It was also the first of the modern total wars. The telegraph came into its own as a military instrument, and railways proved of such unprecedented importance as to justify calling this the first railroad war. The timely delivery of troops by chugging iron horses decided the outcome of

more than one battle; rail centers became major invasion objectives, and rail lines were the arteries which sustained the opposing forces. Confederates introduced the railroad battery at Savage's Station near Richmond, Va., in June 1862, only a short time after the Confederate *Virginia (Merrimac)* engaged the Federal *Monitor* in history's first duel between ironclad warships. Other Civil War "firsts" were the electrically exploded torpedo and the sinking of a vessel by a submarine.

Steamships were of tremendous moment in the conduct of the war, and rifled artillery and small arms, muzzle-loaded at first but yielding more and more to breech loaders as the war progressed, increased greatly both the range and accuracy of firing and led to drastic changes in tactics. The invention of metallic cartridges paved the way for the introduction of repeating rifles on a large scale in the latter part of the conflict. Older devices revived and adapted to wider use included observation balloons, land mines, and hand grenades. The camera also played a far more conspicuous role in the Civil War than in any prior conflict, with Mathew Brady and a host of lesser photographers taking thousands of pictures of participants, equipment, installations, and campaign sites.

This great conflict of the 1860's was also in many ways the last of the old-fashioned wars, in which massed armies marched as if on dress parade through walls of canister and grape to close in near combat with enemies wielding bayonets, clubbed muskets, and even sticks and rocks. It was the last war in which were observed on a large scale such niceties as the succoring of wounded foes caught between the lines, the calling of informal truces for trade and friendly chats, and the cheering of acts of bravery on the part of enemy combatants. One writer has referred to the conflict as "the polite war," and numerous acts of chivalry on both sides indicate the appropriateness of the designation.

The Civil War was also the "singingest war" in American history. Music publishers flooded homes and camps with hundreds of songs, and civilians and soldiers on both sides found in sentimental melodies welcome diversion from loneliness and hardship. Confederate favorites were *Lorena*, *Dixie*, *Maryland*, *My Maryland*, *Bonnie Blue Flag*, *All Quiet Along the Potomac Tonight*, and *Annie Laurie*, while followers of the Stars and Stripes preferred *John Brown's Body*, *Battle Hymn of the Republic*, *Gay and Happy Still*, *Rally Round the Flag, Boys*, and *Pop Goes the Weasel*. Northerners also sang *Dixie* to a surprising extent and both sides gave high rating to *When This Cruel War Is Over*, *The Girl I Left Behind Me*, and especially *Home, Sweet Home*.

The Opposing Forces.—The North's principal advantages in the conflict were the following: numerical preponderance (the 23 Union States had a population of 22 million, while the 11 seceding states had 9 million of whom 3½ million were slaves); far greater industrial capacity, especially in terms of factories, developed resources, and technological skill; much more abundant capital; vastly better banking and credit facilities; a better balanced agriculture; a superior transportation system; a dominant position with respect to navy and merchant shipping; and numerous benefits accruing from control of the national government. The South had the advantage of operating on interior lines and, in morale, of

defending hearth and fireside against an invader. In her favor, also, was the fact that the North had the task of effectively subduing her, while the South could win simply by putting up a successful resistance.

The magnitude of the war is apparent in the numbers involved in it. Thomas L. Livermore states that Union enlistments of all classes aggregated 2,800,000, but when repeaters are eliminated and the reckoning translated to three years of service this figure is reduced to 1,556,000. Confederate enlistments, in terms of three-year equivalents, Livermore estimates at 1,082,119, though this figure appears too high. While the incompleteness of Confederate records makes calculations for that side little better than guesses, it seems safe to conclude that in the aggregate those who wore the gray were outnumbered about two to one by those who donned the blue.

Both sides resorted to conscription, the Confederate Congress passing the first national draft law in American history on April 16, 1862, and the Federal lawmakers following suit on March 3, 1863. The age limits specified in the Confederate act were 18 and 35 and in the North 20 and 45; however, manpower shortages led the Southerners to extend the limits in 1864 to 17 and 50. Both governments permitted the hiring of substitutes, although the Confederacy nullified the practice on Dec. 28, 1863. The North granted exemption from the draft to those who paid \$300, but in 1864 commutation was restricted to conscientious objectors. The Confederacy allowed many occupational exemptions; the Union gave none except to certain civil officials. The North gave little consideration to dependency and the South none at all. Failure of the South to exempt heads of poor families or to provide an effective aid program for soldiers' families resulted in some of the greatest hardships of the war.

In terms of men actually brought into service, the results of conscription on both sides were negligible. But the draft laws were undoubtedly of tremendous importance as stimulants to volunteering and in holding for continued service men whose initial enlistments were only for short terms.

Both North and South sought to increase volunteering by offering bounties. The relatively generous bounties of the Federal government, supplemented by local contributions, increased during the conflict until some men received \$1,000 for pledging to re-enlist at the end of their three-year terms.

The armies of both North and South were predominantly civilian, since the Regular Army of the country before secession numbered only 16,367 officers and men. The Union forces included a considerable admixture of foreigners, probably 20 to 25 per cent, the majority being German and Irish. Foreigners were relatively less numerous among the Confederates, but even so they ran well into the tens of thousands. The Confederacy organized three brigades of Indians, one of which was commanded by Gen. Stand Watie, a Cherokee chief. One Indian brigade served in the Northern army, and on more than one battlefield the savage war whoop was blended with the shrill Rebel "woh-who-ey" and the deeply intoned Yankee "huzza." In a few instances the red men reverted to the savage practice of scalping.

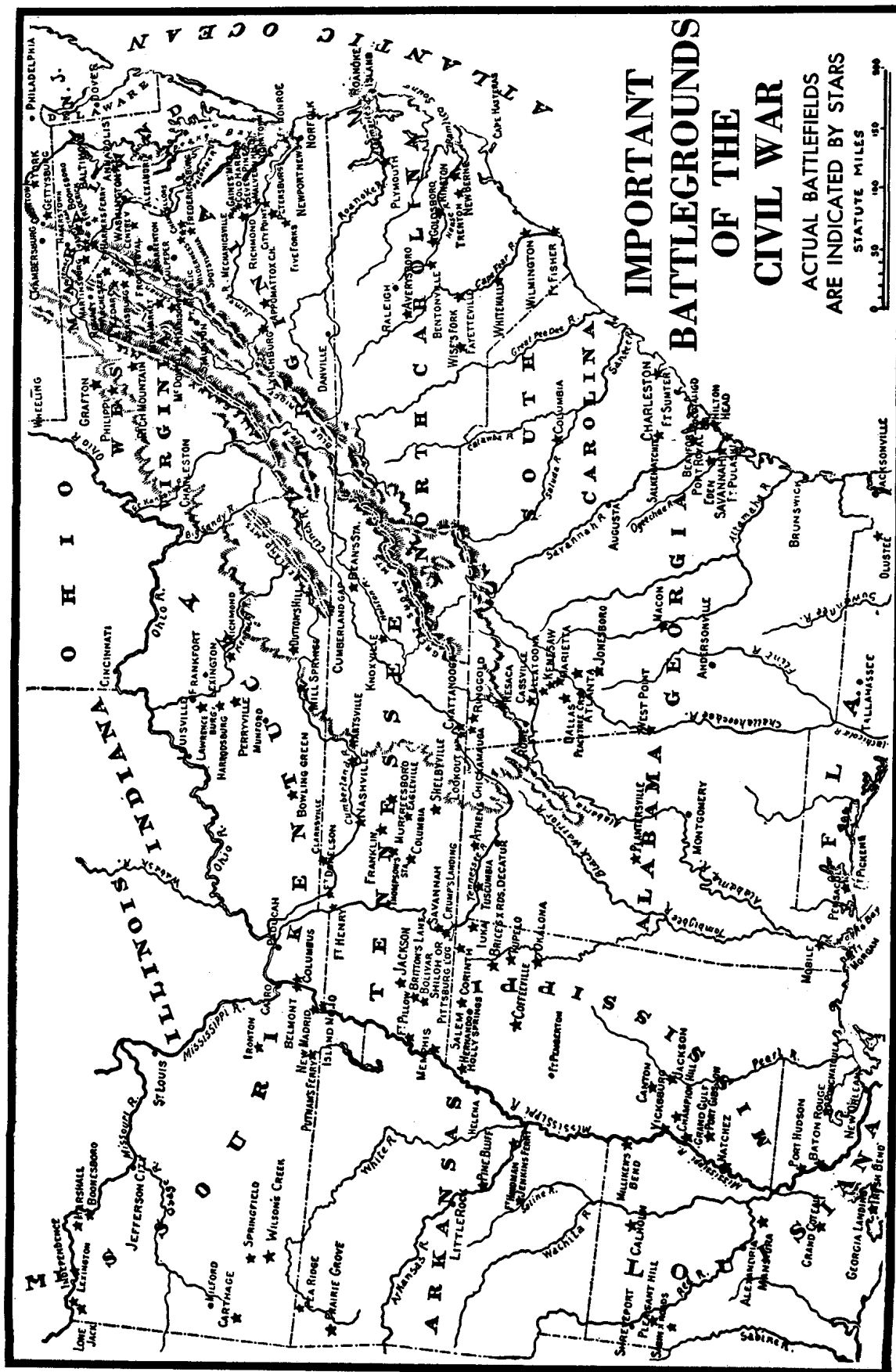
The Federals recruited about 200,000 Negroes,

and, while their service was primarily in non-combatant capacities, the performance of those who entered combat, in engagements such as Port Hudson, Milliken's Bend, Olustee, and the Crater, was such as to impel the Confederates, in the manpower exigencies of the war's last months, to authorize enrollment of 300,000 slaves as soldiers. But time ran out before any of these could be committed to battle.

Confederate soldiers were a more homogeneous group racially and occupationally than were their Northern counterparts. They were not so well educated as the wearers of the blue, were more demonstratively religious, were more sentimental, and apparently were endowed with a readier sense of humor. Probably because they came from a simpler society and took more easily to fighting, "Rebs" showed greater dash and *élan* in combat, although "Yanks" seemingly fought with more machinelike efficiency. But the similarities of "Johnny Rebs" and "Billy Yanks" far outweighed their differences. Most soldiers on both sides were native white farmers between the ages of 18 and 45. Because of their greater familiarity with outdoor life, horses and guns, and the better quality of their first officers, Southerners generally made a better showing in the early battles; but little if any disparity in fighting performance was discernible after 1862. In determination, courage, pride, loyalty to fellows, and other qualities that count in combat effectiveness no superiority can be attributed to one side or the other.

Casualties.—The enormous scale of the war is indicated by the vastness of the area over which its operations extended and the tremendous number of its engagements. In the United States government's *Chronological List of Battles* more than 2,200 engagements are included, and a Bureau of Pensions' compilation extending to minor actions contains over 6,800 separate contests. Such a large-scale conflict inevitably produced an unprecedented toll of casualties, which, in the aggregate, were not less than a million. Deaths on the Union side are said to have totaled 360,222, of which 110,070 were battle casualties (including those who died from battle wounds), and the number of Federal wounded has been figured at 275,175. The total of Southern wounded cannot be satisfactorily calculated, but Confederate deaths from all causes have been estimated at 258,000, of which 94,000 were battle casualties. Owing to greater deficiencies in medicines, food, and clothing, Confederates suffered heavier losses from disease than did Federals, but, largely because of ignorance and filth, deaths from sickness on both sides greatly exceeded those from hostile weapons. In the Northern armies, 57,265 men died from diarrhea and dysentery as against 67,058 killed outright in battle.

Secession.—The war was precipitated by the South's determination to set up its own government and the North's attempts to maintain the Union. South Carolina initiated secession on Dec. 20, 1860, followed by Mississippi on Jan. 9, 1861; Florida, January 10; Alabama, January 11; Georgia, January 19; Louisiana, January 26; Texas, February 1; Virginia, April 17; Arkansas, May 6; Tennessee, May 7; and North Carolina, May 20. The secession ordinances were ratified by popular vote in Texas on February 23; Virginia, May 23; and Tennessee, June 8. Kentucky and Missouri were also represented by stars in the Confederate flag and delegations in the South-



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ern Congress, but the secessionist governments in those states were soon forced into exile by their stronger rivals. (See also SECESSION IN THE UNITED STATES.)

As the states withdrew they began to raise troops and take over government forts, arsenals, and customs houses located within their boundaries. The first hostile shot of the conflict was fired by South Carolina batteries on Jan. 9, 1861, at the *Star of the West* (q.v.) as that vessel attempted unsuccessfully to deliver provisions to the Federal garrison which Maj. Robert Anderson had moved from Fort Moultrie to Fort Sumter (qq.v.) in Charleston Harbor.

Delegates from the seceded states met at Montgomery, Ala., on Feb. 4, 1861, and on February 8 formed a provisional government, "The Confederate States of America" (q.v.). The next day they elected Jefferson Davis of Mississippi provisional president and Alexander H. Stephens of Georgia provisional vice president. In the fall of 1861, Davis and Stephens were elected by popular vote for a single term of six years as provided in the Confederate Constitution; with their inauguration on Feb. 22, 1862, in Richmond, Va., which had been selected as the new capital the previous May, the government passed from a provisional to a permanent status.

THE WAR IN 1861

One of the early acts of the provisional government of the Confederacy was to take over the defense of Charleston, and to appoint Brig. Gen. Pierre G. T. Beauregard commander of the troops there. Abraham Lincoln, inaugurated president of the United States on March 4, 1861, postponed action concerning Fort Sumter until April 6, when he gave notice of his intention to send provisions to Major Anderson. On April 10 the Confederate government directed Beauregard to demand evacuation of Sumter and in the event of Anderson's refusal to reduce the fort. When Anderson gave a conditional reply, Confederate batteries opened fire on the fort on April 12, and forced its surrender on April 13.

Lincoln's response to Sumter's fall was to call on the states for 75,000 volunteers and to summon Congress to meet on July 4. The effect of the bombardment and the call for troops was to take the ground out from under moderates in both sections and to commit the overwhelming majority of Northerners and Southerners to a war policy. Enthusiasm throughout the country was immense, with recruiting rallies, flag presentations, and farewell celebrations for departing soldiers the order of the day. In these flush times of patriotism, both Davis and Lincoln were offered far more volunteers than they could equip.

Agents representing the contending governments and some of the states scoured Europe for arms and other war essentials. At home existing factories were expanded, new ones were erected, and war industries in both the North and South multiplied. The North, owing to its economic advantages, made the greater progress in industrial mobilization, but the South's achievement was remarkable.

Washington, D.C., and Richmond, Va., early became the principal centers of troop concentration, and Virginia proved the main battleground, since both governments manifested such concern for their capitals that they tended to neglect forces and objectives in the West. The Confederacy suffered especially from overemphasis

on the east, as witness the "too little and too late" measures for the defense of New Orleans and Vicksburg.

First Battle of Bull Run.—Following minor actions in border and coastal areas in April, May, and June of 1861, came the first great engagement of the war, July 21, 1861, the First Battle of Bull Run (q.v.) near Manassas, Va. (Throughout the war Northerners named battles for streams while Southerners named them for towns; hence, Northerners called the first big engagement the Battle of Bull Run and Southerners referred to it as the Battle of Manassas.) In this fight Brig. Gen. Irvin McDowell commanding Northern forces of about 35,000 attacked the combined commands of Brig. Gen. P. G. T. Beauregard, whose 22,000 men were scattered along Bull Run from Union Mills Ford to the stone bridge on the Warrenton Turnpike, and Brig. Gen. Joseph E. Johnston, who had successfully deceived his opponent, the venerable Maj. Gen. Robert Patterson, near Harper's Ferry and slipped away with most of his 11,000 troops to Manassas in time for the battle. Johnston, as the ranking general, assumed the Confederate command after arriving at Manassas on July 20.

McDowell's plans called for a feint by the division led by Brig. Gen. Daniel Tyler near the stone bridge, while the divisions led by Col. David Hunter and Col. S. P. Heintzelman crossed the run at Sudley Springs two miles above to turn the thinly held Confederate left. But McDowell's turning force became confused as it marched from bivouac in the predawn hours of July 21, and, instead of reaching the point of attack early in the morning, was not ready to strike until about 10 o'clock. In the meantime, Confederate Col. Nathan G. Evans had correctly appraised Tyler's noisy demonstration on his front as a feint and had led most of his small brigade to meet the real threat indicated by billowing dust clouds to the northwest. He was soon reinforced, but the Federals drove the Confederates back to Henry House Hill and in general maintained a successful fight until almost 4 o'clock. Then a new Confederate attack, strengthened by the timely arrival of Brig. Gen. Edmund Kirby-Smith's brigade from Johnston's command turned the tide. From an orderly retreat the Federal withdrawal soon degenerated into a rout which ended only when the Federal forces were safely inside the defenses at Washington.

This fight, poorly conducted on both sides, owing largely to the inexperience of men and officers, has been aptly termed "a battle of blunders." The Confederate victory, communicated to Richmond by President Davis who had arrived on the field while the fight was in progress, may have been unfortunate for Southerners in that it enhanced their hopes for a swift and easy triumph. The Union defeat, nevertheless, reconciled Northerners to the possibility of a long struggle and aroused them to a more vigorous prosecution of the war.

On July 25, 1861, 34-year-old Maj. Gen. George B. McClellan, who earlier had won much publicized success in western Virginia which led eventually to the creation of a separate state admitted to the Union on June 20, 1863, was appointed commander of the Army of the Potomac. McClellan, who was promoted on Nov. 1, 1861, to general in chief of all the Northern armies in place of Lieut. Gen. Winfield Scott, took aggressive measures to weld into an effective

fighting force the numerous recruits being assembled under calls authorized by Congress in July. Improvement of the land forces was accompanied by steps to develop the navy so as to make effective the blockade of Southern ports declared by Lincoln on April 19.

Other Engagements.—After Bull Run there was little heavy fighting during the remainder of 1861, as both sides devoted their chief attention to enlarging, training, and equipping their forces and establishing their lines. Perhaps the most important land action in the East during this period was the battle at Ball's Bluff (q.v.) near Leesburg, Va., on October 21, in which Union troops led by Col. Edward D. Baker, senator from Oregon and friend of Lincoln, were defeated and Baker was killed. This disaster led to the setting up by Congress of a Joint Committee on the Conduct of the War, controlled by the "Radical Republican" element, which henceforth sought to use its investigative function to influence military policy, sometimes to the considerable embarrassment of Lincoln.

In the West, the principal land engagement in 1861 was the Battle of Wilson's Creek (q.v.), near Springfield, Mo., on August 10, in which Confederates under Maj. Gen. Sterling Price and Brig. Gen. Ben McCulloch defeated Union forces led by Brig. Gen. Nathaniel Lyon and Brig. Gen. Franz Sigel, killing the valiant Lyon. This "mean-fowl fight," as a Confederate aptly called it, was followed by the Battle of Pea Ridge (q.v.) in the northwest corner of Arkansas, on March 6-8, 1862, in which Federals commanded by Brig. Gen. Samuel R. Curtis decisively defeated Confederates led by Maj. Gen. Earl Van Dorn, and established Union control of Missouri for the remainder of the war.

THE WAR IN 1862

Coastal Actions.—The months of late 1861 and early 1862 also were marked by Union successes along the coast, some of which were minor in themselves, but which, in the aggregate, were important in that they initiated a strategy of constriction which was ultimately to cut off large segments of the Confederacy and strangle its supply lines. On November 7, a joint expedition under Brig. Gen. Thomas W. Sherman and Flag Officer Samuel F. DuPont captured Port Royal, S. C. Early in February 1862, a Federal expedition of 80 vessels, which had set out from Fort Monroe on January 11, carrying 12,000 men under Brig. Gen. Ambrose E. Burnside, entered the inland waters of the North Carolina sound, and captured Roanoke Island, Elizabeth City, and Edenton. In March, New Bern was captured, and Fort Macon, covering the inlet to Beaufort, N. C., surrendered in April, leaving Wilmington as the only important North Carolina port under Confederate control. On April 11, 1862, Fort Pulaski (q.v.) at the mouth of the Savannah River surrendered after a heavy bombardment directed by Brig. Gen. Quincy A. Gillmore. But far more serious for the Confederates was the loss of New Orleans, the South's greatest city and principal port, which fell late in April 1862, after only a feeble defense against a water and land expedition led by Flag Officer David G. Farragut and Maj. Gen. Benjamin F. Butler. (See also NEW ORLEANS, CAPTURE OF; PORT ROYAL BAY, BATTLE OF; ROANOKE ISLAND, BATTLE OF.)

On March 8, 1862, occurred the ominous at-

tack of the Confederate ironclad *Merrimac* which suddenly moved out from Norfolk and attacked the Union fleet in Hampton Roads, sinking the frigate *Cumberland*, capturing and destroying the frigate *Congress*, doing much other damage, and startling the entire eastern coast. On resuming operations the next day the *Merrimac* was met and foiled by the *Monitor* which had just arrived. The *Merrimac* then retired to Norfolk, and was blown up when the Confederates evacuated that city on May 9. (See also MONITOR AND MERRIMAC.)

War in the West.—Confederate reverses in coastal areas were accompanied early in 1862 by serious setbacks in Kentucky and Tennessee where Federal forces under the direction of Maj. Gen. ("Old Brains") Henry W. Halleck, commander of the Department of the Missouri, and Brig. Gen. Don Carlos Buell, commander of the Department of the Ohio, faced Confederates under Gen. Albert S. Johnston, commander of the Western Department. On January 19-20 in the Battle of Mill Springs (q.v.), Ky., a portion of Buell's forces led by Brig. Gen. George H. Thomas defeated Confederates led by Brig. Gen. Felix K. Zollicoffer and Brig. Gen. George B. Crittenden, killing Zollicoffer, and clearing eastern Kentucky of Southern troops save for a brigade under Brig. Gen. Humphrey Marshall which a Union force under Col. James A. Garfield had driven into the upper valley of the Big Sandy by a victory at Prestonburg, Ky., on January 10. (See also PRESTONBURG, ENGAGEMENTS AT.)

Of far greater moment was a move into western Kentucky and Tennessee initiated in January by land troops from Halleck's department led by Brig. Gen. Ulysses S. Grant, in conjunction with a river fleet commanded by Commodore Andrew H. Foote. This move offered the prospect of breaking the thinly held Confederate line extending from Columbus, Ky., on the west through Bowling Green to Cumberland Gap on the east, as well as of cutting a number of important railroads including the vital route running from Memphis to Chattanooga. This latter route connected at Chattanooga with roads extending to Richmond, Va., and Charleston, S. C. By following the Tennessee, Cumberland, and Mississippi rivers, the Union forces could penetrate the heart of the South.

The Grant-Foote expedition left Paducah, Ky., on Feb. 2, 1862, and four days later captured Fort Henry on the Tennessee River. On February 16, Grant's forces captured Fort Donelson on the Cumberland River with a garrison of about 15,000 men, and rifles, guns, and supplies that the Confederacy could ill spare. The fall of Fort Henry and Fort Donelson (q.v.) was of such far-reaching consequence that it can almost be called the turning point of the war. An immediate result was the evacuation of Nashville, Tenn., an important railroad center and the first state capital to be surrendered by the Confederates, and the conversion of that city into a permanent base for further Northern advances. Capture of Fort Donelson also gave the Federals much of Kentucky and half of Tennessee and paved the way for the occupation of Memphis, Tenn., on June 6 and the move against Vicksburg, Miss. The victory also set on the road to recognition the general who won there the sobriquet "Unconditional Surrender" and who eventually as general in chief was to lead the Union armies to final triumph. Hardly less important

than the military results of Donelson's fall were its morale effects. Northerners were inspired to renewed support of the war, while Southerners were plunged into deep discouragement which manifested itself in growing criticism of the Confederate government and its conduct of the war. In his inaugural delivered the day before the fall of Nashville, Davis referred to recent "serious disasters," and a short time later he was forced by public discontent to remove Judah P. Benjamin as secretary of war.

Halleck was rewarded for the capture of Forts Henry and Donelson by appointment on March 11, 1862, to over-all command of Union forces in the West. He soon directed a junction of Buell's and Grant's forces for a move against Gen. Albert S. Johnston who was in process of assembling a large army at Corinth, Miss. But Johnston, apprised of Federal intentions, decided to take the initiative and strike Grant at Pittsburg Landing on the Tennessee River before Buell could join him. Despite subsequent claims to the contrary, Johnston caught Grant napping on April 6, and in the bloodiest day of the war up to that time drove Grant's stubbornly resisting army back to the banks of the Tennessee River. Johnston himself was killed in mid-afternoon but Beauregard, his second in command, continued the battle until disorganization, fatigue, continuing resistance, and approaching darkness caused him to desist. On April 7, Grant, reinforced by Maj. Gen. Lew Wallace's division of his own command and three divisions of Buell's army, renewed the battle and drove the now outnumbered Confederates from the field. (See also SHILOH, BATTLE OF.)

With Halleck in direct command, the Federals closed in on Corinth late in May only to find that the Confederates had slipped out of the town. Buell and his Army of the Ohio were then sent toward Chattanooga with instructions to repair the Memphis and Charleston railroad as

they advanced. Grant, after almost resigning because of the inactive status imposed on him by Halleck's presence with the fighting forces, in late June established his headquarters at Memphis. With Halleck's appointment as general in chief the next month, Grant again could look forward to aggressive moves of his own planning and execution.

In September the Confederates took the initiative in Grant's department. Maj. Gen. Price and Maj. Gen. Van Dorn who previously had joined Beauregard from beyond the Mississippi attacked Union forces under Brig. Gen. William S. Rosecrans at Iuka (q.v.), Miss., on September 19. Rosecrans defeated the Southerners in this fight and again at Corinth on October 4. (See also CORINTH, ADVANCE ON AND BATTLE OF.)

But Federal reverses soon occurred in Mississippi. On December 20, Van Dorn destroyed Grant's advance base at Holly Springs, forcing him to abandon the plan to move against Vicksburg through Grenada, and on December 28-29 in the Battle of Chickasaw Bayou (q.v.), north of Vicksburg, an attack by Maj. Gen. William T. Sherman was repulsed by the Confederates. After these setbacks Grant united his forces along the Mississippi River below Memphis for a series of futile canal-digging ventures aimed at bypassing the strong Vicksburg defenses.

Meanwhile Confederate forces under Gen. Braxton Bragg, who on June 27 had succeeded Beauregard as commander of the Army of Mississippi (later redesignated Army of Tennessee), and Maj. Gen. Edmund Kirby-Smith invaded Kentucky. After forcing Buell to fall back to the Ohio River and threatening Cincinnati, Bragg took time out to inaugurate a Confederate governor at Frankfort, Ky., on October 4. During the lull Buell moved from Louisville and on October 8 attacked Bragg in the Battle of Perryville (q.v.). While tactically victorious in this desperate and bloody fight, Bragg, who managed the campaign badly throughout, decided that he was too weak to renew the offensive, pulled his dispersed forces together, and returned to middle Tennessee. Buell headed for the same destination, but his superiors were so dissatisfied with his recent operations that they replaced him with Rosecrans. On the last day of the year Bragg attacked Rosecrans in the Battle of Stones River or Murfreesboro, and after three days of fighting in which Bragg again revealed serious deficiencies as a combat commander, the Confederates yielded the field to their opponents and withdrew to Tullahoma in south-central Tennessee.

While Rosecrans was succeeding at Murfreesboro, the Confederates won a notable victory at Galveston, Texas. Gen. John B. Magruder, with a fleet of ordinary river boats protected by hay and cotton bales, captured the *Harriet Lane* on January 1, sank the gunboat *Westfield*, and received the surrender of the forces holding the city. The Confederate raider *Alabama*, arriving shortly thereafter, captured the gunboat *Hatteras*. Galveston remained in Confederate hands until the end of the war. (See also GALVESTON, MILITARY AND NAVAL OPERATIONS AT.)

Peninsula Campaign.—The year 1862 opened in the East with widespread dissatisfaction in the North over the long inaction of General McClellan. Gen. Joseph E. Johnston was at Manassas and Centerville, Va., with some 50,000 Confederate soldiers, but McClellan, misled by



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his secret service, continually insisted that he was opposed by three times that number. The Army of the Potomac had fully 150,000 present for duty. The Potomac was blockaded and the Confederate flag floated on Munson's Hill in sight of Washington. On January 31, President Lincoln gave McClellan a peremptory order to move on Manassas not later than February 22. McClellan asked leave to present a plan of his own for a movement down the Potomac, up the Rappahannock or York, and thence overland to Richmond. While he was discussing it, Johnston, placing logs ("Quaker guns") in his embrasures at Centerville, withdrew unmolested behind the Rappahannock to a line of works and field depots already prepared, making McClellan's plan impractical.

McClellan was allowed to undertake the peninsula campaign, a modification of his first plan, but on March 11 he was relieved from the general command of the armies. The Army of the Potomac was transported to Fort Monroe, Va., and the movement up the peninsula toward Yorktown began on April 4. Heavy rains caused delays from the start. It was found at Washington that McClellan had not left the designated number of men for the proper defense of the capital. McDowell's corps was therefore retained. Arriving before Yorktown with about three times the strength of the enemy, McClellan decided to lay regular siege to the position. Parallels were therefore opened and nearly 100 heavy siege guns brought up, but as the batteries were about to open fire, Gen. Joseph E. Johnston evacuated the place May 3 and withdrew toward Richmond. (See also YORKTOWN, SIEGE OF.)

McClellan followed, his army astride the Chickahominy, with the advance elements at the outskirts of the Confederate capital. On May 31, Johnston attacked the two corps south of the river and only their prompt reinforcement by Brig. Gen. Edwin V. Sumner's corps from the other side of the Chickahominy prevented disaster. At the close of the day Johnston was badly wounded and was succeeded on June 1 by Gen. Robert E. Lee who continued in command of the Army of Northern Virginia until Appomattox. On June 1 the battle was renewed by the Confederates, but the Federals regained their lost ground, and Lee withdrew to the fortifications of Richmond. (See FAIR OAKS, BATTLES OF.)

Meanwhile "Stonewall" Jackson, in a brilliant campaign in the Shenandoah Valley, had prevented most of McDowell's corps, then in the vicinity of Fredericksburg, Va., from reinforcing McClellan. By moving rapidly down the valley he defeated Brig. Gen. N. P. Banks on May 26 at Winchester and forced him across the Potomac. Returning, Jackson defeated Maj. Gen. John C. Frémont at the Battle of Cross Keys (q.v.), on June 8, on one flank, and Brig. Gen. James Shields at the Battle of Port Republic (q.v.) on June 9, on the other, and after a week spent in deceiving General Frémont into the belief that he was about to advance down the valley, by a rapid movement he appeared on June 25 near Ashland on the flank of McClellan's army in front of Richmond. The Seven Days' battles (q.v.) followed, beginning with the Battle of Mechanicsville (q.v.) on June 26 and ending with the Battle of Malvern Hill (q.v.) on July 1, and the Army of the Potomac was forced to withdraw to Harrison's Landing on the James River.

General Jackson was far below his usual standard during the Seven Days' battles, and Lee in this his first major campaign did not reveal the genius that he was later to demonstrate. Confederate movements were poorly coordinated from the beginning, and at Malvern Hill Lee committed a great tactical blunder. But the campaign was a Confederate success in that Richmond was saved.

McClellan's role in the campaign is highly controversial. His successful movement of so large a force in retreat from the Chickahominy River to the James River over difficult terrain under persistent attack was an impressive achievement. He was outstanding for his ability to inspire the common soldiers who responded enthusiastically to his leadership as long as he commanded them. But his abilities were offset by slowness, vanity, tactlessness in dealing with superiors, and finally a weakness inexcusable in a responsible combat commander—hesitancy to commit his forces to battle. Lincoln decided after McClellan's failure before Richmond to entrust control of the forces in Virginia to other hands. (See also PENINSULA CAMPAIGN OF 1862.)

Second Battle of Bull Run.—Against McClellan's protest, the Army of the Potomac was withdrawn from the peninsula to the vicinity of Washington, D.C. To cover this movement and protect Washington, Maj. Gen. John Pope was given command of the Army of Virginia, organized with the corps of Banks and Frémont. Subsequently Halleck ordered reinforcement of Pope's army by troops from McClellan's and Burnside's commands for an overland move against Richmond. But while Pope was devoting himself to preliminaries, Lee took the initiative and shifted his forces toward the Shenandoah Valley. Jackson defeated Banks in the Battle of Cedar Mountain (q.v.) on August 9, 1862.

Then in accordance with a bold plan by which Lee divided his army in the face of superior opposition, Jackson swung far around to Pope's rear and on August 26 destroyed Union stores at Bristoe Station and Manassas Junction and then retired to the old Bull Run battlefield to await the coming of Longstreet. On August 29, Pope, now reinforced by advance elements of McClellan's command, attacked the Confederates at Groveton and was repulsed. Still lingering under the delusion that he had his opponents off balance, Pope struck again on August 30 in the Second Battle of Bull Run (q.v.), but his troops soon felt the full force of Lee's cunning and their own leader's bungling, and despite brave and desperate fighting were decisively defeated. For alleged non-cooperation in the campaign McClellan was severely criticized and Brig. Gen. Fitz-John Porter was cashiered. On September 2, Pope withdrew his battered army to the fortifications of Washington.

Battle of Antietam.—With Pope defeated and Lee threatening, Lincoln saw no alternative to placing McClellan again at the head of the forces about Washington, which he did on Sept. 2, 1862. The next day Lee, with one eye on the approaching congressional elections in the North and the other on Europe, put his army in motion toward the Potomac. With breathtaking audacity he detached about a third of his army while advancing against a force more than twice as strong as his own, and sent them to capture Harpers Ferry, which was taken under Jackson's

leadership on September 15. (See also HARPERS FERRY, BATTLE OF.)

In the meantime, McClellan, who had learned of the division of Lee's army through the lucky finding of a lost Confederate order, had moved against the foe with unaccustomed celerity. After preliminary actions at the battles of South Mountain (q.v.) and Crampton's Gap on September 14, the two armies met on September 17 at Sharpsburg, or Antietam Creek, in a general engagement (Battle of Antietam, q.v.) which proved to be the bloodiest single day's fight of the entire war, with total casualties exceeding 20,000. McClellan's two-to-one advantage was lost through slowness, piecemeal commitment of his forces, and the desperate resistance of the Confederates who were fighting with their backs to the Potomac. McClellan gave further proof of his deficiency as a combat commander by leaving Lee's shattered army unmolested for a whole day following the battle and then letting it slip back across the swollen river under cover of night. On November 7, Lincoln replaced him with Burnside and he never again led troops in the field.

In the autumn of 1862, with Bragg in Kentucky and Lee in Maryland, the military fortunes of the Confederacy reached floodtide. True, great victories were yet to be won, but never again were Southern arms to be brandished so menacingly along far-reaching Northern boundaries, or Southern hopes to ride so high, or Southern prospects abroad to appear so bright.

Emancipation Proclamation.—Five days after Antietam, Lincoln issued a preliminary proclamation announcing his intention to declare the slaves free, in all states and parts of states still in rebellion, on Jan. 1, 1863. The final proclamation was delivered as scheduled and made applicable to all the Confederate states, save Tennessee and the portions of Virginia and Louisiana under Federal control. The immediate tangible results of these decrees were negligible, but the intangible and ultimate effects, both at home and abroad, of thus avowing emancipation as a specific war aim, were far-reaching. (See also EMANCIPATION PROCLAMATION.)

Battle of Fredericksburg.—The last great battle of 1862 in the East, the Battle of Fredericksburg (q.v.), Va., on Dec. 13, 1862, was an enormous Federal disaster. In this fight Burnside's troops repeatedly assaulted Confederates impregably situated on Marye's Heights only to be repulsed with great losses. A Confederate soldier who witnessed the gallant though futile Federal attacks later stated that he had never doubted eventual Southern triumph until he saw with what desperate bravery Northerners could fight as they did at Fredericksburg; henceforth he was not so sure. After one more abortive offensive, which Confederates derided by erecting placards along their lines marked "Burnside's Army Stuck in the Mud," Burnside was replaced by Major Gen. Joseph Hooker on Jan. 26, 1863.

Southwestern Operations.—The year 1862 witnessed important developments in the far Southwest. Confederate successes in 1861 had given them control of the southern part of the territory of New Mexico, and the conquered area had become the Confederate Territory of Arizona, with a representative in the Southern Congress. In January 1862, Brig. Gen. Henry H. Sibley with a force of about 3,700 Confederates launched a movement up the Rio Grande from Fort Bliss,

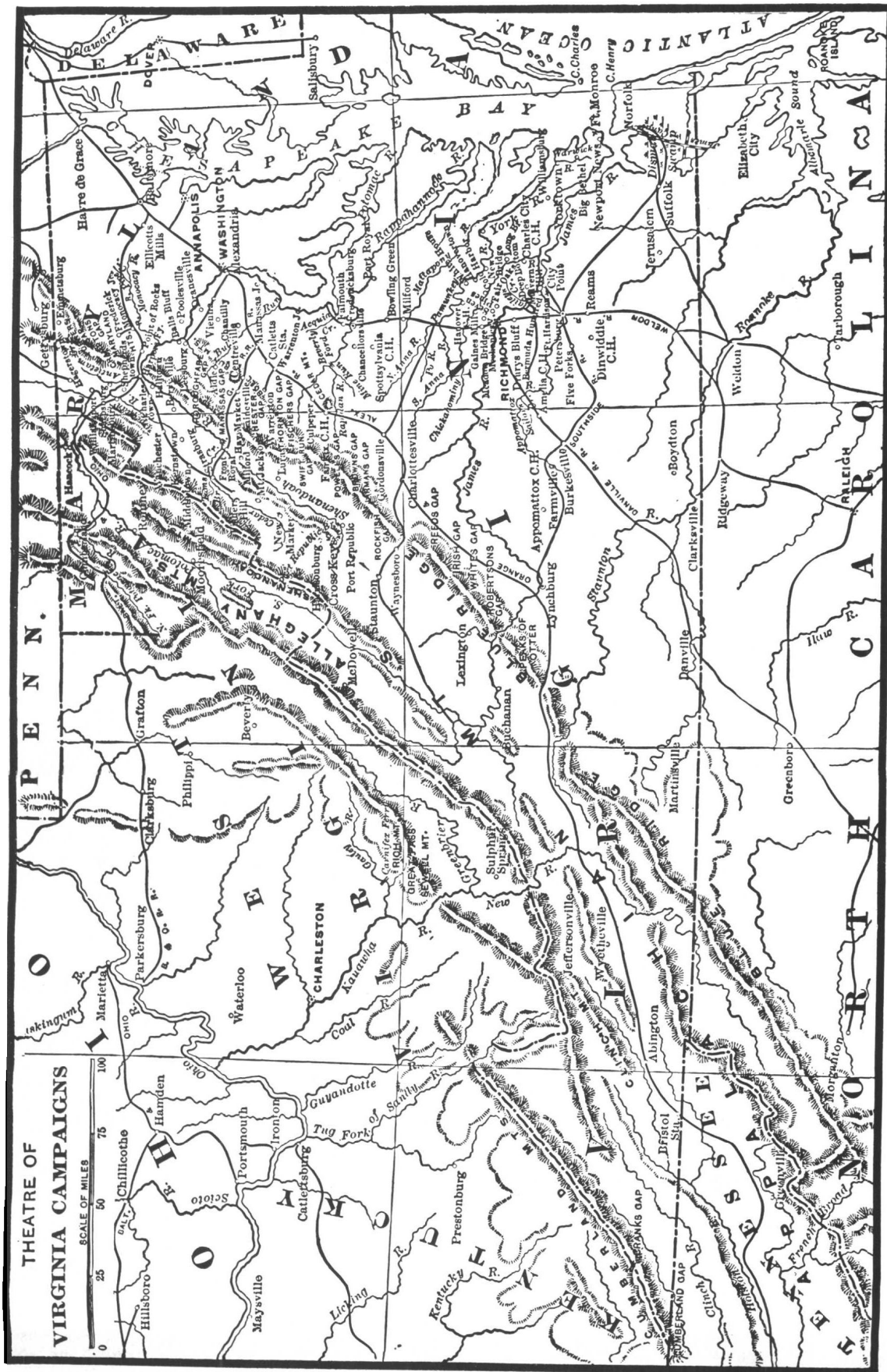
Texas, against a Union command at Fort Craig of about 3,800 men under Col. Edward R. S. Canby. Sibley's immediate objective was the conquest of New Mexico, but his ultimate goal was California. The two forces clashed in the Battle of Valverde (q.v.) on February 21, the Confederates winning the day, and Sibley moved on to Albuquerque. But Sibley's situation soon became precarious owing to lack of supplies and the prospective reinforcement of Canby's command. On April 12 Sibley evacuated Albuquerque and headed for Fort Bliss where he arrived early in May. The threatened approach of further Union reinforcements from California caused him to continue his retreat to San Antonio, with a force greatly depleted by battle, hunger, illness, and exhaustion.

THE WAR IN 1863

During the early months of 1863 the morale of the Northern armies sank to the lowest point of the entire war. Soldiers shivering in the snow about Fredericksburg and despondent over the successive failures of their high commanders talked openly of giving up the struggle. Grant's men, floundering aimlessly in Mississippi mud and bedeviled by disease, wrote despairing letters to their homefolk. Civilian morale was also unprecedentedly low, and public dissatisfaction manifested itself in the organization of peace societies, opposition to the draft, and public denunciation of the Lincoln administration.

Battle of Chancellorsville.—With the coming of spring weather and renewed activity, the clouds of gloom began to dissipate. In the East, "Fighting Joe" Hooker boosted morale greatly by unclogging commissary lines, replacing hardtack with abundant rations of soft bread baked in specially built field ovens, increasing furloughs, and intensifying training. On April 28, 1863, after a heartening visit from Lincoln, he put a well-nourished, replenished, and hopeful Army of the Potomac on the offensive against Lee. Following a well-conceived plan of feinting with one corps below Fredericksburg, Va., while his main force moved against Lee's rear from above, Hooker by the evening of April 30, in one of the most brilliant maneuvers of the war, had four corps south of the Rappahannock behind Lee's left near Chancellorsville, and two more threatening his right south of Fredericksburg. But even as the field telegraphers clacked out favorable reports from cavalry scouts and from Thaddeus S. C. Lowe's famous observation balloon, Hooker began to hesitate. Soon his dispatches, which up to now had been optimistic, aggressive, and even boastful, changed to a passive tone and he called off the advance.

This loss of nerve was Hooker's undoing, for while he hesitated, Lee, who at first had been confused by his opponent's clever moves, quickly seized the initiative. On the morning of May 2, Lee sent Jackson with three divisions off to the west on what was to be the latter's last great flanking movement, while Lee with the remainder of the army engaged Hooker's attention before Chancellorsville and Fredericksburg. Late in the afternoon Jackson's yelling troops pounced on Maj. Gen. Oliver O. Howard's unwary 11th Corps and within an hour the left of Hooker's line crumbled beneath the furious Confederate onslaught. At nightfall, while returning from a reconnaissance of the Union position, Jackson was mistakenly fired on by his own troops and so



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seriously wounded that he died on May 10. The victory in the Battle of Chancellorsville (q.v.), which the Confederates consummated on May 3 and 4, was small consolation for the loss of Lee's "right arm."

Gettysburg Campaign.—What was Lee to do now? Some Confederate leaders thought that he should stand on the defensive and that Johnston or Bragg should be reinforced for a major effort in the West, but Lee advocated following up the advantage won at Chancellorsville with an Eastern offensive aimed at Washington, Baltimore, or Philadelphia. President Davis endorsed his plan. Both were influenced by a desire to promote peace sentiment in the North through a successful invasion and to further Confederate prospects abroad where William S. Lindsay and John Arthur Roebuck, friendly members of the British Parliament, were pressing for Confederate recognition.

After reorganizing the Army of Northern Virginia into three corps, the 1st headed by James Longstreet, the 2d by Richard S. Ewell, and the 3d by A. P. Hill—the last two newly promoted to lieutenant general—Lee on June 3 headed northward with a force of about 76,000. He had crossed the Potomac River with his main army by June 25, and on June 28 advance elements of Ewell's Corps were approaching Harrisburg, Pa., while Longstreet and Hill were in the vicinity of Chambersburg, Pa. Maj. Gen. J. E. B. Stuart, who with three of the seven cavalry brigades three days before had left the main army on a far-swinging raid to the east, on June 28 captured a train of 125 wagons in sight of the nation's capital. But his boldness, Lee's ambiguous orders, and trouble along the way deprived the army of its accustomed "eyes" until July 2.

In the meantime, the Army of the Potomac, which was following Lee northward, received a new commander on June 28 in the person of Maj. Gen. George G. Meade. The two armies clashed in the Battle of Gettysburg (q.v.) on July 1, and after a desperate three-day struggle, culminating in the famous charge by Maj. Gen. George E. Pickett against the Union center on July 3, Lee retreated. Much to Lincoln's disappointment, Meade failed to follow up his victory and Lee recrossed the Potomac unmolested. Save for the campaign of Mine Run (q.v.), which Meade inaugurated in November 1863, no other important land actions occurred in the East until the spring of 1864.

Vicksburg Campaign.—Events of the great importance meanwhile had occurred in the West. In April 1863, after forestalling efforts of Maj. Gen. John A. McClernand to take over direction of operations against Vicksburg, Miss., Grant marched his army down the western bank of the Mississippi River to a point south of the city where Rear Admiral David D. Porter's fleet, which had run the Vicksburg batteries on the night of April 16-17, ferried the expedition to the eastern bank of the river on April 30. After defeating an outnumbered Confederate force under Brig. Gen. John S. Bowen in the Battle of Port Gibson (q.v.) on May 1, Grant proceeded northward with 20,000 men, defeating Brig. Gen. John Gregg in the Battle of Raymond on May 12 and capturing Jackson, the state capital, on May 14. He then turned his troops westward against Lieut. Gen. John C. Pemberton to win the battles of Champion's Hill and Big Black River (qq.v.) on

May 16 and 17, and to cut off the army of Gen. Joseph E. Johnston from that of Pemberton who now retired to the Vicksburg defenses. After futile efforts to break Pemberton's lines by assault on May 19 and 22, Grant with an army now numbering 40,000 settled down to a six weeks' siege of Vicksburg which ended with the surrender of Pemberton and his force of over 30,000 on July 4. (See also JACKSON, BATTLE OF; VICKSBURG, MILITARY OPERATIONS AGAINST AND SIEGE OF.)

Grant's success in the spectacular campaign thus ended was attributable largely to his boldness, resourcefulness, and superior generalship. But he was aided considerably by ineptness, misunderstanding, and division among the Confederates. President Davis laid great stress on holding Vicksburg while Johnston who, despite his position as supervising general in the West, seemed uncertain of his authority over the army commanders, urged the importance of saving Pemberton's forces by bringing them out for merger with his own. The result, according to Robert Selph Henry, was that Pemberton "at times attempted to follow both plans, finally followed neither—and lost everything."

On July 8 the Confederate garrison at Port Hudson—which like that at Vicksburg during the final stages of the siege was reduced to rations of mule meat—surrendered to Maj. Gen. N. P. Banks. Loss of Vicksburg and Port Hudson meant Union control of the Mississippi; the eastern Confederacy was severed from its principal sugar and meat producing country, and the valuable foreign trade through Mexico was cut off. Henceforth the Trans-Mississippi Department, commanded by Lieut. Gen. Edmund Kirby-Smith from headquarters at Shreveport, La., was to be virtually a nation unto itself. Governors of Confederate states west of the Mississippi, already chafing at alleged neglect by Richmond authorities, were now to think more than ever in terms of looking first to the interests of their own citizens. In view of the disastrous consequences of the Gettysburg and Vicksburg campaigns upon its diplomatic position, resources, and morale, the Confederacy had small chance of survival after July 1863. (See also PORT HUDSON, SIEGE OF.)

But this did not mean that the Confederates ceased fighting. For despite grievous and irreparable losses among both leaders and men, Johnny Rebs, whose morale was always better than that of the folk at home, continued to resist their foes with gallantry and stubbornness on all fronts. Even while the prisoners at Vicksburg were being paroled and Lee's ragged veterans were falling back from Pennsylvania, Brig. Gen. John H. Morgan was leading his gray-clad cavalrymen on a raid that extended into Indiana and Ohio. And in October 1863, Col. Joseph O. Shelby, who was something of a Forrest of the West, made a bold cavalry sweep into Missouri. (See also MORGAN'S RAIDS INTO INDIANA AND OHIO.)

Battle of Chickamauga.—The next big fight in the West after Vicksburg was the Battle of Chickamauga (q.v.) on Sept. 19-20, 1863, between Federal forces under Maj. Gen. William S. Rosecrans and Confederates under Gen. Braxton Bragg. Rosecrans, who in late June and early July had forced Bragg back to Chattanooga, in early September maneuvered his opponent out of that city to Lafayette, Ga., some 30 miles to the south. Soon Bragg was joined by Lieut. Gen.