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CIVIL WAR

People and Perspectives

LISA TENDRICH FRANK

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PERSPECTIVES IN
AMERICAN SOCIAL HISTORY

Civil War

People and Perspectives

Lisa Tendrich Frank, Editor
Peter C. Mancall, Series Editor

A B C  C L I O

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Series Introduction

Social history is, simply put, the study of past societies. More specifically, social historians attempt to describe societies in their totality, and hence often eschew analysis of politics and ideas. Though many social historians argue that it is impossible to understand how societies functioned without some consideration of the ways that politics worked on a daily basis or what ideas could be found circulating at any given time, they tend to pay little attention to the formal arenas of electoral politics or intellectual currents. In the United States, social historians have been engaged in describing components of the population that had earlier often escaped formal analysis, notably women, members of ethnic or cultural minorities, or those who had fewer economic opportunities than the elite.

Social history became a vibrant discipline in the United States after it had already gained enormous influence in Western Europe. In France, social history in its modern form emerged with the rising prominence of a group of scholars associated with the journal *Annales Economie, Société, Civilisation* (or *Annales ESC* as it is known). In its pages and in a series of books from historians affiliated with the *École des Hautes Études en Sciences Sociales* in Paris, brilliant historians such as Marc Bloch, Jacques Le Goff, and Emmanuel LeRoy Ladurie described seemingly every aspect of French society. Among the masterpieces of this historical reconstruction was Fernand Braudel's monumental study, *The Mediterranean and the Mediterranean World in the Age of Philip II*, published first in Paris in 1946 and in a revised edition in English in 1972. In this work Braudel argued that the only way to understand a place in its totality was to describe its environment, its social and economic structures, and its political systems. In Britain the emphasis of social historians has been less on questions of environment, per se, than in a description of human communities in all their complexities. For example, social historians there have taken advantage of that nation's remarkable local archives to reconstruct the history of the family and details of its rural past. Works such as Peter Laslett's *The World We Have Lost*, first printed in 1966, and the multiauthored *Agrarian History of England and Wales*, which began to appear in print in 1967, revealed that

painstaking work could reveal the lives and habits of individuals who never previously attracted the interest of biographers, demographers, or most historians.

Social history in the United States gained a large following in the second half of the 20th century, especially during the 1960s and 1970s. Its development sprang from political, technical, and intellectual impulses deeply embedded in the culture of the modern university. The politics of civil rights and social reform fueled the passions of historians who strove to tell the stories of the underclass. They benefited from the adoption by historians of statistical analysis, which allowed scholars to trace where individuals lived, how often they moved, what kinds of jobs they took, and whether their economic status declined, stagnated, or improved over time. As history departments expanded, many who emerged from graduate schools focused their attention on groups previously ignored or marginalized. Women's history became a central concern among American historians, as did the history of African Americans, Native Americans, Latinos, and others. These historians pushed historical study in the United States farther away from the study of formal politics and intellectual trends. Though few Americanists could achieve the technical brilliance of some social historians in Europe, collectively they have been engaged in a vast act of description, with the goal of describing seemingly every facet of life from 1492 to the present.

The 16 volumes in this series together represent the continuing efforts of historians to describe American society. Most of the volumes focus on chronological areas, from the broad sweep of the colonial era to the more narrowly defined collections of essays on the eras of the Cold War, the baby boom, and America in the age of the Vietnam War. The series also includes entire volumes on the epochs that defined the nation, the American Revolution and the Civil War, as well as volumes dedicated to the process of westward expansion, women's rights, and African American history.

This social history series derives its strength from the talented editors of individual volumes. Each editor is an expert in his or her own field who selected and organized the contents of his or her volume. Editors solicited other experienced historians to write individual essays. Every volume contains first-rate analysis complemented by lively anecdotes designed to reveal the complex contours of specific historical moments. The many illustrations to be found in these volumes testify too to the recognition that any society can be understood not only by the texts that its participants produce but also by the images that they craft. Primary source documents in each volume will allow interested readers to pursue some specific topics in greater depth, and each volume contains a chronology to provide guidance to the flow of events over time. These tools—*anecdotes, images, texts, and timelines*—allow readers to gauge the inner workings of America in particular periods and yet also glimpse connections between eras.

The articles in these volumes testify to the abundant strengths of historical scholarship in the United States in the early years of the 21st century. Despite the occasional academic contest that flares into public notice, or the self-serving cant of politicians who want to manipulate the nation's

past for partisan ends—for example, in debates over the Second Amendment to the U.S. Constitution and what it means about potential limits to the rights of gun ownership—the articles here all reveal the vast increase in knowledge of the American past that has taken place over the previous half century. Social historians do not dominate history faculties in American colleges and universities, but no one could deny them a seat at the intellectual table. Without their efforts, intellectual, cultural, and political historians would be hard pressed to understand why certain ideas circulated when they did, why some religious movements prospered or foundered, how developments in fields such as medicine and engineering reflected larger concerns, and what shaped the world we inhabit.

Fernand Braudel and his colleagues envisioned entire laboratories of historians in which scholars working together would be able to produce *histoire totale*: total history. Historians today seek more humble goals for our collective enterprise. But as the richly textured essays in these volumes reveal, scholarly collaboration has in fact brought us much closer to that dream. These volumes do not and cannot include every aspect of American history. However, every page reveals something interesting or valuable about how American society functioned. Together, these books suggest the crucial necessity of stepping back to view the grand complexities of the past rather than pursuing narrower prospects and lesser goals.

Peter C. Mancall
Series Editor

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Introduction

In the popular consciousness, wars are often mistakenly understood through the personalities of prominent military officers and national politicians. The American Civil War, fought between 1861 and 1865, is certainly no exception to this rule. Views of U.S. president Abraham Lincoln and Confederate president Jefferson Davis, as well as of such generals as Confederate Robert E. Lee and Union Ulysses S. Grant, have formed society's basic understanding of the war. Lee has become the embodiment of the South; Grant and Lincoln are seen as personifications of the North. For more than a generation, however, a new group of historians has challenged this traditional view of the Civil War by placing the experiences of nonelites at the center of the story. The results, many of which will be explored in this volume, have been revolutionary. Although adherents to the traditional approach continue to produce countless books and articles, social historians have forever changed the face of Civil War history. Few scholars can now deny the centrality of the African American and slave experience to the conflict, and increasingly the nation's popular culture has embraced images of common soldiers and civilian experiences. Although Lincoln, Lee, Grant, and Davis continue to attract attention, so too do female nurses like Clara Barton, slaves and abolitionists such as Frederick Douglass and Sojourner Truth, as well as countless individuals who participated in the conflict in various ways. Even more impressive, scholars have rescued the voices and experiences of myriad civilians, slaves, nurses, free blacks, soldiers, Indians, laundresses, factory workers, preachers, and immigrants. Although many of the findings and themes of the field of Civil War history have yet to shape the popular consciousness, the process of rewriting the past to include the greater population has already begun.

The War

The Civil War has long been recognized as a pivotal moment in the development of the fledgling American nation—a shared conviction that has led

to most American universities using the Civil War as the dividing point in survey-level U.S. history courses. Before the war, localism shaped both the experiences of most Americans as well as their political outlooks. Most citizens identified with their families and local communities more than they did with their nation or even their states. In fact, the states' rights campaign that bolstered the secession movement of 1860–1861 had its roots in a long-standing belief in the legal and social importance, if not primacy, of the states over the nation. As Virginian Robert E. Lee notably commented with the prospect of secession looming: "If the Union is dissolved, I shall return to Virginia [and] share the fortune of my people" (Lee in Fellman 2003, 84). The four years of bloody internal strife ultimately allowed Americans to come together as a nation, even turning the United States from a plural noun to a singular entity. The Civil War destroyed and remade the geographic landscape, altered the social realities of national life, and forced Southerners and Northerners to come to grips with who they were and how they fit together as a nation. Over the course of the war's four years, approximately 2 percent of the American population was killed in battle. In addition to the more than 620,000 soldiers who died, unknown numbers of civilians lost their lives to stray bullets, hunger, exposure to the elements, and diseases. Those who did not die found their lives changed forever.

From the outset of the war, many Americans recognized, and others hoped, that the war would result in a social revolution. Most believed that the war and emancipation were intrinsically linked. When the war began in 1861, the U.S. population included 4 million slaves, or one-eighth of the population, and they were largely confined to the Confederate states. Although Lincoln repeatedly insisted that he lacked the constitutional authority to emancipate slaves, many Northerners and Southerners concluded otherwise. After all, he was a member of the newly formed Republican Party, which had the support of nearly all of the nation's most radical abolitionists. One correspondent for the *Anglo-African* wrote that after the presidential election, "he that is able to read this nation's destiny, can see and decipher the hand-writing upon the wall" (McPherson 1982, 11). Many Americans worried about Lincoln's intentions toward slavery—Southerners feared that he would abolish it and Northern abolitionists feared that he would not do enough to end it. Former slave and abolitionist lecturer Frederick Douglass felt that Lincoln's win would signify a move toward emancipation and "must and will be hailed as an anti-slavery triumph" (McPherson 1982, 8). The optimism and hope in abolitionist circles was more than matched by fears in the South over Lincoln's intentions toward their "peculiar institution" and a belief that his goal, stated or not, was to eradicate slavery. An article in the *Richmond Examiner*, for example, despaired that "a party founded on the single sentiment . . . of hatred of African slavery, is now the controlling power" (McPherson 1988, 232).

Despite their hopes and fears about the future of slavery, many Americans confidently believed that war could be avoided or ended quickly and that the nation could thereby avert any widespread social upheaval. The first battle of the war, which occurred shortly after 11 Southern states

seceded from the Union and formed the Confederate States of America and just three months after the engagement at Fort Sumter, attracted onlookers who wanted to watch the war “game.” Assuming that it would be a quick and bloodless military exercise, women and children sat up on the hills that surrounded the battlefield, which was 30 miles from Washington, to watch and to eat their picnics. However, the Battle of Bull Run, or Manassas, was a bloody and chaotic affair that overran the horrified spectators. In the aftermath, people in both the Union and Confederacy concluded that a protracted war was likely unavoidable. The four years that followed resulted in battles whose names—including Chickamauga, Gettysburg, Antietam, Shiloh, and Fredericksburg—have become synonymous with the resulting destruction, death, and heartbreak.

Although approximately 3 million men served as soldiers during the Civil War, most Americans were not in the military. The 29 million non-combatants may not have faced battle every day, but they faced their own wartime challenges as they simultaneously found ways to support their war efforts on the home fronts. The Civil War forced Union and Confederate civilians to deal with unprecedented shortages and daily hardships. Most Americans went without, or with significantly less, fresh meat and vegetables, new clothing, shoes, metal goods, or luxuries in general. Most Southerners lived with the effects of blockades, sieges, and warfare in and near their communities. Americans of all regions and races dealt with inflation, the influx of refugees to their homes or communities, life as refugees, the departure of men for the battlefield, and the uncertainty that accompanied the struggle. No community or family escaped the horrors of the war, as death became commonplace and mourning became widespread. For African Americans, the upheaval of the war resulted in opportunities to pursue and ultimately obtain their freedom. Although the contradictions of a slaveholding nation built on the ideals of freedom came to a head with the election of Republican Abraham Lincoln in 1860, emancipation was a slow process and one that brought its own anxieties across the nation. Even in Indian country, the status of blacks would be contested and then debated for decades to follow.

Traditional Histories of the Civil War

Early histories of the Civil War, and those that continue to follow this approach, focus on the masculine world of politics and war, highlighting the battles, commanders, and politicians, and ignoring the roles of common people in the conflict. Scholars focus on the movement of troops and the formal decisions that resulted in victories and defeats. At the same time, military commanders like Ulysses S. Grant, William T. Sherman, Robert E. Lee, and Thomas J. “Stonewall” Jackson are presented as exemplars of the attitudes of their regions and are given the credit for outcomes of battles and the war. Lee, for example, has been lionized as the quintessential Southern gentleman. Furthermore, he is given all of the credit for Confederate successes, and none of the blame for the ultimate defeat of his

nation. Biographies of these commanders, as well as battle histories highlighting their movements, shape understandings of the war and its purposes. Pulitzer Prize and National Book Award–winning writer Bruce Catton, for example, typified this approach to the Civil War in his writings during the 1950s. “Grant and Lee were in complete contrast, representing two diametrically opposed elements in American life. Grant was the modern man emerging; beyond him, ready to come on the stage, was the great age of steel and machinery, of crowded cities and a restless burgeoning vitality” (Catton in Kennedy, Kennedy, and Aaron 2008, 213). Lee could not have been more different, according to Catton. He “might have ridden down from the old age of chivalry, lance in hand, silken banner fluttering over his head. Each man was the perfect champion of his causes, drawing both his strengths and his weaknesses from the people he led” (Catton in Kennedy, Kennedy, and Aaron 2008, 213).

Other scholars used political events, including elections, laws, and formal associations, as evidence of the attitudes of citizens. Facile assumptions—the Union could be understood through the abolitionist leaders or large planters exemplified the entire South—typified this approach. Consequently, the political figures who publicly vocalized the debates over slavery and secession received detailed examinations, whereas the populations who swayed their opinions got scant attention.

The prominent traditional view of the American Civil War has been augmented by the myth of the Lost Cause—a Confederate campaign to shape the public’s understanding of the war that began long before Lee’s surrender to Grant at Appomattox Court House in April 1865. The rhetoric of the Lost Cause holds that the Confederacy never had a chance against what is painted as a much stronger and better-prepared Northern military. Furthermore, the myth proclaims that the South should be revered for its valiant efforts and its ability to persevere as long as it did. Books published by Southern men and women in the immediate aftermath of the war promoted this view, as do many works published today. Furthermore, much of the Lost Cause has been repeated and spread through various works of fiction—most notably Margaret Mitchell’s *Gone with the Wind* (1936). The best-selling novel won the Pulitzer Prize and, as a top-grossing movie in 1939, it won eight Oscar awards. The romanticized version of the Old South and the glory of Southern soldiers has infiltrated the hearts and minds of many. However, it blurs the truths of the war and the people who fought it.

The shortcomings of the traditional approach to the Civil War should be clear. The approach focuses almost exclusively on the experiences of rich over poor, white over black, native born over Native American, men over women, and officers over enlisted men. Although generals and presidents certainly helped shape the conflict, recent scholars have demonstrated that common people of various colors, ethnicities, classes, and sexes also shaped the war. The Civil War, in essence, was won and lost because of a combination of official policies and the willingness of individuals to follow those dictates.

The Chapters

The volume that follows offers a nuanced look at the experiences of the Civil War, an alternative to the top-down focus on elite white men and their policies. The lives, experiences, and perspectives of ordinary Americans are highlighted in *Civil War: People and Perspectives* through nine essays, a chronology, a glossary of basic Civil War terms, events, and people, as well as a collection of primary sources. The essays, all on various overlapping, but distinct themes, form the crux of the volume and allow readers insight into the lives of those people who lived the American Civil War. Essays examine in depth soldiers, civilians, women, children, immigrants, African Americans, Native Americans, members of religious minorities, and urbanites. Taken together, these essays reveal myriad interwoven experiences—a rich tapestry of experiences that combine to define the Civil War.

In Chapter 1, “‘A Soldier’s Life Is a Hard One at Best’: Soldiers in the American Civil War,” John M. Sacher examines the complex and wide-ranging motivations and experiences of Confederate and Union soldiers. Although many rushed to enlist at the outset of the war, they were not prepared for the realities of camp life during wartime. Additionally, as the war lengthened and the war aims expanded, soldiers on both sides had to adapt to new conditions and motivations. In Chapter 2, “When the Home Front Became a Battlefield: Civilians in Invaded and Occupied Areas,” Antoinette G. van Zelm explores life for noncombatants. Civilians who came into contact with enemy soldiers all found their lives changed, but the types of changes invasion brought often depended upon a civilian’s race, gender, and class. Whether facing military regiments or guerilla bands, civilians braced for hardships and danger. Lisa Tendrich Frank highlights the female experience in Chapter 3, “War on Two Fronts: Women during the Civil War.” Frank explores how women both shaped and were shaped by the Civil War and wartime realities. Women did not, as traditional histories assume, stand on the sidelines for the war, but rather they played active roles as supporters, detractors, nurses, spies, soldiers, and workers. Karen A. Kehoe explores another marginalized group in Civil War studies in Chapter 4, “Children and the Civil War.” The war not only affected children’s circumstances at home, but also changed children’s ways of playing as well as their schooling. In addition, Kehoe discusses children’s roles in the conflict, which included making socks for the soldiers, raising money for the troops, and even participating in regiments as musicians. In Chapter 5, Fiona Deans Halloran highlights the experiences and contributions of immigrants to the war effort. “Patriotism, Preparation, and Reputation: Immigrants in Battle and on the Home Front in the American Civil War” examines the varying participation of immigrants in the Union and Confederacy. Although immigrants held leadership positions in the military, served as soldiers, nursed the wounded, and raised money for the troops, they were not immune from Nativist attitudes and often experienced discrimination. African Americans also dealt with discrimination and violence. Their wartime experiences and struggles are examined in Julie Holcomb’s “From Enslaved to Liberators: African Americans and the Civil

War.” In Chapter 6, Holcomb discusses how African Americans, North and South, made the war their own and how they affected its outcome. They pushed for emancipation, forced the hands of Union politicians and officers, and helped make the war into one over slavery. In Chapter 7, “The Longhouse Divided: Native Americans during the American Civil War,” Andrew K. Frank demonstrates how Native Americans used the upheaval of civil war to their advantage. Although divided by loyalty and experiences, most Indians attempted to use the war to pursue tribal and personal ambitions. They settled old scores, pursued financial opportunities, and reshaped their relationship with federal and state governments while often participating in the Union or Confederate war efforts. Members of religious minorities lived on the outskirts of life, but still made the war their own, too. In Chapter 8, “Becoming American: Catholics, Jews, and Mormons during the American Civil War,” Sarah K. Nytroe examines the wartime roles played by members of these groups as they tried to prove their loyalty to their nation in the face of society’s questions about their commitment. Their perceived cultural differences did not prevent them from supporting, or opposing, their region’s war efforts. Many fought in the Civil War armies, served as home front nurses, held government posts, and otherwise worked for the war. As Clinton Terry shows in Chapter 9, “The Urban Civil War,” despite the nation’s predominantly rural character, urban centers and their residents played pivotal roles in the Civil War. In addition to being the settings for draft and bread riots, cities in the North and South became places to rally troops and support, hiding places as well as gathering centers for spies, supply centers for the soldiers on the field, and shelters for refugees. This final chapter details the life experienced by many in the urban centers of the Confederacy and the Union.

Themes across Civil War History

Three themes in particular connect the essays in this volume and the social history of the Civil War. First, the authors illuminate the connections between the home front and the war front and between civilians and soldiers. Events throughout the Civil War demonstrate that neither can be considered independently of the other, but rather that events on the battlefield affected life on the home front, just as events on the home front shaped the battlefield. Second, these essays demonstrate the importance of including a diverse range of people in our understanding of the war because their varied personal experiences and rationales for their behavior often conflicted with official policies. Leaders may have determined the course of the war, but citizens supported or opposed those decisions for highly personal reasons. Third, these essays demonstrate how the war was an engine for social change as well as an opportunity for individuals and communities to pursue ambitions of their own. The remaking of the United States not only would allow more freedom for the freed slaves, but also would give shape to movements for change by women, Native Americans, workers, and others.

Home Front and War Front

The connection between home front and war front resulted in part from the geographic location of a war that was frequently fought in the backyards of civilians and in part from the various strains that enlisting 10 percent of the nation caused. Nowhere was this truer than in the Border States and other areas where guerilla warfare was rampant. One woman from the slaveholding and Unionist area around Baltimore recalled that “between the blue forces and the gray we were ground between two millstones of terror” (Bardaglio 2002, 321). In these areas, the Civil War did more than divide the nation; it divided towns and even households.

Whereas earlier historians have separated events on the home front from those on the battlefield, in reality, the Civil War blurred these lines. Battles took place in towns, cities, and on private farms. The Battle of Gettysburg, for example, literally took place on the farms of a small Pennsylvania town and townspeople hid in basements as the three-day battle ensued. As a result, civilians frequently became unwitting participants in the military side of the war. In Gettysburg, as elsewhere, civilians offered their services as nurses and cooks. In addition, private homes often became military headquarters or makeshift hospitals.

A vibrant interplay between soldiers and civilians further blurred the distinction between home front and war front, as soldiers marched through towns, impressed valuables, looted homes, and otherwise created havoc. In Indian Territory, for example, one agent reported that “everything which could be found, and which could be eaten by an Indian—every article of clothing that could be worn by men, women and children, and every article of bedding and blankets—was eagerly seized upon and carried away by” the enemy (McLoughlin 1993, 211). Near the end of the war, Philip Sheridan’s campaign in Virginia’s Shenandoah Valley and William T. Sherman’s march through Georgia and the Carolinas destroyed any belief that soldiers and civilians could be separated. Sherman, for example, evacuated Atlanta and allowed “bummers” to ransack Confederate homes in the search for food and other wartime needs. As one woman recalled, “When they would say the Yankees were coming we would not know what to expect, whether someone would be killed, the house burned or what would happen, but there was one thing sure, they had to be fed” (Gardenhire 1939, 9).

As a result of the wartime destruction, suffering became common throughout the United States. Funerals were common, and anxiety enveloped loved ones who feared that they would lose husbands, sons, brothers, and sweethearts. Thousands of families became refugees, moving into the homes of distant friends and relatives to escape invading enemy troops or simply to pool their resources. Others moved for political purposes. Just as many Southern Unionists fled their homes to the safety of Northern communities, so did Creek Indians who wanted to maintain their neutrality or side with the Union. In addition, all Americans dealt with wartime shortages. In the South, the naval blockade, combined with the destructiveness and hunger of invading soldiers exacerbated dwindling supplies and left civilians with little food or supplies. With a lack of basic necessities, many

civilians took out their frustrations on local governments and their neighbors. Bread riots, for example, erupted in several Southern cities in response to inflationary prices, while anger in New York City over the prospect of emancipation resulted in draft riots.

Even as they struggled to survive, many civilians sought to support the war in both tangible and psychological ways. From the outset of the war, soldiers' family members and communities helped outfit the troops, sent letters to support soldiers, and raised money for the well-being and care of wounded men. Many communities prepared meals for soldiers who passed through on their furloughs home. In addition, makeshift hospitals were formed in countless churches, homes, and public halls to nurse the wounded. As late as early 1865, Union and Confederate supporters held fund-raisers to support their respective causes.

Command and Consent

This volume illuminates the fallacy of assuming that a single set of experiences or a common rationale united people in the two warring nations. Although the election of 1860 and its abolitionist overtones certainly sparked the secession crisis, soldiers in both the North and South enlisted for reasons other than their political loyalties, Constitutional judgments, or attitudes about slavery. Many Confederate soldiers resented fighting to secure the property rights of elite Southerners. As one soldier complained, wealthier Southerners could get exemptions from the draft and were "living at home enjoying life because they have a few negroes" (Mitchell 1988, 160). Similarly, many Union soldiers fought despite their fears about emancipation. Some immigrants, like those who enlisted in the Irish Brigade, recognized that the war enabled them to demonstrate their patriotism and the loyalty of their ethnic community. This was especially important after the ascendance of the Republican Party—a political organization that enveloped many Nativist and anti-Catholic voices. Many community leaders advocated fighting in, and otherwise supporting, an Irish Catholic unit to soothe fears about their loyalties. Other soldiers fought for financial reasons or because of the pressures asserted by their communities, families, or friends.

Similar distinctions divided the wartime civilian populations in both the North and the South. Although war brought many people together, it could not erase deep-rooted differences. For example, in Atlanta, Georgia, a group of Unionists created a secret society so that they could support the United States from inside enemy territory. Secret Confederates formed similar ties behind Union lines. In some communities—especially in Border States and in Indian Territory—the war literally tore communities apart. Many Indian nations spent much of the war fighting against factions of their own people—reliving and refighting disputes that were often more than a generation old. This seemed to be particularly true among the Cherokee, where the factions that predated removal in the 1830s continued to shape the Confederate-Unionist divide in the 1860s.

Social Changes

Finally, the war created opportunities for Americans of all walks of life to participate in the public sphere or to escape many of the confines that typically defined their lives. Many women, for example, found employment in munitions plants and in government offices. They also became nurses, helping transform a job that previously had been the domain of men into one seen as appropriate for women. Poor whites used their military service both for financial gain as well as to make claims for their civic importance. Native Americans similarly used the war to settle long-standing grievances and renegotiate their status with the U.S. government and with individual states. Even the daily lives of children were transformed by the war. They played increasingly militarized games, attended school less frequently, took on responsibilities that were once performed by fathers, and collected war-time items. Children were impressed into the informal and formal support systems that sustained both the Union and Confederate armies: they helped with fund-raisers, sewed flags and uniforms, became musicians for military units, and even lied about their ages to enlist.

The Civil War provided much of the capital necessary for the expansion of manufacturing and the transformation of urban life. The Confederacy and Union spent an estimated \$5.2 billion during the war, and a lion's share of that amount went to the urban developers and factory owners who could outfit and supply the armies. Both armies created supply depots, built railroads, encouraged shipbuilding, and funded armories. However, Union besiegement, occupation of, and destruction of many Southern cities exacerbated the differences between the North and South by the war's end. Southern cities, which had not had the power, population, or industry of their Northern counterparts before the war, were left even further behind as a result of destruction caused during the Civil War.

The greatest and most lasting changes inspired by the war took place for the nation's African American population. These changes began at the start of the war. In the Sea Islands off the coast of South Carolina, African Americans obtained de facto freedom early in the war as their masters and overseers fled to safer terrain. The social transformation that ensued was remarkable. Former slaves divided up their property, organized the land into family plots, began to educate their children, and otherwise restructured society without the "guidance" of their former masters. Other African Americans enlisted in the Union Army, attempting to get on "the road to Responsibility; Competency; and an honorable Citizenship" (Berlin, Reidy, and Rowland 1982, 712). Frederick Douglass, for example, concluded that the enlistment of black soldiers would secure many of the ambitions of the abolitionists.

Let the black man get upon his person the brass letters "U.S."; let him get an eagle on his button, and a musket on his shoulder and bullets in his pocket, and there is no power on earth which can deny that he has earned the right to citizenship in the United States. (Douglass as quoted in Litwack 1980, 72)

Conclusion

In recent years, social historians have transformed our understanding of the American Civil War. Although generals and politicians continue to attract the attention of scholars and the general public, historians increasingly embrace the stories of common soldiers, civilians, African Americans, European immigrants, Native Americans, and other social groups. By prioritizing the experiences and influences of the masses and telling the story from the bottom up, these scholars have demonstrated that there was no single experience in the Civil War. They have emphasized how the war enveloped and transformed the entire nation. This volume illuminates these modern findings and demonstrates the revolutionary nature of the war.

Lisa Tendrich Frank

References and Further Reading

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About the Editor and Contributors

Andrew K. Frank is associate professor of history at Florida State University. He is the author of *Creeks and Southerners: Biculturalism on the Early American Frontier* (University of Nebraska, 2005) and *The Routledge Historical Atlas of the American South* (Routledge, 1999). He is currently writing *The Second Conquest: Indians, Settlers and Slaves on the Florida Frontier*.

Lisa Tendrich Frank is an independent scholar who has taught courses in the American Civil War and women's history at universities around the country. She received her doctorate from the University of Florida in 2001. She is the editor of *Women in the American Civil War* (ABC-CLIO, 2008), and is the author of several articles on women and the Civil War. She is currently writing a book on the experiences of Confederate women during Sherman's March through Georgia and the Carolinas. She lives in Tallahassee, Florida.

Fiona Deans Halloran is assistant professor of American history at Eastern Kentucky University. She received her doctorate in 2005 from the University of California–Los Angeles, where she wrote a dissertation on the American political cartoonist Thomas Nast. Halloran currently is revising that manuscript for publication as a book and continues to work with political cartooning, American popular culture, and the history of the Civil War era.

Julie Holcomb is a doctoral candidate in history at the University of Texas at Arlington. Her dissertation focuses on the transatlantic free produce and antislavery movements. A certified archivist, Holcomb served as the College and Special Collections Archivist at Navarro College before being named director in 2004. Her book *Southern Sons, Northern Soldiers: The Remley Brothers and the 22nd Iowa* was published by Northern Illinois University Press in 2004.

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Chronology

- December 1833** The American Anti-Slavery Society forms in Philadelphia.
- July 1840** Abby Kelly is elected to the board of the American Anti-Slavery Society. Subsequent debate over the role of women in the abolitionist movement results in some members forming a separate American and Foreign Anti-Slavery Society. William Lloyd Garrison remains with the American Anti-Slavery Society.
- July 1848** Lucretia Mott, Elizabeth Cady Stanton, and other supporters of women's rights hold a convention at Seneca Falls, New York, and issue a "Declaration of Sentiments."
- 1850** Allan Pinkerton opens a detective agency in Chicago.
- September 1850** President Millard Fillmore signs a series of bills that became known as the Compromise of 1850.
- May 1851** Former slave Sojourner Truth delivers her "Ain't I a Woman?" speech at a women's rights convention in Akron, Ohio.
- June 1851** Washington-based abolitionist newspaper, *The National Era*, begins publishing in serial form Harriet Beecher Stowe's *Uncle Tom's Cabin; or, Life Among the Lowly*.
- December 1851** The first American Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA) opens in Boston, Massachusetts.
- March 1852** *Uncle Tom's Cabin; or, Life Among the Lowly* is published in book form.
- April 1853** Former slave Harriet Tubman begins working on the Underground Railroad to bring other slaves to freedom.
- May 1854** Congress passes the Kansas-Nebraska Act. Escalating violence in Kansas begins between proslavery and antislavery settlers in the territory and continues until Kansas' admission to the Union as a free state in January 1861. This violence is referred to as "Bleeding Kansas."