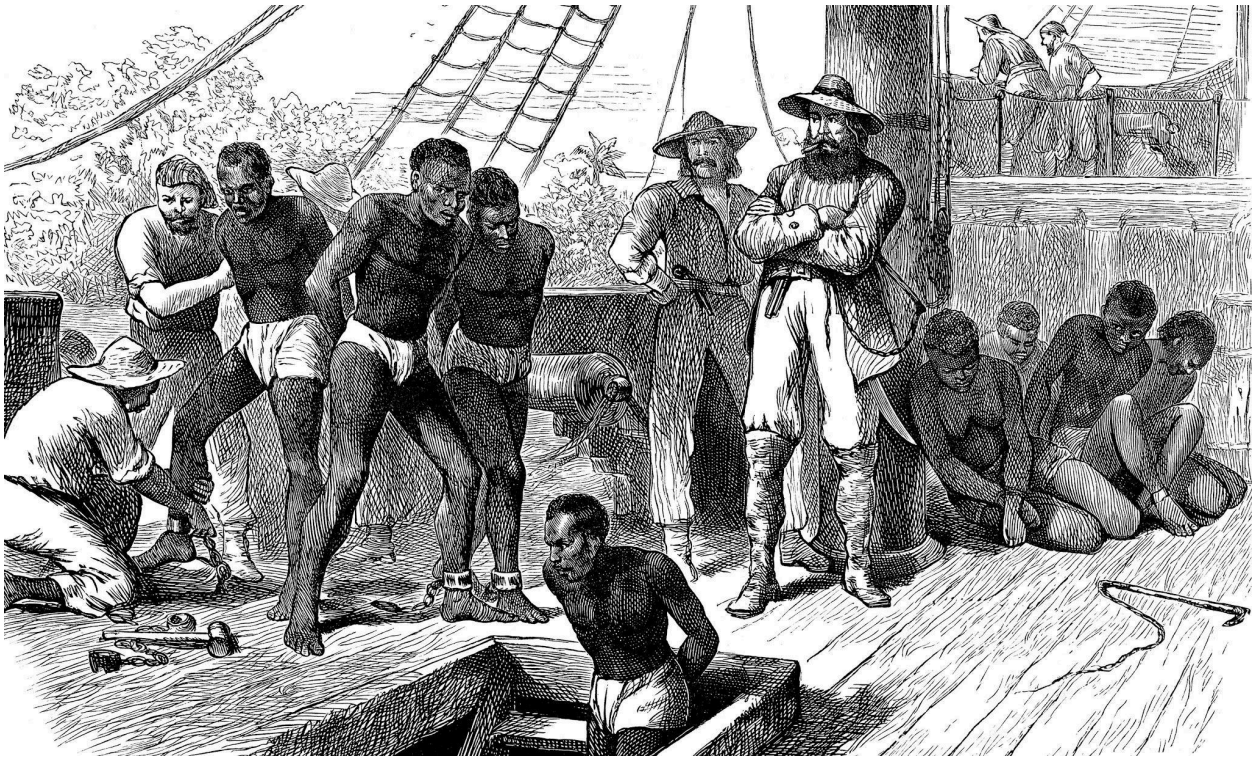
How Did Black Africans End Up In North America?



Hello everyone, I hope all is well with you. Today is Tuesday June 2nd, 2026, and North America is divided about a very controversial issue, Black Americans, and whether they are legal citizens of the United States of America. The Federal agency ICE, has triggered many people. Many non-Black people are feeling some type of way, about Black Americans, and why they aren't being targeted by ICE, and deported.

I am writing this article to clear some things up, and to give everyone a better understanding as to why ICE isn't targeting legal Black Americans. Black Americans that have ancestry from the continent of Africa, many were sold by African kings and queens, to European American slave traders. The original owners of the United States of America, are the Native Americans, or the Five Federal Civilized Tribes, which I will go into later in this article.

The Five Federal Civilized Tribes, made some type of agreement to allow the white man to build North America. Most Black Americans from the continent of Africa, brought to North America, against their will, were made or forced to work tobacco, and all kinds of crops, on plantations, mainly in the South, were slavery was accepted. In many parts of the North in the USA, slavery was unacceptable.

Those wanting slavery to return, in 2026, and claim to know God, and claim to be a Christian, I want to point out that it does say in the Bible, that slavery is wrong, and each man should be paid wages for the work they do for their master. I will provide the Bible passage, verbatim.

I believe in the New Testament, the Bible speaks out against slavery. I will find where I saw this verse.

Many people are foreigners in the United States of America, especially those from Latin lands, like South America, and Mexico. They don't know American history, let alone, the history of Black Americans, and the descendants of slaves. I hope this article will clear things up for them, as I will translate this article in Spanish first, then so on, and so on.

Christopher Columbus, and Amerigo Verspuce, both from Italy, sailed to North America. I will post information from Wikipedia about them, so there is no mix up about this information.

European Americans ancestors sailed to North America on the Mayflower ship, and they met with many Native American tribes.

Christopher Columbus

Article
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Automatic
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From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

"Cristoforo Colombo" and "Admiral of the Ocean Sea" redirect here. For his direct descendant, see Cristóbal Colón de Carvajal, 18th Duke of Veragua. For other uses, see Christopher Columbus (disambiguation) and Cristoforo Colombo (disambiguation).

Admiral of the Ocean Sea

Christopher Columbus

Painting said to be a posthumous portrait of Christopher Columbus, by Sebastiano del Piombo, 1519[a]

1st Governor of the Indies

In office

1492–1499

Appointed by Isabella I of Castile

Preceded by Office established

Succeeded by	Francisco de Bobadilla

Personal details	
Born	Between 25 August and 31 October 1451 Genoa, Republic of Genoa
Died	20 May 1506 (aged 54) Valladolid, Spain
Resting place	Seville Cathedral, Seville, Spain
Spouse	Filipa Moniz Perestrelo (m. 1479; died 1484)
Domestic partner	Beatriz Enríquez de Arana
Children	• Diego • Ferdinand

- Diego (adopted Lucayan)

Parents	Domenico Colombo (father) Susanna Fontanarossa (mother)
Relatives	Bartholomew Columbus (brother)
Profession	Maritime explorer
Signature	

Christopher Columbus[b] (/kəˈlʌmbəs/;[2] between 25 August and 31 October 1451 – 20 May 1506) was an Italian[3][c] explorer and navigator from the Republic of Genoa[3][4] who completed four Spanish transatlantic voyages in the name of the Catholic Monarchs, opening the way for the widespread European exploration and colonization of the Americas. His expeditions were the first known European contact with the Caribbean and Central and South America.

The name *Christopher Columbus* is the anglicization of the Latin *Christophorus Columbus*. Growing up on the coast of Liguria, he went to sea at a young age and traveled widely, as far north as the British Isles and as far south as what is now Ghana.

He married Portuguese noblewoman Filipa Moniz Perestrelo, who bore a son, Diego, and was based in Lisbon for several years. He later took a Castilian mistress, Beatriz Enríquez de Arana, who bore a son, Ferdinand.[5][6][7]

Largely self-educated, Columbus was knowledgeable in geography, astronomy, and history. He developed a plan to seek a western sea passage to the East Indies, hoping to profit from the lucrative spice trade. After the Granada War, and Columbus's persistent lobbying in multiple kingdoms, the Catholic Monarchs, Queen Isabella I and King Ferdinand II, agreed to sponsor a journey west. Columbus left the Port of Palos in August 1492 with three ships and made landfall in the Americas on 12 October, ending the period of human habitation in the Americas now referred to as the pre-Columbian era. His landing place was an island in the Bahamas, known by its native inhabitants as Guanahani. He then visited the islands now known as Cuba and Hispaniola, establishing a colony in what is now Haiti. Columbus returned to Castile in early 1493, with captured natives. Word of his voyage soon spread throughout Europe.

Columbus made three further voyages to the Americas, exploring the Lesser Antilles in 1493, Trinidad and the northern coast of South America in 1498, and the east coast of Central America in 1502. Many of the names given to geographical features by Columbus, particularly the names of islands, are still in use. He gave the name *indios* ('Indians') to the Indigenous peoples he encountered. The extent to which he was aware that the Americas were a wholly separate landmass is uncertain; he never clearly renounced his belief he had reached the Far East. As a colonial governor, Columbus was accused by some of his contemporaries of significant brutality and removed from the post. Columbus's strained relationship with the Crown of Castile and its colonial administrators in America led to his arrest and removal from Hispaniola in 1500, and later to protracted litigation over the privileges he and his heirs claimed were owed to them by the Crown.

Columbus's expeditions inaugurated a period of exploration, conquest, and colonization that lasted for centuries, thus bringing the Americas into the European sphere of influence. The transfer of plants, animals, precious metals, culture, human populations, technology, diseases, and ideas between the Old World and New World that followed his first voyage are known as the Columbian exchange, named after him. These events and the effects which persist to the present are often cited as the beginning of the modern era.[8][9] Diseases introduced from the Old World contributed to the genocide of Hispaniola's Indigenous peoples, who were also subject to enslavement and other mistreatments by Columbus's government. Increased public awareness of these interactions has led to Columbus being less celebrated in Western culture, which has historically idealized him as a heroic discoverer. Numerous places have been named for him.

Early life

Further information: Origin theories of Christopher Columbus

Christopher Columbus House in Genoa, Italy, an 18th-century reconstruction of the house in which Columbus grew up. The original was likely destroyed during the 1684 bombardment of Genoa.[10][11]

Over the centuries, authors and scholars have proposed many theories about Columbus's origins, often to claim his heritage for their own country. However, the scholarly consensus is that Columbus was born in the Republic of Genoa, sometime between 25 August and 31 October 1451.[12] His father was Domenico Colombo, a wool weaver who worked in Genoa and Savona, and owned a cheese stand at which young Christopher worked. His mother was Susanna Fontanarossa.[13] He had three brothers—Bartholomew, Giovanni Pellegrino, and Giacomo (also called Diego)[14]—as well as a sister, Bianchinetta.[15] Bartholomew ran a cartography workshop in Lisbon for at least part of his adulthood.[16]

Columbus is presumed to have spoken a Genoese dialect (Ligurian) as his native language, though he probably never wrote in it.[17] His name in 15th-century Genoese was *Cristoffa Corombo*;[18] in Italian, *Cristoforo Colombo*; and in Spanish, *Cristóbal Colón*.[19][20]

In one of his writings, Columbus says he went to sea at age 14.[17] In 1470, the family moved to Savona, where Domenico took over a tavern. Some modern authors have argued that he was not from Genoa, but from the Aragon region of Spain[21] or from Portugal.[22] These competing hypotheses have been discounted by most scholars.[23][24]

Colombo giovinetto, sculpture of young Columbus by Giulio Monteverde, Genoa

In 1473, Columbus began his apprenticeship as business agent for the wealthy Spinola, Centurione, and Di Negro families of Genoa.[25] Later, he made a trip to the Greek island Chios in the Aegean Sea, then ruled by Genoa.[26] In May 1476, he took part in an armed convoy sent by Genoa to carry valuable cargo to northern Europe. He probably visited Bristol, England,[27] and Galway, Ireland,[28] where he may have visited St. Nicholas' Collegiate Church.[29] In August 1476, Columbus was shipwrecked on the coast of Lagos, Portugal after the ship he was on, part of a Genoese trading fleet, was attacked by French and Portuguese vessels. After the shipwreck, Columbus travelled to Lisbon, where he lived for several years.[30][31][32] It has been speculated he went to Iceland in 1477, though many scholars doubt this.[33][34][35][36] It is known that in the autumn of 1477, he sailed on a Portuguese ship from Galway to Lisbon, where he found his brother Bartholomew, and they continued trading for the Centurione family. Columbus based himself in Lisbon from 1477 to 1485. In 1478, the Centuriones sent Columbus on a sugar-buying trip to Madeira.[37] He married Felipa Perestrello e Moniz,

daughter of Bartolomeu Perestrello, a Portuguese nobleman of Lombard origin,[38] who had been the donatary captain of Porto Santo.[39]

Portrait of Columbus by Aliprando Caprioli

In 1479 or 1480, Columbus's son Diego was born. Between 1482 and 1485, Columbus traded along the coasts of West Africa, reaching the Portuguese trading post of Elmina at the Guinea coast in present-day Ghana.[40] Before 1484, Columbus returned to Porto Santo to find that his wife had died.[41] He returned to Portugal to settle her estate and take Diego with him.[42] He left Portugal for Castile in 1485, where he took a mistress in 1487, a 20-year-old orphan named Beatriz Enríquez de Arana.[7] It is likely that Beatriz met Columbus when he was in Córdoba, a gathering place for Genoese merchants and where the court of the Catholic Monarchs was located at intervals. Beatriz, unmarried at the time, gave birth to Columbus's second son, Fernando Columbus, in July 1488, named for the monarch of Aragon. Columbus recognized the boy as his offspring.

Columbus entrusted his older, legitimate son Diego to take care of Beatriz and pay the pension set aside for her following his death, but Diego was negligent in his duties.[43]

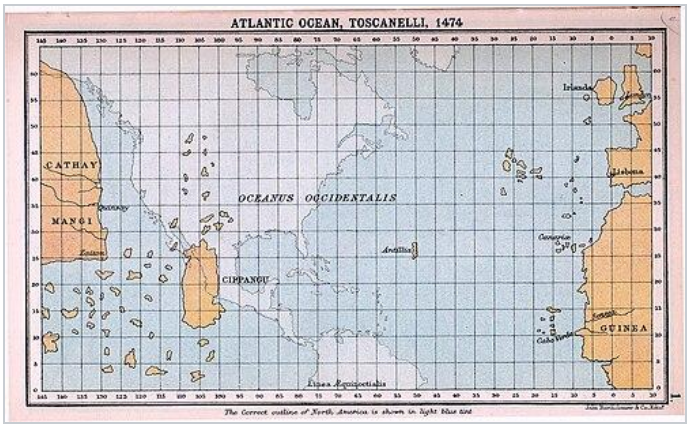
Columbus's copy of *The Travels of Marco Polo*, with his handwritten notes in Latin in the margins

Columbus learned Latin, Portuguese, and Castilian. He read widely about astronomy, geography, and history, including the works of Ptolemy, Pierre d'Ailly's *Imago Mundi*, the travels of Marco Polo and Sir John Mandeville, Pliny's *Natural History*, and Pope Pius II's *Historia rerum ubique gestarum*. According to historian Edmund Morgan,

Columbus was not a scholarly man. Yet he studied these books, made hundreds of marginal notations in them and came out with ideas about the world that were characteristically simple and strong and sometimes wrong ...[44]

Quest for Asia

Background



Toscanelli's notions of the geography of the Atlantic Ocean (shown superimposed on a modern map), which directly influenced Columbus's plans

Under the Mongol Empire's hegemony over Asia and the *Pax Mongolica*, Europeans had long enjoyed a safe land passage on the Silk Road to India, parts of East Asia, including China and Maritime Southeast Asia, which were sources of valuable goods. With the fall of Constantinople to the Ottoman Empire in 1453, the Silk Road was closed to Christian traders.[45]

In 1474, the Florentine astronomer Paolo dal Pozzo Toscanelli suggested to King Afonso V of Portugal that sailing west across the Atlantic would be a quicker way to reach Asia than the route around Africa, but Afonso rejected his proposal.[46][47] In the 1480s, Columbus and his brother proposed a plan to reach the East Indies by sailing west. Columbus supposedly wrote to Toscanelli in 1481 and received encouragement, along with a copy of a map the astronomer had sent Afonso implying that a westward route to Asia was possible.[48] Columbus's plans were complicated by Bartolomeu Dias's rounding of the Cape of Good Hope in 1488, which suggested the Cape Route around Africa to Asia.[49]

Columbus had to wait until 1492 for King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella of Spain to support his voyage across the Atlantic to find gold, spices, a safer route to the East, and converts to Christianity.[50][51][52][53]

Carol Delaney and other commentators have argued that Columbus was a Christian millennialist and apocalypticist and that these beliefs motivated his quest for Asia in a variety of ways. Columbus often wrote about seeking gold in the log books of his voyages and writes about acquiring it "in such quantity that the sovereigns... will undertake and prepare to go conquer the Holy Sepulchre" in a fulfillment of Biblical prophecy.[d] Columbus often wrote about converting all races to Christianity.[55] Abbas Hamandi argues that Columbus was motivated by the hope of "[delivering] Jerusalem from Muslim hands" by "using the resources of newly discovered lands".[56]

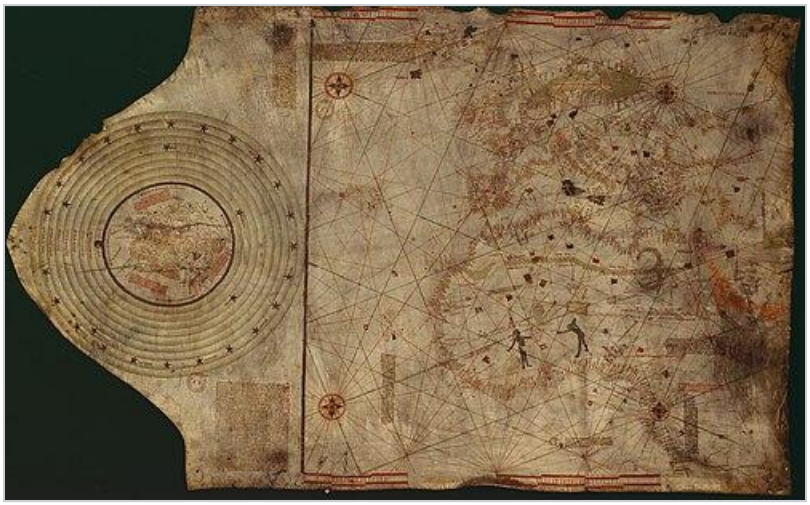
Geographical considerations

Despite a popular misconception to the contrary, nearly all educated Westerners of Columbus's time knew that the Earth is spherical, a concept that had been understood since antiquity.[57] The techniques of celestial navigation, which uses the position of the Sun and the stars in the sky, had long been in use by astronomers and were beginning to be implemented by mariners.[58][59]

However, Columbus made several errors in calculating the size of the Earth, the distance the continent extended to the east, and therefore the distance to the west to reach his goal.

First, as far back as the 3rd century BC, Eratosthenes had correctly computed the circumference of the Earth by using simple geometry and studying the shadows cast by objects at two remote locations.[60][61] In the 1st century BC, Posidonius confirmed

Eratosthenes's results by comparing stellar observations at two separate locations. These measurements were widely known among scholars, but Ptolemy's assumption of only 500 stadia per degree of longitude on the equator (rather than the 700 of Eratosthenes) led Columbus to underestimate the size of the Earth by about a third.[62]



"Columbus map", drawn c. 1490 in the Lisbon mapmaking workshop of Bartholomew and Christopher Columbus[63]

Second, three cosmographical parameters determined the bounds of Columbus's enterprise: the distance across the ocean between Europe and Asia, which depended on the extent of the oikumene, i.e., the Eurasian land-mass stretching east–west between Spain and China; the circumference of the Earth and the number of miles or leagues in a degree of longitude; and that which could be inferred from the theory of the relationship between the size of the surfaces of water and land, as envisioned by the followers of Aristotle in medieval times.[64]

From Pierre d'Ailly's *Imago Mundi* (1410), Columbus learned of Alfraganus's estimate that a degree of latitude (equal to approximately a degree of longitude along the equator) spanned 56

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$^{2}/_{3}$ Arabic miles (approximately equal to 60 nautical miles, 111.1 kilometers), but he did not realize that this was expressed in the Arabic mile rather than the shorter Roman mile or Italian mile (about 1,480 m[65]) which was in use in his time.[66] Columbus therefore estimated the size of the Earth to be about 75% of Eratosthenes's calculation.[67]

Third, most scholars of the time accepted Ptolemy's estimate that Eurasia spanned 180° longitude,[68] rather than the actual 130° (to the Chinese mainland) or 150° (to Japan at the latitude of Spain). Columbus believed an even higher estimate, leaving a smaller percentage for water.[69] In d'Ailly's *Imago Mundi*, Columbus read Marinus of Tyre's estimate that the longitudinal span of Eurasia was 225° at the latitude of Rhodes,[70] (i.e. the 36th parallel north). Some historians, such as Samuel Eliot Morison, have suggested that he followed the statement in the apocryphal book 2 Esdras (6:42) that "six parts [of the globe] are habitable and the seventh is covered with water."[71] He was also aware of Marco Polo's claim that Japan (which he called "Cipangu") was some 2,414 km (1,500 mi) to the east of China ("Cathay"),[72] and closer to the equator than it is. He was influenced by Toscanelli's idea that there were inhabited islands even farther to the east than Japan, including the mythical Antillia, which he thought might lie not much farther to the west than the Azores,[73] and the distance westward from the Canary Islands to the Indies as only 68 degrees, equivalent to 3,080 nmi (5,700 km; 3,540 mi) (a 58% error).[67]

Based on his sources, Columbus estimated a distance of 2,400 nmi (4,400 km; 2,800 mi) from the Canary Islands west to Japan; the actual distance is 10,600 nmi (19,600

km; 12,200 mi).[74][75] No ship in the 15th century could have carried enough food and fresh water for such a long voyage,[76] and the dangers involved in navigating through the uncharted ocean would have been formidable. Most European navigators reasonably concluded that a westward voyage from Europe to Asia was unfeasible. The Catholic Monarchs, however, having completed the *Reconquista*, an expensive war against the Moors in the Iberian Peninsula, were eager to obtain a competitive edge over other European countries in the quest for trade with the Indies. Columbus's project, though far-fetched, held the promise of such an advantage.[77]

Christopher Columbus at the gates of the monastery of Santa María de la Rábida with his son Diego, by Benet Mercadé

Nautical considerations

Though Columbus was wrong about the number of degrees of longitude that separated Europe from the Far East and about the distance that each degree represented, he did take advantage of the trade winds, which would prove to be the key to his successful navigation of the Atlantic Ocean. He planned to first sail to the Canary Islands before

continuing west with the northeast trade wind.[78] Part of the return to Spain would require traveling against the wind using an arduous sailing technique called beating, during which progress is made very slowly.[79] To effectively make the return voyage, Columbus would need to follow the curving trade winds northeastward to the middle latitudes of the North Atlantic, where he would be able to catch the westerlies that blow eastward to the coast of Western Europe.[80]

The navigational technique for travel in the Atlantic appears to have been exploited first by the Portuguese, who referred to it as the *volta do mar* ('turn of the sea'). Through his marriage to Felipa Perestrello, Columbus had access to the nautical charts and logs that had belonged to her deceased father, Bartolomeu Perestrello, who had served as a captain in the Portuguese navy under Prince Henry the Navigator. In the mapmaking shop where he worked with his brother Bartholomew, Columbus also had ample opportunity to hear the stories of old seamen about their voyages to the western seas,[81] but his knowledge of the Atlantic wind patterns was still imperfect at the time of his first voyage. By sailing due west from the Canary Islands during hurricane season, skirting the so-called horse latitudes of the mid-Atlantic, he risked being becalmed and running into a tropical cyclone, both of which he avoided by chance.[82]

Quest for financial support for a voyage

Columbus offers his services to the King of Portugal; Chodowiecki, 17th century

By about 1484, Columbus proposed his planned voyage to King John II of Portugal.[83] The king submitted Columbus's proposal to his advisors, who rejected it, correctly, on the grounds that Columbus's estimate for a voyage of 2,400 nmi was only a quarter of what it should have been.[84] In 1488, Columbus again appealed to the court of Portugal, and John II again granted him an audience. That meeting also proved unsuccessful, in part because not long afterwards Bartolomeu Dias returned to Portugal with news of his successful rounding of the southern tip of Africa (near the Cape of Good Hope).[85][86]

Monastery of La Rábida, in which Columbus stayed in the years before his first expedition

Columbus sought an audience with the monarchs Ferdinand II of Aragon and Isabella I of Castile, who had united several kingdoms in the Iberian Peninsula by marrying and now ruled together. On 1 May 1486, permission having been granted, Columbus presented his plans to Queen Isabella, who in turn referred it to a committee. The learned men of Spain, like their counterparts in Portugal, replied that Columbus had grossly underestimated the distance to Asia. They pronounced the idea impractical and advised the Catholic Monarchs to pass on the proposed venture. To keep Columbus from taking his ideas elsewhere, and perhaps to keep their options open, the sovereigns gave him an allowance, totaling about 14,000 *maravedis* for the year, or about the annual salary of a sailor.[87] In May 1489, the queen sent him another 10,000 *maravedis*, and the same year the monarchs furnished him with a letter ordering all cities and towns under their dominion to provide him food and lodging at no cost.[88]

Columbus also dispatched his brother Bartholomew to the court of Henry VII of England to inquire whether the English Crown might sponsor his expedition, but he was captured by pirates en route, and only arrived in early 1491.[89] By that time, Columbus had retreated to La Rábida Friary, where the Spanish Crown sent him 20,000 *maravedis* to buy new clothes and instructions to return to the Spanish court for renewed discussions.[90]

Agreement with the Spanish Crown

The Alhambra, where Columbus received permission from the Catholic Monarchs for his first voyage[91]

Columbus waited at King Ferdinand's camp until Ferdinand and Isabella conquered Granada, the last Muslim stronghold on the Iberian Peninsula, in January 1492. A council led by Isabella's confessor, Hernando de Talavera, found Columbus's proposal to reach the Indies implausible. Columbus had left for France when Ferdinand intervened,[e] first sending Talavera and Bishop Diego Deza to appeal to the queen.[93] Isabella was finally convinced by the king's clerk Luis de Santángel, who argued that Columbus would take his ideas elsewhere, and offered to help arrange the funding. Isabella then sent a royal guard to fetch Columbus, who had traveled two leagues (over 10 km) toward Córdoba.[92]

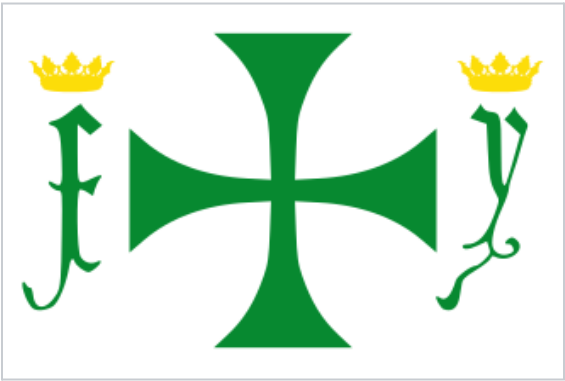
In the April 1492 "Capitulations of Santa Fe", King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella promised Columbus that if he succeeded he would be given the rank of *Admiral of the Ocean Sea* (Spanish: *Almirante del Mar Océano*) and appointed Viceroy and Governor of all the new lands he might claim for Spain.[94] He had the right to nominate three persons, from whom the sovereigns would choose one, for any office in the new lands. He would be entitled to one-tenth (*diezmo*) of all the revenues from the new lands in perpetuity. He also would have the option of buying one-eighth interest in any

commercial venture in the new lands, and receive one-eighth (*ochavo*) of the profits.[95][96][97]

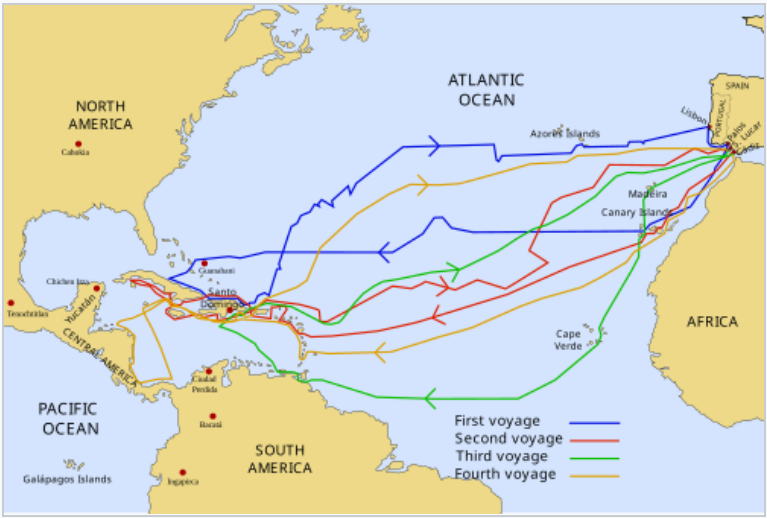
In 1500, during his third voyage to the Americas, Columbus was arrested and dismissed from his posts. He and his sons, Diego and Fernando, then conducted a lengthy series of court cases against the Castilian Crown, known as the *pleitos colombinos*, alleging that the Crown had illegally reneged on its contractual obligations to Columbus and his heirs.[98] The Columbus family had some success in their first litigation, as a judgment of 1511 confirmed Diego's position as viceroy but reduced his powers. Diego resumed litigation in 1512, which lasted until 1536, and further disputes initiated by heirs continued until 1790.[99]

Voyages

Main article: Voyages of Christopher Columbus



Captain's ensign of Columbus's ships



The voyages of Christopher Columbus (conjectural)

Between 1492 and 1504, Columbus completed four round-trip voyages between Spain and the Americas, each voyage being sponsored by the Crown of Castile. On his first voyage he reached the Americas, initiating the European exploration and colonization of the continent, as well as the Columbian exchange. His role in history is thus important to the Age of Discovery, Western history, and human history writ large.[100]

In Columbus's letter on the first voyage, published following his first return to Spain, he claimed that he had reached Asia,[101] as previously described by Marco Polo and other Europeans. Over his subsequent voyages, Columbus refused to acknowledge that the lands he visited and claimed for Spain were not part of Asia, in the face of mounting evidence to the contrary.[102] This might explain, in part, why the American continent was named after the Florentine explorer Amerigo Vespucci—who received credit for recognizing it as a "New World"—and not after Columbus.[103][f]

First voyage (1492–1493)

First voyage (conjectural).[g] Modern place names in black, Columbus's place names in blue

On the evening of 3 August 1492, Columbus departed from Palos de la Frontera with three ships. The largest was a carrack, the *Santa María*, owned and captained by Juan de la Cosa, and under Columbus's direct command.[107] The other two were smaller caravels, the *Pinta* and the *Niña*,[108] piloted by the Pinzón brothers.[107] Columbus first sailed to the Canary Islands. There he restocked provisions and made repairs then departed from San Sebastián de La Gomera on 6 September,[109] for what turned out to be a five-week voyage across the ocean.

On 7 October, the crew spotted "[i]mmense flocks of birds".[110] On 11 October, Columbus changed the fleet's course to due west, and sailed through the night, believing land was soon to be found. At around 02:00 the following morning, a lookout on the *Pinta*, Rodrigo de Triana, spotted land. The captain of the *Pinta*, Martín Alonso Pinzón, verified the sight of land and alerted Columbus.[111][112] Columbus later maintained that he had already seen a light on the land a few hours earlier, thereby claiming for himself the lifetime pension promised by Ferdinand and Isabella to the first person to sight land.[49][113] Columbus called this island (in what is now the Bahamas)

San Salvador ('Holy Savior'); the Natives called it Guanahani.[114][h] Christopher Columbus's journal entry of 12 October 1492 states:

I saw some who had marks of wounds on their bodies and I made signs to them asking what they were; and they showed me how people from other islands nearby came there and tried to take them, and how they defended themselves; and I believed and believe that they come here from *tierra firme* to take them captive. They should be good and intelligent servants, for I see that they say very quickly everything that is said to them; and I believe they would become Christians very easily, for it seemed to me that they had no religion. Our Lord pleasing, at the time of my departure I will take six of them from here to Your Highnesses in order that they may learn to speak.[116]

Columbus called the inhabitants of the lands that he visited *Los Indios* ('Indians').[117] He initially encountered the Lucayan, Taíno, and Arawak peoples.[118] Noting their gold ear ornaments, Columbus took some of the Arawaks prisoner and insisted that they guide him to the source of the gold.[119] Columbus did not believe he needed to create a fortified outpost, writing, "the people here are simple in war-like matters ... I could conquer the whole of them with fifty men, and govern them as I pleased."[120] The Taínos told Columbus that another Indigenous tribe, the Caribs, were fierce warriors and cannibals, who made frequent raids on the Taínos, often capturing their women, although this may have been a belief perpetuated by the Spaniards to justify enslaving them.[121][122]

Columbus also explored the northeast coast of Cuba, where he landed on 28 October. On the night of 26 November, Martín Alonso Pinzón took the *Pinta* on an unauthorized expedition in search of an island called "Babeque" or "Baneque",[123] which the Natives had told him was rich in gold.[124] Columbus, for his part, continued to the northern

coast of Hispaniola, where he landed on 6 December.[125] There, the *Santa María* ran aground on 25 December 1492 and had to be abandoned. The wreck was used as a target for cannon fire to impress the Native peoples.[126] Columbus was received by the Native *cacique* Guacanagari, who gave him permission to leave some of his men behind. Columbus left 39 men, including the interpreter Luis de Torres,[127][i] and founded the settlement of La Navidad, in present-day Haiti.[128][129] Columbus took more Natives prisoner and continued his exploration.[119] He kept sailing along the northern coast of Hispaniola with a single ship until he encountered Pinzón and the *Pinta* on 6 January.[130]

On 13 January 1493, Columbus made his last stop of this voyage in the Americas, in the Bay of Rincón in northeast Hispaniola.[131] There he encountered the Ciguayos, the only Natives who offered violent resistance during this voyage.[132] The Ciguayos refused to trade the amount of bows and arrows that Columbus desired; in the ensuing clash one Ciguayo was stabbed in the buttocks and another wounded with an arrow in his chest.[133] Because of these events, Columbus called the inlet the *Golfo de Las Flechas* ('Bay of Arrows').[134]

Columbus headed for Spain on the *Niña*, but a storm separated him from the *Pinta*, and forced the *Niña* to stop at the island of Santa Maria in the Azores. Half of his crew went ashore to say prayers of thanksgiving in a chapel for having survived the storm. But while praying, they were imprisoned by the governor of the island, ostensibly on suspicion of being pirates. After a two-day stand-off, the prisoners were released, and Columbus again set sail for Spain.[135]

Another storm forced Columbus into the port at Lisbon.[49] From there he went to *Vale do Paraíso* north of Lisbon to meet King John II of Portugal, who told Columbus that he believed the voyage to be in violation of the 1479 Treaty of Alcáçovas. After spending more than a week in Portugal, Columbus set sail for Spain. Returning to Palos on 15 March 1493, he was given a hero's welcome and soon afterward received by Isabella and Ferdinand in Barcelona.[136] To them he presented kidnapped Taínos and various plants and items he had collected.[137]:54

One of the ten Natives taken on the return trip was a Lucayan from Guanahani thought to be 13–15 years of age, who Columbus adopted as his son upon their arrival in Spain; the boy, whose Lucayan name is unknown, received the name *Diego* at baptism. Initially, Diego had been recognized for his intelligence and rapid acquisition of Spanish customs, and would serve as a guide and interpreter on each of Columbus's subsequent voyages. By the second voyage's departure later in 1493, Diego was the only Native out of the ten taken to Europe who had not died or become seriously ill as the result of disease; while on this voyage, he played a vital role in the discovery of La Navidad. He subsequently married and had a son, also named Diego, who died of illness in 1506. Following Columbus's death, Diego spent the rest of his life confined to Santo Domingo, and does not reappear in the historical record following a smallpox epidemic that swept Hispaniola in 1519.[138]

Columbus's letter on the first voyage, probably dispatched to the Spanish court upon arrival in Lisbon, was instrumental in spreading the news throughout Europe about his voyage. Almost immediately after his arrival in Spain, printed versions began to appear, and word of his voyage spread rapidly.[139] Most people initially believed that he had reached Asia.[101] The Bulls of Donation, three papal bulls of Pope Alexander VI

delivered in 1493, purported to grant overseas territories to Portugal and the Catholic Monarchs of Spain. They were replaced by the Treaty of Tordesillas of 1494.[140]

The two earliest published copies of Columbus's letter on the first voyage aboard the *Niña* were donated in 2017 by the Jay I. Kislak Foundation to the University of Miami library in Coral Gables, Florida, where they are housed.[141]

Second voyage (1493–1496)

Columbus's second voyage[j]

On 24 September 1493, Columbus sailed from Cádiz with 17 ships, and supplies to establish permanent colonies in the Americas. He sailed with nearly 1,500 men, including sailors, soldiers, priests, carpenters, stonemasons, metalworkers, and farmers. Among the expedition members were Alvarez Chanca, a physician who wrote a detailed account of the second voyage; Juan Ponce de León, the first governor of Puerto Rico and Florida; the father of Bartolomé de las Casas; Juan de la Cosa, a cartographer who is credited with making the first world map depicting the New World; and Columbus's youngest brother Diego.[143] The fleet stopped at the Canary Islands to

take on more supplies, and set sail again on 7 October, deliberately taking a more southerly course than on the first voyage.[144]

On 3 November, they arrived in the Windward Islands; the first island they encountered was named Dominica by Columbus, but not finding a good harbor there, they anchored off a nearby smaller island, which he named *Mariagalante*, now a part of Guadeloupe and called Marie-Galante. Other islands named by Columbus on this voyage were Montserrat, Antigua, Saint Martin, and the Virgin Islands, as well as many others.[144]

On 17 November, Columbus first sighted the eastern coast of the island of Puerto Rico, known to its Native Taíno people as *Boriquen*. His fleet sailed along the island's southern coast for a whole day, before making landfall on its northwestern coast at the Bay of Añasco, early on 19 November. Upon landing, Columbus christened the island *San Juan Bautista* after John the Baptist, and remained anchored there for two days from 20 to 21 November, filling the water casks of the ships in his fleet.[145]

The Inspiration of Christopher Columbus by José María Obregón, 1856

On 22 November, Columbus returned to Hispaniola to visit *La Navidad* in modern-day Haiti, where 39 Spaniards had been left during the first voyage. Columbus found the fort in ruins. He learned from Guacanagaríx, the local tribe leader, that his men had quarreled over gold and taken women from the tribe, and that after some left for the territory of Caonabo, Caonabo came and burned the fort and killed the rest of the men there.[146][128][147][148]

Columbus then established a poorly located and short-lived settlement to the east, La Isabela,[143] in the present-day Dominican Republic.[149] By the end of 1494, disease and famine had killed two-thirds of the Spanish settlers there.[150]

From April to August 1494, Columbus explored Cuba and Jamaica, then returned to Hispaniola.[151] Before leaving on this exploration to Cuba, Columbus had ordered a large number of men, under Pedro Margarit, to "journey the length and breadth of the island, enforcing Spanish control and bringing all the people under the Spanish yoke."[152] These men, in his absence, raped women, took men captive to be servants, and stole from the Indigenous people. A number of Spanish were killed in retaliation. By the time Columbus returned from exploring Cuba, the four primary leaders of the Arawak people in Hispaniola were gathering for war to try to drive the Spanish from the Island. Columbus assembled a large number of troops, and joined with his one Native ally, chief Guacanagaríx, met for battle. The Spanish, even though they were largely outnumbered, won this battle, and over the next 9 months Columbus continued to wage war on the Native Taíno on Hispaniola until they surrendered and agreed to pay tribute.[153]

Columbus implemented *encomienda*,[154][155] a Spanish labor system that rewarded conquerors with the labor of conquered non-Christian people. It is also recorded that

punishments to both Spaniards and Natives included whippings and mutilation (cutting noses and ears).[156][157]

Columbus and the colonists enslaved many of the Indigenous people,[158] including children.[159] Natives were beaten, raped, and tortured for the location of imagined gold.[160] Thousands committed suicide rather than face the oppression.[161][k]

In February 1495, Columbus rounded up about 1,500 Arawaks, some of whom had rebelled, in a great slave raid. About 500 of the strongest were shipped to Spain as slaves,[163] with about two hundred of those dying en route.[119][164]

In June 1495, the Spanish Crown sent ships and supplies to Hispaniola. In October, Florentine merchant Gianotto Berardi, who had won the contract to provision the fleet of Columbus's second voyage and to supply the colony on Hispaniola, received almost 40,000 *maravedís* worth of enslaved Indians. He renewed his effort to get supplies to Columbus, and was working to organize a fleet when he suddenly died in December.[165] On 10 March 1496, having been away about 30 months,[166] the fleet departed La Isabela. On 8 June the crew sighted land somewhere between Lisbon and Cape St. Vincent, and disembarked in Cádiz on 11 June.[167]

Third voyage (1498–1500)

Third voyage

On 30 May 1498, Columbus left with six ships from Sanlúcar, Spain. The fleet called at Madeira and the Canary Islands, where it divided in two, with three ships heading for Hispaniola and the other three vessels, commanded by Columbus, sailing south to the Cape Verde Islands and then westward across the Atlantic. It is probable that this expedition was intended at least partly to confirm rumors of a large continent south of the Caribbean Sea, that is, South America.[168]

On 31 July they sighted Trinidad,[169] the most southerly of the Caribbean islands. On 5 August, Columbus sent several small boats ashore on the southern side of the Paria Peninsula in what is now Venezuela,[170][171] near the mouth of the Orinoco river.[168] This was the first recorded landing of Europeans on the mainland of South America,[170] which Columbus realized must be a continent.[172][173] The fleet then sailed to the islands of Chacachacare and Margarita, reaching the latter on 14 August,[174] and sighted Tobago and Grenada from afar, according to some scholars.[175][170]

On 19 August, Columbus returned to Hispaniola. There he found settlers in rebellion against his rule, and his unfulfilled promises of riches. Columbus had some of the Europeans tried for their disobedience; at least one rebel leader was hanged.[176]

In October 1499, Columbus sent two ships to Spain, asking the Court of Spain to appoint a royal commissioner to help him govern.[177] By this time, accusations of tyranny and incompetence on the part of Columbus had also reached the Court. The sovereigns sent Francisco de Bobadilla, a relative of Marquesa Beatriz de Bobadilla, a patron of Columbus and a close friend of Queen Isabella,[178][179] to investigate the accusations of brutality made against the Admiral. Arriving in Santo Domingo while Columbus was away, Bobadilla was immediately met with complaints about all three Columbus brothers.[180] He moved into Columbus's house and seized his property, took depositions from the Admiral's enemies, and declared himself governor.[170]

Bobadilla reported to Spain that Columbus once punished a man found guilty of stealing corn by having his ears and nose cut off and then selling him into slavery. He claimed that Columbus regularly used torture and mutilation to govern Hispaniola.[l] Testimony recorded in the report stated that Columbus congratulated his brother Bartholomew on "defending the family" when the latter ordered for a woman to be paraded naked through the streets and then had her tongue cut because she had "spoken ill of the admiral and his brothers".[182] The document also describes how Columbus put down native unrest and revolt: he first ordered a brutal suppression of the uprising in which many natives were killed, and then paraded their dismembered bodies through the streets in an attempt to discourage further rebellion.[183] Columbus vehemently denied the charges.[184][185] The neutrality and accuracy of the accusations and investigations of Bobadilla toward Columbus and his brothers have been disputed by historians, given

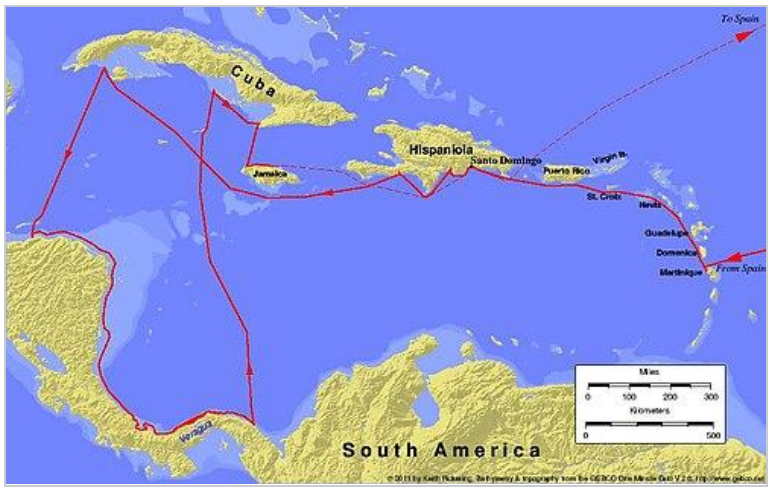
the anti-Italian sentiment of the Spaniards and Bobadilla's desire to take over Columbus's position.[186][187][188]

In early October 1500, Columbus and Diego presented themselves to Bobadilla, and were put in chains aboard *La Gorda*, the caravel on which Bobadilla had arrived at Santo Domingo.[189][190] They were returned to Spain, and languished in jail for six weeks before King Ferdinand ordered their release. Not long after, the king and queen summoned the Columbus brothers to the Alhambra palace in Granada. The sovereigns expressed indignation at the actions of Bobadilla, who was then recalled and ordered to make restitutions of the property he had confiscated from Columbus.[184] The royal couple heard the brothers' pleas; restored their freedom and wealth; and, after much persuasion, agreed to fund Columbus's fourth voyage.[191] However, Nicolás de Ovando was to replace Bobadilla and be the new governor of the West Indies.[192]

New light was shed on the seizure of Columbus and his brother Bartholomew, the Adelantado, with the discovery by archivist Isabel Aguirre of an incomplete copy of the testimonies against them gathered by Francisco de Bobadilla at Santo Domingo in 1500. She found a manuscript copy of this *pesquisa* (inquiry) in the Archive of Simancas, Spain, uncatalogued until she and Consuelo Varela published their book, *La caída de Cristóbal Colón: el juicio de Bobadilla* (*The fall of Christopher Colón: the judgement of Bobadilla*) in 2006.[193][194]

Fourth voyage (1502–1504)

Main article: Fourth voyage of Columbus



Columbus's fourth voyage

Coat of arms granted to Christopher Columbus and the House of Colon [es] by Pope Alexander VI *motu proprio* in 1502

On 9 May 1502,[195] Columbus left Cádiz with his flagship *Santa María* and three other vessels. The ships were crewed by 140 men, including his brother Bartholomew as second in command and his son Fernando.[196] He sailed to Asilah on the Moroccan coast to rescue Portuguese soldiers said to be besieged by the Moors. The siege had

been lifted by the time they arrived, so the Spaniards stayed only a day and continued on to the Canary Islands.[197]

On 15 June, the fleet arrived at Martinique, where it lingered for several days. A hurricane was forming, so Columbus continued westward,[196] hoping to find shelter on Hispaniola. He arrived at Santo Domingo on 29 June, but was denied port, and the new governor Francisco de Bobadilla refused to listen to his warning that a hurricane was approaching. Instead, while Columbus's ships sheltered at the mouth of the Rio Jaina, the first Spanish treasure fleet sailed into the hurricane. Columbus's ships survived with only minor damage, while 20 of the 30 ships in the governor's fleet were lost along with 500 lives (including that of Francisco de Bobadilla). Although a few surviving ships managed to straggle back to Santo Domingo, *Aguja*, the fragile ship carrying Columbus's personal belongings and his 4,000 pesos in gold was the sole vessel to reach Spain.[198][199] The gold was his *tenth* (*décimo*) of the profits from Hispaniola, equal to 240,000 maravedis,[200] guaranteed by the Catholic Monarchs in 1492.[201]

After a brief stop at Jamaica, Columbus sailed to Central America, arriving at the coast of Honduras on 30 July. Here Bartholomew found native merchants and a large canoe. On 14 August, Columbus landed on the continental mainland at Punta Caxinas, now Puerto Castilla, Honduras.[202] He spent two months exploring the coasts of Honduras, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica, seeking a strait in the western Caribbean through which he could sail to the Indian Ocean. Sailing south along the Nicaraguan coast, he found a channel that led into Almirante Bay in Panama on 5 October.[203][204]

As soon as his ships anchored in Almirante Bay, Columbus encountered Ngäbe people in canoes who were wearing gold ornaments.[205] In January 1503, he established a garrison at the mouth of the Belén River. Columbus left for Hispaniola on 16 April. On

10 May he sighted the Cayman Islands, naming them *Las Tortugas* after the numerous sea turtles there.[206] His ships sustained damage in a storm off the coast of Cuba. Unable to travel farther, on 25 June 1503 they were beached in Saint Ann Parish, Jamaica.[207]

For six months Columbus and 230 of his men remained stranded on Jamaica. Diego Méndez de Segura, who had shipped out as a personal secretary to Columbus, and a Spanish shipmate called Bartolomé Flisco, along with six natives, paddled a canoe to get help from Hispaniola.[208] The governor, Nicolás de Ovando y Cáceres, detested Columbus and obstructed all efforts to rescue him and his men.[209] In the meantime Columbus, in a desperate effort to induce the natives to continue provisioning him and his hungry men, won their favor by predicting a lunar eclipse for 29 February 1504, using Abraham Zacuto's astronomical charts.[210][211][212] Despite the governor's obstruction, Christopher Columbus and his men were rescued on 28 June 1504, and arrived in Sanlúcar, Spain, on 7 November.[209]

Later life, illness, and death

The death of Columbus, lithograph by L. Prang & Co., 1893

Columbus had always claimed that the conversion of non-believers was one reason for his explorations, and he grew increasingly religious in his later years.[213] Probably with the assistance of his son Diego and his friend the Carthusian monk Gaspar Gorricio, Columbus produced two books during his later years: a *Book of Privileges* (1502), detailing and documenting the rewards from the Spanish Crown to which he believed he and his heirs were entitled, and a *Book of Prophecies* (1505), in which passages from the Bible were used to place his achievements as an explorer in the context of Christian eschatology.[214]

In his later years, Columbus demanded that the Crown of Castile give him his tenth of all the riches and trade goods yielded by the new lands, as stipulated in the Capitulations of Santa Fe.[96] Because he had been relieved of his duties as governor, the Crown did not feel bound by that contract and his demands were rejected. After his death, his heirs sued the Crown for a part of the profits from trade with America, as well as other rewards. This led to a protracted series of legal disputes known as the *pleitos colombinos* ('Columbian lawsuits').[99]

The remains of Christopher Columbus preserved in the University Library of Pavia

During a violent storm on his first return voyage, Columbus, then 41, had suffered an attack of what was believed at the time to be gout. In subsequent years, he was plagued with what was thought to be influenza and other fevers, bleeding from the eyes, temporary blindness and prolonged attacks of gout. The attacks increased in duration and severity, sometimes leaving Columbus bedridden for months at a time, and culminated in his death 14 years later.

Based on Columbus's lifestyle and the described symptoms, some modern commentators suspect that he suffered from reactive arthritis, rather than gout.[215][216] Reactive arthritis is a joint inflammation caused by intestinal bacterial infections or after acquiring certain sexually transmitted diseases (primarily chlamydia or gonorrhea). In 2006, Frank C. Arnett, a medical doctor, and historian Charles Merrill, published their paper in *The American Journal of the Medical Sciences* proposing that Columbus had a form of reactive arthritis; Merrill made the case in that same paper that Columbus was the son of Catalans and his mother possibly a member of a prominent *converso*

(converted Jew) family.[217] "It seems likely that [Columbus] acquired reactive arthritis from food poisoning on one of his ocean voyages because of poor sanitation and improper food preparation", says Arnett, a rheumatologist and professor of internal medicine, pathology and laboratory medicine at the University of Texas Medical School at Houston.[215]

Some historians such as H. Micheal Tarver and Emily Slape,[218] as well as medical doctors such as Arnett and Antonio Rodríguez Cuartero,[219] believe that Columbus had such a form of reactive arthritis, but according to other authorities, this is "speculative",[220] or "very speculative".[221]

After his arrival to Sanlúcar from his fourth voyage (and Queen Isabella's death), an ill Columbus settled in Seville in April 1505. He stubbornly continued to make pleas to the Crown to defend his own personal privileges and his family's.[222] He moved to Segovia (where the court was at the time) on a mule by early 1506,[223] and, on the occasion of the wedding of King Ferdinand with Germaine of Foix in Valladolid, Spain, in March 1506, Columbus moved to that city to persist with his demands.[224] On 20 May 1506, aged 54, Columbus died in Valladolid.[225]

Location of remains

Tomb in Seville Cathedral. The remains in the casket are borne by kings of Castile, Leon, Aragon, and Navarre.

Tomb in Columbus Lighthouse, Santo Domingo Este, Dominican Republic

Columbus's remains were first buried at the Chapel of Wonders at the Convent of St. Francis, Valladolid,[226] but were then moved to the monastery of La Cartuja in Seville (southern Spain) by the will of his son Diego.[227] They may have been exhumed in 1513 and interred at the Seville Cathedral. In about 1536, the remains of both Columbus and his son Diego were moved to a cathedral in Colonial Santo Domingo, in the present-day Dominican Republic; Columbus had requested to be buried on the island.[228] By some accounts, in 1793, when France took over the entire island of

Hispaniola, Columbus's remains were moved to Havana, Cuba.[229][230] After Cuba became independent following the Spanish–American War in 1898, at least some of these remains were moved back to the Seville Cathedral,[226][231] where they were placed on an elaborate catafalque.

In June 2003, DNA samples were taken from the remains in Seville, as well as those of Columbus's brother Diego and younger son Fernando.[228] Initial observations suggested that the bones did not appear to match Columbus's physique or age at death.[232] DNA extraction proved difficult; only short fragments of mitochondrial DNA could be isolated. These matched corresponding DNA from Columbus's brother, supporting that the two men had the same mother.[231] Such evidence, together with anthropologic and historic analyses, led the researchers to conclude that the remains belonged to Christopher Columbus.[233][m]

In 1877, a priest discovered a lead box at Santo Domingo inscribed: "Discoverer of America, First Admiral". Inscriptions found the next year read "Last of the remains of the first admiral, Sire Christopher Columbus, discoverer."[235] The box contained bones of an arm and a leg, as well as a bullet.[n] These remains were considered legitimate by physician and U.S. Assistant Secretary of State John Eugene Osborne, who suggested in 1913 that they travel through the Panama Canal as a part of its opening ceremony.[237][o] These remains were kept at the Basilica Cathedral of Santa María la Menor (in the Colonial City of Santo Domingo) before being moved to the Columbus Lighthouse (Santo Domingo Este, inaugurated in 1992). The authorities in Santo Domingo have never allowed these remains to be DNA-tested, so it is unconfirmed whether they are from Columbus's body as well.[231][233][p]

Commemoration

Further information: List of places named for Christopher Columbus and List of monuments and memorials to Christopher Columbus

U.S. Columbian Issue of 1893.

Replicas of the *Niña*, *Pinta* and *Santa María* sailed from Spain to the Chicago Columbian Exposition in 1893

Columbus Day parade in New York City, 2009

Monument to Christopher Columbus in Buenos Aires, Argentina

The figure of Columbus was not ignored in the British colonies during the colonial era: Columbus became a unifying symbol early in the history of the colonies that became the United States when Puritan preachers began to use his life story as a model for a "developing American spirit".[240] In the spring of 1692, Puritan preacher Cotton Mather described Columbus's voyage as one of three shaping events of the modern age, connecting Columbus's voyage and the Puritans' migration to North America, seeing them together as the key to a grand design.[241]

The use of Columbus as a founding figure of New World nations spread rapidly after the American Revolution. This was out of a desire to develop a national history and founding myth with fewer ties to Britain.[242][243][244] His name was the basis for the female national personification of the United States, Columbia,[245] in use since the

1730s with reference to the original Thirteen Colonies, and also a historical name applied to the Americas and to the New World. Columbia, South Carolina, and *Columbia Rediviva*, the ship for which the Columbia River was named, are named for Columbus.[246]

Columbus's name was given to the newly born Republic of Colombia in the early 19th century, inspired by the political project of "Colombeia" developed by revolutionary Francisco de Miranda, which was put at the service of the emancipation of continental Hispanic America.[247]

To commemorate the 400th anniversary of the landing of Columbus,[248] the 1893 World's Fair in Chicago was named the World's Columbian Exposition.[249] The U.S. Postal Service issued the first U.S. commemorative stamps, the Columbian Issue,[250] depicting Columbus, Queen Isabella and others in various stages of his several voyages.[251] A commemorative silver half dollar was also struck, which remains the only U.S. currency issued having a foreigner as its subject. The policies related to the celebration of the Spanish colonial empire as the vehicle of a nationalist project undertaken in Spain during the Restoration in the late 19th century took form with the commemoration of the 4th centenary on 12 October 1892 (in which the figure of Columbus was extolled by the Conservative government), eventually becoming the very same national day.[252] Several monuments commemorating the "discovery" were erected in cities such as Palos, Barcelona, Granada, Madrid, Salamanca, Valladolid and Seville in the years around the 400th anniversary.[253][q]

For the Columbus Quincentenary in 1992, a second Columbian issue was released jointly with Italy, Portugal, and Spain.[254] Columbus was celebrated at Seville Expo '92, and Genoa Expo '92.

The Boal Mansion Museum, founded in 1951, contains a collection of materials concerning later descendants of Columbus and collateral branches of the family. It features a 16th-century chapel from a Spanish castle reputedly owned by Diego Colón which became the residence of Columbus's descendants. The chapel interior was dismantled and moved from Spain in 1909 and re-erected on the Boal estate at Boalsburg, Pennsylvania. Inside it are numerous religious paintings and other objects including a reliquary with fragments of wood supposedly from the True Cross. The museum also holds a collection of documents mostly relating to Columbus descendants of the late 18th and early 19th centuries.[255]

In many countries of the Americas, as well as Spain and Italy, Columbus Day celebrates the anniversary of Columbus's arrival in the Americas on 12 October 1492.[256]

Legacy

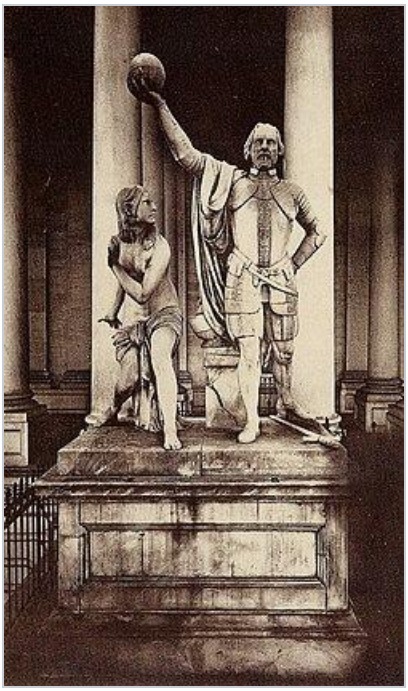
The voyages of Columbus are considered a turning point in human history,[257] marking the beginning of globalization and accompanying demographic, commercial, economic, social, and political changes.[258]

Landing of Columbus by John Vanderlyn, 1847. The landing of Columbus became a powerful icon of American genesis in the 19th century.

His explorations resulted in permanent contact between the two hemispheres, and the term "pre-Columbian" is used to refer to the cultures of the Americas before the arrival of Columbus and his European successors.[259] The ensuing Columbian exchange saw the massive exchange of animals, plants, fungi, diseases, technologies, mineral wealth and ideas.[260]

In the first century after his endeavors, Columbus's figure largely languished in the backwaters of history, and his reputation was beset by his failures as a colonial administrator. His legacy was somewhat rescued from oblivion when he began to appear as a character in Italian and Spanish plays and poems from the late 16th century onward.[261]

Columbus was subsumed into the Western narrative of colonization and empire building, which invoked notions of *translatio imperii* and *translatio studii* to underline who was considered "civilized" and who was not.[262]



The Discovery of America sculpture, depicting Columbus and a cowering Indian maiden, stood outside the U.S. Capitol from 1844 to 1958.

The Americanization of the figure of Columbus began in the latter decades of the 18th century, after the revolutionary period of the United States,[263] elevating the status of his reputation to a national myth, *homo americanus*.[264] His landing became a powerful icon as an "image of American genesis".[263] *The Discovery of America* sculpture, depicting Columbus and a cowering Native maiden, was commissioned on 3 April 1837, when U.S. President Martin Van Buren sanctioned the engineering of Luigi Persico's design. This representation of Columbus's triumph and the Native's recoil is a demonstration of supposed white superiority over savage, naive Natives.[265] As recorded during its unveiling in 1844, the sculpture extends to "represent the meeting of the two races", as Persico captures their first interaction, highlighting the "moral and intellectual inferiority" of Natives.[266] Placed outside the U.S. Capitol building where it remained until its removal in the mid-20th century, the sculpture reflected the

contemporary view of whites in the U.S. toward the Natives; they are labeled "merciless Indian savages" in the United States Declaration of Independence.[267] In 1836, Pennsylvania senator and future U.S. President James Buchanan, who proposed the sculpture, described it as representing "the great discoverer when he first bounded with ecstasy upon the shore, all his toils past, presenting a hemisphere to the astonished world, with the name America inscribed upon it. Whilst he is thus standing upon the shore, a female savage, with awe and wonder depicted in her countenance, is gazing upon him."[268]

The American Columbus myth was reconfigured later in the century when he was enlisted as an ethnic hero by immigrants to the United States who were not of Anglo-Saxon stock, such as Jewish, Italian, and Irish people, who claimed Columbus as a sort of ethnic founding father.[269][270] Catholics unsuccessfully tried to promote him for canonization in the 19th century.[271][272]

From the 1990s onward, a narrative of Columbus being responsible for the genocide of Indigenous peoples and environmental destruction began to compete with the then predominant discourse of Columbus as Christ-bearer, scientist, or father of America.[273] This narrative features the negative effects of Columbus' conquests on native populations.[160] Exposed to Old World diseases, the Indigenous populations of the New World collapsed,[274] and were largely replaced by Europeans and Africans,[275] who brought with them new methods of farming, business, governance, and religious worship.

Originality of discovery of America

Main articles: Pre-Columbian transoceanic contact theories and Norse colonization of North America

Discovery of America, a postage stamp from the Faroe Islands commemorates the voyages of discovery of Leif Erikson (c. 1000) and Christopher Columbus (1492).

Though Christopher Columbus came to be considered the European discoverer of America in Western popular culture, his historical legacy is more nuanced.[276] After settling Iceland, the Norse settled the uninhabited southern part of Greenland beginning in the 10th century.[277] Norsemen are believed to have then set sail from Greenland and Iceland to become the first known Europeans to reach the North American mainland, nearly 500 years before Columbus reached the Caribbean.[278] The 1960s discovery of a Norse settlement dating c. 1000 at L'Anse aux Meadows, Newfoundland, partially corroborates accounts within the Icelandic sagas of Erik the Red's colonization of Greenland and his son Leif Erikson's subsequent exploration of a place he called Vinland.[279]

In the 19th century, amid a revival of interest in Norse culture, Carl Christian Rafn and Benjamin Franklin DeCosta wrote works establishing that the Norse had preceded Columbus in colonizing the Americas.[280][281] Following this, in 1874 Rasmus Bjørn

Anderson argued that Columbus must have known of the North American continent before he started his voyage of discovery.[35][278] Most modern scholars doubt Columbus had knowledge of the Norse settlements in America, with his arrival to the continent being most likely an independent discovery.[33][34][35][36][282]

Europeans devised explanations for the origins of the Native Americans and their geographical distribution with narratives that often served to reinforce their own preconceptions built on ancient intellectual foundations.[283] In modern Latin America, the non-Native populations of some countries often demonstrate an ambiguous attitude toward the perspectives of Indigenous peoples regarding the so-called "discovery" by Columbus and the era of colonialism that followed.[284] In his 1960 monograph, Mexican philosopher and historian Edmundo O'Gorman explicitly rejects the Columbus discovery myth, arguing that the idea that Columbus discovered America was a misleading legend fixed in the public mind through the works of American author Washington Irving during the 19th century. O'Gorman argues that to assert Columbus "discovered America" is to shape the facts concerning the events of 1492 to make them conform to an interpretation that arose many years later.[285] For him, the Eurocentric view of the discovery of America sustains systems of domination in ways that favor Europeans.[286] In a 1992 article for *The UNESCO Courier*, Félix Fernández-Shaw argues that the word "discovery" prioritizes European explorers as the "heroes" of the contact between the Old and New World. He suggests that the word "encounter" is more appropriate, being a more universal term which includes Native Americans in the narrative.[287]

America as a distinct land

The Columbus Monument in Columbus Circle, New York City

Historians have traditionally argued that Columbus remained convinced until his death that his journeys had been along the east coast of Asia as he originally intended[288][244] (excluding arguments such as Anderson's).[35] On his third voyage he briefly referred to South America as a "hitherto unknown" continent,[f] while also rationalizing that it was the Earthly Paradise (Eden) located "at the end of the Orient".[172] Columbus continued to claim in his later writings that he had reached Asia; in a 1502 letter to Pope Alexander VI, he asserts that Cuba is the east coast of Asia.[48] On the other hand, in a document in the *Book of Privileges* (1502), Columbus refers to the New World as the *Indias Occidentales* ('West Indies'), which he says "were unknown to all the world".[289]

Shape of the Earth

Further information: Myth of the flat Earth

Columbus Lighthouse, a Museum and Mausoleum in homage to Christopher Columbus in Santo Domingo

Washington Irving's 1828 biography of Columbus popularized the idea that Columbus had difficulty obtaining support for his plan because many Catholic theologians insisted that the Earth was flat,[290] but this is a popular misconception which can be traced back to 17th-century Protestants campaigning against Catholicism.[291] In fact, the spherical shape of the Earth had been known to scholars since antiquity, and was common knowledge among sailors, including Columbus.[292] Coincidentally, the oldest surviving globe of the Earth, the Erdapfel, was made in 1492, just before Columbus's return to Europe from his first voyage. As such it contains no sign of the Americas and yet demonstrates the common belief in a spherical Earth.[293]

In 1492, Columbus correctly measured Polaris's diurnal motion around true north as having a diameter of almost 7°.[294] In 1498, while sailing west through the doldrums 8° north in July and again in August sailing the trade winds 13° north, Columbus reported seeing Polaris with a diurnal motion of 10° in diameter. He accounted for the shift by concluding that Earth's figure is pear-shaped, with the 'stalk' portion (comparing this to a woman's breast) being nearest Heaven and upon which was centered the Earthly

Paradise.[295][296][297] Although Columbus's later readings were incorrect, 20th-century satellite data happens to indicate that the Earth has a slight pear shape.[298][299][300]

Criticism and defense

Columbus has been criticized both for his brutality and for initiating the depopulation of the Indigenous peoples of the Caribbean, whether by imported diseases or intentional violence. According to scholars of Native American history, George Tinker and Mark Freedman, Columbus was responsible for creating a cycle of "murder, violence, and slavery" to maximize exploitation of the Caribbean islands' resources, and that Native deaths on the scale at which they occurred would not have been caused by new diseases alone. Further, they describe the proposition that disease and not genocide caused these deaths as "American holocaust denial".[301] Historian Kris Lane disputes whether it is appropriate to use the term "genocide" when the atrocities were not Columbus's intent, but resulted from his decrees, family business goals, and negligence.[302] Other scholars defend Columbus's actions or allege that the worst accusations against him are not based in fact while others claim that "he has been blamed for events far beyond his own reach or knowledge".[303]

As a result of the protests and riots that followed the murder of George Floyd in 2020, many public monuments of Christopher Columbus have been removed.[304]

Brutality

The remains of the pedestal base of the Columbus statue near Baltimore's Inner Harbor. The statue was thrown into the harbor on 4 July 2020, during the George Floyd protests in the city.

Some historians have criticized Columbus for initiating the widespread colonization of the Americas and for abusing its Native population.[305][119][306][307] On St. Croix, Columbus's friend Michele da Cuneo—according to his own account—kept an Indigenous woman he captured, whom Columbus "gave to [him]", then brutally raped her.[308][r][s]

According to some historians, the punishment for an Indigenous person, aged 14 and older, failing to pay a hawk's bell, or *cascabela*,[311] worth of gold dust every six months (based on Bartolomé de las Casas's account) was cutting off the hands of those without tokens, often leaving them to bleed to death.[301][119][312] Other historians dispute such accounts. For example, a study of Spanish archival sources showed that the *cascabela* quotas were imposed by Guarionex, not Columbus, and that there is no mention, in the

primary sources, of punishment by cutting off hands for failing to pay.[313] Columbus had an economic interest in the enslavement of the Hispaniola Natives and for that reason was not eager to baptize them, which attracted criticism from some churchmen.[314] Consuelo Varela, a Spanish historian, stated that "Columbus's government was characterized by a form of tyranny. Even those who loved him had to admit the atrocities that had taken place."[181] Other historians have argued that some of the accounts of the brutality of Columbus and his brothers have been exaggerated as part of the Black Legend, a historical tendency towards anti-Spanish and anti-Catholic sentiment in historical sources dating as far back as the 16th century, which they speculate may continue to taint scholarship into the present day.[315][316][317]

According to historian Emily Berquist Soule, the immense Portuguese profits from the maritime trade in African slaves along the West African coast served as an inspiration for Columbus to create a counterpart of this apparatus in the New World using Indigenous American slaves.[318] Historian William J. Connell has argued that while Columbus "brought the entrepreneurial form of slavery to the New World", this "was a phenomenon of the times", further arguing that "we have to be very careful about applying 20th-century understandings of morality to the morality of the 15th century."[319] In a less popular defense of colonization, Spanish ambassador María Jesús Figa [es] has argued, "Normally we melded with the cultures in America, we stayed there, we spread our language and culture and religion."[320]

British historian Basil Davidson has dubbed Columbus the "father of the slave trade",[321][322] citing the fact that the first license to ship enslaved Africans to the Caribbean was issued by the Catholic Monarchs in 1501 to the first royal governor of Hispaniola, Nicolás de Ovando.[323]

Genocide and depopulation

Main article: Taíno genocide

See also: Population history of Indigenous peoples of the Americas

Around the turn of the 21st century, estimates for the pre-Columbian population of Hispaniola ranged between 250,000 and two million,[163][324][325][t] but genetic analysis published in late 2020 suggests that smaller figures are more likely, perhaps as low as 10,000–50,000 for Hispaniola and Puerto Rico combined.[326][327] Based on the previous figures of a few hundred thousand, some have estimated that a third or more of the natives in Haiti were dead within the first two years of Columbus's governorship.[119][163] Contributors to depopulation included disease, warfare, and harsh enslavement.[328][329] Indirect evidence suggests that some serious illness may have arrived with the 1,500 colonists who accompanied Columbus' second expedition in 1493.[328] Charles C. Mann writes that "It was as if the suffering these diseases had caused in Eurasia over the past millennia were concentrated into the span of decades."[330] A third of the natives forced to work in gold and silver mines died every six months.[331][332] Within three to six decades, the surviving Arawak population numbered only in the hundreds.[331][163][333] The Indigenous population of the Americas overall is thought to have been reduced by about 90% in the century after Columbus's arrival.[334] Among Indigenous peoples, Columbus is often viewed as a key agent of genocide.[335] Samuel Eliot Morison, a Harvard University historian and author of a multivolume biography on Columbus, writes, "The cruel policy initiated by Columbus and pursued by his successors resulted in complete genocide."[336]

According to Noble David Cook, "There were too few Spaniards to have killed the millions who were reported to have died in the first century after Old and New World contact." He instead estimates that the death toll was caused by smallpox,[337] which may have caused a pandemic only after the arrival of Hernán Cortés in 1519.[338][339][340] According to some estimates, smallpox had an 80–90% fatality rate in Native American populations.[341] The natives had no acquired immunity to these new diseases and suffered high fatalities. There is also evidence that they had poor diets and were overworked.[150][342][343] Historian Andrés Reséndez of University of California, Davis, says the available evidence suggests "slavery has emerged as major killer" of the Indigenous populations of the Caribbean between 1492 and 1550 more so than diseases such as smallpox, influenza and malaria.[344] He says that Indigenous populations did not experience a rebound like European populations did following the Black Death because unlike the latter, a large portion of the former were subjected to deadly forced labor in the mines.[332]

The diseases that devastated the Native Americans came in multiple waves at different times, sometimes as much as centuries apart, which would mean that survivors of one disease may have been killed by others, preventing the population from recovering.[345] Historian David Stannard describes the depopulation of the Indigenous Americans as "neither inadvertent nor inevitable", saying it was the result of both disease and intentional genocide.[346]

Navigational expertise

Biographers and historians have a wide range of opinions about Columbus's expertise and experience navigating and captaining ships. One scholar lists some European works ranging from the 1890s to 1980s that support Columbus's experience and skill as

among the best in Genoa, while listing some American works over a similar timeframe that portray the explorer as an untrained entrepreneur, having only minor crew or passenger experience prior to his noted journeys.[347] According to Morison, Columbus's success in utilizing the trade winds might owe significantly to luck.[348]

Physical appearance

The Virgin of the Navigators by Alejo Fernández (1531–1536)

Close-up for Fernández's depiction of Columbus

Contemporary descriptions of Columbus, including those by his son Fernando and Bartolomé de las Casas, describe him as taller than average, with light skin (often sunburnt), blue or hazel eyes, high cheekbones and freckled face, an aquiline nose, and blond to reddish hair and beard (until about the age of 30, when it began to whiten).[349][350] One Spanish commentator described his eyes using the word *garzos*, now usually translated as "light blue", but it seems to have indicated light grey-green or hazel eyes to Columbus's contemporaries. The word *rubios* can mean "blond", "fair", or "ruddy".[351] Although an abundance of artwork depicts Columbus, no authentic contemporary portrait is known.[352]

A well-known image of Columbus is a portrait by Sebastiano del Piombo, which has been reproduced in many textbooks. It agrees with descriptions of Columbus in that it shows a large man with auburn hair, but the painting dates from 1519 so cannot have been painted from life. Furthermore, the inscription identifying the subject as Columbus was probably added later, and the face shown differs from that of other images.[353]

Sometime between 1531 and 1536, Alejo Fernández painted an altarpiece, *The Virgin of the Navigators*, that includes a depiction of Columbus.[354] The painting was commissioned for a chapel in Seville's Casa de Contratación (House of Trade) in the Alcázar of Seville and remains there.[355]

At the World's Columbian Exposition in 1893, 71 alleged portraits of Columbus were displayed; most of them did not match contemporary descriptions.[356]

See also

- Christopher Columbus House – Building in Genoa, Italy

- Christopher Columbus in fiction
- Columbus Day – National holiday in the Americas
- Indigenous Peoples' Day – Counter-celebration held on the same day as the U.S. Columbus Day
- Egg of Columbus – 16th-century anecdote about hindsight
- History of the Americas
- *Lugares colombinos*
- Peopling of the Americas – Prehistoric migration from Asia to the Americas
- Indigenous response to colonialism
- Origin theories of Christopher Columbus

Notes

a. There are no known authentic portraits of Columbus.[1]

b. In other relevant languages:
   - Spanish: *Cristóbal Colón* [kɾisˈtoβal koˈlon]
   - Portuguese: *Cristóvão Colombo* [kɾiʃˈtɔvɐ̃w kuˈlõbu]
   - Catalan: *Cristòfor* (or *Cristòfol*) *Colom* [kɾisˈtɔfuɾ kuˈlom, -ful k-]
   - Italian: *Cristoforo Colombo* [kriˈstɔːforo koˈlombo]
   - Ligurian: *Cristoffa C(or)ombo* [kɾiˈʃtɔffa kuˈruŋbu, – ˈkuŋbu]
   - Latin: *Christophorus Columbus*.

c.

d. Though the modern state of Italy had yet to be established, the Latin equivalent of the term *Italian* had been in use for natives of the region since antiquity; most scholars believe Columbus was born in Genoa.[4]

e. In an account of his fourth voyage, Columbus wrote that "Jerusalem and Mount Sion must be rebuilt by Christian hands".[54]

f. Ferdinand later claimed credit for being "the principal cause why those islands were discovered."[92]

g. Felipe Fernández-Armesto points out that Columbus briefly described South America as an unknown continent after seeing the mainland for the first time. Vespucci seems to have modeled his naming of the "new world" after Columbus's description of this discovery. Further, mapmaker Martin Waldseemüller eventually retracted his naming of the continent after Vespucci, seemingly after it came to light that a claim that Vespucci visited the mainland before Columbus had been falsified. In his new map, Waldseemüller labelled the continent as *Terra Incognita* ('unknown land'), noting that it had been discovered by Columbus.[104]

h. This map is based on the premise that Columbus first landed at Plana Cays.[105] The island considered by Samuel Eliot Morison to be the most likely location of first contact[106] is the easternmost land touching the top edge of this image.
i. According to Samuel Eliot Morison, San Salvador Island, renamed from Watling's Island in 1925 in the belief that it was Columbus's San Salvador,[115] is the only island fitting the position indicated by Columbus's journal. Other candidates are the Grand Turk, Cat Island, Rum Cay, Samana Cay, or Mayaguana.[106]
j. Torres spoke Hebrew and some Arabic; the latter was then believed to be the mother tongue of all languages.[127]
k. Omitted from this image, Columbus returned to Guadeloupe at the end of his second voyage before sailing back to Spain.[142]
l. The tribute system had all but collapsed by 1497.[162]
m. Bobadilla's 48-page report, derived from the testimonies of 23 people who had seen or heard about the treatment meted out by Columbus and his brothers—had originally been lost for centuries, but was rediscovered in 2005 in the Spanish archives in Valladolid. It contained an account of Columbus's seven-year reign as the first governor of the Indies. Consuelo Varela, a Spanish historian, states: "Even those who loved him [Columbus] had to admit the atrocities that had taken place."[181]
n. DNA from Columbus's presumed remains in Seville were to be used to conduct further ancestral studies, with results initially expected in 2021.[234]
o. This same year, dust collected from these remains was placed in a locket, which was placed inside the stern of a silver model caravel. Two tiny portions of dust from the same source were placed in separate vials.[236]
p. Osborne erroneously cited the bullet as evidence that the remains belonged to Columbus.[237][235] (England's Francis Drake, a subsequent infamous explorer, took the ball of an arquebus in the Indies.)[238]
q. In his 2008 book, author Tony Horwitz recounts his attempt to see these remains, which are apparently briefly displayed in their crypt (behind a sheet of glass) once a year on Columbus Day.[239]
r. See: Columbus Monument, Barcelona (1888), Monument to the Discoverers (1892), Monument to Columbus (Madrid) (1892), Monument to Isabella the Catholic (Granada) (1892), Monument to Columbus (Salamanca) (1893), Monument to Columbus (Valladolid) (inaugurated in 1905, but whose inception dates to an earlier date and a tentative location in Spanish Havana).
s. Cuneo wrote,
While I was in the boat, I captured a very beautiful Carib woman, whom the said Lord Admiral gave to me. When I had taken her to my cabin she was naked—as was their custom. I was filled with a desire to take my pleasure with her and attempted to satisfy my desire. She was unwilling, and so treated me with her

nails that I wished I had never begun. But—to cut a long story short—I then took a piece of rope and whipped her soundly, and she let forth such incredible screams that you would not have believed your ears. Eventually we came to such terms, I assure you, that you would have thought that she had been brought up in a school for whores.[309]

t. Author Tony Horwitz notes that this is the first recorded instance of sexuality between a European and Native American.[310]

u. Bartolomé de las Casas estimated that there were three to four million Indigenous people in Hispaniola, and said 500,000 Lucayans were killed in the Bahamas. Most modern historians reject his figures.[325]

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substance to a New World. Whereas *discovery* marks a happening, an event, *encounter* conveys better the idea of the political journey that has brought us to the reality of today, spanning the five hundred years since 1492... These historical and political milestones are valuable because they relate the present to both the past and the future. It was inevitable that history written from a Eurocentric standpoint should speak in terms of discovery and it is equally inevitable that, as history has now come to be seen in universal terms, we should have adopted so evocative a term as encounter.

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Taino population, together promoted the genocide of the Taino people... Disease, only in combination with this cycle of brutal colonial violence, could produce the death toll that we see on the island of Española. Therefore, at best, the theory that disease did the business of killing and not the invaders can only be seen as a gratuitous colonizer apologetic designed to absolve the guilt of the continued occupation and exploitation of the Indigenous people of this continent. However, the truth of the matter is much worse and should be called by its appropriate name: American holocaust denial.

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- *Journals and Admiral of Other Documents on the Life and Voyages of Christopher Columbus*, translated and edited by Samuel Eliot Morison in PDF format
- Excerpts from the log of Christopher Columbus's first voyage
- The Letter of Columbus to Luis de Sant Angel Announcing His Discovery
- Columbus Monuments Pages (overview of monuments for Columbus all over the world)
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History of the Americas

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Spanish Empire

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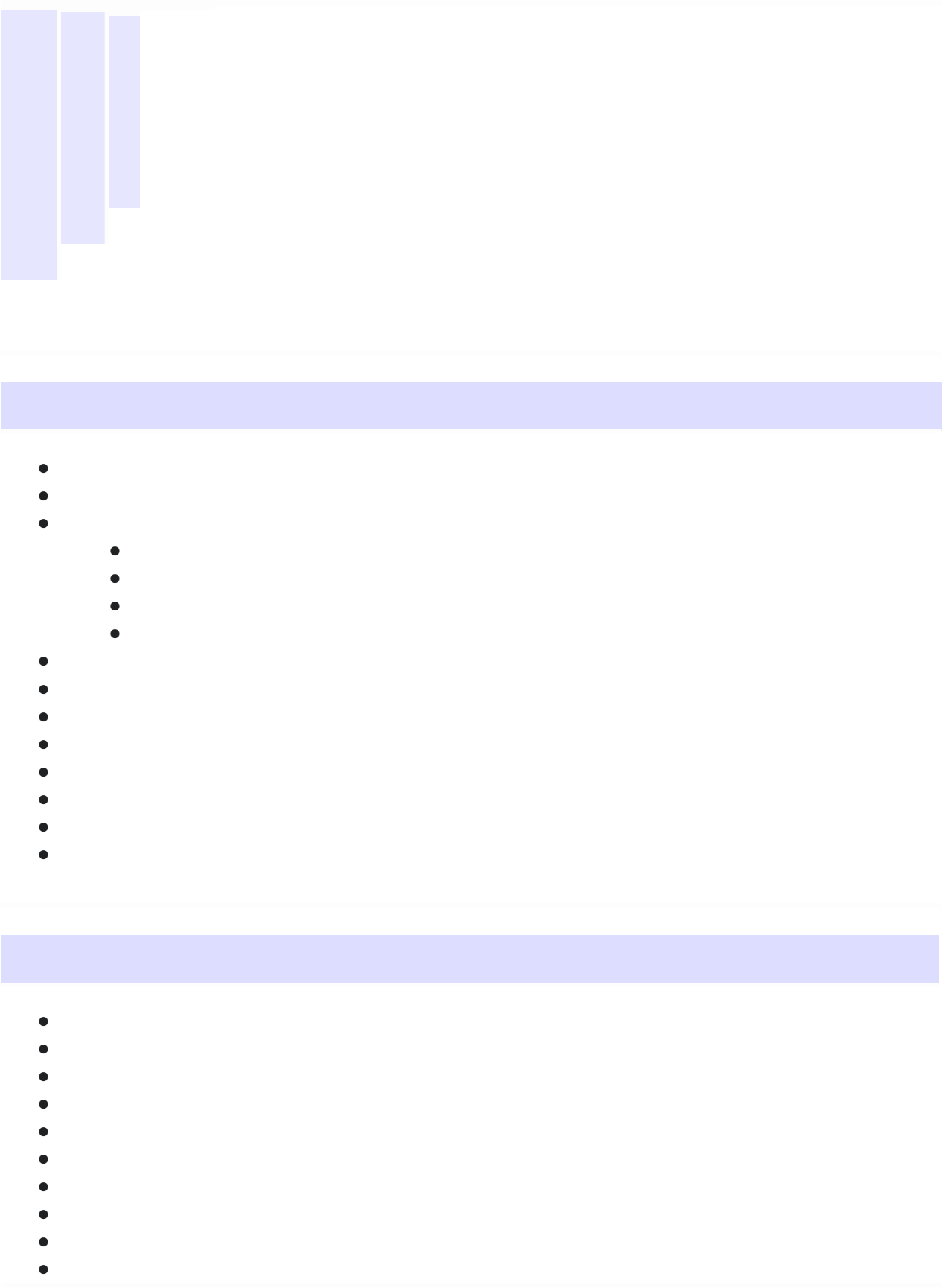

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- Christopher Columbus
- 1451 births
- 1506 deaths
- 1490s in the Caribbean
- 1492 in North America
- 15th-century apocalypticists
- 15th-century Genoese people
- 15th-century Italian explorers
- 15th-century Roman Catholics
- 16th-century diarists
- 16th-century Genoese people
- Burials at Seville Cathedral

Colonial governors of Santo Domingo
Columbus family
Explorers from the Republic of Genoa
Explorers of Central America
Italian expatriates in Spain
Italian explorers of North America
Italian explorers of South America
Italian people imprisoned abroad
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Palmarian saints
Foreign nationals imprisoned in Spain
Spanish exploration in the Age of Discovery
Perpetrators of Indigenous genocides in North America

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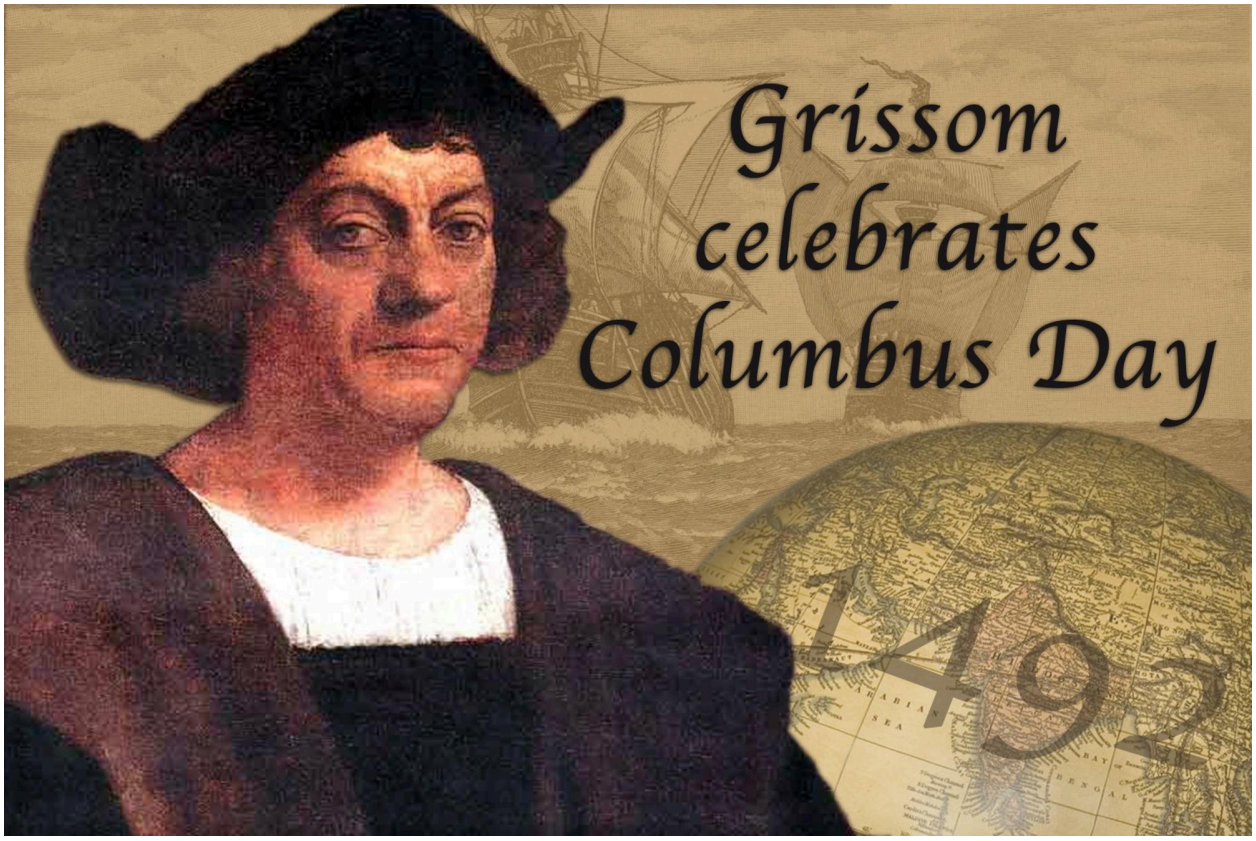
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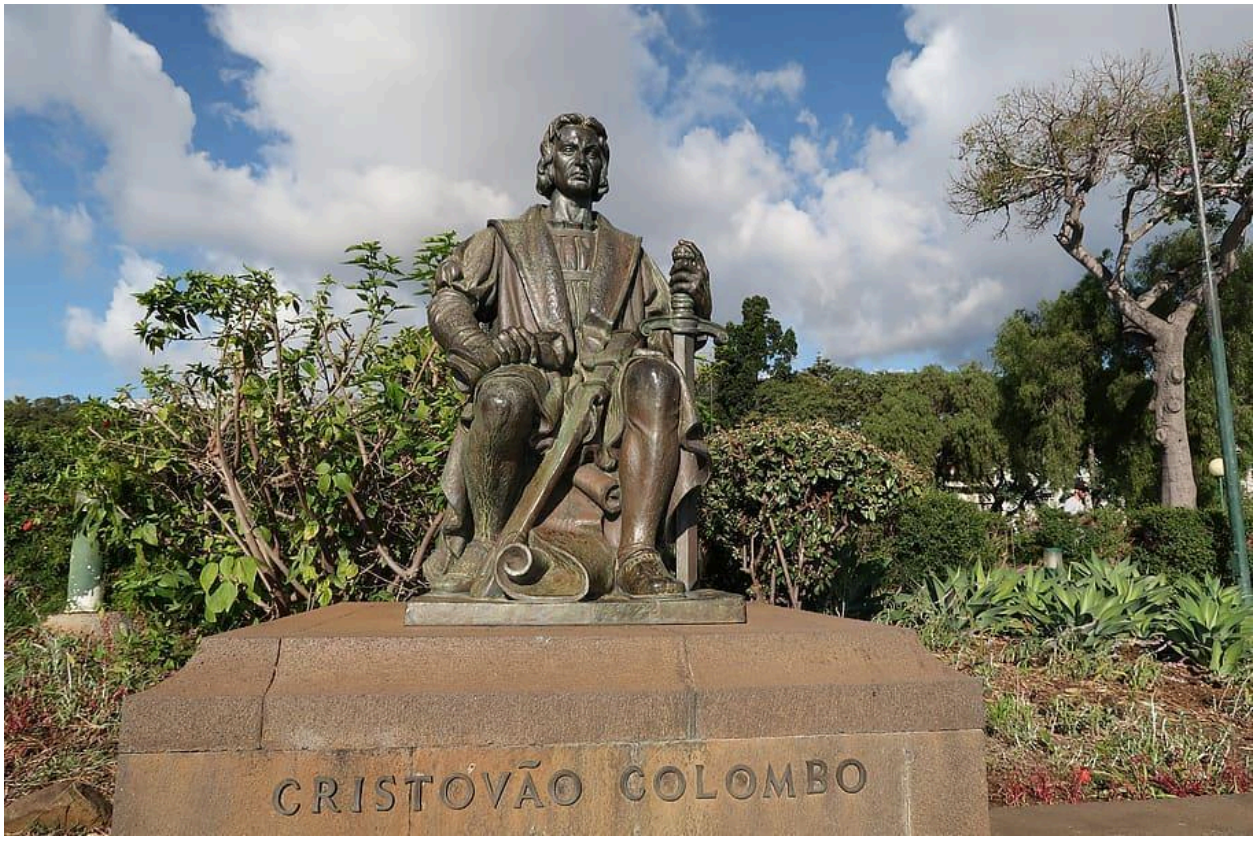
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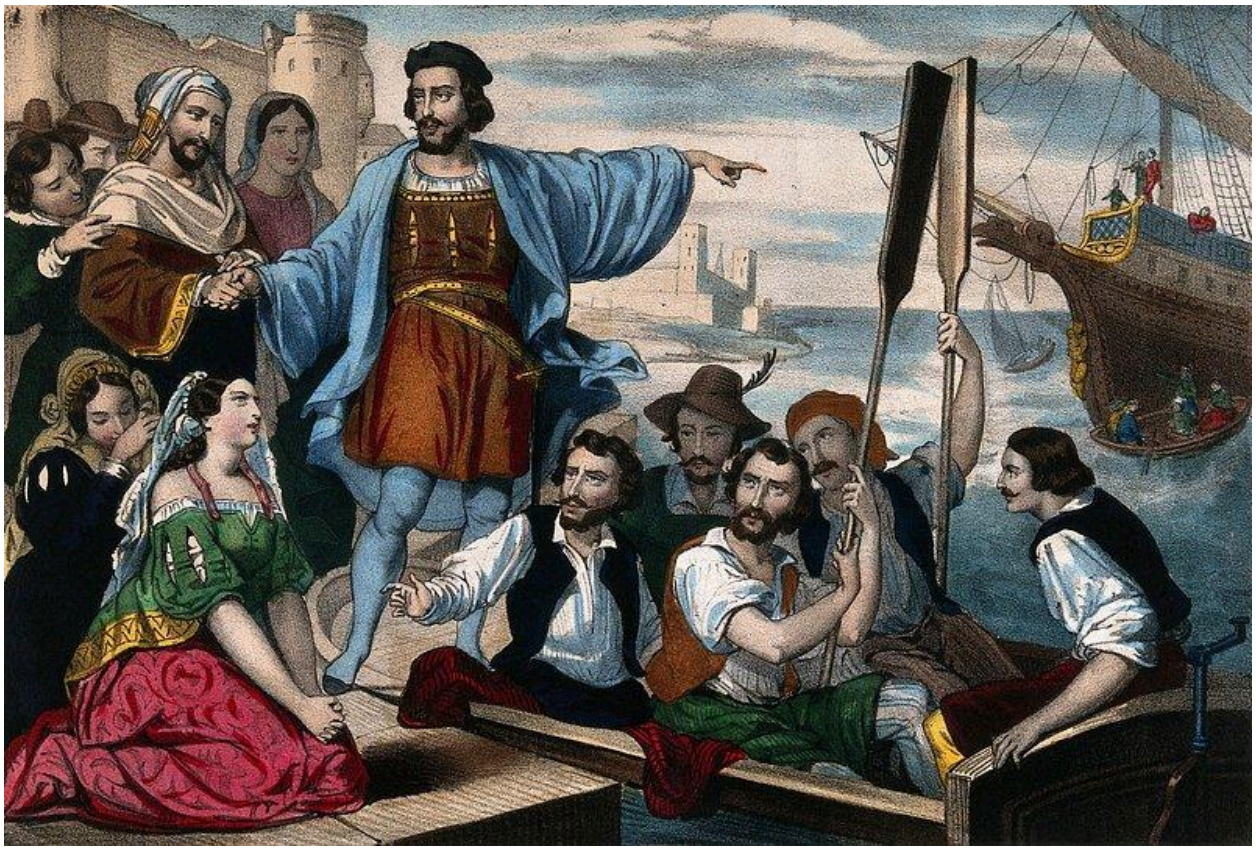

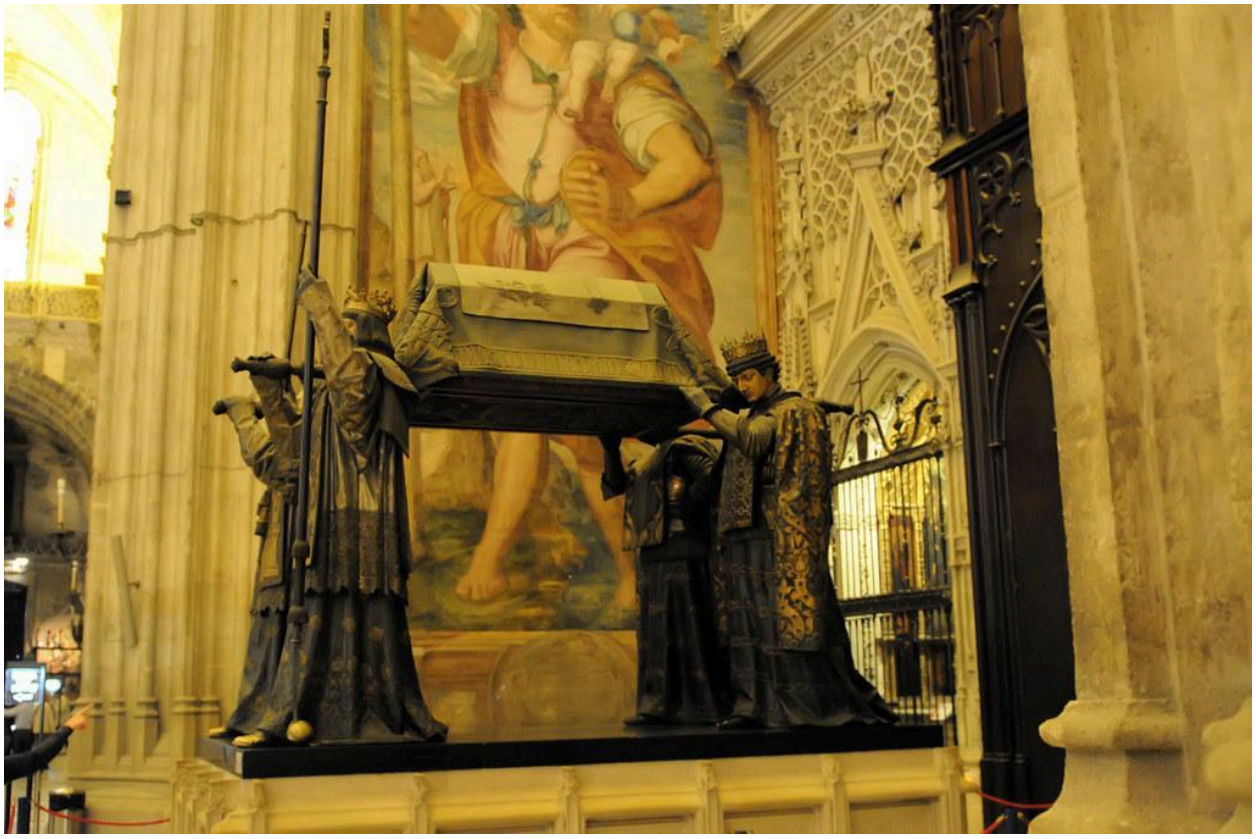

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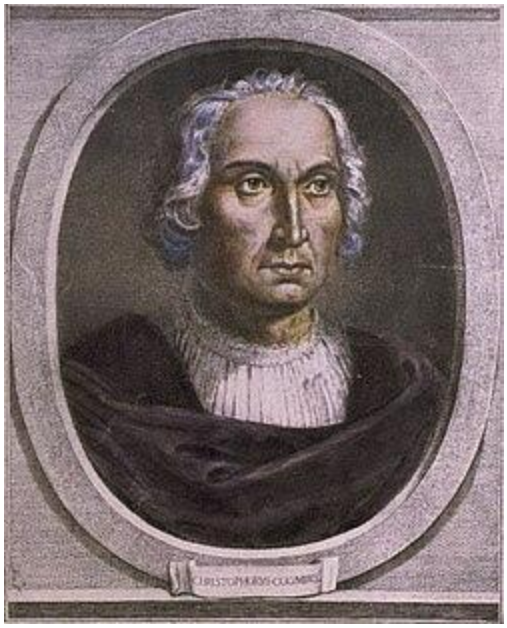
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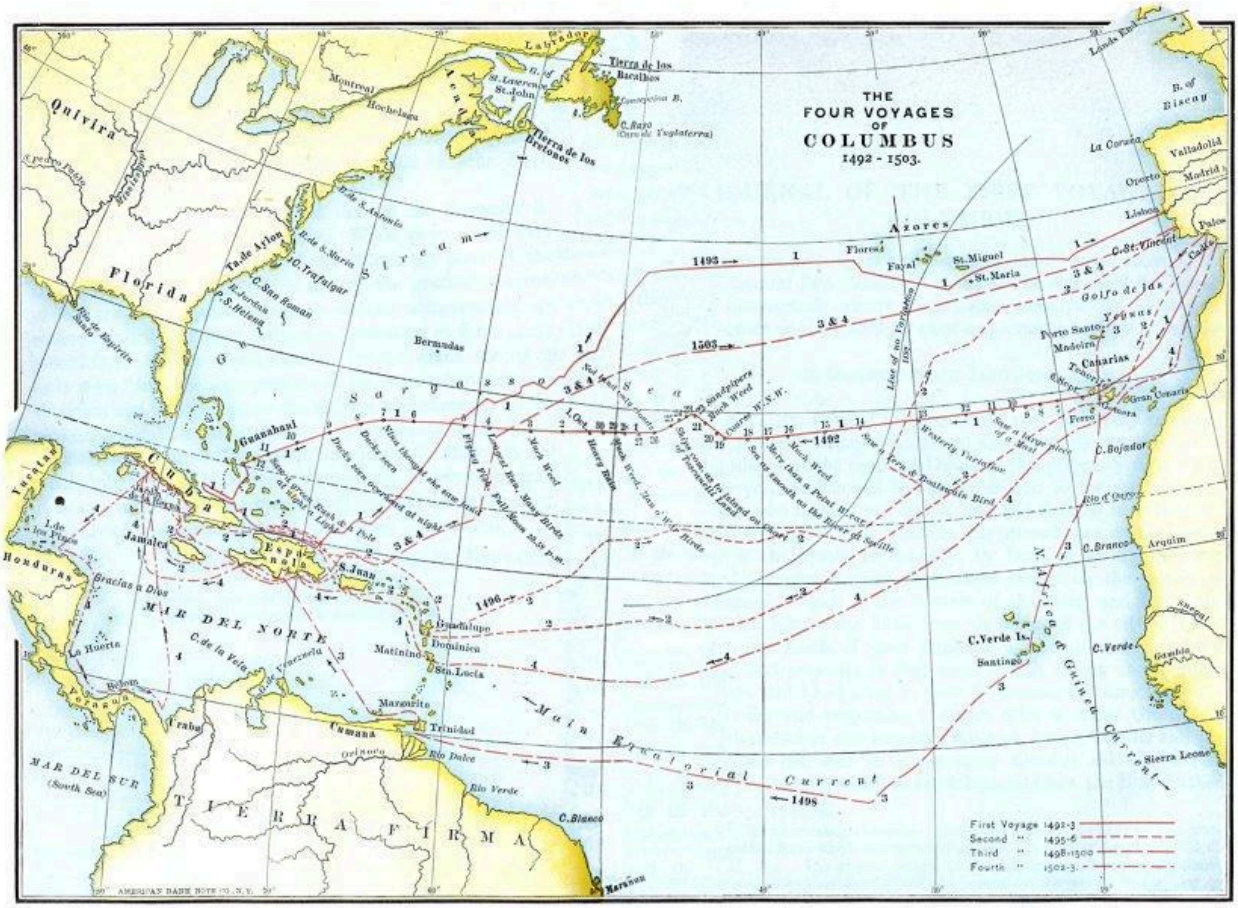
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MAR DEL SUR
(South Sea)
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Cumana
Trinidad
Marguerite
Guadalupe
Dominica
Matinino
Sta. Lucia
Main Equatorial Current
Tierra de los Bacalhos
Tierra de los Bretones
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Montreal
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Azores
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CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS AT THE ROYAL COURT OF SPAIN

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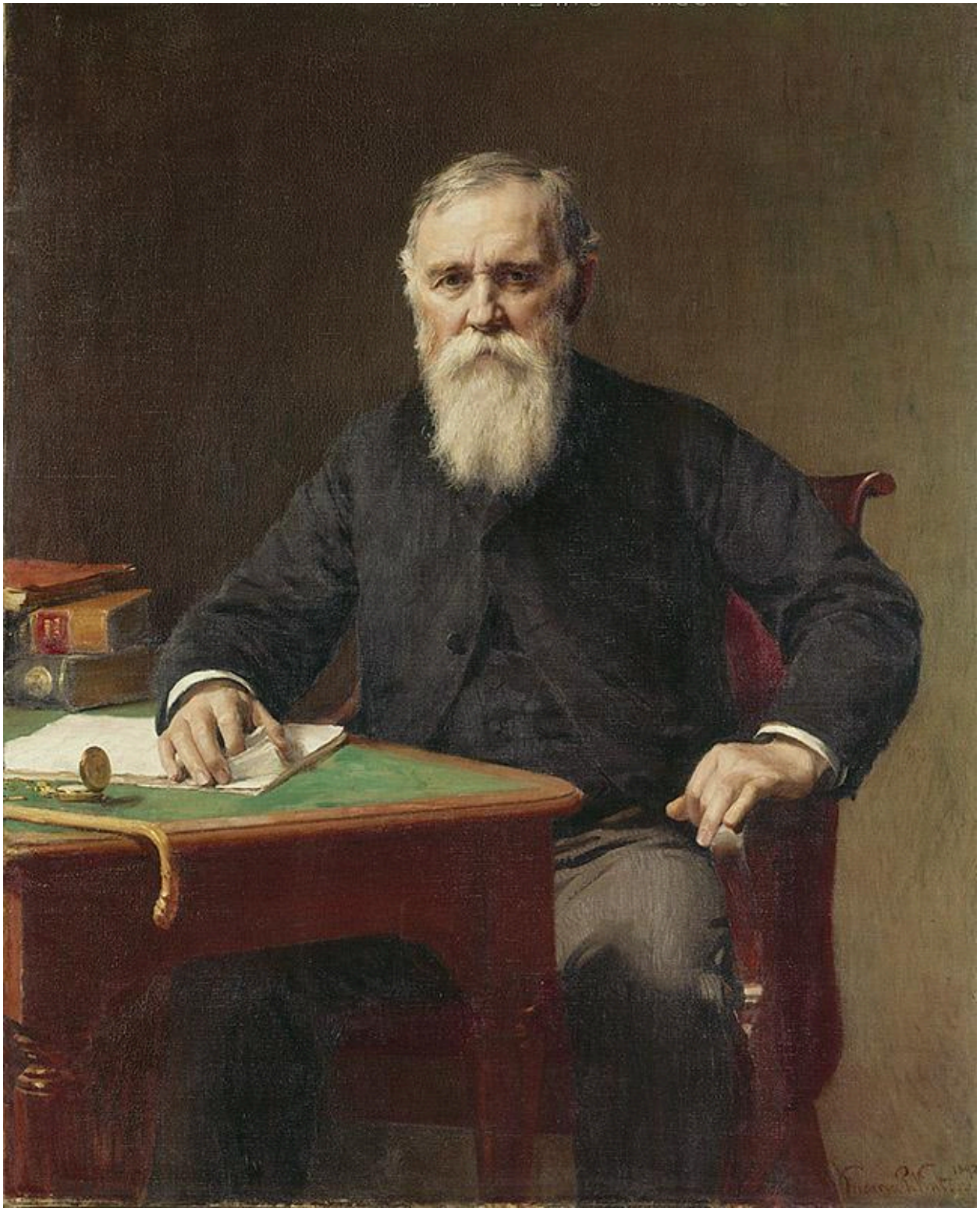

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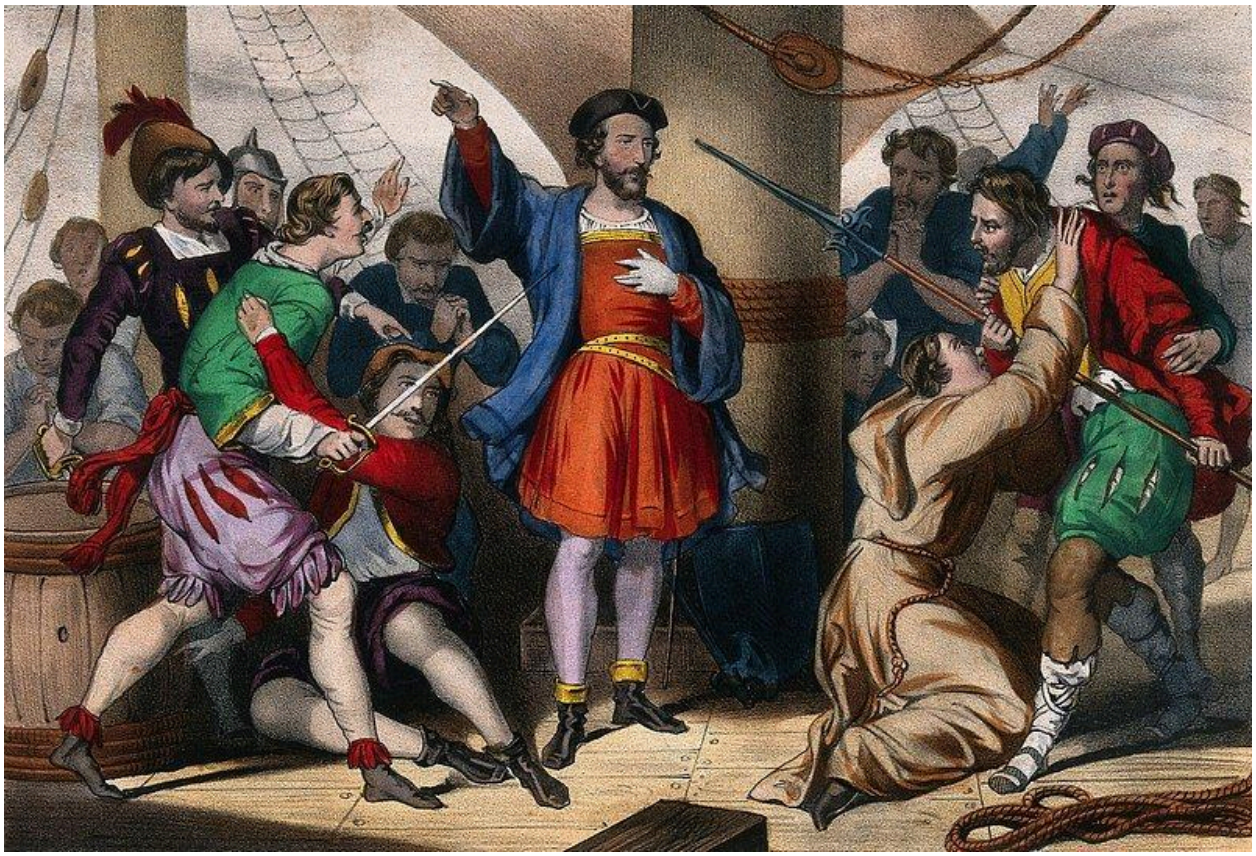


Amerigo Vespucci

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

This article is about the explorer. For other uses, see Amerigo Vespucci (disambiguation).

Amerigo Vespucci

Portrait attrib. Crispijn van de Passe the Elder, c. 1590–1637

Born	9 March 1454 Florence, Republic of Florence
Died	22 February 1512 (aged 57) Seville, Crown of Castile
Other names	*Américo Vespucio* (Spanish) *Americus Vespucius* (Latin) *Américo Vespúcio* (Portuguese)

Citizenship	Republic of Florence Crown of Castile (since 1508)
Occupations	• Merchant • explorer • cartographer
Known for	Demonstrating to Europeans that the New World was not Asia but a previously unknown fourth continent,[a] after whom the Americas are named.
Relatives	Agostino Vespucci (cousin) Simonetta Vespucci (cousin-in-law) Catalina de Medrano (niece-in-law)

Signature

Amerigo Vespucci[b] (9 March 1454 – 22 February 1512) was an Italian explorer and navigator from the Republic of Florence after whom America is named.

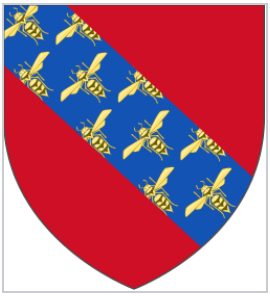
Vespucci participated in at least two voyages of the Age of Discovery between 1497 and 1504, first on behalf of Spain (1499–1500) and then for Portugal (1501–1502). In 1503 and 1505, two booklets were published under his name containing colourful descriptions of these explorations and other voyages. Both publications were extremely popular and widely read throughout much of Europe. Historians still dispute the authorship and veracity of these accounts, but they were instrumental in raising awareness of the discoveries and enhancing the reputation of Vespucci as an explorer and navigator.

Vespucci claimed to have understood in 1501 that Brazil was part of a fourth continent unknown to Europeans, which he called the "New World" (Mundus Novus). The claim inspired cartographer Martin Waldseemüller to recognize Vespucci's accomplishments in 1507 by applying the Latinized form "America" to a map showing the New World. Other cartographers followed suit, securing the tradition of marking the name "America" on maps of the newly discovered continents. It is unknown whether Vespucci was ever aware of these honours.

In 1505, he was made a subject of Castile by royal decree, and he was appointed to the position of *piloto mayor* (master navigator) for Spain's *Casa de Contratación* (House of Trade) in Seville in 1508, a post which he held until his death in 1512.

Early life and education

Vespucci was born on 9 March 1454 in Florence, a wealthy Italian city-state and a center of Renaissance art and learning.[2]



Coats of arms of the House of Vespucci

Portrait of a young member of the Vespucci family, identified as Amerigo by Giorgio Vasari[3]

Amerigo Vespucci was the third son of Nastagio Vespucci, a Florentine notary for the Money-Changers Guild, and Lisa di Giovanni Mini.[4][5] The family resided in the District of Santa Lucia d'Ognissanti along with other families of the Vespucci clan. Earlier generations of Vespucci had funded a family chapel in the Ognissanti church, and the nearby Hospital of San Giovanni di Dio was founded by Simone di Piero Vespucci in 1380. Vespucci's immediate family was not especially prosperous but they were politically well-connected. Amerigo's grandfather, also named Amerigo Vespucci, served a total of 36 years as the chancellor of the Florentine government, known as the

Signoria; and Nastagio also served in the *Signoria* and in other guild offices.[5][6] More importantly, the Vespuccis had good relations with Lorenzo de' Medici, the powerful de facto ruler of Florence.[7]

Amerigo's two older brothers, Antonio and Girolamo, were sent to the University of Pisa for their education; Antonio followed his father to become a notary, while Girolamo entered the Church and joined the Knights Hospitaller in Rhodes.[8] Amerigo's career path seemed less certain; instead of following his brothers to the university, he remained in Florence and was tutored by his uncle, Giorgio Antonio Vespucci, a Dominican friar in the monastery of San Marco. Fortunately for Amerigo, his uncle was one of the most celebrated humanist scholars in Florence at the time and provided him with a broad education in literature, philosophy, rhetoric, and Latin. He was also introduced to geography and astronomy, subjects that played an essential part in his career. Amerigo's later writings demonstrated a familiarity with the work of the classic Greek cosmographers, Ptolemy and Strabo, and the more recent work of Florentine astronomer Paolo dal Pozzo Toscanelli.[9]

Early career

In 1478, Guido Antonio Vespucci, Amerigo's other uncle, led a Florentine diplomatic mission to Paris and invited his younger cousin, Amerigo Vespucci, to join him. Amerigo's role is not clear, but it was likely as an attache or private secretary. Along the way they had business in Bologna, Milan, and Lyon. Their objective in Paris was to obtain French support for Florence's war with Naples. Louis XI was noncommittal and the diplomatic mission returned to Florence in 1481 with little to show for their efforts.[10][11]

After his return from Paris, Amerigo worked for a time with his father and continued his studies in science.[6][page needed] In 1482, when his father died, Amerigo went to work for Lorenzo di Pierfrancesco de' Medici, head of a junior branch of the Medici family. Although Amerigo was twelve years older, they had been schoolmates under the tutelage of Giorgio Antonio Vespucci. Amerigo served first as a household manager and then gradually took on increasing responsibilities, handling various business dealings for the family both at home and abroad.[12] Meanwhile, he continued to show an interest in geography, at one point buying an expensive map made by the master cartographer Gabriel de Vallseca.[13][11]

Seville

In 1488, Lorenzo di Pierfrancesco became dissatisfied with his Seville business agent, Tomasso Capponi. He dispatched Vespucci to investigate the situation and provide an assessment of a suggested replacement, Florentine merchant Gianotto Berardi. Vespucci's findings have been lost but Capponi returned to Florence around this time and Berardi took over the Medici business in Seville.[11][page needed] In addition to managing Medici's trade in Seville, Berardi had his own business in African slavery and ship chandlery.[14]

By 1492, Vespucci had settled permanently in Seville. His motivations for leaving Florence are unclear; he continued to transact some business on behalf of his Medici patrons but more and more he became involved with Berardi's other activities, most notably his support of Christopher Columbus's voyages. Berardi invested half a million *maravedis* in Columbus's first voyage, and he won a potentially lucrative contract to provision Columbus's large second fleet. However, profits proved to be elusive. In 1495,

Berardi signed a contract with the crown to send 12 resupply ships to Hispaniola but then died unexpectedly in December without completing the terms of the contract.[15][16]

Vespucci was the executor of Berardi's will, collecting debts and paying outstanding obligations for the firm. Afterwards he was left owing 140,000 *maravedis*. He continued to provision ships bound for the West Indies, but his opportunities were diminishing; Columbus's expeditions were not providing the hoped-for profits, and his patron, Lorenzo di Pierfrancesco Medici, was using other Florentine agents for his business in Seville.[17][18]

Sometime after he settled in Seville, Vespucci married a Spanish woman, Maria Cerezo. Very little is known about her; Vespucci's will refers to her as the daughter of celebrated military leader Gonzalo Fernández de Córdoba. Historian Fernández-Armesto speculates that she may have been Gonzalo's illegitimate offspring and a connection that would have been very useful to Vespucci. She was an active participant in his business and held power of attorney for Vespucci when he was away.[19]

Voyages and alleged voyages

Depiction of Vespucci's first encounter with Native Americans, alleged to have occurred in 1497 (De Bry engraving, c. 1592)

The evidence for Vespucci's voyages of exploration consists almost entirely of a handful of letters written by him or attributed to him.[20] Historians have differed sharply on the authorship, accuracy and veracity of these documents. Consequently, opinions also vary widely regarding the number of voyages undertaken, their routes, and Vespucci's roles and accomplishments.[21] Starting in the late 1490s Vespucci participated in two voyages to the New World that are relatively well-documented in the historical record. Two others have been alleged but the evidence is more problematic. Traditionally, Vespucci's voyages are referred to as the "first" through "fourth", even by historians who dismiss one or more of the trips.

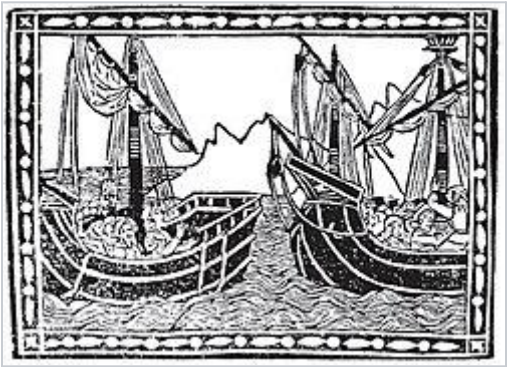
Alleged voyage of 1497–1498

A letter, addressed to Florentine official Piero Soderini, dated 1504 and published the following year,[22] purports to be an account by Vespucci of a voyage to the New World, departing from Spain on 10 May 1497, and returning on 15 October 1498. This is perhaps the most controversial of Vespucci's voyages, as this letter is the only known record of its occurrence, and many historians doubt that it took place as described. Some question the authorship and accuracy of the letter and consider it to be a forgery.[23] Others point to the inconsistencies in the narrative of the voyage, particularly the alleged course, starting near Honduras and proceeding northwest for 870 leagues (about 5,130 km or 3,190 mi)—a course that would have taken them across Mexico to the Pacific Ocean.[24]

Certain earlier historians, including contemporary Bartolomé de las Casas, suspected that Vespucci incorporated observations from a later voyage into a fictitious account of

this supposed first one, so as to gain primacy over Columbus and position himself as the first European explorer to encounter the mainland.[25][26] Others, including scholar Alberto Magnaghi, have suggested that the Soderini letter was not written by Vespucci at all, but rather by an unknown author who had access to the navigator's private letters to Lorenzo de' Medici about his 1499 and 1501 expeditions to the Americas,[26] which make no mention of a 1497 voyage. The Soderini letter is one of two attributed to Vespucci that were edited and widely circulated during his lifetime.[27]

Voyage of 1499–1500



Vespucci's second voyage depicted in the first known edition of his letter to Piero Soderini, published by Pietro Pacini in Florence c. 1505

In 1499, Vespucci joined an expedition licensed by Spain and led by Alonso de Ojeda as fleet commander and Juan de la Cosa as chief navigator. Their intention was to explore the coast of a new landmass found by Columbus on his third voyage and in particular investigate a rich source of pearls that Columbus had reported. Vespucci and his backers financed two of the four ships in the small fleet.[28] His role on the voyage is not clear. Writing later about his experience, Vespucci gave the impression that he had a leadership role, but that is unlikely, due to his inexperience. Instead, he may have

served as a commercial representative on behalf of the fleet's investors. Years later, Ojeda recalled that "Morigo Vespuche" was one of his pilots on the expedition.[29]

The vessels left Spain on 18 May 1499 and stopped first in the Canary Islands before reaching South America somewhere near present-day Suriname or French Guiana. From there the fleet split up: Ojeda proceeded northwest toward modern Venezuela with two ships, while the other pair headed south with Vespucci aboard. The only record of the southbound journey comes from Vespucci himself. He assumed they were on the coast of Asia and hoped by heading south they would, according to the Greek geographer Ptolemy, round the unidentified "Cape of Cattigara" and reach the Indian Ocean. They passed two huge rivers (the Amazon and the Para) which poured freshwater 25 miles (40 km) out to sea. They continued south for another 40 leagues (about 240 km or 150 mi) before encountering a very strong adverse current which they could not overcome. Forced to turn around, the ships headed north, retracing their course to the original landfall. From there Vespucci continued up the South American coast to the Gulf of Paria and along the shore of what is now Venezuela.[30] At some point they may have rejoined Ojeda but the evidence is unclear. In the late summer, they decided to head north for the Spanish colony at Hispaniola in the West Indies to resupply and repair their ships before heading home. After Hispaniola they made a brief slave raid in the Bahamas, capturing 232 Lucayans, and then returned to Spain.[31]

Voyage of 1501–1502

First known depiction of cannibalism in the New World. Engraving by Johann Froschauer for an edition of Vespucci's *Mundus Novus* published in Augsburg in 1505

In 1501, Manuel I of Portugal commissioned an expedition to investigate a landmass far to the west in the Atlantic Ocean encountered unexpectedly by a wayward Pedro Álvares Cabral on his voyage around Africa to India. That land would eventually become present-day Brazil. The king wanted to know the extent of this new discovery and determine where it lay in relation to the line established by the Treaty of Tordesillas. Any land that lay to the east of the line could be claimed by Portugal. Vespucci's reputation as an explorer and presumed navigator had already reached Portugal, and he was hired by the king to serve as pilot under the command of Gonçalo Coelho.[32]

Coelho's fleet of three ships left Lisbon in May 1501. Before crossing the Atlantic they resupplied at Cape Verde, where they encountered Cabral on his way home from his voyage to India. This was the same expedition that had found Brazil on its outward-bound journey the previous year. Coelho left Cape Verde in June, and from this point Vespucci's account is the only surviving record of their explorations. On 17 August 1501 the expedition reached Brazil at a latitude of about 6° south. Upon landing it encountered a hostile band of natives who killed and ate one of its crewmen. Sailing south along the coast they found friendlier natives and were able to engage in some minor trading. At 23° S they found a bay which they named Rio de Janeiro because it was 1 January 1502. On 13 February 1502, they left the coast to return home. Vespucci

estimated their latitude at 32° S but experts now estimate they were closer to 25° S. Their homeward journey is unclear since Vespucci left a confusing record of astronomical observations and distances travelled.[33]

Alleged voyage of 1503–1504

In 1503, Vespucci may have participated in a second expedition for the Portuguese crown, again exploring the east coast of Brazil. There is evidence that a voyage was led by Coelho at about this time but no independent confirmation that Vespucci took part.[34] The only source for this last voyage is the Soderini letter;[35] but several modern scholars dispute Vespucci's authorship of that letter and it is uncertain whether Vespucci undertook this trip. There are also difficulties with the reported dates and details in the account of this voyage.[36]

Return to Seville

Tomb of the Vespucci family in Ognissanti, Florence

By early 1505, Vespucci was back in Seville. His reputation as an explorer and navigator continued to grow and his recent service in Portugal did not seem to damage

his standing with King Ferdinand. On the contrary, the king was likely interested in learning about the possibility of a western passage to India. In February, he was summoned by the king to consult on matters of navigation. During the next few months he received payments from the crown for his services and in April he was declared by royal proclamation a citizen of Castile and León.[37][38]

From 1505 until his death in 1512, Vespucci remained in service to the Spanish crown. He continued his work as a chandler, supplying ships bound for the Indies. He was also hired to captain a ship as part of a fleet bound for the "spice islands" but the planned voyage never took place. In March 1508, he was named chief pilot for the *Casa de Contratación* or House of Commerce which served as a central trading house for Spain's overseas possessions. He was paid an annual salary of 50,000 *maravedis* with an extra 25,000 for expenses. In his new role, Vespucci was responsible for ensuring that ships' pilots were adequately trained and licensed before sailing to the New World. He was also charged with compiling a "model map", the *Padrón Real*, based on input from pilots who were obligated to share what they learned after each voyage.[39]

Vespucci wrote his will in April 1511. He left most of his modest estate, including five household slaves, to his wife. His clothes, books, and navigational equipment were left to his nephew Giovanni Vespucci. He requested to be buried in a Franciscan habit in his wife's family tomb. Vespucci died on 22 February 1512.[40]

Upon his death, Vespucci's wife was awarded an annual pension of 10,000 *maravedis* to be deducted from the salary of the successor chief pilot.[41] His nephew Giovanni was hired into the *Casa de Contratación* where he spent his subsequent years spying on behalf of the Florentine state.[42]

Naming of America

Main article: Naming of the Americas

"On a former occasion I wrote to you at some length concerning my return from those new regions which we found and explored with the fleet, at the cost, and by the command of this Most Serene King of Portugal. And these we may rightly call a new world. Because our ancestors had no knowledge of them, and it will be a matter wholly new to all those who hear about them."

—Amerigo Vespucci, *Mundus Novus*, Letter to Lorenzo di Pierfrancesco de' Medici (1502/1503)[43]

Allegory of the New World by Stradanus, depicting Vespucci that awakens the sleeping America

Vespucci's voyages became widely known in Europe after two accounts attributed to him were published between 1503 and 1505. The Soderini letter (1505) came to the attention of a group of humanist scholars studying geography in Saint-Dié, a small French town in the Duchy of Lorraine. Led by Walter Lud, the academy included Matthias Ringmann and Martin Waldseemüller. In 1506, they obtained a French translation of the Soderini letter as well as a Portuguese maritime map that detailed the coast of lands recently discovered in the western Atlantic. They surmised that this was

the "new world" or the "antipodes" hypothesized by classical writers.[44] The Soderini letter gave Vespucci credit for discovery of this new continent and implied that the Portuguese map was based on his explorations.[45]

In April 1507, Ringmann and Waldseemüller published their *Introduction to Cosmography* with an accompanying world map. The *Introduction* was written in Latin and included a Latin translation of the Soderini letter. In a preface to the *Letter*, Ringmann wrote

I see no reason why anyone could properly disapprove of a name derived from that of Amerigo, the discoverer, a man of sagacious genius. A suitable form would be Amerige, meaning Land of Amerigo, or America, since Europe and Asia have received women's names.[46]

A thousand copies of the world map were printed with the title *Universal Geography According to the Tradition of Ptolemy and the Contributions of Amerigo Vespucci and Others*. It was decorated with prominent portraits of Ptolemy and Vespucci and, for the first time, the name America was applied to a map of the New World.[47]

The *Introduction* and map were a great success and four editions were printed in the first year alone. The map was widely used in universities and was influential among cartographers who admired the craftsmanship that went into its creation. In the following years, other maps were printed that often incorporated the name America. In 1538, Gerardus Mercator used America to name both the North and South continents on his influential map. By this point the tradition of marking the name "America" on maps of the New World was secure.[48]

In 1513 Waldseemüller published a new map with the New World labelled "Terra Incognita" instead of "America", and the accompanying text names Columbus as discoverer.[49] Many supporters of Columbus felt that Vespucci had stolen an honour that rightfully belonged to Columbus. Most historians now believe that Vespucci was unaware of Waldseemüller's map before his death in 1512 and many assert that he was not even the author of the Soderini letter.[50]

Vespucci letters

Woodcut depicting Vespucci's first voyage to the New World, from the first known published edition of his 1504 letter to Piero Soderini

Vespucci finding the Crux constellation with an astrolabe during his 1499 voyage, event described in his Letter to Lorenzo di Pierfrancesco de' Medici. Print includes Vespucci's own allusion to a relevant passage in Dante's *Purgatorio*.

Knowledge of Vespucci's voyages relies almost entirely on a handful of letters written by him or attributed to him.[20] Two of these letters were published during his lifetime and received widespread attention throughout Europe. Several scholars now believe that Vespucci did not write the two published letters in the form in which they circulated during his lifetime. They suggest that they were fabrications based in part on genuine Vespucci letters.[51]

***Mundus Novus* (1503)** was a letter written to Vespucci's former schoolmate and one-time patron, Lorenzo di Pierfrancesco de' Medici. Originally published in Latin, the letter described his voyage to Brazil in 1501–1502 serving under the Portuguese flag. The document proved to be extremely popular throughout Europe. Within a year of publication, twelve editions were printed including translations into Italian, French, German, Dutch and other languages. By 1550, at least 50 editions had been issued.[52]

Letter to Soderini (1505) was a letter ostensibly intended for Piero di Tommaso Soderini, the leader of the Florentine Republic. It was written in Italian and published

in Florence around 1505.[53] It is more sensational in tone than the other letters and the only one to assert that Vespucci made four voyages of exploration. The authorship and the veracity of the letter have been widely questioned by modern historians. Nevertheless, this document was the original inspiration for naming the American continent in honour of Amerigo Vespucci.[54]

The remaining documents were unpublished manuscripts; handwritten letters uncovered by researchers more than 250 years after Vespucci's death. After years of controversy, the authenticity of the three complete letters was convincingly demonstrated by Alberto Magnaghi in 1924. Most historians now accept them as the work of Vespucci but aspects of the accounts are still disputed.[55]

Letter from Seville (1500) describes a voyage made in 1499–1500 while in the service of Spain. It was first published in 1745 by Angelo Maria Bandini.

Letter from Cape Verde (1501) was written in Cape Verde at the outset of a voyage undertaken for Portugal in 1501–1502. It was first published by Count Baldelli Boni in 1807. It describes the first leg of the journey from Lisbon to Cape Verde and provides details about Pedro Cabral's voyage to India which were obtained when the two fleets met by chance while anchored in the harbour at Cape Verde.

Letter from Lisbon (1502) is essentially a continuation of the letter started in Cape Verde. It describes the remainder of a voyage made on behalf of Portugal in 1501–1502. The letter was first published by Francesco Bartolozzi in 1789.

Ridolfi Fragment (1502) is part of a letter attributed to Vespucci but some of its assertions remain controversial. It was first published in 1937 by Roberto Ridolfi. The letter appears to be an argumentative response to questions or objections raised by the unknown recipient. A reference is made to three voyages made by Vespucci, two on behalf of Spain and one for Portugal.

Historiography

Portrait engraving of Vespucci by Crispijn van de Passe, which titles him "discoverer and conqueror of Brazilian land"

Vespucci has been called "the most enigmatic and controversial figure in early American history".[56] The debate has become known among historians as the "Vespucci question". How many voyages did he make? What was his role on the voyages and what did he learn? The evidence relies almost entirely on a handful of letters attributed to him. Many historians have analysed these documents and have arrived at contradictory conclusions.[20]

In 1515, Sebastian Cabot became one of the first to question Vespucci's accomplishments and express doubts about his 1497 voyage. Later, Bartolomé de las Casas argued that Vespucci was a liar and stole the credit that was due Columbus. By 1600, most regarded Vespucci as an impostor and not worthy of his honours and fame.[56] In 1839, Alexander von Humboldt after careful consideration asserted the

1497 voyage was impossible but accepted the two Portuguese-sponsored voyages. Humboldt also called into question the assertion that Vespucci recognized that he had encountered a new continent. According to Humboldt, Vespucci (and Columbus) died in the belief that they had reached the eastern edge of Asia. Vespucci's reputation was perhaps at its lowest in 1856 when Ralph Waldo Emerson called Vespucci a "thief" and "pickle dealer" from Seville who managed to get "half the world baptized with his dishonest name".[25]

Statue of Vespucci outside the Uffizi in Florence, Italy

Opinions began to shift somewhat after 1857 when Brazilian historian Francisco Adolfo de Varnhagen wrote that everything in the Soderini letter was true. Other historians followed in support of Vespucci including John Fiske and Henry Harrisse.[25]

In 1924, Alberto Magnaghi published the results of his exhaustive review of Vespucci's writings and relevant cartography. He denied Vespucci's authorship of the 1503 *Mundus Novus* and the 1505 Letter to Soderini, the only two texts published during his lifetime. He suggested that the Soderini letter was not written by Vespucci, but was cobbled together by unscrupulous Florentine publishers who combined several accounts – some from Vespucci, others from elsewhere. Magnaghi determined that the manuscript letters were authentic and based on them he was the first to propose that only the second and third voyages were true, and the first and fourth voyages (only found in the Soderini letter) were fabrications. While Magnaghi has been one of the chief proponents of a two-voyage narrative, Roberto Levellier was an influential Argentinian historian who endorsed the authenticity of all Vespucci's letters and proposed the most extensive itinerary for his four voyages.[57]

Other modern historians and popular writers have taken varying positions on Vespucci's letters and voyages, espousing two, three, or four voyages and supporting or denying the authenticity of his two printed letters. Most authors believe that the three manuscript letters are authentic while the first voyage as described in the Soderini letter draws the most criticism and disbelief.[*citation needed*]

A two-voyage thesis was accepted and popularized by Frederick J. Pohl (1944), and rejected by Germán Arciniegas (1955), who posited that all four voyages were truthful. Luciano Formisiano (1992) also rejects the Magnaghi thesis (acknowledging that publishers probably tampered with Vespucci's writings) and declares all four voyages genuine, but differs from Arciniegas in details (particularly the first voyage). Samuel Morison (1974) flatly rejected the first voyage but was noncommittal about the two published letters. Felipe Fernández-Armesto (2007) calls the authenticity question "inconclusive" and hypothesizes that the first voyage was probably another version of the second; the third is unassailable, and the fourth is probably true.[58]

Legacy

Amerigo Vespucci monument at El Chicó, Colombia

Vespucci's historical importance may rest more with his letters (whether or not he wrote them all) than his discoveries. Burckhardt cites the naming of America after him as an example of the immense role of the Italian literature of the time in determining historical memory.[59] Within a few years of the publication of his two letters, the European public became aware of the newly discovered continents of the Americas. According to Vespucci:

Concerning my return from those new regions which we found and explored...we may rightly call a new world. Because our ancestors had no knowledge of them, and it will be a matter wholly new to all those who hear about them, for this transcends the view held by our ancients, inasmuch as most of them hold that there is no continent to the south beyond the equator, but only the sea which they named the Atlantic and if some of them did aver that a continent there was, they denied with abundant argument that it was a habitable land. But that this their opinion is false and utterly opposed to the truth...my last voyage has made manifest; for in those southern parts I have found a continent more densely peopled and abounding in animals than our Europe or Asia or Africa, and,

in addition, a climate milder and more delightful than in any other region known to us, as you shall learn in the following account.[60]

Although the term *continent* is used in the above English translation, Vespucci himself does not use it in either the surviving Italian texts nor is it found in contemporary Latin translations. In his letters, Vespucci refers to the newly discovered lands as a "new world" (*novus mundus*) or in Italian as "new land" (*una nuova terra*)[61]. In a 1504 letter to Piero Soderini, Vespucci describes the New World as "*una nuova terra; & la giudicamo essera terra ferma, & continua con la disposa sta mentione*," describing it as a continuous mainland without using the noun *continent*[62]. George Tyler Northrop's translation of this passage is "a new land; and we judged it to be a continent and adjoining that [of which] mention is made above", introducing the term continent where it was not present in the original text[62].

Notes

a. Europeans had long conceptualized the Afro-Eurasian landmass as divided into the same three continents known today: Europe, Asia, and Africa. When cosmographers realized that the New World was not connected to the Old (but before it was fully mapped), they considered the Americas a single, fourth continent.[*citation needed*]
b. Pronounced /vɛˈspuːtʃi/ *vesp-OO-chee*,[1] Italian: [ameˈriːgo veˈsputtʃi]

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AMERIGO VESPVCCI

AMERIC VESPVCE.

AMERIGO VESPUCCI

Dignus ego ante alios magni comes ire Columbi,
Nautalem sub quo didici tolerare magistro
Militiam: hinc proprio pedibus contraria nostris
Regna meo Regi quamplurima Marte subegi,
Testis erit nomen retinens de nomine nostro
Maxima totius pars Orbis America dicta.

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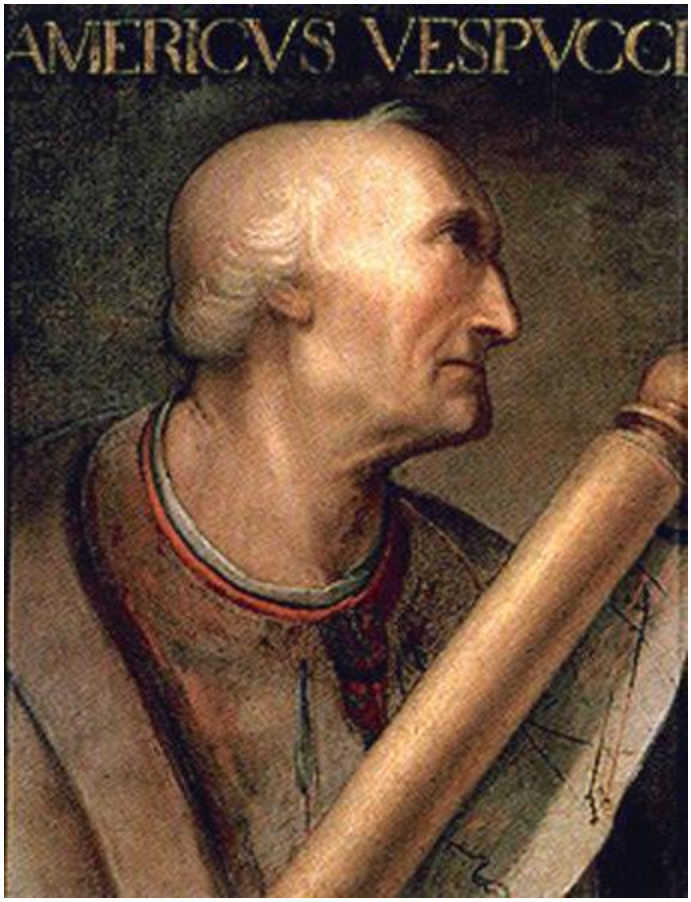
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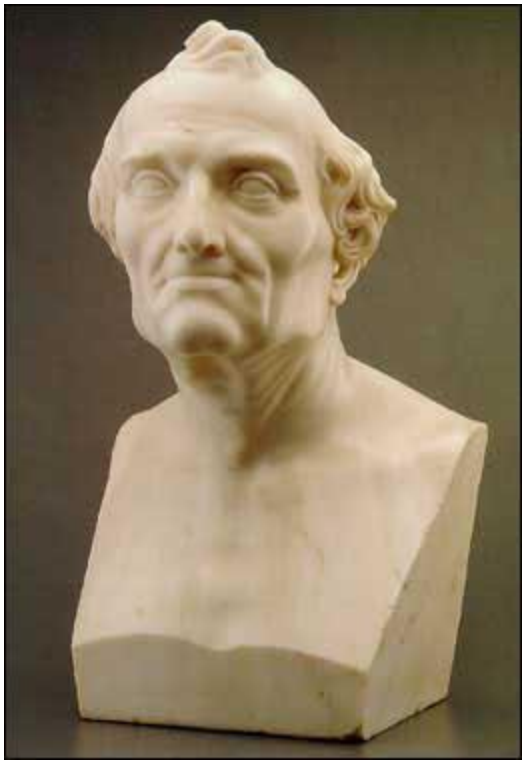

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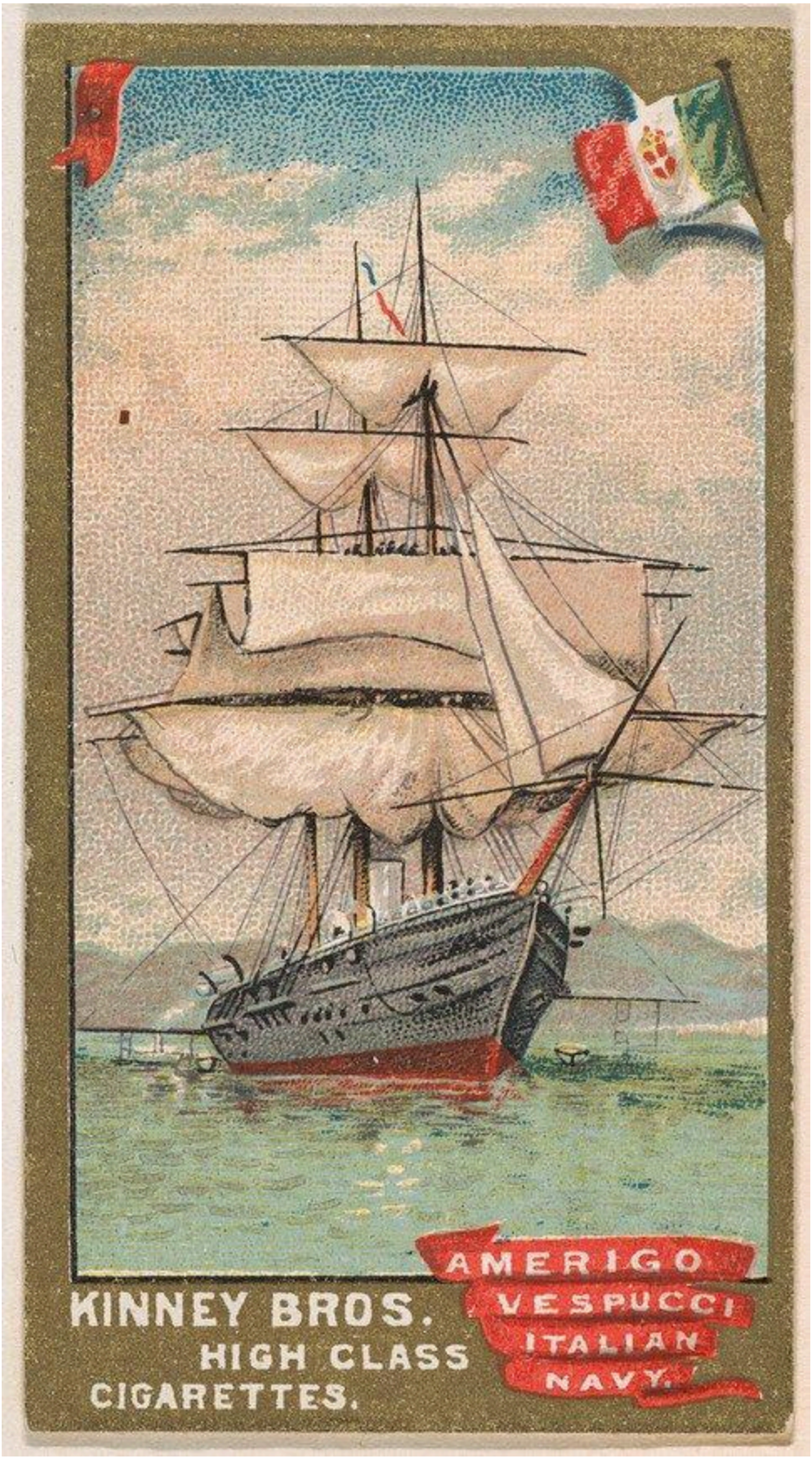
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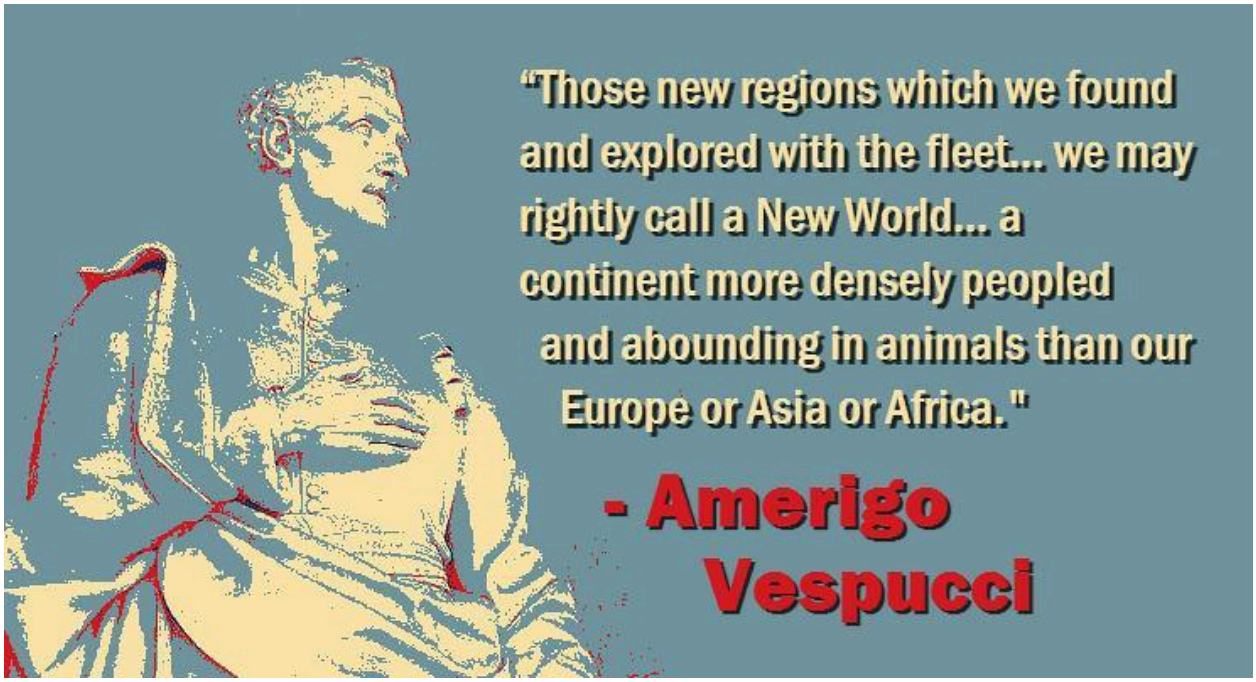
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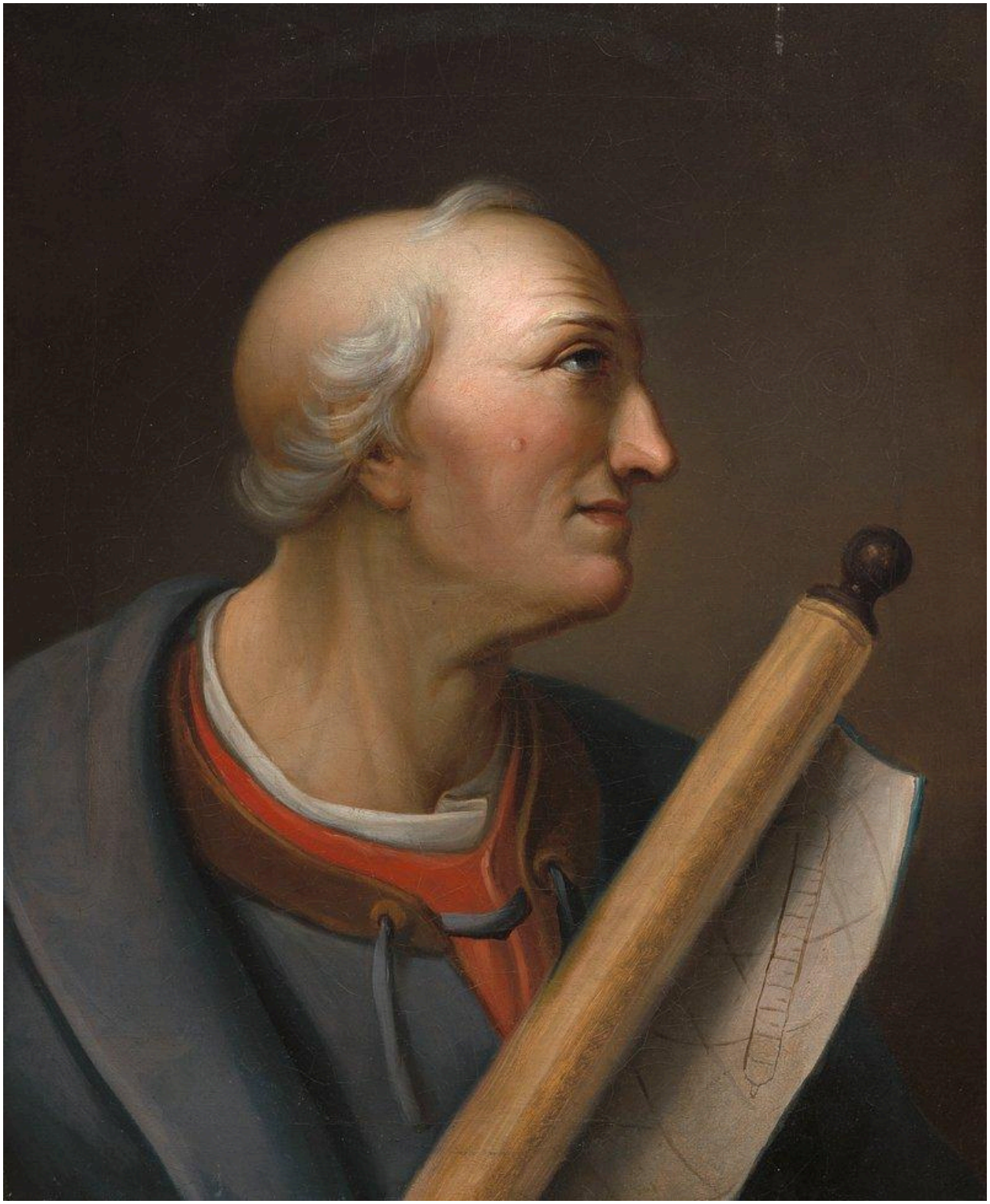
- Amerigo Vespucci



Mayflower

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

For other ships, see List of ships named Mayflower. For other uses, see Mayflower (disambiguation).

Mayflower imagined at sea on an early 20th century post card

History

England

Name	*Mayflower*
Owner	Christopher Jones (¼ of the ship)
Maiden voyage	Before 1609

Out of service	1622–1624
Fate	Most likely taken apart by Rotherhithe shipbreaker c. 1624

General characteristics

Class & type	Probably English-built merchant ship
Tonnage	180+ tons
Length	~80–90 ft (24–27 m) on deck, 100–110 ft (30–34 m) overall
Beam	~25 ft (7.6 m)
Decks	Around 4
Capacity	Unknown, but carried approximately 135 people to Plymouth Colony

Mayflower was an English square-rigged merchant sailing ship, active from before 1609 until 1622. Her tonnage was 180+,[*dubious – discuss*] and she was 110 feet long and 25 feet in the beam, with several decks. She was notable in that she transported a group of English families, known today as the Pilgrims, from England to the New World in 1620.

After 10 weeks at sea, *Mayflower*, with 102 passengers and a crew of about 30, reached what is today the United States, dropping anchor near the tip of Cape Cod, Massachusetts on 21 November [O.S. 11 November] 1620. The Pilgrims, often conflated with the Puritans (who sought to reform and purify the Church of England from within), sought separation from the church and prayed privately. They believed that the church's resistance to reform and its Roman Catholic past left it beyond redemption. Starting in 1608, a group of English families departed England for the Netherlands, where they could worship freely. By 1620, the community resolved to cross the Atlantic Ocean for America, which they considered a "new Promised Land" where they would establish Plymouth Colony.[1]:44

The Pilgrims had originally hoped to reach America by early October using two ships, and had a second arranged for the voyage, *Speedwell*, which, however, proved unseaworthy and so was left behind in England. The ensuing delays and complications restricted the Pilgrims' journey to a single ship, *Mayflower*. Before disembarking from her, they wrote and signed the Mayflower Compact, an agreement that established a rudimentary government in which each member would contribute to the safety and welfare of the planned settlement.[2] Arriving in November, they were unprepared to endure a harsh winter. Local indigenous peoples assisted the colonists in gathering food, but only half of the original Pilgrims survived the first winter at Plymouth following an outbreak of disease. The following year, the survivors celebrated the colony's first fall harvest along with 90 Wampanoag people,[3] an occasion declared in centuries later as

the first American Thanksgiving.[4] As one of the earliest colonial vessels, *Mayflower* has become a cultural icon in the history of the United States.[2]

No record of the ship herself exists after 1624, when she was appraised at Rotherhithe; she is believed to have been broken up and her timbers used for building construction.

Motivations for the voyage

See also: Pilgrims (Plymouth Colony) § History

A congregation of approximately 400 English Protestants living in exile in Leiden, Holland were dissatisfied with the failure of the Church of England to eliminate its excesses and abuses. Rather than work for change in England (as other Puritans did), they chose to live as separatists in religiously tolerant Holland in 1608. As separatists, they were considered illegal radicals by their home country.[5]

The Leiden government's reputation for offering financial aid to reformed English, French and German churches caused the city to become a desirable destination for Protestant intellectuals.[1]:17 Many of the separatists were members of an illegal church in Nottinghamshire, England, secretly practicing their Puritan form of Protestantism. When they learned that the authorities were aware of their congregation, church members hurriedly fled in the night without most of their possessions and clandestinely traveled to Holland.[1]:18

Painting by Isaac Claesz Van Swanenburg of workers in Leiden's wool industry

Life in Holland became increasingly difficult for the congregation. They were forced into menial and backbreaking jobs such as cleaning wool, which led to a variety of health afflictions. In addition, a number of the country's leading theologians began engaging in open debates that led to civil unrest, instilling the fear that Spain might again place Holland's population under siege as it had done years earlier.[5] English king James I formed an alliance with Holland against Spain, with a condition outlawing independent English church congregations in Holland.[1]:26 These became the separatists' motivating factors to sail for the New World, beyond the reach of King James and his bishops.[5]

Their desire to travel to America was considered audacious and risky, as previous attempts to settle in North America had failed. During the 1609–10 winter period known as the Starving Time in the Jamestown settlement of the Virginia Colony, 440 of the town's 500 settlers died of starvation.[5] The Puritan separatists also learned of the constant threat of attacks by indigenous peoples.[5] Despite all of the arguments against traveling to the new land, the separatists held a conviction that God had willed them to make the voyage. They wrote, "We verily believe and trust the Lord is with us and that he will graciously prosper our indeavours, according to the simplicity of our hearts therein."[5][6]

Voyage

See also: Pilgrims (Plymouth Colony) § Voyage

Leaving Holland

See also: Pilgrims (Plymouth Colony) § Decision to leave Holland

After deciding to leave Holland, the Pilgrims planned to cross the Atlantic using two purchased ships. The small ship *Speedwell* would first carry them from Leiden to England, and the larger *Mayflower* would transport most of the passengers and supplies across the ocean.[7]

Pilgrims John Carver, William Bradford and Myles Standish at prayer during their voyage to North America. 1844 painting by Robert Walter Weir.

Some of the Separatists were unable to depart, as they did not have enough time to settle their affairs and were unable to afford the necessary travel supplies. The congregation decided that the younger and stronger members should embark on the first journey, with others possibly following in the future. Although the congregation had been led by John Robinson, who first proposed the idea of emigrating to America, he chose to remain in Leiden to care for those who could not make the voyage.[7]

In explaining to his congregation why they should emigrate, Robinson used the analogy of the ancient Israelites leaving Babylon to escape bondage by returning to Jerusalem, where they would build their temple.[8] "The Pilgrims and Puritans actually referred to themselves as God's New Israel", writes Peter Marshall.[8] It was therefore considered the destiny of the Pilgrims and Puritans to similarly build a "spiritual Jerusalem" in America.[8][9]:39

When it was time to leave, the ship's senior leader, Edward Winslow, described the scene of families being separated at the departure: "A flood of tears was poured out. Those not sailing accompanied us to the ship, but were not able to speak to one another for the abundance of sorrow before parting."[10] William Bradford, another leader who would be the second governor of the Plymouth Colony, similarly described the departure:

Truly doleful was the sight of that sad and mournful parting. To see what sighs and sobs and prayers did sound among them; what tears did gush from every eye, and pithy speeches pierced each heart...their Reverend Pastor, falling down on his knees, and they all with him...[11]:23

The trip to the south coast of England took three days, where the ship took anchor at Southampton on 5 August [O.S. 26 July], 1620. At Southampton, the Pilgrims first saw *Mayflower*, which was being loaded with provisions.[7]

Speedwell and *Mayflower*

Mayflower II, a replica of the original *Mayflower*, docked at Plymouth, Massachusetts

Carrying about 65 passengers, *Mayflower* left London in mid-July 1620.[12] The ship proceeded down the Thames to the south coast of England, where it anchored at Southampton, Hampshire. While there, she awaited the planned rendezvous on 22 July with the *Speedwell*, arriving from Holland with members of the Leiden congregation.[7] Although both ships planned to depart for America by the end of July, a leak was discovered on *Speedwell* that required repair.[13]

The ships set sail for America around 5 August, but *Speedwell* sprang another leak shortly after, necessitating the ships' return to Dartmouth for repairs. They made a new start after the repairs, but more than 200 miles (320 km) beyond Land's End at the southwestern tip of England, *Speedwell* sprang a third leak. As it was now early September, with vital funds having been wasted that were crucial to the success of the Pilgrims' settlement in America, *Speedwell*'s journey was scrapped. Both ships returned to Plymouth, England, where 20 *Speedwell* passengers joined the overcrowded *Mayflower*, while the others returned to Holland.[14]

The *Mayflower* crew waited for seven more days until the intensity of the wind increased. William Bradford was especially worried, writing, "We lie here waiting for as

fair a wind as can blow... Our victuals will be half eaten up, I think, before we go from the coast of England; and, if our voyage last long, we shall not have a month's victuals when we come in the country."[15]:343 According to Bradford, *Speedwell* was refitted and seaworthy, having "made many voyages... to the great profit of her owners." He suggested that *Speedwell*'s master may have used "cunning and deceit" to abort the voyage by causing the leaks, fearing starvation and death in America.[16]:28

Mayflower sets sail

Further information on acquisition of the ship and the planning of the voyage: Pilgrims (Plymouth Colony)

> At last the over-full and hitherto baffled *Mayflower* was ready for the third trial. This final voyage would be successful. On 26 September 1620, the gallant little craft slipped out to sea. In proportion to her cubic feet of space, no heavier cargo had ever been shipped across the Atlantic. The entirety of a new church, a new commonwealth, a new nation, all of which were to bless the world, were confined within the limits of *Mayflower's* hold. The course of empire was moving westward indeed.
>
> —Rev. E. W. Bishop[14]

In early September, western gales turned the North Atlantic into a dangerous place to sail. *Mayflower*'s provisions were already quite low when departing Southampton, and they became lower still by delays of more than a month. The passengers had been on board the ship this entire time, weary and ill-prepared for a very taxing, lengthy Atlantic journey in the cramped spaces of a small ship.[16]:29

When *Mayflower* sailed from Plymouth alone on 16 September [O.S. 6 September] 1620, with what Bradford called "a prosperous wind",[16]:29 she carried 102 passengers

and a crew of 25 to 30 officers and men, bringing the total aboard to approximately 130.[17] At about 180 tons, she was considered a smaller cargo ship, having traveled mainly between England and Bordeaux with clothing and wine, not an ocean ship.[a] *Mayflower*'s physical condition was suboptimal, as she was sold for scrap four years after her Atlantic voyage.[1]:39 She was a high-built craft forward and aft, measuring approximately 100 feet (30 m) in length and about 25 feet (7.6 m) at her widest point.[16]:24[18]:37

Voyage across the Atlantic

Mayflower at sea, drawing from a book, c. 1893

The living quarters for the 102 passengers were cramped, with the living area about 20 by 80 feet (6 by 24 m) or 1,600 square feet (150 m^2) and the ceiling about five feet (1.5 m) high.[16]:43 The cabins were thin-walled and extremely cramped. The maximum possible space for each person would have been slightly less than the size of a modern-day single bed.[19] With couples and children packed closely together for a trip

lasting two months, a great deal of trust and confidence was required among everyone aboard.[1]:45

John Carver, one of the leaders on the ship, often inspired the Pilgrims with a "sense of earthly grandeur and divine purpose". He was later called the "Moses of the Pilgrims", notes historian Jon Meacham.[9][20] Author Rebecca Fraser wrote that the Pilgrims "believed they had a covenant like the Jewish people of old" and that "America was the new Promised Land".[1]:44 American writer James Russell Lowell stated, "Next to the fugitives whom Moses led out of Egypt, the little shipload of outcasts who landed at Plymouth are destined to influence the future of the world."[21][22]

The first half of the voyage proceeded over calm seas and under pleasant skies. Then the weather changed, with continuous northeasterly storms and huge waves constantly crashing against the topside deck.[23][*page needed*][16]:4 In the midst of one storm, William Butten, the young, indentured servant of physician Samuel Fuller, died—the sole fatality of the voyage[15]:350—and was buried at sea.[14] A baby was also born, christened Oceanus Hopkins.[14] During another storm, so fierce that the sails could not be used, the ship was forced to drift without hoisting its sails for days to avoid losing her masts.[18]:59 The storm washed passenger John Howland overboard. He sank about 12 feet (4 m) but was rescued when a crew member threw him a rope.[15]:349

Mayflower II cabin interior

The passengers were forced to crouch in semi-darkness below deck. A great deal of seawater from the large and violent waves accumulated aboard the ship and soaked everyone and everything both above and below deck.[1]:50 In mid-ocean, the ship nearly became totally disabled and might have had to return to England or risk sinking. A storm had so badly damaged its main beam that even the sailors despaired. By a stroke of luck, one of the colonists had a metal jackscrew that he had purchased in Holland to help in the construction of the settlers' homes.[15]:349 The crew used the jackscrew to secure the beam, which kept it from cracking further, maintaining the seaworthiness of the vessel.[14]

The ship's cargo included many essential stores that the Pilgrims would need for their journey and future lives. It is assumed that they carried tools, food, weapons and live animals, including dogs, sheep, goats, pigs and poultry, although no cattle or beasts of draft or burden were aboard. The ship held two small 21-foot (6 m) boats powered by oars or sails. There were also artillery pieces aboard to defend the ship from enemy European forces or indigenous tribes.[23][24]

Arrival in America

Landing of the Pilgrims, painting by Charles Lucy (c. 1898)

On 19 November [O.S. 9 November] 1620, the crew sighted present-day Cape Cod.[25]:66[26]:1 They spent several days trying to sail south to their planned destination of the Colony of Virginia, where they had obtained permission to settle from the Company of Merchant Adventurers of London. However, the strong winter seas forced them to return to the harbor at Cape Cod hook, known today as Provincetown Harbor, and with supplies running short, they set anchor on 21 November [O.S. 11 November].[1]:53[25]:66

It was before setting anchor that the male Pilgrims and non-Pilgrim passengers (whom the Pilgrims called "strangers") wrote and signed the Mayflower Compact.[1]:54 Among the resolutions in the compact were those establishing legal order meant to quell increasing strife within the ranks.[27][28][29][30] Myles Standish was selected to ensure that the rules were obeyed, as there was a consensus that discipline must be enforced to ensure the survival of the planned colony.[1]:54 After the men had agreed to settle and build a self-governing community, the passengers disembarked.[31]

The moment when the Pilgrims stepped ashore was described by William Bradford, the second governor of the Plymouth Colony:

Being thus arrived in a good harbor and brought safe to land, they fell upon their knees and blessed the God of heaven, who had brought them over the vast and furious ocean, and delivered them from all the perils and miseries thereof, again to set their feet on the firm and stable earth, their proper element.[29]

First winter

> Plymouth Colony was the first experiment in consensual government in Western history between individuals with one another, and not with a monarch. The colony was a mutual enterprise, not an imperial expedition organized by the Spanish or English governments. In order to survive, it depended on the consent of the colonists themselves. Necessary in order to bind the community together, it was revolutionary by chance.
>
> —Author Rebecca Fraser[1]:55

On Monday, 7 December [O.S. 27 November], an exploring expedition was launched under the direction of Capt. Christopher Jones to find a suitable settlement site. There were 34 people in the open small boat, 24 passengers and 10 sailors. They were ill-prepared for the bitter winter weather that they encountered, which was much colder than what they had experienced in England. The weather forced them to spend the night ashore, ill-clad in below-freezing temperatures with wet shoes and stockings that froze overnight. Bradford wrote, "Some of our people that are dead took the original of their death here".[16]:65–66[25]:67

Plymouth faced many difficulties during its first winter, most notably the risk of starvation and the lack of suitable shelter. The Pilgrims did not know that the ground would be frozen by mid-November, eliminating the possibility of planting crops. They were also unprepared for the snowstorms that would make the countryside impassable without snowshoes. In their haste to leave England, the Pilgrims failed to bring any fishing rods.[1]:47

From the beginning, the Pilgrims received vital assistance from the natives in the area. One colonist's journal reported, "We dug and found some more corn, two or three baskets full, and a bag of beans. ... In all we had about ten bushels, which will be enough for seed. It is with God's help that we found this corn, for how else could we

have done it, without meeting some Indians who might trouble us."[32] Governor Bradford maintained hope:

Friends, if ever we make a plantation, God works a miracle! Especially considering how scant we shall be of victuals; and, most of all, ununited amongst ourselves, and devoid of good tutors and leaders. Violence will break all. Where is the meek and humble spirit of Moses and of Nehemiah, who re-edified the walls of Jerusalem, and the State of Israel? ... I see not, in reason, how we shall escape, even the gasping of hunger-starved persons: but God can do much; and his will be done!"[32]:56

During the winter, the passengers remained aboard *Mayflower*, suffering an outbreak of a contagious disease described as a mixture of scurvy, pneumonia and tuberculosis. When the disease subsided, only 53 passengers remained—just more than half of the original total—and approximately half of the crew died. In the spring, they built huts ashore, and the passengers disembarked from *Mayflower* on 31 March [O.S. 21 March] 1622.[33]

Historian Benson John Lossing described that first settlement:

After many hardships ... the Pilgrim Fathers first set foot December, 1620 upon a bare rock on the bleak coast of Massachusetts Bay, while all around the earth was covered with deep snow ... Dreary, indeed, was the prospect before them. Exposure and privations had prostrated one half of the men before the first blow of the ax had been struck to build a habitation. ... One by one perished. The governor and his wife died in April 1621; and on the first of that month, forty-six of the one hundred emigrants were in their graves, nineteen of whom were signers of the Mayflower Compact.[34]

Jones had originally planned to return to England as soon as the Pilgrims found a settlement site, but his crew members were ravaged by the same diseases that were felling the Pilgrims, and he realized that he must remain in Plymouth Harbor "till he saw his men began to recover."[16]:91 *Mayflower* lay in New Plymouth harbor through the winter of 1620–21 and set sail for England on 15 April [O.S. 5 April] 1621. As with the Pilgrims, her sailors had been decimated by disease. Jones had lost his boatswain, his gunner, three quartermasters, the cook and more than a dozen sailors. *Mayflower* made excellent time on her voyage back to England. The westerly winds that had buffeted her on the initial voyage pushed her along on the return trip. She arrived in London on 16 May [O.S. 6 May] 1621[35] in less than half the time that it had taken her to sail to America.[16]:100–101[b]

Passengers

Main article: List of Mayflower passengers

Some families traveled together, while some men came alone, leaving families in England and Leiden. More than one third of the passengers were Separatists who sought to leave the Church of England and create a society that incorporated their own religious ideals. Other passengers were hired hands, servants or farmers recruited by London merchants, all originally destined for the Colony of Virginia.[*citation needed*]

Passengers passed the time by reading by candlelight or playing cards and games.[23][*page needed*] They consumed large amounts of alcohol such as beer with meals. This was known to be safer than water, which often came from polluted sources and caused disease.[23][*page needed*]

Mayflower ship history

There were 26 vessels bearing the name *Mayflower* in the port books of England during the reign of King James I (1603–1625), although it is unknown why the name was so popular.[36] The identity of captain Christopher Jones's *Mayflower* is based on records from her home port, her known tonnage (est. 180–200 tons) and the master's name.[36] It is unknown when and where *Mayflower* was built, although late records designate her as "of London". She was designated in the port books of 1609–11 as "of Harwich" in the county of Essex, coincidentally the birthplace of Jones in about 1570.[37]

Records dating from August 1609 note Jones as master and part owner of *Mayflower* when the ship was chartered for a voyage from London to Trondheim, Norway and back to London. The ship lost an anchor on her return in bad weather, and she made short delivery of her cargo of herring. Litigation resulted that went unresolved until at least 1612. According to records, the ship was twice on the Thames at London in 1613, once in July and again in October and November, and in 1616 she was on the Thames carrying a cargo of wine, which suggests that the ship had recently been on a voyage to France, Spain, Portugal, the Canary Islands or some other wine-producing land. Jones sailed *Mayflower* across the English Channel, taking English woolens to France and bringing French wine back to London. He also transported hats, hemp, Spanish salt, hops and vinegar to Norway, and he may have taken *Mayflower* whaling in the North Atlantic off Spitsbergen or sailed to Mediterranean ports.[*citation needed*]

No further records relate to Jones's *Mayflower* from 1616 until 1624. It is unusual for a ship that traded in and out of London to have disappeared from the records for such a long time. No admiralty court documents have been found that mention the Pilgrims' voyage of 1620. This may be the result of loss of records from the period or the unusual

manner in which the transfer of the Pilgrims was arranged from Leyden to New England.[*citation needed*]

Jones was one of the owners of the ship by 1620, along with Christopher Nichols, Robert Child and Thomas Short. Thomas Weston chartered *Mayflower* from Child and Short in the summer of 1620 to undertake the Pilgrims' voyage. Weston played a significant role in the *Mayflower*'s voyage, as he was a member of the Company of Merchant Adventurers of London, and he eventually traveled to the Plymouth Colony himself.[16]:24[38][39]

Later history

Three of *Mayflower*'s owners applied to the admiralty court for an appraisal of the ship on 4 May 1624, two years after Captain Jones's death in 1622. Among these applicants was Jones's widow Josian Jones. This appraisal was most likely conducted to determine the ship's value in an effort to settle the captain's estate. The appraisal was conducted by four mariners and shipwrights of Rotherhithe, London (the home and burial place of Captain Jones), where *Mayflower* was stationed in the Thames. The appraisal documents have been preserved and provide information on the ship's gear and equipment, such as muskets and other arms. The ship may have been confined to port following Jones's death and allowed to avoid repair, as the appraisal indicates.[36][40] The vessel was valued at 128 pounds, eight shillings and fourpence.[41]

Mayflower's final disposition is an unsettled issue. Charles Edward Banks, an English historian of the ship, claims that she was disassembled. Historical records indicate that in 1624, Thomas Russell of Jordans, a village in Buckinghamshire erected a barn with timbers purchased from a shipbreaker's yard in Rotherhithe, which many believe to have been those of the *Mayflower*. The structure still exists as the Mayflower Barn,

located within the grounds of Old Jordan in South Buckinghamshire. The well-preserved barn became a tourist attraction, receiving visitors from around the world, but it later became privately owned and was closed to the public.[36]

Second *Mayflower*

Another ship called *Mayflower* voyaged from London to Plymouth Colony in May 1629, arriving in August with 35 passengers aboard, many of whom were from the Pilgrim congregation in Leiden that organized the first voyage. This ship also traveled from England to America in 1630 (as part of the Winthrop Fleet), 1633, 1634 and 1639. It attempted the trip again in October 1641, with 140 passengers bound for Virginia, but it was lost at sea.[42]

Mayflower design and layout

Mayflower was square-rigged with a beakhead bow and high, castle-like structures fore and aft that protected the crew and the main deck from the elements. This design was typical of English merchant ships of the early 17th century. Her stern carried a 30-foot-high (9 m), square aft-castle that posed difficulties for the ship to sail close to the wind and was ill-suited for the North Atlantic's prevailing westerlies, especially in the fall and winter of 1620. As a result, the voyage from England to America took more than two months. *Mayflower*'s return trip to London in April–May 1621 took less than half that time, with the same strong winds now blowing in the direction of the voyage.[16]:24[18]:37

Mayflower's exact dimensions are unknown, but she probably measured about 100 feet (30 m) from the beak of her prow to the tip of her stern superstructure, about 25 feet (7.6 m) at her widest point with the bottom of her keel about 12 feet (3.7 m) below the waterline. William Bradford estimated that she had a cargo capacity of 180 tons, and

surviving records indicate that she could carry 180 casks holding hundreds of gallons each.[18]:37 The general layout of the ship was as follows:

- Three masts: mizzen (aft), main (midship) and fore, and also a spritsail in the bow area[43]
- Three primary levels: main deck, gun deck and cargo hold

Captain Christopher Jones's cabin was located aft on the main deck in the stern and measured approximately about ten by seven feet (3 by 2 m). Forward of that was the steerage room, which probably housed berths for the ship's officers and contained the ship's compass and whipstaff (tiller extension) for sailing control. Forward of the steerage room was the capstan, a vertical axle used to control ropes or cables. Far forward on the main deck, just aft of the bow, was the forecastle space where the ship's cook prepared meals for the crew. The sailors may have also slept in the forecastle.[44]

The poop deck was located on the ship's highest level above the stern on the aft castle and above Jones's cabin. On this deck stood the poop house, which was ordinarily a chart room or a cabin for the master's mates on most merchant ships, but it might have been used by the passengers on *Mayflower* for sleeping or cargo.[45][46]

The passengers resided in the gun deck during the voyage, a space measuring about 50 by 25 feet (15 m × 7.6 m) with a five-foot (1.5 m) ceiling. It was a dangerous place if there was conflict, as it had gun ports from which cannon could be deployed to fire upon enemies. The gun room was in the stern area of the deck, although passengers had no access to the storage space for gunpowder and ammunition. The gun room may have also housed a pair of stern chasers, small cannon used to fire from the ship's stern. Forward on the gun deck in the bow area was a windlass, similar in function to that of the steerage capstan, which was used to raise and lower the ship's main anchor. There were no stairs for the passengers on the gun deck to ascend through the gratings to the

main deck; the passengers could only reach the deck by climbing a wooden or rope ladder.[45][46]

Below the gun deck was the cargo hold, where the passengers kept most of their food stores and other supplies, including most of their clothing and bedding. It stored the passengers' personal weapons and military equipment, such as armor, muskets, gunpowder, shot, swords and bandoliers. It also stored tools and equipment required to build settlements and prepare meals in the New World. Some Pilgrims, including Isaac Allerton and William Mullins, traded goods aboard the ship that were most likely were stored in the cargo hold.[47] There was no toilet on *Mayflower*, and passengers and crew were thus forced to devise their own accommodations. Gun-deck passengers most likely employed buckets as chamber pots, fixed to the deck or bulkhead to steady them while at sea.[46][47]

Mayflower was heavily armed; her largest gun was a brass minion cannon that weighed approximately 1,200 pounds (540 kg) and could shoot a 3.5-pound (1.6 kg) cannonball almost one mile (1,600 m). She also had a saker cannon of about 800 pounds (360 kg) and two base cannons that weighed about 200 pounds (91 kg) and shot a three-to-five-ounce ball (85–140 g). She carried at least ten pieces of ordnance on the port and starboard sides of her gun deck: seven cannons for long-range purposes and three smaller guns often fired from the stern at close quarters that were filled with musket balls. Jones unloaded four of the pieces to fortify Plymouth Colony.[18]:37

Mayflower officers, crew, and others

Main article: List of Mayflower passengers § Mayflower officers and crew

According to author Charles Banks, the officers and crew of *Mayflower* consisted of a captain, four mates, four quartermasters, surgeon, carpenter, cooper, cooks, boatswains, gunners and about 36 men before the mast, a crew of approximately 50. The entire crew stayed with *Mayflower* in Plymouth through the winter of 1620–1621, and about half of them died during that time. The remaining crewmen returned to England on *Mayflower*, which sailed for London on April 15 [O.S. April 5], 1621.[48][49]

Legacy

Mayflower Tercentenary stamp, 1920 issue

Mayflower has a famous place in American history as a symbol of early European colonization of the future United States.[16]:4–5 As described by Richard Bevan:

Out of all the voyages to the American colonies from 1620 to 1640, the *Mayflower*'s first crossing of Pilgrim Fathers has become the most culturally iconic and important in the history of migration from Europe to the New World during the Age of Discovery.[2]

The main record for the voyage of *Mayflower* and the disposition of the Plymouth Colony is based on the letters and journal of William Bradford, who was a guiding force and later the governor of the colony. His detailed record of the journey is one of the primary sources used by historians and the most complete history of Plymouth Colony written by a *Mayflower* passenger.[50]

The First Thanksgiving at Plymouth (1914) By Jennie A. Brownscombe

The American national holiday of Thanksgiving originated from the first Thanksgiving feast held by the Pilgrims in 1621, a prayer event and dinner to mark the first harvest of the *Mayflower* settlers.[2]

The 300th anniversary of *Mayflower*'s landing was commemorated in 1920 and early 1921 by celebrations throughout the United States and Europe, with delegations from England, Holland and Canada meeting in New York. The city's mayor John Francis Hylan delivered a speech in which he asserted that the principles of the Pilgrims' Mayflower Compact were precursors to the United States Declaration of Independence.[51] Massachusetts governor Calvin Coolidge commemorated the compact as an event of great importance in American history:

It was the foundation of liberty based on law and order, and that tradition has been steadily upheld. They drew up a form of government which has been designated as the first real constitution of modern times. It was democratic, an acknowledgment of liberty under law and order and the giving to each person the right to participate in the government, while they promised to be obedient to the laws....[A]ny form of government is better than anarchy, and any attempt to tear down government is an attempt to wreck civilization.[52]

Mayflower, reverse of the Pilgrim Tercentenary half dollar, 1920–21

With 20 *Mayflower* historical societies throughout the country, the celebration was expected to last throughout 1920. A world's fair to commemorate the anniversary had been planned years earlier but was canceled in the aftermath of World War I.[53]

The US Mint issued a Pilgrim Tercentenary half dollar that portrays the ship on its reverse and Bradford on its obverse.

400th anniversary, 2020

For the 400th anniversary of *Mayflower*'s landing in 2020, numerous organizations planned celebrations to mark the voyage,[54] and festivities celebrating the anniversary took place in various New England locations. Celebrations were also planned in England and the Netherlands, where the Pilgrims had resided in exile preceding their voyage,[55] but the COVID-19 pandemic forced the cancellation of some commemorative celebrations.[56]

To mark the anniversary, an unmanned *Mayflower* autonomous ship crossed the Atlantic Ocean, navigated by an AI captain designed by IBM.[57] The Harwich *Mayflower* Heritage Centre hoped to build a replica of the ship at Harwich, England.[58] Some descendants of the Pilgrims sought a "once-in-a-lifetime" experience to commemorate their ancestors.[59]

In a charity event, a full-scale replica of *Mayflower* was burned in Great Torrington in Devon, England on 28 August 2021, a year later than originally planned.[60]

According to the General Society of Mayflower Descendants, there are "35 million Mayflower descendants in the world".[61]

Use of "Mayflower"

The SS *Ruslan*, a ship of the Third Aliyah from Odessa that docked in Jaffa in 1919 and has been described as the "Israeli *Mayflower*" for its cultural importance in the development of Israeli culture since on board of the *Ruslan* were several pioneers of Israeli culture.[62][63][64]

The phrase "return of the Mayflower" is often used to refer to significant events involving Americans returning by ship to England. George Henry Boughton used this phrase for his 1871 painting, as did Bernard F. Gribble, the latter of which depicts US Navy destroyers entering British waters as the United States joined the allied forces in World War I.[65]

See also

Biography portal

- Billericay, where the Pilgrim Fathers met before the voyage
- *Mayflower II*, a replica of *Mayflower* in Plymouth, Massachusetts
- Mayflower Steps in Plymouth, site of the ship's final departure from England
- *Mayflower: The Pilgrims' Adventure* (1979)
- Pilgrims (Plymouth Colony)
- *Plymouth Adventure* (directed by Clarence Brown, 1952)
- Puritan migration to New England (1620–1640)
- *Seaflower*, sister ship to *Mayflower*
- *Speedwell* (1577 ship)

Explanatory notes

a. A good, strong ship was at least 300 tons, which made *Mayflower* relatively small.[1]:39

b. Jones died after coming back from a voyage to France on March 5, 1622, at about age 52. For the next two years, *Mayflower* lay at her berth in Rotherhithe, not far from Jones's grave at St. Mary's church. By 1624, she was no longer useful as a ship; her subsequent fate is unknown, but she was probably broken up about that time.[16]:101

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External links

Wikimedia Commons has media related to ***Mayflower***.

Wikisource has the text of the 1911 *Encyclopædia Britannica* article "**Mayflower**".

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- Mayflower 400 Archived 2017-11-12 at the Wayback Machine
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- Pilgrim Hall Museum of Plymouth, Massachusetts
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- Exact arrival site of the *Mayflower* on Satellite Map and NOAA Chart on BlooSee
- The *Mayflower II*
- Contemporary photos of Plymouth's Barbican and the Mayflower Steps
- Pilgrims Point, Plymouth (UK) A photo of the modern-day Mayflower Steps Arch and Pilgrims Point
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Mayflower passengers and related topics

General	• ***Mayflower***
	• List of *Mayflower* passengers
	  • who died at sea November/December 1620
	  • who died in the winter of 1620–21
	• Captain Christopher Jones
	• The More family
	• Cole's Hill

	• Mayflower Compact • signatories • Pilgrims • Plymouth Colony • *Of Plymouth Plantation* • *Mourt's Relation*
Separatists	• Priscilla (Mullins) Alden • Isaac Allerton • Mary Allerton • William Bradford • Love Brewster • William Brewster • Peter Browne • William Butten • John Carver • James Chilton • Mary Chilton • Francis Cooke • Humility Cooper • John Crackston • Edward Doty • Moses Fletcher • Edward Fuller • Samuel Fuller • John Howland • Degory Priest • Thomas Rogers • Henry Samson • George Soule • Edward Tilley • John Tilley • Thomas Tinker • John Turner • William White • Resolved White • Peregrine White • Edward Winslow
Other pa	• John Alden • John Billington • Francis Eaton • Constance Hopkins • Oceanus Hopkins

Passengers	• Stephen Hopkins • Christopher Martin • Elinor More • Jasper More • Mary More • Richard More • William Mullins • Myles Standish • Richard Warren
Native American associates	• Squanto • Samoset • Hobbamock • Massasoit • Corbitant

Related	• *Speedwell*
	• *Fortune*
	• The *Anne* and *Little James*
	  • passengers
	• Plymouth Rock
	• *Mayflower* Society
	  • Mayflower House Museum
	• Pilgrim Hall Museum
	• *Mayflower II*
	• Mayflower AI sea drone
	• Harwich *Mayflower* Heritage Centre

- Myles Standish Burial Ground
- Myles Standish Monument
- *National Monument to the Forefathers*
- Pilgrim Monument
- Pilgrim Tercentenary half dollar
- *Signing of the Mayflower Compact* (1922 relief)
- *Mayflower: The Pilgrims' Adventure* (1979 film)
- The Pilgrim Progress (reenactment)

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Thanksgiving

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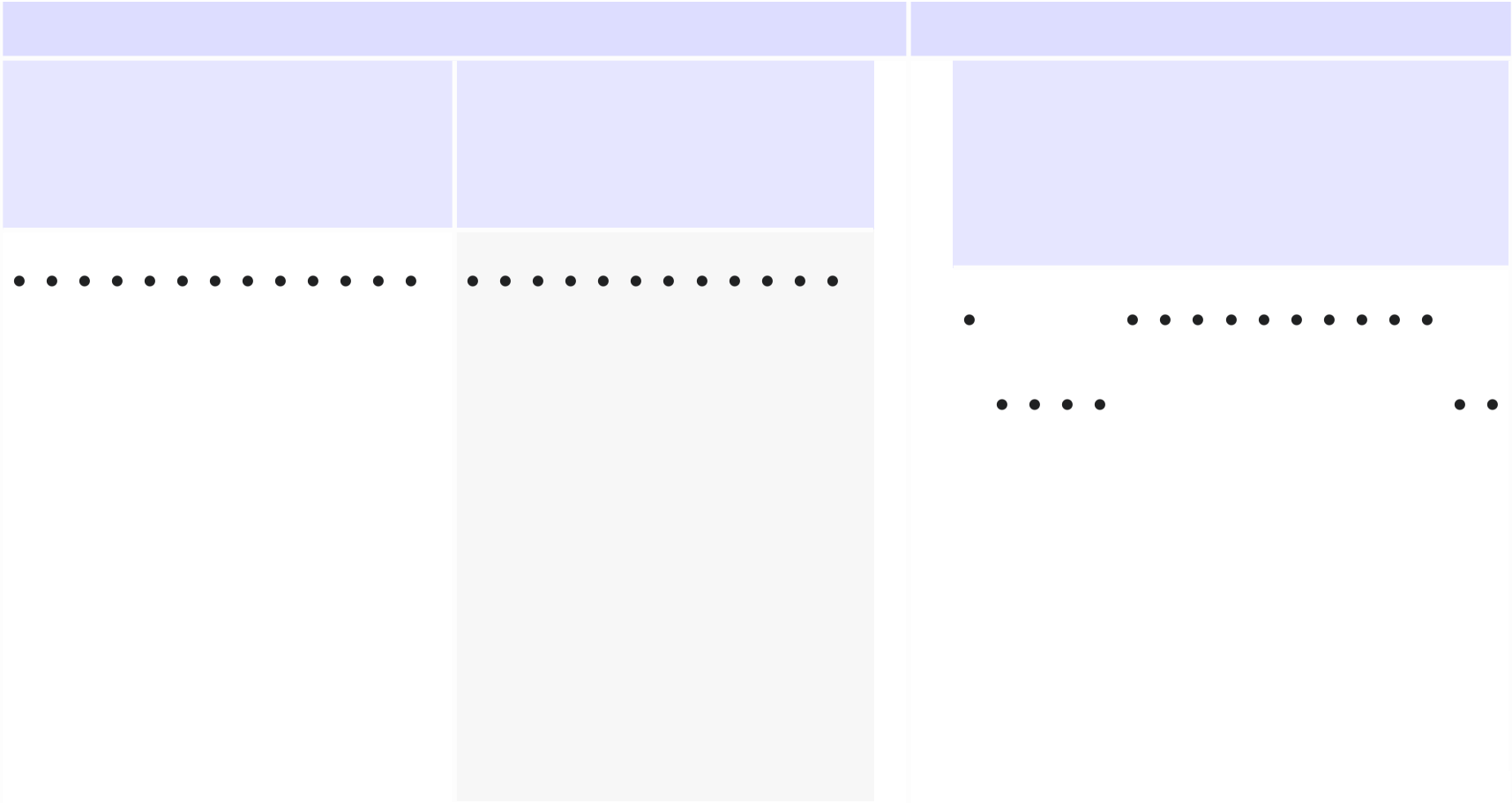

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Categories:

- Mayflower
- Age of Sail individual ships
- English emigration
- Exploration ships of England
- Migrant ships to the United States
- History of Plymouth County, Massachusetts
- History of the Thirteen Colonies
- Plymouth Colony
- History of Plymouth, Massachusetts
- Pre-statehood history of Massachusetts
- Ships of England

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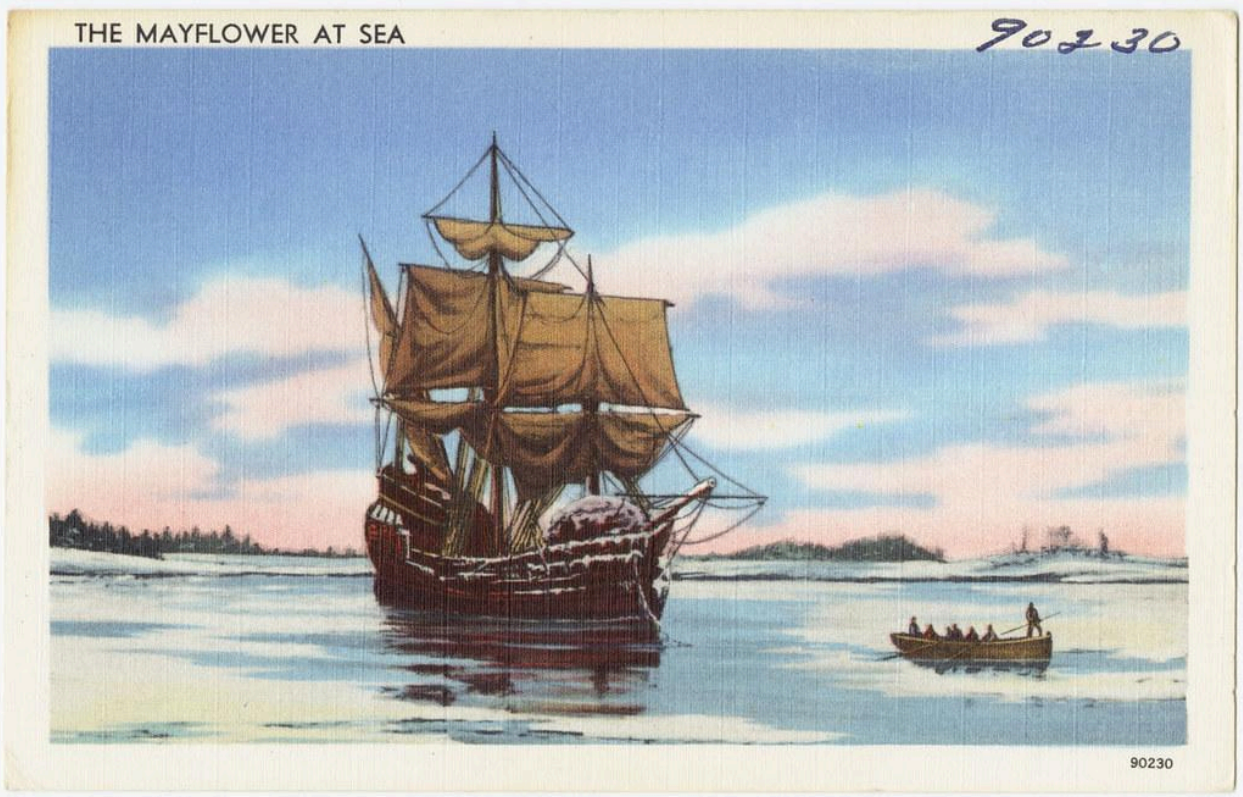
W. F. HALSALL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153 THE MAYFLOWER AT SEA

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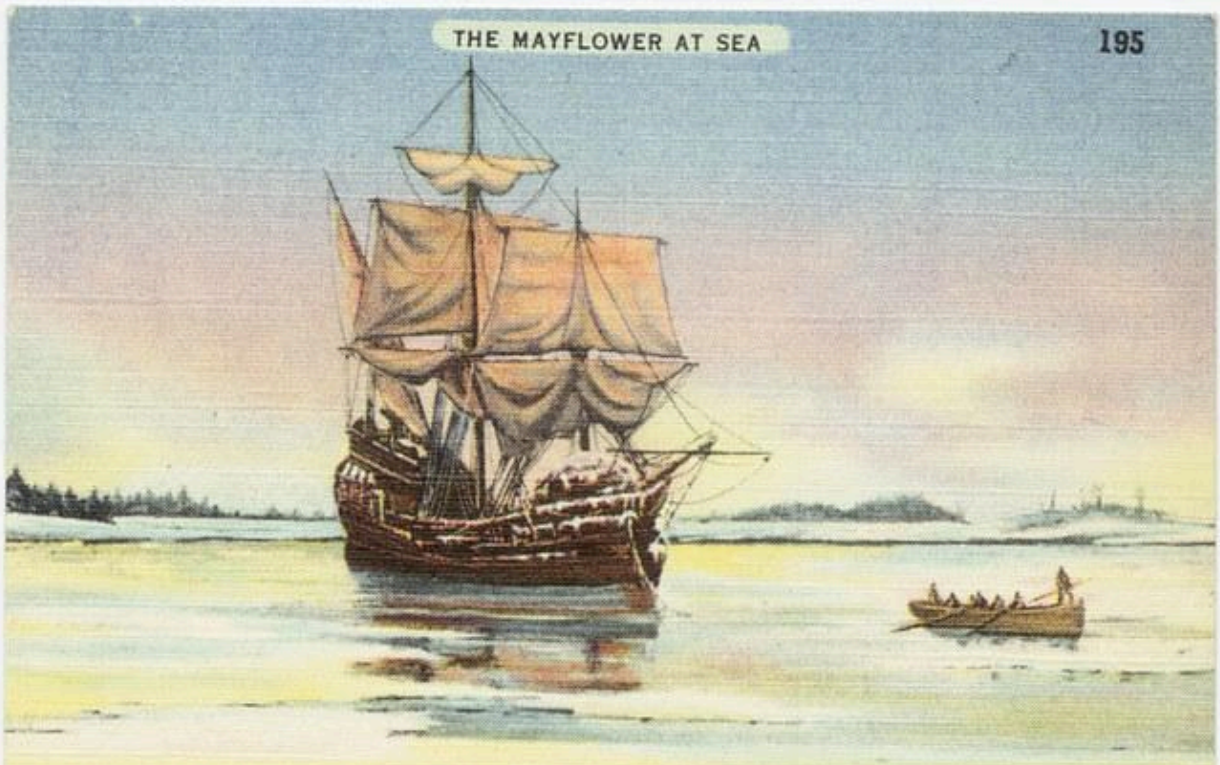
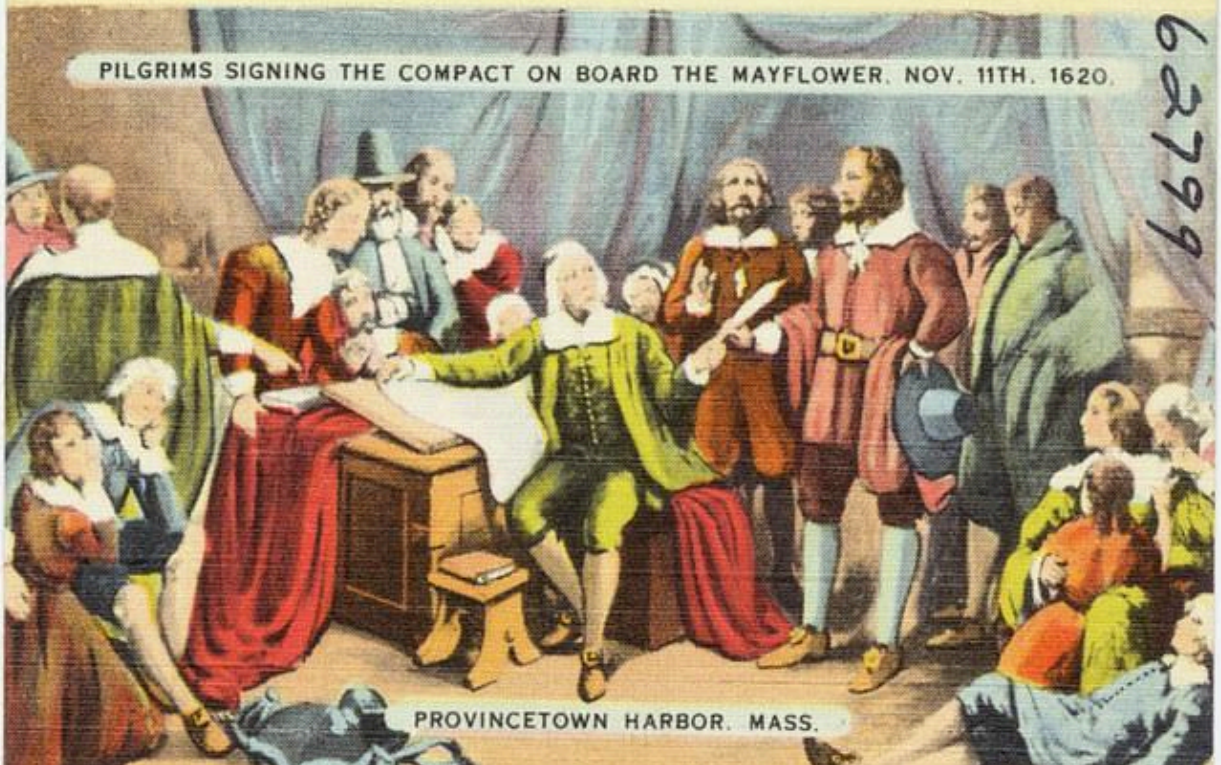


On November 11th, 1620, the "MAYFLOWER" dropped anchor in Provincetown harbor, and here in the cabin of their good ship was drawn up that memorable "Compact of the Government," the first charter of a democratic government in the world's history. Forty days later this heroic band of hearty pilgrims weighed anchor and sailed across the bay to find their first settlement which they called PLYMOUTH.



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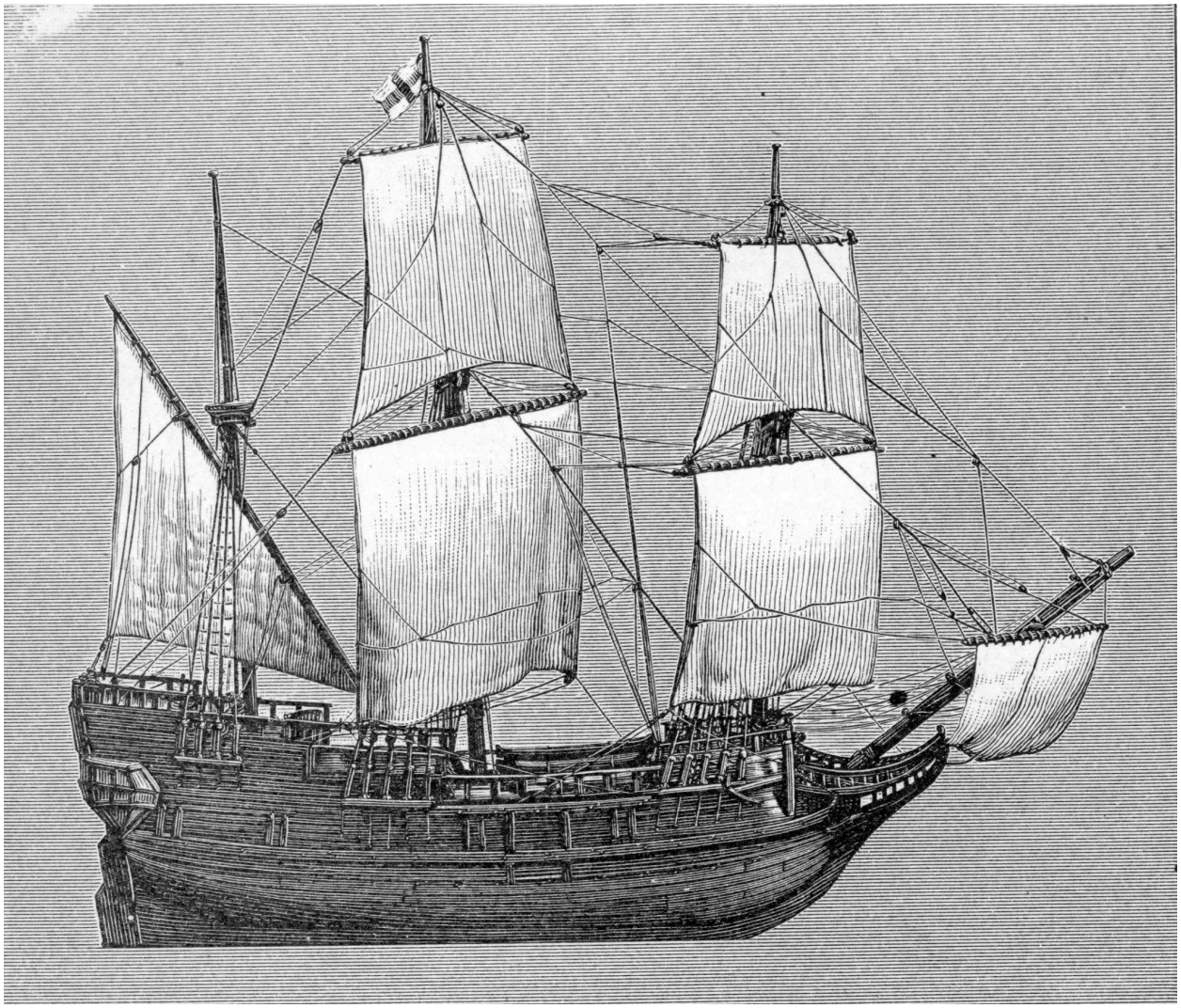

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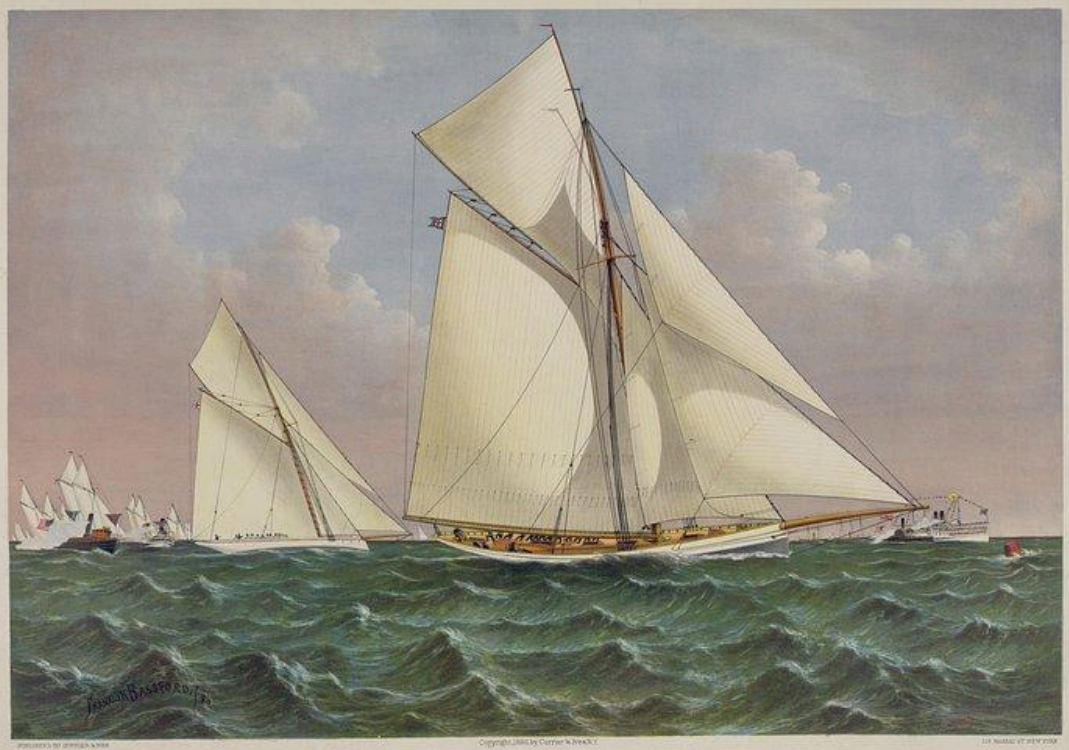

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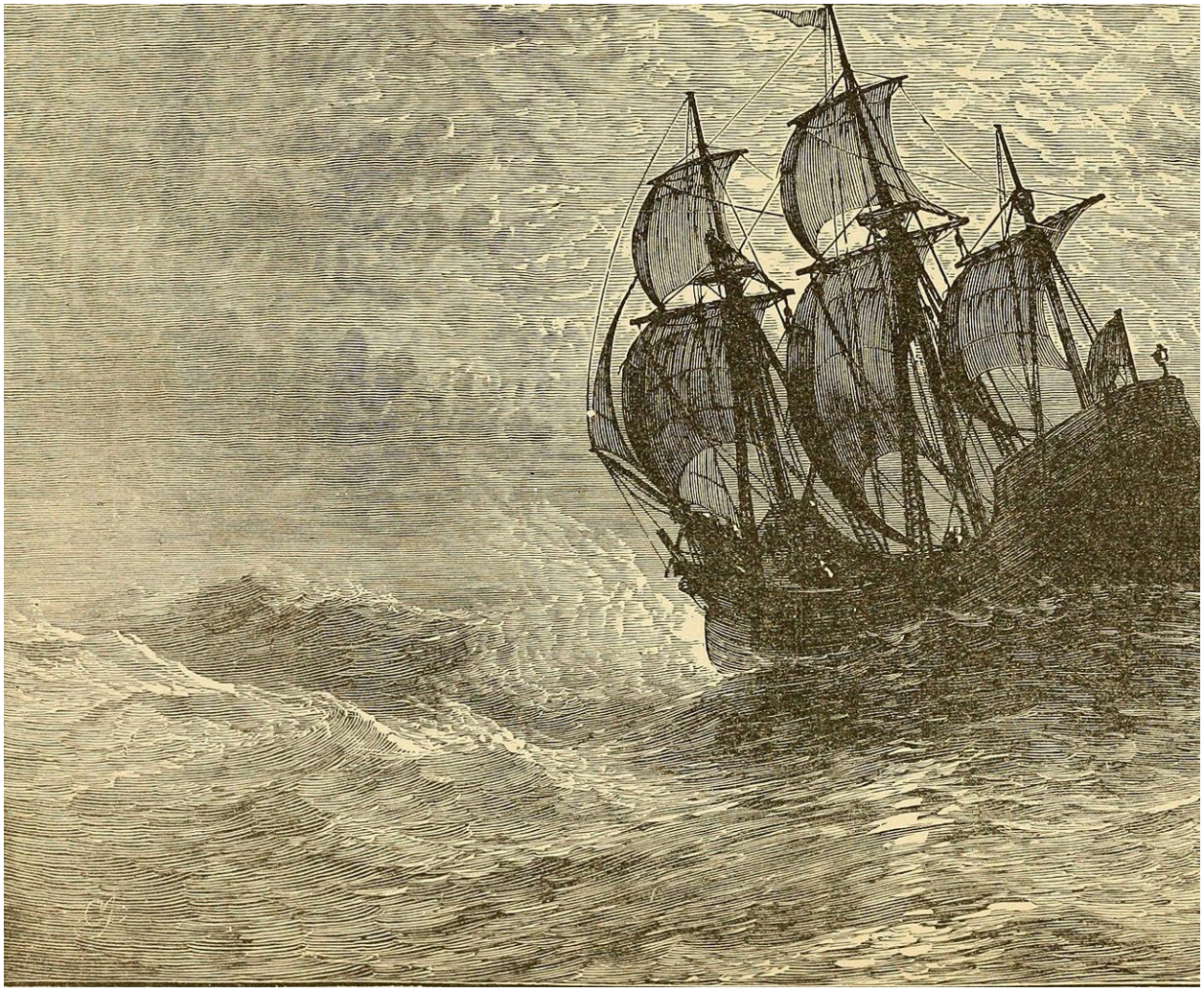
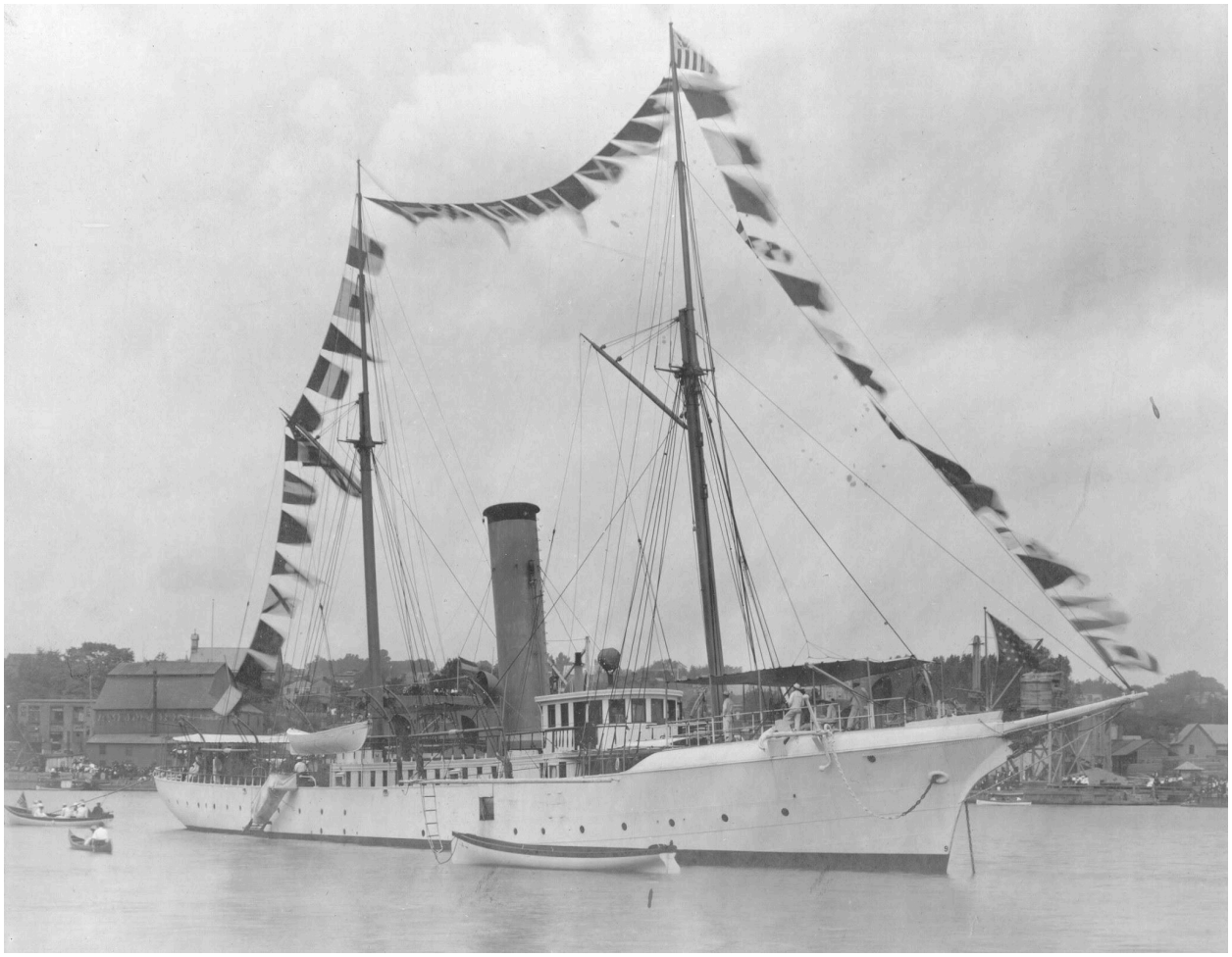
MAYFLOWER SALUTED BY THE FLEET.

CROSSING THE BOW OF "GALATEA" ON THE FOURTH TACK IN THE FIRST RACE FOR "THE AMERICA'S CUP"
OVER THE INSIDE COURSE NEW YORK BAY SEPT. 7TH 1886.

[Won by Mayflower].





THE MAYFLOWER COMPACT · 1620
THE ONLY LEGITIMATE RIGHT
TO GOVERN
IS AN EXPRESS GRANT OF POWER
FROM THE GOVERNED
WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON 1841

LUND

SOLD
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American Civil War

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

American Civil War

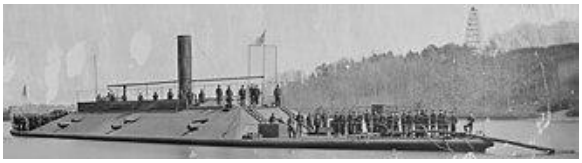
Battle of Gettysburg

Battle of Franklin

US Horse Artillery Brigade officers

Battle of Antietam

A Harvest of Death



Ironclad USS *Atlanta*

Date	April 12, 1861 – May 26, 1865[a][b] (4 years, 1 month and 2 weeks)
Location	United States, Atlantic Ocean
Re	Union victory

Result	
Territorial changes	Dissolution of the Confederate States of America

Belligerents	
United States	Confederate States
Commanders and leaders	

Abraham Lincoln **X** Ulysses S. Grant *and others...*	Jefferson Davis (POW) Robert E. Lee *and others...*
Strength	
698,000 at peak[1] 2,200,000 total[2]	360,000 at peak[2][3] 750,000–1,000,000 total[4]
Casualties and losses	
110,000+ KIA or DOW 230,000+ died from accidents or disease[5][6] 25,000–30,000 died in Confederate prisons[2][5] **365,000+ total dead**[7]	94,000+ KIA or DOW[5] 164,000+ died from accidents or disease[2] 26,000–31,000 died in Union prisons[6] **290,000+ total dead**
282,000+ wounded[6]	137,000+ wounded

181,193 captured[8][c] **828,000+ total casualties**	436,658 captured[8][d] **864,000+ total casualties**

50,000 free civilians died[9]
60,000 identified enslaved people, "tens of thousands" of unidentified enslaved people died from disease[10]
616,222[11]–1,000,000+ total dead[12][13]

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Theaters of the American Civil War

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This article is part of a series on the

History of the

United States

Timeline and periods

Topics

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Places

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The **American Civil War** (April 12, 1861 – May 26, 1865; also known by other names) was a civil war in the United States between the Union[e] ("the North") and the Confederacy ("the South"), which was formed in 1861 by states that had seceded from the Union to preserve slavery in the United States, which they saw as threatened because of the election of Abraham Lincoln and the growing abolitionist movement in the North.[14] The war ended with Union victory, the dissolution of the Confederacy and the abolition of slavery, freeing four million African Americans.

Decades of controversy over slavery came to a head when Abraham Lincoln, a Republican who opposed slavery's expansion, won the 1860 presidential election. Seven Southern slave states responded to Lincoln's victory by seceding from the United States and forming the Confederacy. The Confederacy seized US forts and other federal assets in the South. The war began on April 12, 1861, when the Confederacy bombarded Fort Sumter in South Carolina. A wave of enthusiasm for war swept over the North and South, as military recruitment soared. Four more Southern states seceded after the war began and, led by its president, Jefferson Davis, the Confederacy comprised eleven states, containing a third of the US population. Four years of intense combat, mostly in the South, ensued.

During 1861–1862 in the western theater, the Union made permanent gains, though in the eastern theater the conflict was inconclusive. The abolition of slavery became a Union war goal on January 1, 1863, when Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation, which declared all slaves in rebel states to be free, applying to more than 3.5 million of the 4 million enslaved people in the country. To the west, the Union first

destroyed the Confederacy's river navy by the summer of 1862, then much of its western armies, and seized New Orleans. The successful 1863 Union siege of Vicksburg split the Confederacy in two at the Mississippi River, while Confederate general Robert E. Lee's incursion north failed at the Battle of Gettysburg. General Ulysses S. Grant's western successes led Lincoln to promote him to command of all Union armies in 1864.

Inflicting an ever-tightening naval blockade of Confederate ports, the Union marshaled resources and manpower to attack the Confederacy from all directions. This led to the fall of Atlanta in 1864 to Union general William Tecumseh Sherman, followed by his March to the Sea, which culminated in his taking Savannah. The last significant battles raged around the ten-month Siege of Petersburg, gateway to the Confederate capital of Richmond. The Confederates abandoned Richmond, and on April 9, 1865, Lee surrendered to Grant following the Battle of Appomattox Court House, setting in motion the end of the war.[f] Lincoln lived to see this victory but was shot by an assassin on April 14, dying the next day.

By the end of the war, much of the South's infrastructure had been destroyed. The Confederacy collapsed, the Thirteenth Amendment abolished slavery, and four million enslaved black people were freed. The war-torn nation then entered the Reconstruction era in an attempt to rebuild the country, bring the former Confederate states back into the United States, and grant civil rights to freed slaves. The war is one of the most extensively studied and written about episodes in the history of the United States. It remains the subject of cultural and historiographical debate. Of continuing interest is the myth of the Lost Cause of the Confederacy. The war was among the first to use industrial warfare. Railroads, the electrical telegraph, steamships, the ironclad warship, and mass-produced weapons were widely used. The war left an estimated 700,000 soldiers dead, along with an undetermined number of civilian deaths, making it the

deadliest in American history.[g] The technology and brutality of the Civil War foreshadowed the coming world wars.

Origins

Main article: Origins of the American Civil War

Further information: Timeline of events leading to the American Civil War, Slave states and free states, Slavery in the United States, and Abolitionism in the United States

The origins of the war were rooted in the desire of the Southern states to preserve the institution of slavery.[15] Historians in the 21st century overwhelmingly agree on the centrality of slavery in the conflict—at least for the Southern states. They disagree on the North's reasons for refusing to allow the Southern states to secede.[16] The pseudo-historical Lost Cause ideology denies that slavery was the principal cause of the secession, a view disproven by historical evidence, including the seceding states' own secession documents.[17] After leaving the Union, Mississippi issued a declaration stating, "Our position is thoroughly identified with the institution of slavery—the greatest material interest of the world."[18][19]

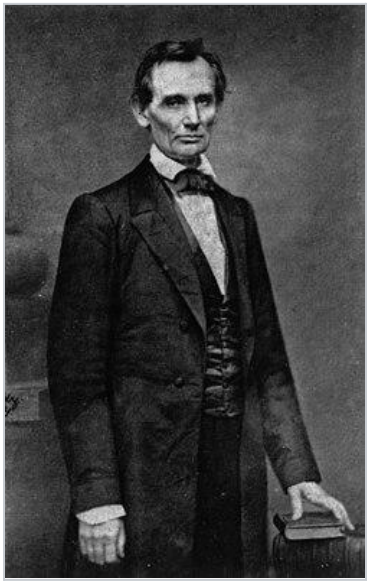
The principal political battle leading to Southern secession was over whether slavery would expand into the Western territories destined to become states. Initially Congress had admitted new states into the Union in pairs, one slave and one free. This had kept a sectional balance in the Senate but not in the House of Representatives, as free states outstripped slave states in numbers of eligible voters.[20] Thus, at mid-19th century, the free-versus-slave status of the new territories was a critical issue, both for the North, where anti-slavery sentiment had grown, and for the South, where the fear of slavery's abolition had grown. Another factor leading to secession and the formation of the

Confederacy was the development of white Southern nationalism in the preceding decades.[21] The primary reason for the North to reject secession was to preserve the Union, a cause based on American nationalism.[22]

Background factors in the run up to the Civil War were partisan politics, abolitionism, nullification versus secession, Southern and Northern nationalism, expansionism, economics, and modernization in the antebellum period. As a panel of historians said in 2011, "while slavery and its various and multifaceted discontents were the primary cause of disunion, it was disunion itself that sparked the war."[23]

Lincoln's election

Main article: 1860 United States presidential election



Portrait of Abraham Lincoln, an 1860 photograph portrait of Abraham Lincoln by Mathew Brady

Abraham Lincoln won the 1860 presidential election.[24] Southern leaders feared Lincoln would stop slavery's expansion and put it on a course toward extinction.[25] His victory triggered declarations of secession by seven slave states of the Deep South, all of whose riverfront or coastal economies were based on cotton that was cultivated by slave labor.

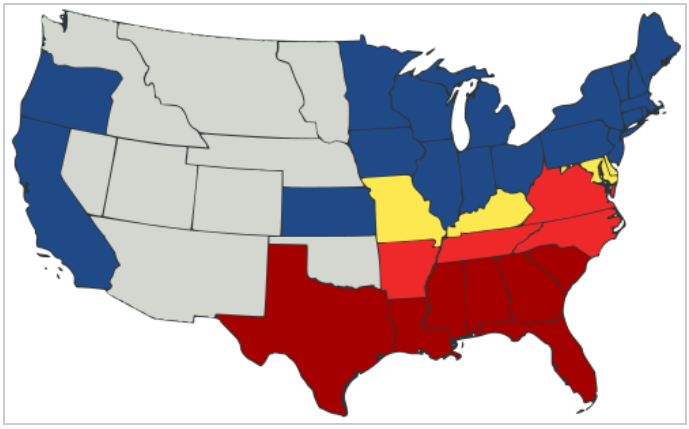
Lincoln was not inaugurated until March 4, 1861, four months after his 1860 election, which afforded the South time to prepare for war.[26] Nationalists in the North and "Unionists" in the South refused to accept the declarations of secession, and no foreign government ever recognized the Confederacy. The US government, under President James Buchanan, refused to relinquish the nation's forts, which the Confederacy claimed were located in their territory.

According to Lincoln, the American people had demonstrated, beginning with their victory in the American Revolution and Revolutionary War and subsequent establishment of a sovereign nation, that they could successfully establish and administer a republic. Yet, Lincoln believed, a question remained unanswered: Could the nation be maintained as a republic, with its government selected by vote of the people, in the face of internal attempts to destroy it or separate from it?[27]

Outbreak of the war

Secession crisis

Main article: Ordinance of Secession



Status of the states, 1861

Slave states that seceded before April 15, 1861

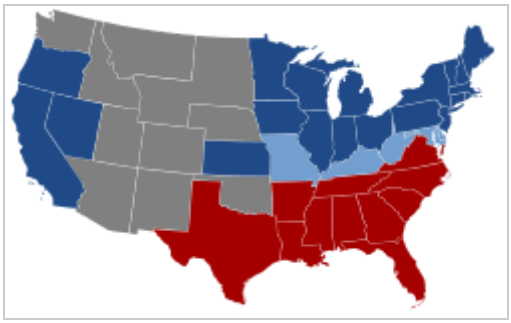
Slave states that seceded after April 15, 1861

Border Southern states that permitted slavery but did not secede (both KY and MO had dual competing Confederate and Unionist governments)

Union states that banned slavery

Territories

Lincoln's election provoked South Carolina's legislature to call a state convention to consider secession. South Carolina had done more than any other state to advance the notion that a state had the right to nullify federal laws and even secede. On December 20, 1860, the convention unanimously voted to secede and adopted a secession declaration. It argued for states' rights for slave owners but complained about states' rights in the North in the form of resistance to the federal Fugitive Slave Act, claiming that Northern states were not fulfilling their obligations to assist in the return of fugitive slaves. The "cotton states" of Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas followed suit, seceding in January and February 1861.[26]



Division of the states during the American Civil War:

Union

Confederacy

Border states

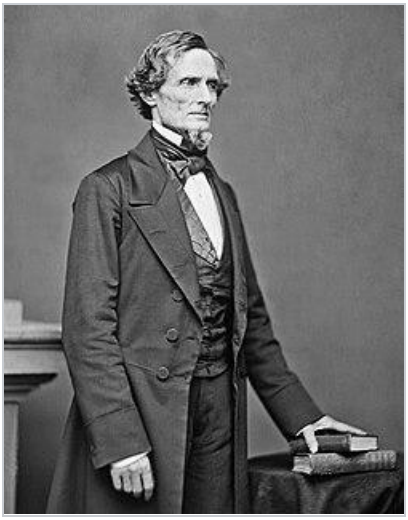
Territories

Among the ordinances of secession, those of Texas, Alabama, and Virginia mentioned the plight of the "slaveholding states" at the hands of Northern abolitionists. The rest made no mention of slavery but were brief announcements by the legislatures of the dissolution of ties to the Union.[28] However, at least four—South Carolina,[29] Mississippi,[30] Georgia,[31] and Texas[32]—provided detailed reasons for their secession, all blaming the movement to abolish slavery and its influence over the North. Southern states believed that the Fugitive Slave Clause made slaveholding a constitutional right. These states agreed to form a new federal government, the Confederate States of America, on February 4, 1861.[33] They took control of federal forts and other properties within their boundaries, with little resistance from outgoing president James Buchanan, whose term ended on March 4. Buchanan said the Dred Scott decision was proof the Southern states had no reason to secede and that the Union "was intended to be perpetual". He added, however, that "The power by force of

arms to compel a State to remain in the Union" was not among the "enumerated powers granted to Congress".[34] A quarter of the US army—the Texas garrison—was surrendered in February to state forces by its general, David E. Twiggs, who joined the Confederacy.[35]

Referring to the seven Southern states that initially seceded, James McPherson wrote, "Slaves constituted 47 percent of the population of the Confederate states but only 24 percent in the upper South."[36] He added, "In the four border states the proportion of slaves and slaveowners was less than half what it was in the eleven states that seceded."[37] Eastern Tennessee and western Virginia also had less slavery and showed more support for the Union than the rest of the Confederacy. West Virginia left the rest of Virginia and joined the Union as West Virginia because of the slavery issue. Even within Virginia and Tennessee, which had seceded, McPherson wrote, "The voters in 35 Virginia counties with a slave population of only 2.5 percent opposed secession by a margin of three to one, while voters in the remainder of the state, where slaves constituted 36 percent of the population, supported secession by more than ten to one. The thirty counties of east Tennessee that rejected secession by more than two to one contained a slave population of only 8 percent, while the rest of the state, with a slave population of 30 percent, voted for secession by a margin of seven to one."[38]

As Southerners resigned their Senate and House seats, Republicans could pass projects that had been blocked. These included the Morrill Tariff, land grant colleges, a Homestead Act, a transcontinental railroad,[39] the National Bank Act, authorization of United States Notes by the Legal Tender Act of 1862, the end of slavery in the District of Columbia, and a ban on slavery in the territories.[40] The Revenue Act of 1861 introduced an income tax to help finance the war.[41]



Jefferson Davis, President of the Confederate States of America (1861–1865)

In December 1860, the Crittenden Compromise was proposed to re-establish the Missouri Compromise line, by constitutionally banning slavery in territories to the north of it, while permitting it to the south. The Compromise would likely have prevented secession, but Lincoln and the Republicans rejected it.[42] Lincoln stated that any compromise that would extend slavery would bring down the Union.[43] A February peace conference met in Washington, proposing a solution similar to the Compromise; it was rejected by Congress. The Republicans proposed the Corwin Amendment, an alternative, not to interfere with slavery where it existed, but the South regarded it as insufficient. The remaining eight slave states rejected pleas to join the Confederacy, following a no-vote in Virginia's First Secessionist Convention on April 4.[44]

On March 4, Lincoln was sworn in as president. In his first inaugural address, he argued that the Constitution was a *more perfect union* than the earlier Articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union, was a binding contract, and that secession was "legally void".[45] He did not intend to invade Southern states, nor to end slavery where it existed, but he said he would use force to maintain possession of federal property,[45] including forts,

arsenals, mints, and customhouses that had been seized.[46] "The mails, unless repelled, will continue to be furnished in all parts of the Union." Where conditions did not allow peaceful enforcement of federal law, US marshals and judges would be withdrawn. No mention was made of bullion lost from mints. He stated that it would be US policy "to collect the duties and imposts"; "there will be no invasion, no using of force against or among the people anywhere" that would justify an armed revolution. His speech closed with a plea for restoration of the bonds of union, famously calling on "the mystic chords of memory" binding the two regions.[45]

The Confederacy sent delegates to Washington to negotiate a peace treaty. Lincoln rejected negotiations, because he claimed that the Confederacy was not a legitimate government and to make a treaty with it would recognize it as such.[47] Lincoln instead attempted to negotiate directly with the governors of seceded states, whose administrations he continued to recognize.[48]

Complicating Lincoln's attempts to defuse the crisis was Secretary of State William H. Seward, who had been Lincoln's rival for the Republican nomination. Embittered by his defeat, Seward agreed to support Lincoln's candidacy only after he was guaranteed the executive office then considered the second most powerful. In the early stages of Lincoln's presidency Seward held little regard for him, due to his perceived inexperience. Seward viewed himself as the de facto head of government, the "prime minister" behind the throne. Seward attempted to engage in unauthorized and indirect negotiations that failed.[47] Lincoln was determined to hold all remaining Union-occupied forts in the seceded states: Fort Pickens, Fort Jefferson, and Fort Taylor in Florida, and Fort Sumter in South Carolina.[49]

Battle of Fort Sumter

Main article: Battle of Fort Sumter

See also: Proclamation 80

The Battle of Fort Sumter, as depicted by Currier and Ives

The American Civil War began on April 12, 1861, when Confederate forces opened fire on the Union-held Fort Sumter. Fort Sumter is located in the harbor of Charleston, South Carolina.[50] Its status had been contentious for months. Outgoing president Buchanan had dithered in reinforcing its garrison, commanded by Major Robert Anderson. Anderson took matters into his own hands and on December 26, 1860, under the cover of darkness, sailed the garrison from the poorly placed Fort Moultrie to the stalwart island Fort Sumter.[51] Anderson's actions catapulted him to hero status in the North. An attempt to resupply the fort on January 9, 1861, failed and nearly started the war then, but an informal truce held.[52] On March 5, Lincoln was informed the fort was low on supplies.[53]

Fort Sumter proved a key challenge to Lincoln's administration.[53] Back-channel dealing by Seward with the Confederates undermined Lincoln's decision-making; Seward wanted to pull out.[54] But a firm hand by Lincoln tamed Seward, who was a staunch Lincoln ally thereafter. Lincoln decided holding the fort, which would require

reinforcing it, was the only workable option. On April 6, Lincoln informed the Governor of South Carolina that a ship with food but no ammunition would attempt to supply the fort. Richard N. Current wrote:

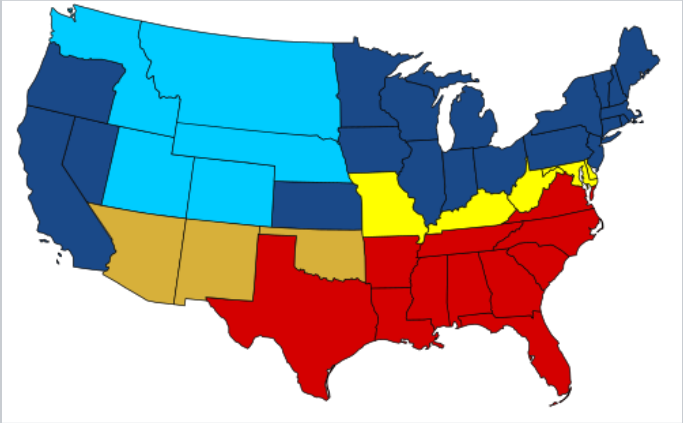
In short, it appears that Lincoln, when he decided to send the Sumter expedition, considered hostilities to be *probable*. It also appears, however, that he believed an unopposed and peaceable provisioning to be at least barely *possible*.... He thought hostilities would be the likely result, and he was determined that, if they should be, they must clearly be initiated by the Confederates. "To say that Lincoln meant that the first shot would be fired by the other side *if a first shot was fired*, ... is not to say that he maneuvered to have the first shot fired."[55]

James McPherson describes this win-win approach as "the first sign of the mastery that would mark Lincoln's presidency"; the Union would win if it could resupply and hold the fort, and the South would be the aggressor if it opened fire on an unarmed ship supplying starving men.[56] An April 9 Confederate cabinet meeting resulted in Davis ordering General P. G. T. Beauregard to take the fort before supplies reached it.[57]

At 4:30 a.m. on April 12, Confederate forces fired the first of 4,000 shells at the fort; it fell the next day. The loss of Fort Sumter lit a patriotic fire under the North.[58] On April 15, Lincoln called on the states to field 75,000 militiamen for 90 days; impassioned Union states met the quotas quickly.[59] On May 3, 1861, Lincoln called for an additional 42,000 volunteers for three years.[60][61] Shortly after this, Virginia, Tennessee, Arkansas, and North Carolina seceded and joined the Confederacy. To reward Virginia, the Confederate capital was moved to Richmond.[62]

Attitude of the border states

Main article: Border states (American Civil War)



US secession map, showing the Union and the Confederacy

Union states

Union territories not permitting slavery

Southern Border Union states, permitting slavery

(One of these states, West Virginia, was created in 1863, while KY, WV and MO had dual competing Confederate and Unionist governments)

Confederate states

Union territories that permitted slavery (claimed by Confederacy) at the start of the war, but where slavery was outlawed by the US in 1862

Maryland, Delaware, Missouri, and Kentucky, known as the border states, were slave states that had not seceded and whose people had divided loyalties to the North and South, with some men enlisting in the Union Army and others in the Confederate Army.[63] West Virginia may be compared to the border states because it had slavery

after it separated from Virginia and was admitted to the Union on June 20, 1863,[64] but it was admitted under a plan of gradual emancipation known as the Willey Amendment.

Maryland's territory surrounded Washington, D.C., and could cut it off from the North.[65] It had anti-Lincoln officials who tolerated anti-army rioting in Baltimore and the burning of bridges, both aimed at hindering the passage of troops to Washington, D.C., and the South. Maryland's legislature voted overwhelmingly to stay in the Union, but rejected hostilities with its southern neighbors, voting to close Maryland's rail lines to prevent their use for war.[66] Lincoln responded by establishing martial law and suspending habeas corpus in Maryland, along with sending in militia units.[67] In *Ex parte Merryman*, Chief Justice Roger Taney found that only Congress could suspend habeas corpus, but Lincoln ignored his ruling. Lincoln took control of Maryland and the District of Columbia by seizing prominent figures, including arresting one-third of the members of the Maryland General Assembly, who were pro-Confederate, on September 17, 1861, the day it intended to reconvene.[66] All were held without trial at Fort McHenry in Baltimore.[68]

In September 1861, federal troops imprisoned a Baltimore newspaper editor, Frank Key Howard, after he criticized Lincoln in an editorial for ignoring Chief Justice Taney's ruling in *Ex parte Merryman*.[69] Howard wrote a book about his prison experiences, which was published early in 1863. It "stressed the crowded conditions and spartan hardships of prison life ... [and] likened the conditions in Fort Lafayette to those on 'a slave-ship, on the middle passage'".[70]

In Missouri, an elected convention on secession voted to remain in the Union. When pro-Confederate Governor Claiborne Fox Jackson called out the state militia, it was attacked by federal forces under General Nathaniel Lyon, who chased the governor and

rest of the State Guard to the southwestern corner of Missouri (see Missouri secession). Early in the war the Confederacy controlled southern Missouri through the Confederate government of Missouri but was driven out after 1862. In the resulting vacuum, the convention on secession reconvened and took power as the Unionist provisional government of Missouri.[71]

Kentucky did not secede but declared itself neutral. When Confederate forces entered in September 1861, its neutrality ended and the state reaffirmed its Union status while maintaining slavery. During an invasion by Confederate forces in 1861, Confederate sympathizers and delegates from 68 Kentucky counties organized the secession Russellville Convention, formed the shadow Confederate Government of Kentucky, inaugurated a governor, and Kentucky was admitted into the Confederacy on December 10, 1861. Its jurisdiction extended only as far as Confederate battle lines in the Commonwealth, which at its greatest extent was over half the state, and it went into exile after October 1862.[72]

After Virginia's secession, a Unionist government in Wheeling asked 48 counties to vote on an ordinance to create a new state in October 1861. A voter turnout of 34 percent approved the statehood bill (96 percent approving).[73] Twenty-four secessionist counties were included in the new state,[74] and the ensuing guerrilla war engaged about 40,000 federal troops for much of the war.[75][76] Congress admitted West Virginia to the Union on June 20, 1863. West Virginians provided about 20,000 soldiers to each side in the war.[77] A Unionist secession attempt occurred in East Tennessee but was suppressed by the Confederacy, which arrested over 3,000 men suspected of loyalty to the Union; they were held without trial.[78]

War

See also: List of American Civil War battles and Military leadership in the American Civil War

The Civil War was marked by intense and frequent battles. Over four years, 237 named battles were fought, along with many smaller actions, often characterized by their bitter intensity and high casualties. Historian John Keegan described it as "one of the most ferocious wars ever fought", where in many cases the only target was the enemy's soldiers.[79][80]

Mobilization

See also: Economic history of the American Civil War

Rioters attacking a building during the New York anti-draft riots of 1863

As the Confederate states organized, the US Army numbered 16,000, while Northern governors began mobilizing their militias.[81] The Confederate Congress authorized up to 100,000 troops in February. By May, Jefferson Davis was pushing for another

100,000 soldiers for one year or the duration, and the US Congress responded in kind.[82][83]

In the first year of the war, both sides had more volunteers than they could effectively train and equip. After the initial enthusiasm faded, relying on young men who came of age each year was not enough. Both sides enacted draft laws (conscription) to encourage or force volunteering, though relatively few were drafted. The Confederacy passed a draft law in April 1862 for men aged 18 to 35, with exemptions for overseers, government officials, and clergymen. The US Congress followed in July, authorizing a militia draft within states that could not meet their quota with volunteers. European immigrants joined the Union Army in large numbers, including 177,000 born in Germany and 144,000 in Ireland.[84] About 50,000 Canadians served, around 2,500 of whom were black.[85]

When the Emancipation Proclamation went into effect in January 1863, ex-slaves were energetically recruited to meet state quotas. States and local communities offered higher cash bonuses for white volunteers. Congress tightened the draft law in March 1863. Men selected in the draft could provide substitutes or, until mid-1864, pay commutation money. Many eligibles pooled their money to cover the cost of anyone drafted. Families used the substitute provision to select which man should go into the army and which should stay home. There was much evasion and resistance to the draft, especially in Catholic areas. The New York City draft riots in July 1863 involved Irish immigrants who had been signed up as citizens to swell the vote of the city's Democratic political machine, not realizing it made them liable for the draft.[86] Of the 168,649 men procured for the Union through the draft, 117,986 were substitutes, leaving only 50,663 who were conscripted.[87]

In the North and South, draft laws were highly unpopular. In the North, some 120,000 men evaded conscription, many fleeing to Canada, and another 280,000 soldiers deserted during the war.[88] At least 100,000 Southerners deserted, about 10 percent of the total. Southern desertion was high because many soldiers were more concerned about the fate of their local area than the Southern cause.[89] In the North, "bounty jumpers" enlisted to collect the generous bonus, deserted, then re-enlisted under a different name for a second bonus; 141 were caught and executed.[90]

From a tiny frontier force in 1860, the Union and Confederate armies grew into the "largest and most efficient armies in the world" within a few years. Some European observers at the time dismissed them as amateur and unprofessional,[91] but historian John Keegan concluded that each outmatched the French, Prussian, and Russian armies, and without the Atlantic, could have threatened any of them with defeat.[92]

Southern Unionists

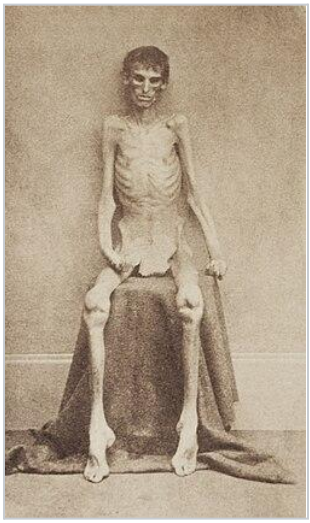
Main article: Southern Unionist

Newton Knight, one of the founders of the Free State of Jones

Unionism was strong in certain areas within the Confederacy. As many as 100,000 men living in states under Confederate control served in the Union Army or pro-Union guerrilla groups. Although they came from all classes, most Southern Unionists differed socially, culturally, and economically from their region's dominant prewar, slave-owning planter class.[93]

Prisoners

Main article: American Civil War prison camps



Union soldier held as a POW

At the beginning of the Civil War, a parole system operated, under which captives agreed not to fight until exchanged. They were held in camps run by their army, paid, but not allowed to perform any military duties.[94]

The system of exchanges collapsed in 1863 when the Confederacy refused to exchange black prisoners. After that, approximately 56,000 of the 409,000 POWs died in prisons, accounting for 10 percent of the conflict's fatalities.[95]

Women

See also: Women in the military § United States, and Gender issues in the American Civil War

Historian Elizabeth D. Leonard writes that between 500 and 1,000 women enlisted as soldiers on both sides, disguised as men.[96] Women also served as spies, resistance activists, nurses, and hospital personnel.[97] Women served on the Union hospital ship *Red Rover* and nursed Union and Confederate troops at field hospitals.[98] Mary Edwards Walker, the only woman ever to receive the Medal of Honor, served in the Union Army and was given the medal for treating the wounded during the war.[99][100] One woman, Jennie Hodgers, fought for the Union under the name Albert D. J. Cashier. After she returned to civilian life, she continued to live as a man until she died in 1915 at the age of 71.[101]

Union

During the war, women in the North advocated for social reforms and created ladies' aid societies, also called soldiers' aid societies, which provided supplies to soldiers on the battlefield and cared for sick and wounded soldiers. Women in the North also held military rallies, village parades, and charity bazaars.[102]

Susan B. Anthony was a women's rights activist and abolitionist.

Women like Susan B. Anthony saw that supporting the war effort was a way to pave the future for women's suffrage movements. In her appeal to Northern women's loyalty, Anthony challenged the inconsistencies of the nation's founding ideal and its actual practices concerning equality among women.[103]

Northern women during the Civil War also made great strides in the workforce, as they helped contribute to the war effort by stepping into roles that were traditionally held by men. While women rarely worked in factories before the war, many filled men's places as they felt they could erase some of the boundaries that separated them from male preserves of power.[102] Women were important in the workforce as they prepared and packed provisions, sewed uniforms and havelocks, and knitted socks and mittens.[104] By entering these new environments, women made significant progress in the fight for women's equality in the workforce.

Northern women were also essential in the wartime support, as they were active participants in the war narrative. While women were not allowed to fight on the battlefield in the Civil War, they exhibited a patriotism that gave them the strength to

maintain courage for themselves as well as their households.[102] While their men were off at war, Northern women created a landscape that emphasized love, sacrifice, and the nurturing of men's courage. This is demonstrated in feminized war literature that encouraged, expressed, and valorized men's patriotism.[104] Women's unwavering encouragement and affection towards fighting men became a cornerstone of the war effort as it helped sustain the spirits of the men on the frontlines.

Confederate

Confederate women during the Civil War focused on preserving the central economic institution of the Old South: the plantation. With so many men away at war, women were left with the land and the slaves. While some women hired male overseers to assist them in directing and maintaining newly female-headed plantations,[105] other women decided to stay at the plantations and run the plantations themselves. Southern women became focused on keeping the economic structure of the South as they dealt with increasingly rebellious slaves.[105]

The South relied on enslaved labor because it was an agrarian economy. A good number of enslaved men labored for the Confederate army during the war, which meant that enslaved women and children were increasingly at the center of the work force on the plantations.[106]

White Southern women struggled to maintain morale on the home front as they dealt with problems without men. Although Southern women were devoted to the Confederacy, many requested that their sons and husbands be discharged from the military to help them at home.[107] Eliza Adams wrote to the Confederate government to appeal for exemptions for her sons' military service, as she had sent five sons and also

sons-in-laws to fight for the Confederacy.[108] Southern women were torn between their patriotic ideals and their daily realities of life on the home front.

Union Navy

Main article: Union Navy

Battle between the USS *Monitor* and *Merrimack*

The Union Navy in 1861 was relatively small but, by 1865, expanded rapidly to 6,000 officers, 45,000 sailors, and 671 vessels totaling 510,396 tons.[109][110] Its mission was to blockade Confederate ports, control the river system, defend against Confederate raiders on the high seas, and be ready for a possible war with the British Royal Navy.[111] The main riverine war was fought in the West, where major rivers gave access to the Confederate heartland. The US Navy eventually controlled the Red, Tennessee, Cumberland, Mississippi, and Ohio rivers. In the East, the Navy shelled Confederate forts and supported coastal army operations.[112]

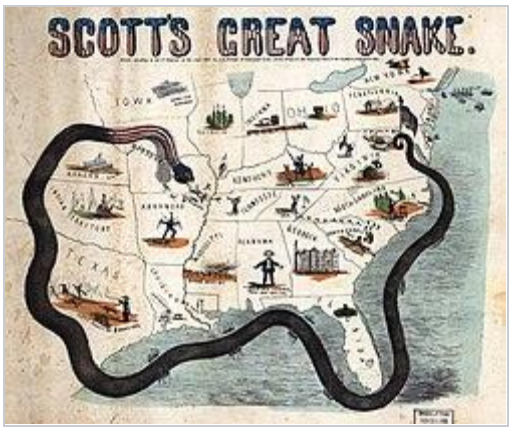
The Civil War occurred during the early stages of the industrial revolution, leading to naval innovations, including the ironclad warship. The Confederacy, recognizing the

need to counter the Union's naval superiority, built or converted over 130 vessels, including 26 ironclads.[113] Despite these efforts, Confederate ships were largely unsuccessful against Union ironclads.[114] The Union Navy used timberclads, tinclads, and armored gunboats. Shipyards in Cairo, Illinois, and St. Louis built or modified steamboats.[115]

The Confederacy experimented with the submarine CSS *Hunley*, which proved unsuccessful, and with the ironclad CSS *Virginia*, rebuilt from the sunken Union ship *Merrimack*.[116] On March 8, 1862, *Virginia* inflicted significant damage on the Union's wooden fleet, but the next day, the first Union ironclad, USS *Monitor*, arrived to challenge it in the Chesapeake Bay. The resulting three-hour Battle of Hampton Roads was a draw, proving ironclads were effective warships.[117] The Confederacy scuttled the *Virginia* to prevent its capture, while the Union built many copies of the *Monitor*. The Confederacy's efforts to obtain warships from Great Britain failed, as Britain had no interest in selling warships to a nation at war with a stronger enemy and feared souring relations with the US.[118]

Union blockade

Main article: Union blockade

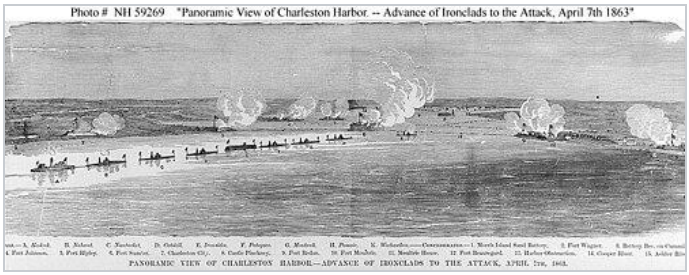


General Scott's Anaconda Plan, featuring a tightening naval blockade, forcing rebels out of Missouri along the Mississippi River, Kentucky Unionists sit on the fence, idled cotton industry illustrated in Georgia.

By early 1861, General Winfield Scott had devised the Anaconda Plan to win the war with minimal bloodshed, calling for a blockade of the Confederacy to suffocate the South into surrender.[119] Lincoln adopted parts of the plan but opted for a more active war strategy.[120] In April 1861, Lincoln announced a blockade of all Southern ports; commercial ships could not get insurance, ending regular traffic. The South blundered by embargoing cotton exports before the blockade was fully effective; by the time they reversed this decision, it was too late. "King Cotton" was dead, as the South could export less than 10% of its cotton. The blockade shut down the ten Confederate seaports with railheads that moved almost all the cotton. By June 1861, warships were stationed off the principal Southern ports, and a year later nearly 300 ships were in service.[121]

Blockade runners

Main article: Blockade runners of the American Civil War



Gunline of nine Union ironclads. South Atlantic Blockading Squadron off Charleston. Continuous blockade of all major ports was sustained by the North's overwhelming war production.

The Confederates began the war short on military supplies, which the agrarian South could not produce in adequate numbers. Northern arms manufacturers were restricted by an embargo, ending existing and future contracts with the South. The Confederacy turned to foreign sources, connecting with financiers and companies like S. Isaac, Campbell & Company and the London Armoury Company in Britain, becoming the Confederacy's main source of arms.[122][123]

To transport arms safely to the Confederacy, British investors built small, fast, steam-driven blockade runners that traded arms and supplies from Britain, through Bermuda, Cuba, and the Bahamas in exchange for high-priced cotton. Many were lightweight and designed for speed, only carrying small amounts of cotton back to England.[124] When the Union Navy seized a blockade runner, the ship and cargo were condemned as a prize of war and sold, with proceeds given to the Navy sailors; the captured crewmen, mostly British, were released.[125]

Economic impact

The Southern economy nearly collapsed during the war due to multiple factors, the most notable being severe food shortages, failing railroads, loss of control over key rivers, foraging by Northern armies, and the seizure of animals and crops by Confederate

forces.[126] Historians agree the blockade was a major factor in ruining the Confederate economy; however, Wise argues blockade runners provided enough of a lifeline to allow Robert E. Lee, a Confederate general, to continue fighting for additional months, as a result of supplies that included 400,000 rifles, lead, blankets, and boots that the Confederate economy could no longer supply.[126]

The Confederate cotton crop became nearly useless, which cut off the Confederacy's primary income source. Critical imports were scarce, and coastal trade also largely ended.[127] The blockade's success was not measured by the few ships, which slipped through, but by the thousands that never tried. European merchant ships could not obtain insurance for their ships and transport, and were too slow to evade the blockade, leading them to cease docking in Confederate ports.[128]

To fight an offensive war, the Confederacy purchased arms in Britain and converted British-built ships into commerce raiders, which targeted United States Merchant Marine ships in the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. The Confederacy smuggled 600,000 arms, enabling it to continue fighting for two more years.[129][130] As insurance rates soared, American-flagged ships largely ceased traveling in international waters, though some were reflagged with European flags, which allowed them to continue operating.[114] After the conclusion of the Civil War, the US government demanded Britain reimburse it for the damage caused by blockade runners and raiders outfitted in British ports. Britain paid the US$15 million in 1871, which covered costs associated with commerce raiding but nothing more.[131]

Diplomacy

Main article: Diplomacy of the American Civil War

Further information: United Kingdom and the American Civil War and France and the American Civil War

A December 1861 cartoon in *Punch* magazine in London ridicules American aggressiveness in the Trent Affair. John Bull, at right, warns Uncle Sam, "You do what's right, my son, or I'll blow you out of the water."

Although the Confederacy hoped Britain and France would join them against the Union, this was never likely, so they sought to bring them in as mediators.[132][133] The Union worked to block this and threatened war against any country that recognized the Confederacy. In 1861, Southerners voluntarily embargoed cotton shipments, hoping to start an economic depression in Europe that would force Britain to enter the war, but this failed. Worse, Europe turned to Egypt and India for cotton, which they found superior, hindering the South's postwar recovery.[134][135]

Cotton diplomacy proved a failure, because Europe had a surplus of cotton, while the 1860–62 crop failures in Europe made the North's grain exports critically important. It

also helped turn European opinion against the Confederacy. It was said that "King Corn was more powerful than King Cotton", as US grain increased from a quarter to almost half of British imports.[134] Meanwhile, the war created jobs for arms makers, ironworkers, and ships to transport weapons.[135]

Lincoln's administration initially struggled to appeal to European public opinion. At first, diplomats explained that the US was not committed to ending slavery and emphasized legal arguments about the unconstitutionality of secession. Confederate representatives, however, focused on their struggle for liberty, commitment to free trade, and the essential role of cotton in the European economy.[136] The European aristocracy was "absolutely gleeful in pronouncing the American debacle as proof that the entire experiment in popular government had failed. European government leaders welcomed the fragmentation of the ascendant American Republic."[137] However, a European public with liberal sensibilities remained, which the US sought to appeal to by building connections with the international press. By 1861, Union diplomats like Carl Schurz realized emphasizing the war against slavery was the Union's most effective moral asset in swaying European public opinion. Seward was concerned an overly radical case for reunification would distress European merchants with cotton interests; even so, he supported a widespread campaign of public diplomacy.[138]

US minister to Britain Charles Francis Adams proved adept and convinced Britain not to challenge the Union blockade. The Confederacy purchased warships from commercial shipbuilders in Britain, with the most famous being the CSS *Alabama*, which caused considerable damage and led to serious postwar disputes. However, public opinion against slavery in Britain created a political liability for politicians, where the anti-slavery movement was powerful.[139]

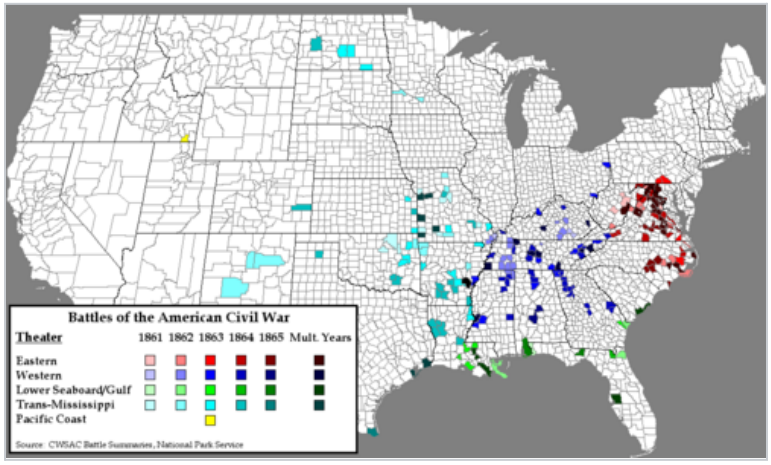
War loomed in late 1861 between the US and Britain over the *Trent* Affair, which began when US Navy personnel boarded the British ship *Trent* and seized two Confederate diplomats. However, London and Washington smoothed this over after Lincoln released the two men.[140] Prince Albert left his deathbed to issue diplomatic instructions to Lord Lyons during the *Trent* Affair. His request was honored, and, as a result, the British response to the US was toned down, helping avert war.[141] In 1862, the British government considered mediating between the Union and Confederacy, though such an offer would have risked war with the US. British prime minister Lord Palmerston reportedly read *Uncle Tom's Cabin* three times when deciding what his decision would be.[140]

The Union victory at the Battle of Antietam caused the British to delay this decision. The Emancipation Proclamation increased the political liability of supporting the Confederacy. Realizing that Washington could not intervene in Mexico as long as the Confederacy controlled Texas, France invaded Mexico in 1861 and installed the Habsburg Austrian archduke Maximilian I as emperor.[142] Washington repeatedly protested France's violation of the Monroe Doctrine. Despite sympathy for the Confederacy, France's seizure of Mexico deterred it from war with the Union. Confederate offers late in the war to end slavery in return for diplomatic recognition were not seriously considered by London or Paris. After 1863, the Polish revolt against Russia further distracted the European powers and ensured they remained neutral.[143]

Russia supported the Union, largely because it believed the US counterbalanced its geopolitical rival, the UK. In 1863, the Imperial Russian Navy's Baltic and Pacific fleets wintered in the American ports of New York and San Francisco, respectively.[144]

Eastern theater

Main article: Eastern theater of the American Civil War



County map of Civil War battles by theater and year

The Eastern theater refers to the military operations east of the Appalachian Mountains, including Virginia, West Virginia, Maryland, and Pennsylvania, the District of Columbia, and the coastal fortifications and seaports of North Carolina.[145]

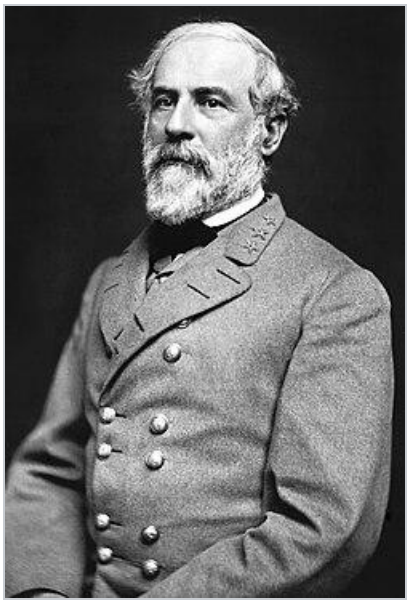
Background

Army of the Potomac

Maj. Gen. George B. McClellan took command of the Union Army of the Potomac on July 26, 1861, and the war began in earnest in 1862. The 1862 Union strategy called for simultaneous advances along four axes:[146]

1. McClellan would lead the main thrust in Virginia towards Richmond.
2. Ohio forces would advance through Kentucky into Tennessee.
3. The Missouri Department would drive south along the Mississippi River.
4. The westernmost attack would originate from Kansas.

Army of Northern Virginia



Robert E. Lee, the overall commander of the Confederate States Army

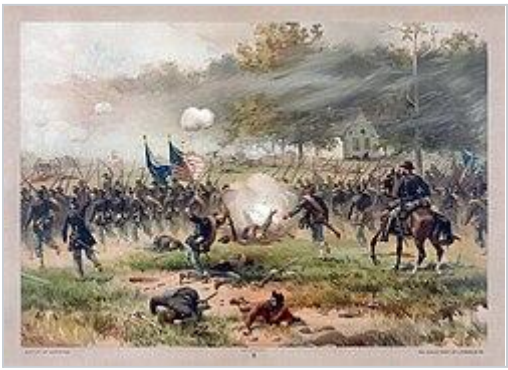
The primary Confederate force in the Eastern theater was the Army of Northern Virginia. The Army originated as the (Confederate) Army of the Potomac, which was organized on June 20, 1861, from all operational forces in Northern Virginia. On July 20 and 21, the Army of the Shenandoah and forces from the District of Harpers Ferry were added. Units from the Army of the Northwest were merged into the Army of the Potomac between March 14 and May 17, 1862. The Army of the Potomac was renamed *Army of Northern Virginia* on March 14. The Army of the Peninsula was merged into it on April 12, 1862.

When Virginia declared its secession in April 1861, Robert E. Lee chose to follow his home state, despite his desire for the country to remain intact and an offer of a senior Union command. In his four-volume biography of Lee published in 1934 and 1935, historian Douglas S. Freeman wrote that the army received its final name from Lee when he issued orders assuming command on June 1, 1862.[147] However, Freeman wrote, Lee corresponded with Brigadier General Joseph E. Johnston, his predecessor in army command, before that date and referred to Johnston's command as the Army of

Northern Virginia. Part of the confusion results from the fact that Johnston commanded the Department of Northern Virginia as of October 22, 1861, and the name Army of Northern Virginia was seen as an informal consequence of its parent department's name. Jefferson Davis and Johnston did not adopt the name, but the organization of units as of March 14 was clearly the same organization that Lee received on June 1, and is generally referred to as the Army of Northern Virginia, even if that is correct only in retrospect.

On July 4 at Harper's Ferry, Colonel Thomas J. Jackson assigned Jeb Stuart command of all cavalry companies of the Army of the Shenandoah, and Jackson eventually commanded the Army of Northern Virginia's cavalry.

Battles



A portrait depicting the Battle of Antietam, which resulted in over 22,000 casualties, the Civil War's deadliest one-day battle

Called the "Philippi Races" because of its brevity, Philippi, Virginia (now Philippi, WV) was the scene of the first organized land action of the American Civil War, on June 3, 1861. In July 1861, in the first in a series of prominent battles in the war, Union Army troops commanded by Maj. Gen. Irvin McDowell attacked Confederate forces, which were under the command of Beauregard near the national capital in Washington. The

Confederacy repelled the attack in the First Battle of Bull Run. At the beginning of the battle, the Union appeared to hold the upper hand. The Union Army routed Confederate forces, then holding defensive positions, but Confederate reinforcements under Joseph E. Johnston arrived from the Shenandoah Valley by railroad, and the battle's course quickly changed. A brigade of Virginians, commanded by Thomas J. Jackson, then a relatively unknown brigadier general from Virginia Military Institute, stood its ground, leading to Jackson earning the nickname "Stonewall". Lincoln urged the Union Army to commence offensive operations against Confederate forces, which led General George B. McClellan, in the spring of 1862, to attack Virginia by way of the peninsula between the York River and James River southeast of Richmond. McClellan's army reached the gates of Richmond in the Peninsula campaign.[148][149][150]

Also in the spring of 1862, in Shenandoah Valley, Jackson led his Valley Campaign, during which he employed rapid and unpredictable movements on interior lines. Jackson's 17,000 troops marched 646 miles (1,040 km) in 48 days, during which they won minor battles as they engaged three Union armies, comprising 52,000 men, including those of Nathaniel P. Banks and John C. Frémont, preventing them from reinforcing the Union offensive against Richmond. The swiftness of Jackson's troops earned them the nickname foot cavalry. Johnston halted McClellan's advance at the Battle of Seven Pines, but he was wounded in the battle, and Robert E. Lee assumed his position of command. Lee and his senior subordinates, James Longstreet and Stonewall Jackson, defeated McClellan in the Seven Days Battles, forcing McClellan's retreat.[151]

Union soldiers in the trenches, just prior to the Second Battle of Fredericksburg in May 1863

During the Northern Virginia Campaign, which included the Second Battle of Bull Run, Confederate forces registered another important military victory.[152] McClellan resisted General-in-Chief Halleck's orders to send reinforcements to John Pope's Union Army of Virginia, which enabled Lee's Confederate forces to defeat twice the number of combined enemy troops.[153]

Emboldened by Second Bull Run, Confederate forces launched their first invasion of the North in the Maryland Campaign during which Lee led 45,000 Army of Northern Virginia troops across the Potomac River into Maryland on September 5. Lincoln then restored Pope's troops to McClellan, and McClellan and Lee clashed in the Battle of Antietam near Sharpsburg, Maryland, on September 17, 1862, which proved the bloodiest single day in both the Civil War and US military history.[151][154] Lee's army retreated to Virginia before McClellan could destroy it, leading the Battle of Antietam to be widely viewed as a Union victory since it halted Lee's invasion of the North and provided an opportunity for Lincoln to issue the Emancipation Proclamation, which he issued as an executive order on January 1, 1863.[155]

McClellan failed to respond in any measurable way to Lee's attempt to invade the North at Antietam, leading to his replacement by Maj. Gen. Ambrose Burnside. Burnside led

Union Army troops in the Battle of Fredericksburg,[156] where they were defeated on December 13, 1862. Over 12,000 Union soldiers were killed or wounded during futile attempts by Union troops to launch frontal assaults against Marye's Heights.[157] After the battle, Burnside was replaced by Maj. Gen. Joseph Hooker.[158]

A portrait depicting Pickett's Charge on July 3, 1863, the final day of the Battle of Gettysburg, which proved the Civil War's deadliest battle but also one of its most significant, altering the course of the war in the Union's favor

Hooker, too, proved unable to defeat Lee's army; despite having more than twice as many troops as Lee, Hooker's Chancellorsville Campaign proved ineffective, and he was soundly defeated in the Battle of Chancellorsville, which was fought between April 30 and May 6, 1863.[159] Chancellorsville is known as Lee's "perfect battle" because his risky decision to divide his army paid off. During the Battle of Chancellorsville, Stonewall Jackson was shot in his left arm and right hand by friendly fire, leading to the amputation of his arm, and he died of pneumonia.[160] Lee famously said: "He has lost his left arm, but I have lost my right arm."[161]

The fiercest fighting of the battle—and the second bloodiest day of the Civil War—occurred on May 3 as Lee launched multiple attacks against the Union position at

Chancellorsville. That same day, John Sedgwick advanced across the Rappahannock River, defeated the small Confederate force at Marye's Heights in the Second Battle of Fredericksburg, and then moved westward, but Confederate forces succeeded in delaying Union forces in the Battle of Salem Church.[162]

Hooker was replaced by Maj. Gen. George Meade during Lee's second invasion of the North, in June. In the Battle of Gettysburg, which proved the war's bloodiest and one of its most strategically significant, Meade defeated Lee in a three-day battle between July 1 and 3, 1863.[163] The Battle of Gettysburg caused over 50,000 Union and Confederate casualties, but also proved the war's turning point, altering the course of the war in the Union's favor. Pickett's Charge, launched July 3, on the final day of the Battle of Gettysburg, is considered the high-water mark of the Confederacy, representing the collapse of any credible prospect that the Confederacy could prevail in the war. At Gettysburg, Lee's Army of Northern Virginia suffered 28,000 casualties versus Meade's 23,000, and Lee was repelled in a failed attempt to invade and occupy Union territory.[164][165]

Western theater

Main article: Western theater of the American Civil War

The Western theater refers to military operations between the Appalachian Mountains and the Mississippi River, including Alabama, Georgia, Florida, Mississippi, North Carolina, Kentucky, South Carolina, Tennessee, and parts of Louisiana.[166]

Background

Army of the Cumberland and Army of the Tennessee

Main articles: Army of the Cumberland and Army of the Tennessee

Ulysses S. Grant, a Union army general who was later elected the nation's 18th president

The primary Union forces in this theater were the Army of the Tennessee and Army of the Cumberland, named for the two rivers, Tennessee River and Cumberland River. After Meade's inconclusive fall campaign, Lincoln turned to the Western theater for new leadership. At the same time, the Confederate stronghold of Vicksburg surrendered, giving the Union control of the Mississippi River, permanently isolating the western Confederacy, and producing the new leader Lincoln needed, Ulysses S. Grant.[167]

The Army of Tennessee, which served as the primary Confederate force in the Western theater, was formed on November 20, 1862, when General Braxton Bragg renamed the former Army of Mississippi. While Confederate forces had successes in the Eastern theater, they were defeated many times in the West.[166]

Battles

The Union's key strategist and tactician in the West was Ulysses S. Grant, who led the Union to victories in battles at Fort Henry (February 6, 1862) and Fort Donelson (February 11 to 16, 1862), earning him the nickname of "Unconditional Surrender" Grant. With these victories, the Union gained control of the Tennessee and Cumberland Rivers.[168] Nathan Bedford Forrest rallied nearly 4,000 Confederate troops and led them to escape across the Cumberland River. Nashville and central Tennessee fell to the Union, leading to attrition of local food supplies and livestock and a breakdown in social organization.[169][170][171]

Confederate general Leonidas Polk subsequently invaded Columbus, Kentucky, which ended Kentucky's policy of neutrality and turned it against the Confederacy. Grant used river transport and Andrew Hull Foote's gunboats of the Western Flotilla, threatening the Confederacy's "Gibraltar of the West" in Columbus, Kentucky. Although rebuffed at Belmont, Grant cut off Columbus. Confederate forces, lacking their gunboats, were forced to retreat and the Union took control of west Kentucky and opened Tennessee in March 1862.[172]

At the Battle of Shiloh, in Shiloh, Tennessee, in April 1862, Confederate forces launched a surprise attack on Union forces, pushing them back to the Tennessee River as night fell. Over that night, however, the Navy landed reinforcements, and Grant counterattacked. Grant and the Union ultimately won a decisive victory in the first battle with a high number of casualties in what proved to be the first in a series of such battles.[173] Confederate forces lost Albert Sidney Johnston, considered their finest general, before Lee emerged to assume command.[174]

The Battle of Chickamauga, the war's highest two-day loss battle

One of the early Union objectives was to capture the Mississippi River, which would permit it to cut the Confederacy in half. The Mississippi was opened to Union traffic to the southern border of Tennessee after it took Island No. 10, New Madrid, Missouri, and then Memphis, Tennessee.[175]

In April 1862, the Union Navy captured New Orleans.[175] "The key to the river was New Orleans, the South's largest port [and] greatest industrial center."[176] US naval forces under Farragut ran past Confederate defenses south of New Orleans. Confederate forces abandoned the city, giving the Union a critical anchor in the deep South,[177] which allowed Union forces to move up the Mississippi. Memphis fell to Union forces on June 6, 1862, allowing it to serve as a key base for further Union advances south along the Mississippi. On the Mississippi River, the Union took every fortress city with the exception of Vicksburg, Mississippi. But Confederate control of Vicksburg was sufficient in preventing the Union from controlling the entire river.[178]

Bragg's second invasion of Kentucky in the Confederate Heartland Offensive included initial successes, including Kirby Smith's triumph in the Battle of Richmond and the capture of the Kentucky capital of Frankfort, Kentucky, on September 3, 1862.[179] The

campaign ended with a meaningless victory over Maj. Gen. Don Carlos Buell at the Battle of Perryville, and Bragg was forced to end his attempt to invade and control Kentucky. Lacking logistical support and infantry recruits, Bragg was instead forced to retreat,[180] and ended up being narrowly defeated by Maj. Gen. William Rosecrans in the Battle of Stones River in Tennessee in what proved to be the culmination of the Stones River Campaign.[181]

US naval forces assisted Grant in the long, complex Vicksburg Campaign, which resulted in Confederate forces surrendering in the Battle of Vicksburg in July 1863, which cemented Union control of the Mississippi River in one of the war's turning points.[182][183] The one clear Confederate victory in the West was the Battle of Chickamauga. After Rosecrans' successful Tullahoma Campaign, Bragg, reinforced by Lt. Gen. James Longstreet's Corps, defeated Rosecrans, despite the defensive stand of Maj. Gen. George Henry Thomas.[*citation needed*] Rosecrans retreated to Chattanooga, Tennessee, where Bragg was then besieged in the Chattanooga campaign. Grant marched to the relief of Rosecrans, where he led the defeat of Bragg in the Third Battle of Chattanooga,[184] eventually causing Longstreet to abandon his Knoxville Campaign and driving Confederate forces out of Tennessee and opening a route to Atlanta and the heart of the Confederacy.[185]

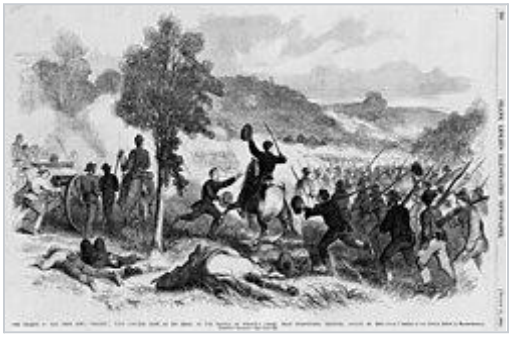
Trans-Mississippi theater

Main article: Trans-Mississippi theater of the American Civil War

Background

The Trans-Mississippi theater refers to military operations west of the Mississippi, encompassing most of Missouri, Arkansas, most of Louisiana, and the Indian Territory in present-day Oklahoma. The Trans-Mississippi District was formed by the Confederate States Army to better coordinate Ben McCulloch's command of troops in Arkansas and Louisiana, Sterling Price's Missouri State Guard, as well as the portion of Earl Van Dorn's command that included the Indian Territory and excluded the Army of the West. The Union's command was the Trans-Mississippi Division, or the Military Division of West Mississippi.[186]

Battles



Nathaniel Lyon secured docks and arsenal in St. Louis, leading Union Army forces to expel the Missouri Confederate forces and government.[187]

The first major battle of the Trans-Mississippi theater was the Battle of Wilson's Creek (August 1861). The Confederates were driven from Missouri early in the war as a result of the Battle of Pea Ridge.[188]

Extensive guerrilla warfare characterized the trans-Mississippi region, as the Confederacy lacked the troops and logistics to support regular armies that could challenge Union control.[189][190] Roving Confederate bands such as Quantrill's Raiders

terrorized the countryside, striking military installations and civilian settlements.[191] The "Sons of Liberty" and "Order of the American Knights" attacked pro-Union people, elected officeholders, and unarmed uniformed soldiers. These partisans could not be driven out of Missouri, until an entire regular Union infantry division was engaged. By 1864, these violent activities harmed the nationwide antiwar movement organizing against the re-election of Lincoln. Missouri not only stayed in the Union, but Lincoln took 70 percent of the vote to win re-election.[192]

Small-scale military actions south and west of Missouri sought to control Indian Territory and New Mexico Territory for the Union. The Battle of Glorieta Pass was the decisive battle of the New Mexico Campaign. The Union repulsed Confederate incursions into New Mexico in 1862, and the exiled Arizona government withdrew into Texas. In the Indian Territory, civil war broke out within tribes. About 12,000 Indian warriors fought for the Confederacy but fewer for the Union.[193] The most prominent Cherokee was Brigadier General Stand Watie, the last Confederate general to surrender.[194]

After the fall of Vicksburg in July 1863, Jefferson Davis informed General Kirby Smith in Texas that he could expect no further help from east of the Mississippi. Although he lacked resources to beat Union armies, he built up a formidable arsenal at Tyler, along with his own Kirby Smithdom economy, a virtual "independent fiefdom" in Texas, including railroad construction and international smuggling. The Union, in turn, did not directly engage him.[195] The Union's 1864 Red River Campaign to take Shreveport, Louisiana, failed and Texas remained in Confederate hands throughout the war.[196]

Lower seaboard theater

Main article: Lower seaboard theater of the American Civil War

Background

The lower seaboard theater refers to military and naval operations that occurred near the coastal areas of the Southeast as well as the southern part of the Mississippi. Union naval activities were dictated by the Anaconda Plan.[197]

Battles

New Orleans captured

One of the earliest battles was fought in November 1861 at Port Royal Sound, south of Charleston. Much of the war along the South Carolina coast concentrated on capturing Charleston. In attempting to capture Charleston, the Union military tried two approaches: by land over James or Morris Islands or through the harbor. However, the Confederates were able to drive back each attack. A famous land attack was the Second Battle of Fort Wagner, in which the 54th Massachusetts Infantry took part. The Union suffered a serious defeat, losing 1,515 soldiers while the Confederates lost only 174. However, the 54th was hailed for its valor, which encouraged the general acceptance of the recruitment of African American soldiers into the Union Army, which reinforced the Union's numerical advantage.[198]

Fort Pulaski on the Georgia coast was an early target for the Union navy. Following the capture of Port Royal, an expedition was organized with engineer troops under the command of Captain Quincy Adams Gillmore, forcing a Confederate surrender. The Union army occupied the fort for the rest of the war after repairing it.[199]

In April 1862, a Union naval task force commanded by Commander David Dixon Porter attacked Forts Jackson and St. Philip, which guarded the river approach to New Orleans from the south. While part of the fleet bombarded the forts, other vessels forced a break in the obstructions in the river and enabled the rest of the fleet to steam upriver to the city. A Union army force commanded by Maj. Gen. Benjamin Butler landed near the forts and forced their surrender. Butler's controversial command of New Orleans earned him the nickname "Beast".[200]

The following year, the Union Army of the Gulf commanded by Maj. Gen. Nathaniel P. Banks laid siege to Port Hudson for nearly eight weeks, the longest siege in US military history. The Confederates attempted to defend with the Bayou Teche Campaign but surrendered after Vicksburg. These surrenders gave the Union control over the Mississippi.[167]

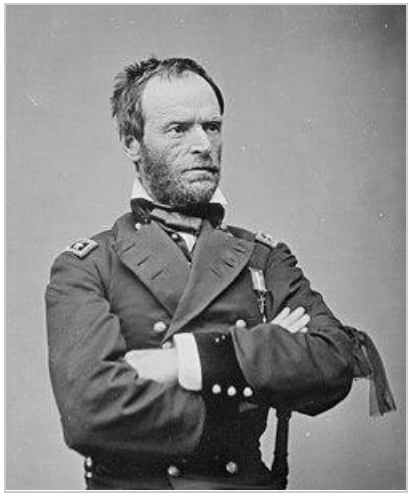
Several skirmishes but no major battles were fought in Florida. The biggest was the Battle of Olustee in early 1864.[201]

Pacific coast theater

Main article: Pacific coast theater of the American Civil War

The Pacific coast theater refers to military operations on the Pacific Ocean and in the states and territories west of the Continental Divide.[202]

Conquest of Virginia



General William Tecumseh Sherman

At the beginning of 1864, Lincoln made Grant commander of all Union armies. Grant made his headquarters with the Army of the Potomac and put Maj. Gen. William Tecumseh Sherman in command of most of the western armies. Grant understood the concept of total war and believed, along with Lincoln and Sherman, that only the utter defeat of Confederate forces and their economic base would end the war.[203] This was total war not in killing civilians, but in injuring the Confederacy's capacity to produce and transport the supplies needed to continue the war. Sherman, at Grant's direction, seized provisions and destroyed homes, farms, and railroads, which Grant said "would otherwise have gone to the support of secession and rebellion. This policy I believe exercised a material influence in hastening the end."[204]

Grant devised a coordinated strategy that would strike at the entire Confederacy from multiple directions. Generals Meade and Benjamin Butler were ordered to move against Lee near Richmond, General Franz Sigel was to attack the Shenandoah Valley, General

Sherman was to capture Atlanta and march to the Atlantic Ocean, Generals George Crook and William W. Averell were to operate against railroad supply lines in West Virginia, and Maj. Gen. Nathaniel P. Banks was to capture Mobile, Alabama.[205]

Grant's Overland Campaign

Grant's army set out on the Overland Campaign intending to draw Lee into a defense of Richmond, where they would attempt to pin down and destroy the Confederate army. The Union army first attempted to maneuver past Lee and fought several battles, notably at the Wilderness, Spotsylvania, and Cold Harbor. These resulted in heavy losses on both sides and forced Lee's Confederates to fall back repeatedly.[206] At the Battle of Yellow Tavern, the Confederates lost Jeb Stuart.[207]

An attempt to outflank Lee from the south failed under Butler, who was trapped inside the Bermuda Hundred river bend. Each battle resulted in setbacks for the Union that mirrored those they had suffered under prior generals, though unlike them, Grant chose to fight on rather than retreat. Grant was tenacious and kept pressing Lee's Army of Northern Virginia back to Richmond. While Lee was preparing for an attack on Richmond, Grant unexpectedly turned south to cross the James River and began the protracted Siege of Petersburg, where the two armies engaged in trench warfare for over nine months.[208]

Sheridan's Valley Campaign

Philip Sheridan

To deny the Confederacy continued use of the Shenandoah Valley as a base from which to launch invasions of Maryland and the Washington area, and to threaten Lee's supply lines for his forces, Grant launched the Valley campaigns in May 1864. Initial efforts led by Gen. Sigel were repelled at the Battle of New Market by Confederate Gen. John C. Breckinridge. The Battle of New Market was the Confederacy's last major victory, and included a charge by teenage VMI cadets. After relieving Sigel, and following mixed performances by his successor, Grant finally found a commander, General Philip Sheridan, aggressive enough to prevail against the army of Maj. Gen. Jubal A. Early. After a cautious start, Sheridan defeated Early in a series of battles in September and October 1864, including a decisive defeat at the Battle of Cedar Creek. Sheridan then proceeded through that winter to destroy the agricultural base of the Shenandoah Valley, a strategy similar to the tactics Sherman later employed in Georgia.[209]

Sherman's March to the Sea and Carolinas campaign

Main articles: Sherman's March to the Sea and Carolinas campaign

Meanwhile, Sherman maneuvered from Chattanooga to Atlanta, defeating Confederate Generals Joseph E. Johnston and John Bell Hood. The fall of Atlanta on September 2, 1864, guaranteed the reelection of Lincoln.[210] Hood left the Atlanta area to swing around and menace Sherman's supply lines and invade Tennessee in the Franklin–Nashville Campaign. Union Maj. Gen. John Schofield defeated Hood at the Battle of Franklin, and George H. Thomas dealt Hood a massive defeat at the Battle of Nashville, effectively destroying Hood's army.[211]

Leaving Atlanta, and his base of supplies, Sherman's army marched, with no destination set, laying waste to about 20 percent of the farms in Georgia on his March to the Sea.[212] He reached the Atlantic at Savannah, Georgia, in December 1864. Sherman's army was followed by thousands of freed slaves;[213] there were no major battles along the march. Sherman turned north through South Carolina and North Carolina in his Carolinas campaign, to approach the Confederate Virginia lines from the south, increasing the pressure on Lee's army.[214]

The Waterloo of the Confederacy

Lee's army, thinned by desertion and casualties, was now much smaller than Grant's. One last Confederate attempt to break the Union hold on Petersburg failed at the decisive Battle of Five Forks on April 1. The Union now controlled the entire perimeter surrounding Richmond–Petersburg, completely cutting it off from the Confederacy. Realizing the capital was now lost, Lee's army and the Confederate government were forced to evacuate. The Confederate capital fell on April 2–3, to the Union XXV Corps, composed of black troops. The remaining Confederate units fled west after a defeat at Sayler's Creek on April 6.[215]

End of the war

Main article: Conclusion of the American Civil War

The New-York Times.

NEW-YORK, MONDAY, APRIL 10, 1865.

HANG OUT YOUR BANNERS

UNION

VICTORY!

PEACE!

Surrender of General Lee and His Whole Army.

THE WORK OF PALM SUNDAY.

Final Triumph of the Army of the Potomac.

The Strategy and Diplomacy of Lieut.-Gen. Grant.

Terms and Conditions of the Surrender.

The Rebel Arms, Artillery, and Public Property Surrendered.

Rebel Officers Retain Their Side Arms and Private Property.

Officers and Men Paroled and Allowed to Return to Their Homes.

THE VICTORY.

Thanks to God, the Giver of Victory.

Honors to Gen. Grant and His Gallant Army.

A NATIONAL SALUTE ORDERED.

Two Hundred Guns to be Fired at the Headquarters of Every Army, Department, Fort and Arsenal.

This *New York Times* front page celebrated Lee's surrender, headlining how Grant let Confederate officers retain their sidearms and "paroled" the Confederate officers and men.[216]

SAVANNAH DAILY HERALD.

VOL. 1—NO. 77. SAVANNAH, GA., SUNDAY, APRIL 16, 1865. PRICE, 5 CENTS

MOST GLORIOUS NEWS OF THE WAR

LEE HAS SURRENDERED TO GRANT!

ALL LEE'S OFFICERS AND MEN ARE PAROLED.

Official Proclamation from Secretary Stanton.

200 Guns to be Fired at Every Military Post in the Country!

"THE END DRAWS NIGH!"

PEACE IS NIGH.

Column continues above

END OF THE REBELLION.

SURRENDER OF GEN. LEE AND THE ENTIRE ARMY OF REBEL-DOM.

Two Soldiers in Council!

GLORY TO GRANT!

Full Details of the Terms of the Capitulation.

THE JUBILEE FOR THE REST.

PEACE AT LAST! THANK GOD!

From page 4

News of Lee's April 9 surrender reached this southern newspaper (Savannah, Georgia) on April 15—after the April 14 shooting of President Lincoln. The article quotes Grant's terms of surrender.[217]

Lee did not intend to surrender, but planned to regroup at Appomattox Station, where supplies were to be waiting, and then continue the war. Grant chased Lee and got in front of him, so that when Lee's army reached the village of Appomattox Court House, they were surrounded. After an initial battle, Lee decided the fight was hopeless, and surrendered his Army of Northern Virginia to Grant on April 9, 1865, during a conference at the McLean House.[218][219] In an untraditional gesture and as a sign of Grant's respect and anticipation of peacefully restoring Confederate states to the Union, Lee was permitted to keep his sword and horse, Traveller. His men were paroled, and a chain of Confederate surrenders began.[220]

On April 14, 1865, Lincoln was shot by John Wilkes Booth, a Confederate sympathizer. Lincoln died early the next morning. Lincoln's vice president, Andrew Johnson, was unharmed, because his would-be assassin, George Atzerodt, lost his nerve, so Johnson was immediately sworn in as president.

Meanwhile, Confederate forces across the South surrendered, as news of Lee's surrender reached them.[h] On April 26, the same day Sergeant Boston Corbett killed Booth at a tobacco barn, Johnston surrendered nearly 90,000 troops of the Army of Tennessee to Sherman at Bennett Place, near present-day Durham, North Carolina. It proved to be the largest surrender of Confederate forces. On May 4, all remaining Confederate forces in Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana east of the Mississippi, under the command of Lt. General Richard Taylor, surrendered.[221] Confederate president Davis was captured in retreat at Irwinville, Georgia on May 10.[222]

The final land battle was fought on May 13, 1865, at the Battle of Palmito Ranch in Texas.[223][224][225] On May 26, 1865, Confederate Lt. Gen. Simon B. Buckner, acting for Edmund Smith, signed a military convention surrendering Confederate forces in the

Trans-Mississippi Department.[226][227] This date is often cited by contemporaries and historians as the effective end date of the war.[a][b] On June 2, with most of his troops having already gone home, a reluctant Kirby Smith had little choice but to sign the official surrender document.[228][229] On June 23, Cherokee leader and Brig. General Stand Watie became the last Confederate general to surrender his forces.[230][231]

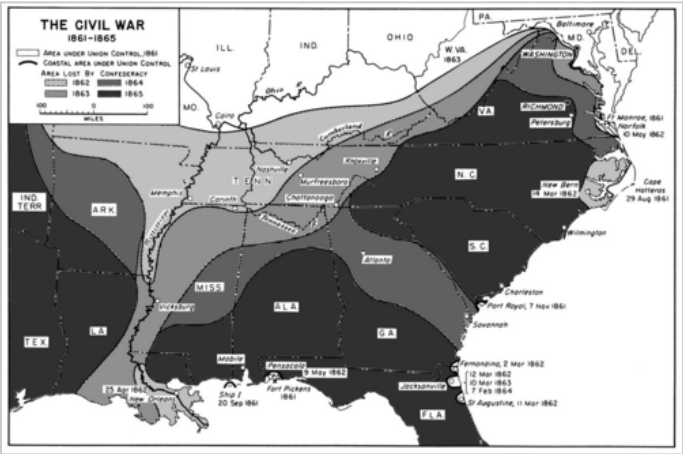
On June 19, 1865, Union Maj. Gen. Gordon Granger announced General Order No. 3, bringing the Emancipation Proclamation into effect in Texas and freeing the last slaves of the Confederacy.[232] The anniversary of this date is now celebrated as Juneteenth.[233]

The naval part of the war ended more slowly. On April 11, two days after Lee's surrender, when Lincoln proclaimed that foreign nations had no further "claim or pretense" to deny equality of maritime rights and hospitalities to US warships and, in effect, that rights extended to Confederate ships to use neutral ports as safe havens from US warships should end.[234][235] Having no response to Lincoln's proclamation, President Johnson issued a similar proclamation dated May 10, more directly stating that the war was almost at an end and insurgent cruisers still at sea, and prepared to attack US ships, should not have rights to do so through use of safe foreign ports or waters.[236] Britain finally responded on June 6, by transmitting a letter from Foreign Secretary John Russell, 1st Earl Russell, to the Lords of the Admiralty withdrawing rights to Confederate warships to enter British ports and waters.[237] US Secretary of State Seward welcomed the withdrawal of concessions to the Confederates.[238] Finally, on October 18, Russell advised the Admiralty that the time specified in his June message had elapsed and "all measures of a restrictive nature on vessels of war of the United States in British ports, harbors, and waters, are now to be considered as at an

end".[239] Nonetheless, the final Confederate surrender was in Liverpool, England where James Iredell Waddell, the captain of CSS *Shenandoah*, surrendered the cruiser to British authorities on November 6.[240]

Legally, the war did not end until August 20, 1866, when President Johnson issued a proclamation that declared "that the said insurrection is at an end and that peace, order, tranquillity, and civil authority now exist in and throughout the whole of the United States of America".[i]

Union victory



Map of Confederate territory losses year by year

The causes of the war, reasons for its outcome, and even its name are subjects of lingering contention. The North and West grew wealthy while the once-rich South became poor for a century. The national political power of the slaveowners and rich Southerners ended. Historians are less sure about the results of postwar

Reconstruction, especially regarding the second-class citizenship of the freedmen and their poverty.[241]

Historians have debated whether the Confederacy could have won the war. Most scholars, including James M. McPherson, argue Confederate victory was possible.[242] McPherson argues that the North's advantage in population and resources made Northern victory likely, but not guaranteed. He argues that if the Confederacy had fought using unconventional tactics, it would have more easily been able to hold out long enough to exhaust the Union.[243] Confederates did not need to invade and hold enemy territory to win, but only to fight a defensive war to convince the North the cost of winning was too high. The North needed to conquer and hold vast stretches of enemy territory and defeat Confederate armies to win.[243] Lincoln was not a military dictator and could fight only as long as the American public supported the war. The Confederacy sought to win independence by outlasting Lincoln; however, after Atlanta fell and Lincoln defeated McClellan in the election of 1864, hope for a political victory for the South ended. Lincoln had secured the support of the Republicans, War Democrats, border states, emancipated slaves, and the neutrality of Britain and France. By defeating the Democrats and McClellan, he defeated the Copperheads, who had wanted a negotiated peace with the Confederacy.[244]

	Year	Union	Confederacy
Population	1860	22,100,000 (71%)	9,100,000 (29%)

	1864	28,800,000 (90%)[j]	3,000,000 (10%)[247]
Free	1860	21,700,000 (98%)	5,600,000 (62%)
Slave	1860	490,000 (2%)	3,550,000 (38%)
	1864	*negligible*	1,900,000[k]
Soldiers	1860–64	2,100,000 (67%)	1,064,000 (33%)
Railroad miles[248]	1860	21,800 (71%)	8,800 (29%)
	1864	29,100 (98%)[l]	*negligible*
Manufactures	1860	90%	10%
	1864	98%	2%

Arms production	1860	97%	3%
	1864	98%	2%
Cotton bales	1860	*negligible*	4,500,000
	1864	300,000	*negligible*
Exports	1860	30%	70%
	1864	98%	2%

Some scholars argue the Union held an insurmountable long-term advantage over the Confederacy in industrial strength and population. Confederate actions, they argue, only delayed defeat.[250][251] Historian Shelby Foote expressed this view succinctly:

I think that the North fought that war with one hand behind its back.... If there had been more Southern victories, and a lot more, the North simply would have brought that other hand out from behind its back. I don't think the South ever had a chance to win that War.[252]

A minority view among historians is that the Confederacy lost because, as E. Merton Coulter put it, "people did not will hard enough and long enough to win".[253][254][255]

However, most historians reject the argument.[256] McPherson, after reading thousands of letters written by Confederate soldiers, found strong patriotism that continued to the end; they truly believed they were fighting for freedom and liberty. Even as the Confederacy was visibly collapsing in 1864–65, most Confederate soldiers were fighting hard.[257] Historian Gary Gallagher cites General Sherman, who in early 1864 commented, "The devils seem to have a determination that cannot but be admired." Despite their loss of slaves and wealth, with starvation looming, Sherman continued, "yet I see no sign of let-up—some few deserters—plenty tired of war, but the masses determined to fight it out".[258]

Also important were Lincoln's eloquence in articulating the national purpose and his skill in keeping the border states committed to the Union cause. The Emancipation Proclamation was an effective use of the president's war powers.[259] The Confederate government failed to get Europe involved militarily. Southern leaders needed to get European powers to help break the blockade the Union had created around Southern ports. Lincoln's naval blockade was 95 percent effective at stopping trade goods; as a result, imports and exports to the South declined significantly. The abundance of European cotton and Britain's hostility to slavery, along with Lincoln's naval blockades, severely decreased any chance that Britain or France would enter the war.[260]

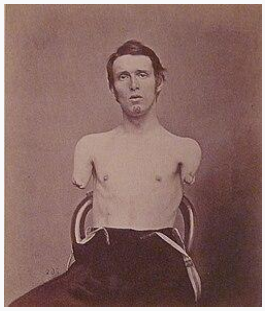
Historian Don H. Doyle has argued that the Union victory had a major impact on world history.[261] The Union victory energized popular democratic forces. A Confederate victory, on the other hand, would have meant a new birth of slavery, not of freedom. Historian Fergus Bordewich, following Doyle, argues:

The North's victory decisively proved the durability of democratic government. Confederate independence, on the other hand, would have established an American

model for reactionary politics and race-based repression that would likely have cast an international shadow into the 20th century and perhaps beyond.[262]

Scholars have debated what the effects of the war were on political and economic power in the South.[263] The prevailing view is that the southern planter elite retained its powerful position in the South.[263] However, a 2017 study challenges this, noting that while some Southern elites retained their economic status, the turmoil of the 1860s created greater opportunities for economic mobility in the South, than in the North.[263]

Casualties



One in thirteen veterans were amputees.

Remains of both sides were reinterred.

Andersonville National Cemetery, Georgia

Category	Union	Confederate
Killed in action	110,100	94,000
Disease	224,580	164,000
Wounded in action	275,154	194,026
Captured **(inc those who died as POWs)**	211,411 (30,192)	462,634 (31,000)
Total	821,245	914,660

Further information: Environmental history of the United States § Civil War

Exact casualty figures were collected for the Union, but Confederate records were poorly kept, or lost in the chaos of defeat. Thus, the casualty figures are imprecise and based on statistical extrapolation. Neither side kept a tally of civilian deaths due to the war. In the 19th century, the death toll had been estimated at a lower 620,000.[9] In 2011, the death toll was recalculated based on a 1% sample of census data, yielding approximately 750,000 soldier deaths, 20 percent higher than traditionally estimated, and possibly as high as 850,000.[12][264] The figure was recalculated to 698,000 soldier deaths in 2024 after examining newly available full census records. Mortality rates among men were as high as 19 percent in Louisiana, and 16.6–16.7 percent in Georgia and South Carolina respectively.[265][266]

The war resulted in at least 1,030,000 casualties (3 percent of the population), including an estimated 698,000 soldier deaths—two-thirds by disease.[266][9] Based on 1860 census figures, 8 percent of all white men aged 13–43 died in the war, including 6 percent in the North and 18 percent in the South.[267][268] About 56,000 soldiers died in prison camps during the War.[269] An estimated 60,000 soldiers lost limbs.[270] As McPherson notes, the war's "cost in American lives was as great as in all of the nation's other wars combined through Vietnam".[271]

Of the 359,528 Union Army dead, amounting to 15 percent of the over two million who served:[5]

- 110,070 were killed in action (67,000) or died of wounds (43,000).
- 199,790 died of disease (75 percent was due to the war, the remainder would have occurred in civilian life anyway)
- 24,866 died in Confederate prison camps
- 9,058 were killed by accidents or drowning
- 15,741 other/unknown deaths

In addition, there were 4,523 deaths in the Navy (2,112 in battle) and 460 in the Marines (148 in battle).[6]

After the Emancipation Proclamation authorized freed slaves to "be received into the armed service of the United States", former slaves who escaped from plantations or were liberated by the Union Army were recruited into the United States Colored Troops regiments of the Union Army, as were black men who had not been slaves. The US Colored Troops made up 10 percent of the Union death toll—15 percent of Union deaths from disease and less than 3 percent of those killed in battle.[5] Losses among African Americans were high. In the last year and a half and from all reported casualties, approximately 20 percent of all African Americans enrolled in the military died during the war. Their mortality rate was significantly higher than white soldiers. While 15 percent of US Volunteers and just 9 percent of white Regular Army troops died, 21 percent of US Colored Troops died.[272]:16

An illustration of the war dead following the Battle of Antietam battlefield in 1862

While the figures of 360,000 army deaths for the Union and 260,000 for the Confederacy remained commonly cited, they are incomplete. In addition to many Confederate records being missing, partly as a result of Confederate widows not reporting deaths due to being ineligible for benefits, both armies only counted troops who died during their service and not the tens of thousands who died of wounds or

diseases after being discharged. This often happened only days or weeks later. Francis Amasa Walker, superintendent of the 1870 census, used census and surgeon general data to estimate a minimum of 500,000 Union military deaths and 350,000 Confederate military deaths, a total of 850,000 soldiers. While Walker's estimates were originally dismissed because of the 1870 census's undercounting, it was later found that the census was only off by 6.5 percent and that the data Walker used would be roughly accurate.[12]

Losses were far higher than during the war with Mexico, which saw roughly 13,000 American deaths, including fewer than two thousand killed in battle, between 1846 and 1848. One reason for the high number of battle deaths in the civil war was the continued use of tactics similar to those of the Napoleonic Wars, such as charging. With the advent of more accurate rifled barrels, Minié balls, and (near the end of the war for the Union) repeating firearms such as the Spencer repeating rifle and the Henry repeating rifle, soldiers were mowed down when standing in lines in the open. This led to the adoption of trench warfare, a style of fighting that defined much of World War I.[273]

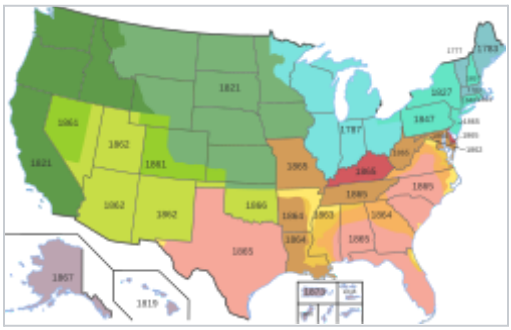
Deaths among former slaves has proven hard to estimate, due to the lack of reliable census data, though they were known to be considerable, as former slaves were set free or escaped in massive numbers in areas where the Union army did not have sufficient shelter, doctors, or food for them. Professor Jim Downs states that tens of thousands to hundreds of thousands of slaves died during the war from disease, starvation, or exposure, and that if these deaths are counted in the war's total, the death toll would exceed 1 million.[274]

It is estimated that during the war, of the equines killed, including horses, mules, donkeys and even confiscated children's ponies, over 32,600 of them belonged to the

Union and 45,800 the Confederacy. However, other estimates place the total at 1,000,000.[275]

It is estimated that 544 Confederate flags were captured during the war by the Union. The flags were sent to the War Department in Washington.[276][277] The Union flags captured by the Confederates were sent to Richmond.[*citation needed*]

Emancipation



Abolition of slavery in the various states of the US over time:

Abolition of slavery during or shortly after the American Revolution (Vermont, 1777; Massachusetts [including Maine], 1783)

The Northwest Ordinance, 1787

Gradual emancipation in New York (starting 1799, ended 1827), Pennsylvania (1780–1857), New Hampshire (1783–1857), Connecticut [including the Western Reserve] (1784–1848), Rhode Island (1784–1853) and New Jersey (starting 1804; ended by Thirteenth Amendment, 1865)

The Missouri Compromise, 1821

Effective abolition of slavery by Mexican or joint US/British authority

Abolition of slavery by Congressional action, 1861

Abolition of slavery by Congressional action, 1862

Emancipation Proclamation as originally issued, 1 Jan 1863

Subsequent operation of the Emancipation Proclamation in 1863

Abolition of slavery by state action during the Civil War

Operation of the Emancipation Proclamation in 1864

Operation of the Emancipation Proclamation in 1865

Thirteenth Amendment to the US constitution, 18 Dec 1865

Territory incorporated into the US after the passage of the Thirteenth Amendment

Abolishing slavery was not a Union war goal from the outset but quickly became one.[278] Lincoln initially claimed that preserving the Union was the central goal.[279] In contrast, the South fought to preserve slavery.[278] While not all Southerners saw themselves as fighting for slavery, most officers and over a third of the rank and file in Lee's army had close family ties to slavery. To Northerners, the motivation was primarily to preserve the Union, not to abolish slavery.[280] However, as the war dragged on, and it became clear that slavery was central to the conflict, and that emancipation was (to quote the Emancipation Proclamation) "a fit and necessary war measure for suppressing [the] rebellion", Lincoln and his cabinet made ending slavery a war goal, culminating in the Emancipation Proclamation.[278][281] Lincoln's decision to issue the Proclamation angered Peace Democrats ("Copperheads") and War Democrats, but energized most Republicans.[281] By warning that free blacks would flood the North, Democrats made gains in the 1862 elections, but they did not gain control of Congress.

The Republicans' counterargument that slavery was the mainstay of the enemy steadily gained support, with the Democrats losing decisively in the 1863 elections in the Northern state of Ohio, when they tried to resurrect anti-black sentiment.[282]

Emancipation Proclamation

Main article: Emancipation Proclamation

The Emancipation Proclamation legally freed the slaves in states "in rebellion", but, as a practical matter, slavery for the 3.5 million black people in the South effectively ended in each area when Union armies arrived. The last Confederate slaves were freed on June 19, 1865, celebrated as the modern holiday of Juneteenth. Slaves in the border states and those in some former Confederate territory occupied before the Emancipation Proclamation were freed by state action or (on December 6, 1865) by the Thirteenth Amendment.[283][284] The Emancipation Proclamation enabled African Americans, both free blacks and escaped slaves, to join the Union Army. About 190,000 volunteered, further enhancing the numerical advantage the Union armies enjoyed over the Confederates, who did not dare emulate the equivalent manpower source for fear of undermining the legitimacy of slavery.[m]

During the war, sentiment concerning slaves, enslavement, and emancipation in the United States was divided. Lincoln's fears of making slavery a war issue were based on a harsh reality: abolition did not enjoy wide support in the west, the territories, and the border states.[286][n] In 1861, Lincoln worried that premature attempts at emancipation would mean the loss of the border states, and that "to lose Kentucky is nearly the same as to lose the whole game".[n] Copperheads and some War Democrats opposed emancipation, although the latter eventually accepted it as part of the total war needed to save the Union.[287]

Lincoln reversed attempts at emancipation by Secretary of War Simon Cameron and Generals John C. Frémont and David Hunter, in an effort to retain the loyalty of the border states and the War Democrats. Lincoln warned the border states that a more radical type of emancipation would happen if they rejected his plan of gradual compensated emancipation and voluntary colonization.[288] But compensated emancipation occurred only in the District of Columbia, where Congress had the power to enact it. When Lincoln told his cabinet about his proposed emancipation proclamation, which would apply to the states still in rebellion on January 1, 1863, Seward advised Lincoln to wait for a Union military victory before issuing it, because to do otherwise would seem like "our last shriek on the retreat".[289] Walter Stahr, however, writes, "There are contemporary sources, however, that suggest others were involved in the decision to delay", and Stahr quotes them.[290]

Contrabands, who were fugitive slaves, including cooks, laundresses, laborers, teamsters, railroad repair crews, fled to the Union Army, but were not legally freed until the Emancipation Proclamation, which Lincoln signed on January 1, 1863, more than two years before the end of the Civil War.

In 1863, the Union Army accepted Freedmen; seen here are black and white teenaged soldiers who volunteered to fight for the Union.

Lincoln laid the groundwork for public support in an open letter published in response to Horace Greeley's "The Prayer of Twenty Millions"; the letter stated that Lincoln's goal was to save the Union, and that, if he freed the slaves, it would be as a means to that end.[291][292][293] He also had a meeting at the White House with five African American representatives on August 14, 1862. Arranging for a reporter to be present, he urged his visitors to agree to the voluntary colonization of black people. Lincoln's motive for both his letter to Greeley and his statement to the black visitors was apparently to make his forthcoming Emancipation Proclamation more palatable to racist white people.[294] A Union victory in the Battle of Antietam on September 17, 1862, provided Lincoln with an opportunity to issue the preliminary Emancipation Proclamation, and the War Governors' Conference added support for the proclamation.[295]

Lincoln issued his preliminary Emancipation Proclamation on September 22, 1862. It stated that slaves in all states in rebellion on January 1, 1863, would be free. He issued his final Emancipation Proclamation on January 1, 1863, keeping his promise. In his letter to Albert G. Hodges, Lincoln explained his belief that "If slavery is not wrong, nothing is wrong.... And yet I have never understood that the Presidency conferred upon

me an unrestricted right to act officially upon this judgment and feeling.... I claim not to have controlled events, but confess plainly that events have controlled me."[296][o]

Lincoln's moderate approach succeeded in inducing the border states to remain in the Union and War Democrats to support the Union. The border states, which included Kentucky, Missouri, Maryland, Delaware, and Union-controlled regions around New Orleans, Norfolk, Virginia, and elsewhere, were not covered by the Emancipation Proclamation. Nor was Tennessee, which had come under Union control.[298] Missouri and Maryland abolished slavery on their own; Kentucky and Delaware did not.[299] Still, the proclamation did not enjoy universal support. It caused much unrest in what were then considered western states, where racist sentiments led to a great fear of abolition. There was some concern that the proclamation would lead to the secession of western states, and its issuance prompted the stationing of Union troops in Illinois in case of rebellion.[286]

Since the Emancipation Proclamation was based on the president's war powers, it applied only in territory held by Confederates at the time it was issued. However, the Proclamation became a symbol of the Union's growing commitment to add emancipation to the Union's definition of liberty.[300] The Emancipation Proclamation greatly reduced the Confederacy's hope of being recognized or otherwise aided by Britain or France.[301] By late 1864, Lincoln was playing a leading role in getting the House of Representatives to vote for the Thirteenth Amendment, which mandated the ending of chattel slavery.[302]

Reconstruction

Main article: Reconstruction era

Through the supervision of the Freedmen's Bureau, Northern teachers traveled into the South to provide education and training for the newly freed population.

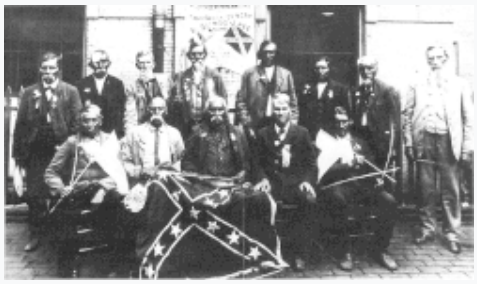
The war devastated the South and posed serious questions of how it would be reintegrated into the Union. The war destroyed much of the South's wealth, in part because wealth held in enslaved people (at least $1,000 each for a healthy adult prior to the war) was wiped off the books.[303] All accumulated investment in Confederate bonds was forfeited; most banks and railroads were bankrupt. The income per person dropped to less than 40 percent of that of the North, and that lasted into the 20th century. Southern influence in the federal government, previously considerable, was greatly diminished until the second half of the 20th century.[304] Reconstruction began during the war, with the Emancipation Proclamation of January 1863, and it continued until 1877.[305] Its most important elements were the three "Reconstruction Amendments" to the Constitution: the 13th outlawing slavery (1865), the 14th guaranteeing citizenship to former slaves (1868), and the 15th prohibiting the denial of voting rights "on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude" (1870). From the Union perspective, the goals of Reconstruction were to consolidate victory by reuniting the Union, to guarantee a "republican form of government" for the ex-Confederate states, and to permanently end slavery—and prevent semi-slavery status.[306]

President Johnson, who took office in April 1865, took a lenient approach and saw the achievement of the main war goals as realized in 1865, when each ex-rebel state repudiated secession and ratified the Thirteenth Amendment. Radical Republicans demanded proof that Confederate nationalism was dead and that the slaves were truly free. They overrode Johnson's vetoes of civil rights legislation, and the House impeached him, although the Senate did not convict him. In 1868 and 1872, the Republican candidate Grant won the presidency. In 1872, the "Liberal Republicans" argued that the war goals had been achieved and Reconstruction should end. They chose Horace Greeley to head a presidential ticket in 1872 but were decisively defeated. In 1874, Democrats, primarily Southern, took control of Congress and opposed further reconstruction. The Compromise of 1877 closed with a national consensus, except on the part of former slaves, that the war had finally ended.[307] With the withdrawal of federal troops, however, white men retook control of every Southern legislature, and the Jim Crow era of disenfranchisement and legal segregation was ushered in.[308]

The war had a demonstrable impact on American politics. Many veterans on both sides were elected to political office, including five US presidents: Ulysses Grant, Rutherford B. Hayes, James A. Garfield, Benjamin Harrison, and William McKinley.[309]

Memory and historiography

Monument to the Grand Army of the Republic, a Union veteran organization



Cherokee Confederates reunion in New Orleans in 1903

The war is a central event in American collective memory. There are innumerable statues, commemorations, books, and archival collections. The memory includes the home front, military affairs, the treatment of soldiers, both living and dead, in the war's aftermath, depictions of the war in literature and art, evaluations of heroes and villains, and considerations of the moral and political lessons of the war.[310] The last theme includes moral evaluations of racism and slavery, heroism and cowardice in combat[311] and behind the lines, and issues of democracy and minority rights, as well as the notion of an "Empire of Liberty" influencing the world.[312]

Historians have paid great attention to the causes of the war as well as to the war itself. Military history has developed outside as well as inside academia, leading to a proliferation of studies by non-scholars who nevertheless are familiar with the primary sources and pay close attention to battles and campaigns and who write for the general public.[313][314] Practically every major figure in the war, both North and South, has had a serious biographical study.[*citation needed*]

Even the name used for the conflict has been controversial, with many names used for it. During and immediately after the war, Northern historians often used a term like "War of the Rebellion". Writers in rebel states often referred to the "War for Southern

Independence". Some Southerners have described it as the "War of Northern Aggression".[315]

Lost Cause

Main article: Lost Cause of the Confederacy

The memory of the war in the white South crystallized in the myth of the "Lost Cause": that the Confederate cause was just and heroic. The myth shaped regional identity and race relations for generations.[316] Alan T. Nolan notes that the Lost Cause was expressly a rationalization, a cover-up to vindicate the name and fame of those in rebellion. Some claims revolve around the insignificance of slavery as a cause; some appeals highlight cultural differences between North and South; the military conflict by Confederate actors is idealized; in any case, secession was said to be lawful.[317] Nolan argues that the adoption of the Lost Cause perspective facilitated the reunification of the North and the South while excusing the "virulent racism" of the 19th century, sacrificing black American progress to white man's reunification. He also deems the Lost Cause "a caricature of the truth. This caricature wholly misrepresents and distorts the facts of the matter" in every instance.[318]

The Lost Cause myth was formalized by Charles A. Beard and Mary R. Beard, whose *The Rise of American Civilization* (1927) spawned Beardian historiography. The Beards downplayed slavery, abolitionism, and issues of morality. Though this interpretation was abandoned by the Beards in the 1940s, and by historians generally by the 1950s, Beardian themes still echo among Lost Cause writers.[319][320][*additional citation(s) needed*]

Battlefield preservation

Main article: American Civil War battlefield preservation

Beginning in 1961, the US Post Office released commemorative stamps for five famous battles, each issued on the 100th anniversary of the respective battle.

The first efforts at Civil War battlefield preservation and memorialization came during the war, with the establishment of National Cemeteries at Gettysburg, Mill Springs and Chattanooga. Soldiers began erecting markers on battlefields beginning with the First Battle of Bull Run in 1861. The oldest surviving monument is the Hazen Brigade Monument near Murfreesboro in Central Tennessee, built in the summer of 1863 by soldiers in Union Col. William B. Hazen's brigade to mark the spot where they buried their dead, following the Battle of Stones River.[321]

In the 1890s, the government established five Civil War battlefield parks under the jurisdiction of the War Department, beginning with the creation of the Chickamauga and Chattanooga National Military Park at Fort Oglethorpe, Georgia, and the Antietam National Battlefield in Sharpsburg, Maryland, in 1890. The Shiloh National Military Park was established in 1894 in Shiloh, Tennessee, followed by the Gettysburg National Military Park in 1895, and Vicksburg National Military Park in 1899. In 1933, these five parks and other national monuments were transferred to the National Park Service.[322] Chief among modern efforts to preserve Civil War sites has been the American Battlefield Trust, with more than 130 battlefields in 24 states.[323][324] The five major

battlefield parks operated by the National Park Service had a combined 3 million visitors in 2018, down 70% from 10 million in 1970.[325]

Commemoration

Main article: Commemoration of the American Civil War

See also: Commemoration of the American Civil War on postage stamps

Grand Army of the Republic (Union)

United Confederate Veterans

The Civil War has been commemorated in many ways, ranging from the reenactment of battles, to statues and memorial halls being erected, to films, and to stamps and coins with Civil War themes being issued, all of which helped to shape public memory. These commemorations occurred in greater numbers on the 100th and 150th anniversaries of the war.[326] Hollywood's take on the war has been especially influential in shaping public memory, as in such film classics as *The Birth of a Nation* (1915), *Gone with the*

Wind (1939), and *Lincoln* (2012). Ken Burns's PBS television series *The Civil War* (1990) is well-remembered, though criticized for its historical inaccuracy.[327][328]

Technological significance

Technological innovations during the war had a great impact on 19th-century science. The war was an early example of an "industrial war", in which technological might is used to achieve military supremacy.[329] New inventions, such as the train and telegraph, delivered soldiers, supplies and messages at a time when horses had been the fastest way to travel.[330][331] It was also in this war that aerial warfare, in the form of reconnaissance balloons, was first used.[332] It saw the first action involving steam-powered ironclad warships in naval warfare history.[333] Repeating firearms such as the Henry rifle, Spencer repeating rifle, Colt revolving rifle, Triplett & Scott carbine and others, first appeared during the Civil War; they were a revolutionary invention that would soon replace muzzle-loading and single-shot firearms. The war saw the first appearances of rapid-firing weapons and machine guns such as the Agar gun and Gatling gun.[334]

In works of culture and art

The Peacemakers by George Peter Alexander Healy portrays, from left to right, Sherman, Grant, Lincoln, and Porter discussing plans for the last weeks of the Civil War aboard the steamer *River Queen* in March 1865. It currently hangs in the Oval Office dining room.

The Civil War is one of the most studied events in American history, and the collection of cultural works around it is enormous.[335] This section gives an abbreviated overview of the most notable works.

Literature

- *When Lilacs Last in the Dooryard Bloom'd* and *O Captain! My Captain!* (1865) by Walt Whitman, famous poetic eulogies to Lincoln
- *Battle-Pieces and Aspects of the War* (1866), poetry by Herman Melville
- *The Rise and Fall of the Confederate Government* (1881) by Jefferson Davis
- *The Private History of a Campaign That Failed* (1885) by Mark Twain
- *Texar's Revenge, or, North Against South* (1887) by Jules Verne
- *An Occurrence at Owl Creek Bridge* (1890) by Ambrose Bierce
- *The Red Badge of Courage* (1895) by Stephen Crane
- *The Challenge to Sirius* (1917) by Sheila Kaye-Smith
- *Gone with the Wind* (1936) by Margaret Mitchell
- *North and South* (1982) by John Jakes
- *The March: A Novel* (2005) by E. L. Doctorow, fictionalized account of Sherman's March to the Sea

Film

- *The Birth of a Nation* (1915, US)
- *The General* (1926, US)
- *Operator 13* (1934, US)
- *Gone with the Wind* (1939, US)
- *The Red Badge of Courage* (1951, US)
- *The Horse Soldiers* (1959, US)
- *Shenandoah* (1965, US)
- *The Good, the Bad and the Ugly* (1966, Italy-Spain-FRG)
- *The Beguiled* (1971, US)
- *The Outlaw Josey Wales* (1976, US)

- *North and South* (miniseries; 1985–1994, US)
- *Glory* (1989, US)
- *The Civil War* (1990, US)
- *Gettysburg* (1993, US)
- *The Last Outlaw* (1993, US)
- *Cold Mountain* (2003, US)
- *Gods and Generals* (2003, US)
- *Lincoln* (2012, US)
- *Free State of Jones* (2016, US)

Music

See also: Music of the American Civil War

- "Dixie"
- "Battle Cry of Freedom"
- "Battle Hymn of the Republic"
- "The Bonnie Blue Flag"
- "John Brown's Body"
- "When Johnny Comes Marching Home"
- "Marching Through Georgia"
- "The Night They Drove Old Dixie Down"
- "O Captain! My Captain!", Walt Whitman's poem set to music by Kurt Weill
- "When Lilacs Last in the Dooryard Bloom'd", Walt Whitman's poem set to music by Paul Hindemith, by Roger Sessions, by Jennifer Higdon, and by Charles Villiers Stanford

Video games

- *North & South* (1989, France)
- *Sid Meier's Gettysburg!* (1997, US)
- *Sid Meier's Antietam!* (1999, US)
- *American Conquest: Divided Nation* (2006, US)
- *Forge of Freedom: The American Civil War* (2006, US)
- *The History Channel: Civil War – A Nation Divided* (2006, US)
- *AGEOD's American Civil War* (2007, US/France)
- *History Civil War: Secret Missions* (2008, US)
- *Call of Juarez: Bound in Blood* (2009, US)
- *Darkest of Days* (2009, US)

- *Victoria II: A House Divided* (2011, US)
- *AGEOD's American Civil War II* (2013, US/France)
- *Ultimate General: Gettysburg* (2014, Ukraine)
- *Ultimate General: Civil War* (2016, Ukraine)
- *War of Rights* (TBD, US)

See also

American Civil War portal

- American Civil War by state
- Foreign enlistment in the American Civil War
- African Americans in the American Civil War
- German Americans in the American Civil War
- Hispanics in the American Civil War
- Irish Americans in the American Civil War
- Italian Americans in the Civil War
- Native Americans in the American Civil War
    - Cherokee
    - Choctaw
- Outline of the American Civil War
- Removal of Confederate monuments and memorials

Notes

a.

"End of the Rebellion; The Last Rebel Army Disbands". *The New York Times*. United States Department of War. May 29, 1865. Archived from the original on September 15, 2018. Retrieved July 29, 2022.
Robertson 1963, p. 31. "Lee's surrender left Johnston with no place to go. On April 26, near Durham, N.C., the Army of Tennessee laid down its arms before Sherman's forces. With the surrender of isolated forces in the Trans-Mississippi West on May 4, 11, and 26, the most costly war in American history came to an end."
Catton 1965, p. 445. "[A]nd on May 26 he [E. Kirby Smith] surrendered and the war was over."

Gallagher et al. 2003, p. 308. "By 26 May, General Edward Kirby Smith had surrendered the Rebel forces in the trans-Mississippi west. The war was over."
Blair 2015, p. 9. "The sheer weight of scholarship has leaned toward portraying the surrenders of the Confederate armies as the end of the war."

b.

c. Among the many other contemporary sources and later historians citing May 26, 1865, as the end date for the American Civil War hostilities are George Templeton Strong, who was a prominent New York lawyer; a founder, treasurer, and member of the Executive Committee of United States Sanitary Commission throughout the war; and a diarist. A diary excerpt is published in Gienapp, William E. (ed.). *The Civil War and Reconstruction: A Documentary Collection.* New York: W.W. Norton & Co., 2001, pp. 313–314 ISBN 978-0-393-97555-0. A footnote in Gienapp shows the excerpt was taken from an edited version of the diaries by Allan Nevins and Milton Halsey Thomas, eds., *The Diary of George Templeton Strong*, vol. 2 (New York: The Macmillan Company), pp. 600–601, which differs from the volume and page numbers of the original diaries; the page in Strong's original handwriting is shown at "Volume 4, pages 124–125: diary entries for May 23 (continued)–June 7, 1865". Archived from the original on November 16, 2022 – via New-York Historical Society Museum & Library.

d. 211,411 Union soldiers were captured, and 30,218 died in prison. The ones who died have been excluded to prevent double-counting of casualties.

e. 462,634 Confederate soldiers were captured and 25,976 died in prison. The ones who died have been excluded to prevent double-counting of casualties.

f. The Union was the US government and included the states that remained loyal to it, both the non-slave states and the border states (Missouri, Kentucky, Maryland, and Delaware) where slavery was legal. Missouri and Kentucky were also claimed by the Confederacy and given full state delegations in the Confederate Congress for the duration of the war.

g. Appomattox is often referred to as the end of the war, although different dates for the war's conclusion have been considered. (See, Vorenberg, Michael. *Lincoln's Peace: The Struggle to End the American Civil War*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 2025.) Lee's surrender to Grant set off a wave of Confederate surrenders. The last military department of the Confederacy, the Trans-Mississippi Department disbanded on May 26.

h. This assumes that Union and Confederate deaths are counted together; more Americans were killed in World War II than in either the Union or Confederate Armies if their death totals are counted separately.

i. Unaware of the surrender of Lee, on April 16 the last major battles of the war were fought at the Battle of Columbus, Georgia, and the Battle of West Point.

j.

Murray 1967, p. 336
Neff 2010, p. 207

Trudeau 1994, p. 396. In *United States v. Anderson*, 76 U.S. 56 (1869), "The U.S. attorneys argued that the Rebellion had been suppressed following the surrender of the Trans-Mississippi Department, as established in the surrender document negotiated on May 26, 1865." Trudeau 1994, p. 397. The Supreme Court decided that the "legal end of the American Civil War had been decided by Congress to be August 20, 1866—the date of Andrew Johnson's final proclamation on the conclusion of the Rebellion."

k.

l. "Union population 1864" aggregates 1860 population, average annual immigration 1855–1864, and population governed formerly by CSA per Kenneth Martis source. Contrabands and after the Emancipation Proclamation freedmen, migrating into Union control on the coasts and to the advancing armies, and natural increase are excluded.

m. "Slave 1864, CSA" aggregates 1860 slave census of Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia and Texas. It omits losses from contraband and after the Emancipation Proclamation, freedmen migrating to the Union controlled coastal ports and those joining advancing Union armies, especially in the Mississippi Valley.

n. "Total Union railroad miles" aggregates existing track reported 1860 @ 21800 plus new construction 1860–1864 @ 5000, plus southern railroads administered by USMRR @ 2300.[249]

o. In spite of the South's shortage of soldiers, most Southern leaders—until 1865—opposed enlisting slaves. They used them as laborers to support the war effort. As Howell Cobb said, "If slaves will make good soldiers our whole theory of slavery is wrong." Confederate generals Patrick Cleburne and Robert E. Lee argued in favor of arming blacks late in the war, and Jefferson Davis was eventually persuaded to support plans for arming slaves to avoid military defeat. The Confederacy surrendered at Appomattox before this plan could be implemented.[285]

p.

Lincoln's letter to O. H. Browning, September 22, 1861.

Wittke 1952[*failed verification*]. "Sentiment among German Americans was largely antislavery especially among Forty-Eighters, resulting in hundreds of thousands of German Americans volunteering to fight for the Union."

Keller 2009.

for primary sources, see Walter D. Kamphoefner and Wolfgang Helbich, eds., *Germans in the Civil War: The Letters They Wrote Home* (2006).

"On the other hand, many of the recent immigrants in the North viewed freed slaves as competition for scarce jobs, and as the reason why the Civil War was being fought."

Baker 2003. "Due in large part to this fierce competition with free blacks for labor opportunities, the poor and working class Irish Catholics

generally opposed emancipation. When the draft began in the summer of 1863, they launched a major riot in New York City that was suppressed by the military, as well as much smaller protests in other cities." Schecter 2006, ch. 6. "Many Catholics in the North had volunteered to fight in 1861, sending thousands of soldiers to the front and suffering high casualties, especially at Fredericksburg; their volunteering fell off after 1862."

q.

r. In late March 1864 Lincoln met with Governor Bramlette, Archibald Dixon, and Albert G. Hodges, to discuss recruitment of African American soldiers in the state of Kentucky. In a letter dated April 4, 1864, Lincoln summarized his stance on slavery, at Hodges' request.[297]

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- Civil War Battlefield Places from the National Park Service
- American Battlefield Trust – A non-profit land preservation and educational organization with two divisions, the Civil War Trust and the Revolutionary War Trust, dedicated to preserving America's battlefields through land acquisitions.
- Civil War Era Digital Collection at Gettysburg College – This collection contains digital images of political cartoons, personal papers, pamphlets, maps, paintings and photographs from the Civil War Era held in Special Collections at Gettysburg College.
- The Civil War – site with 7,000 pages, including the complete run of *Harper's Weekly* newspapers from the Civil War

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American Civil War

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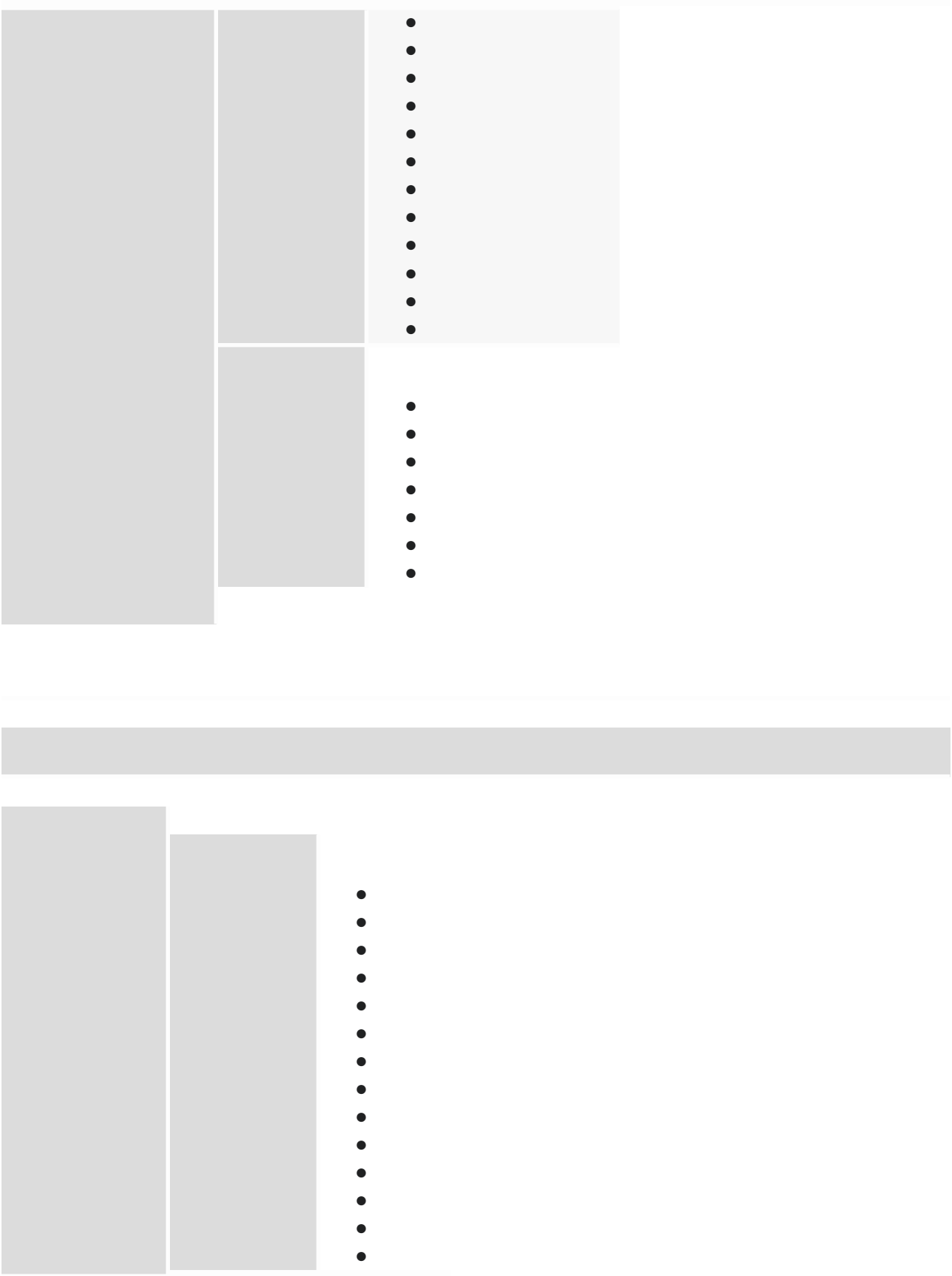

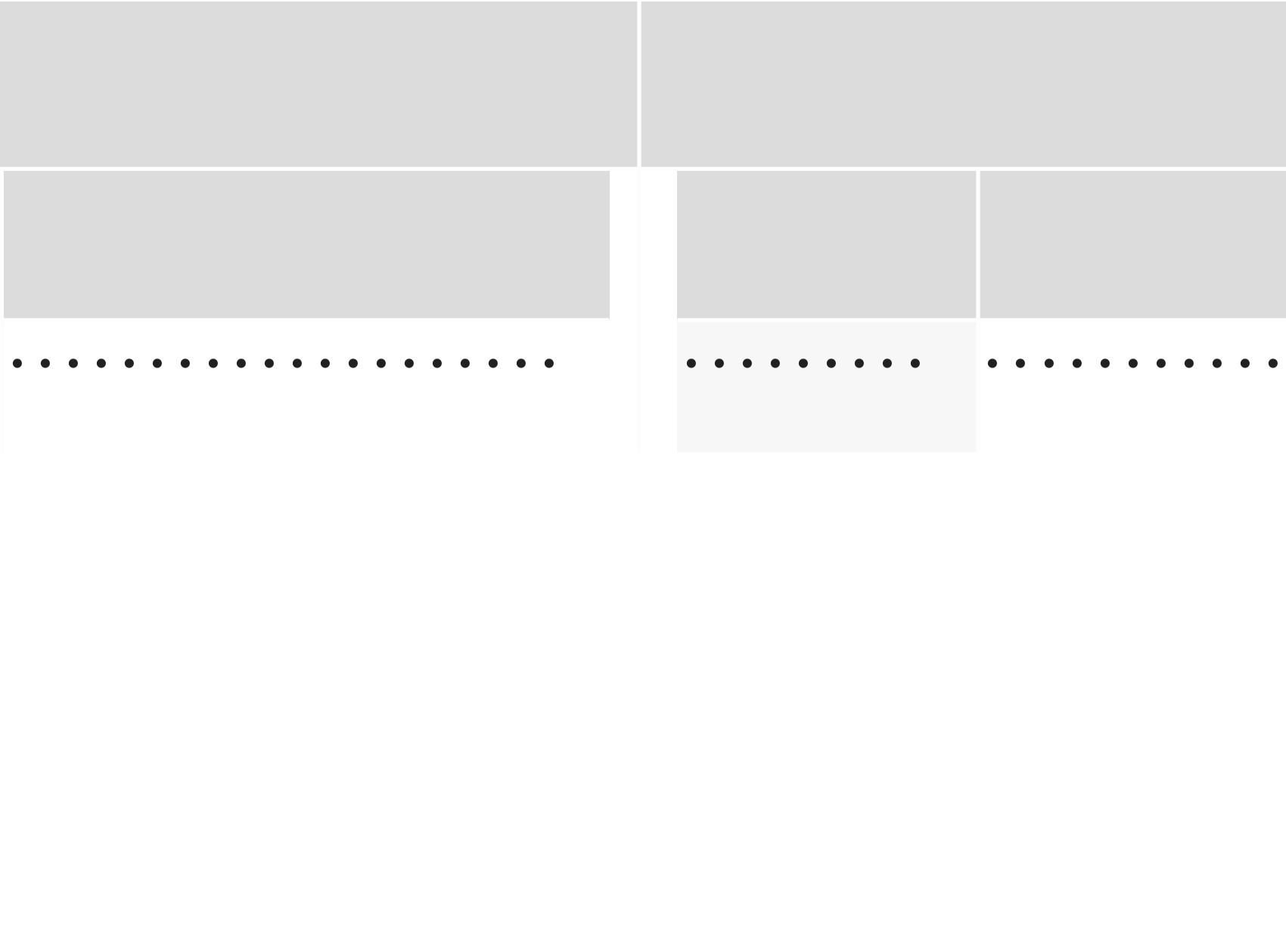

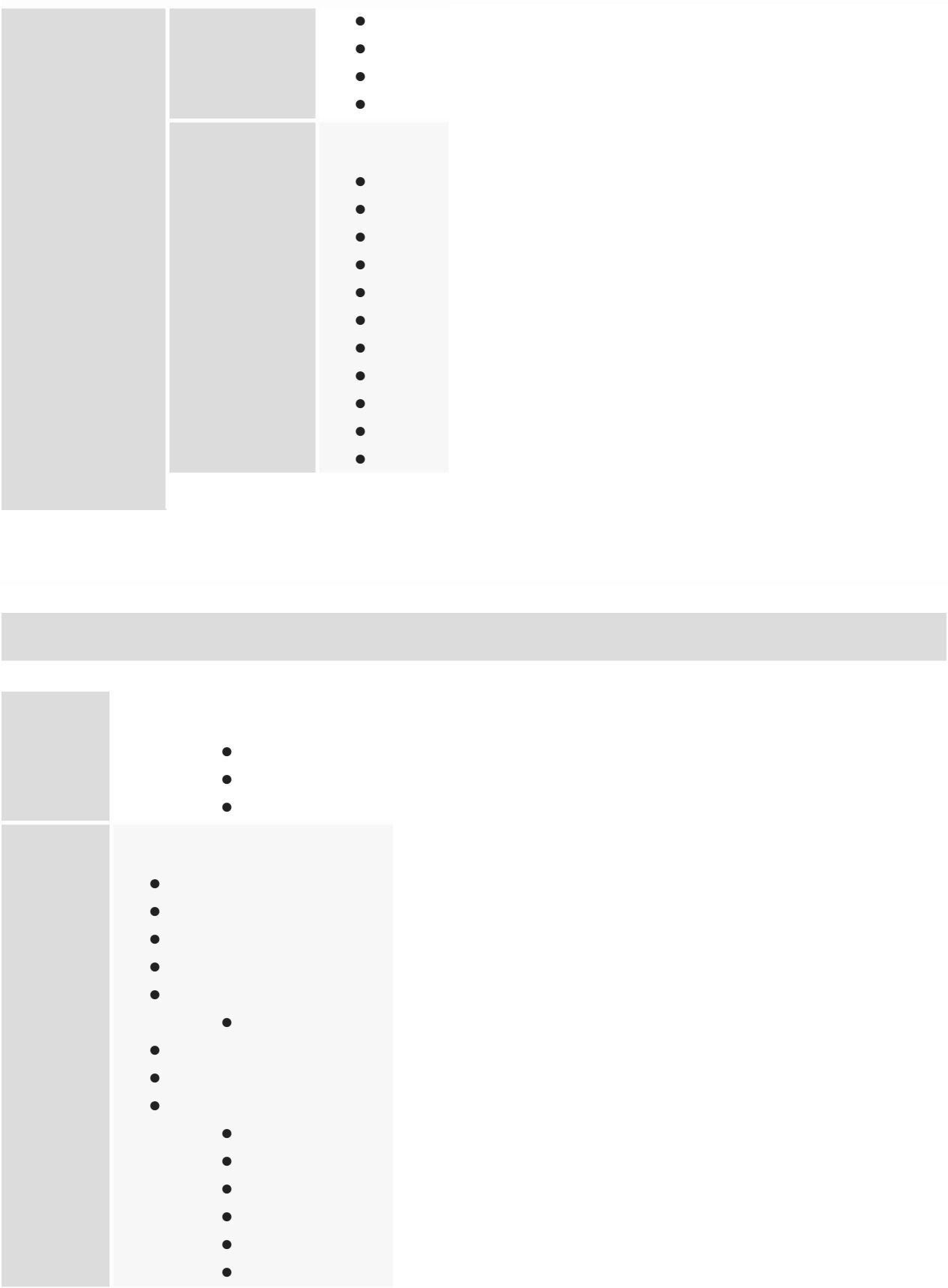

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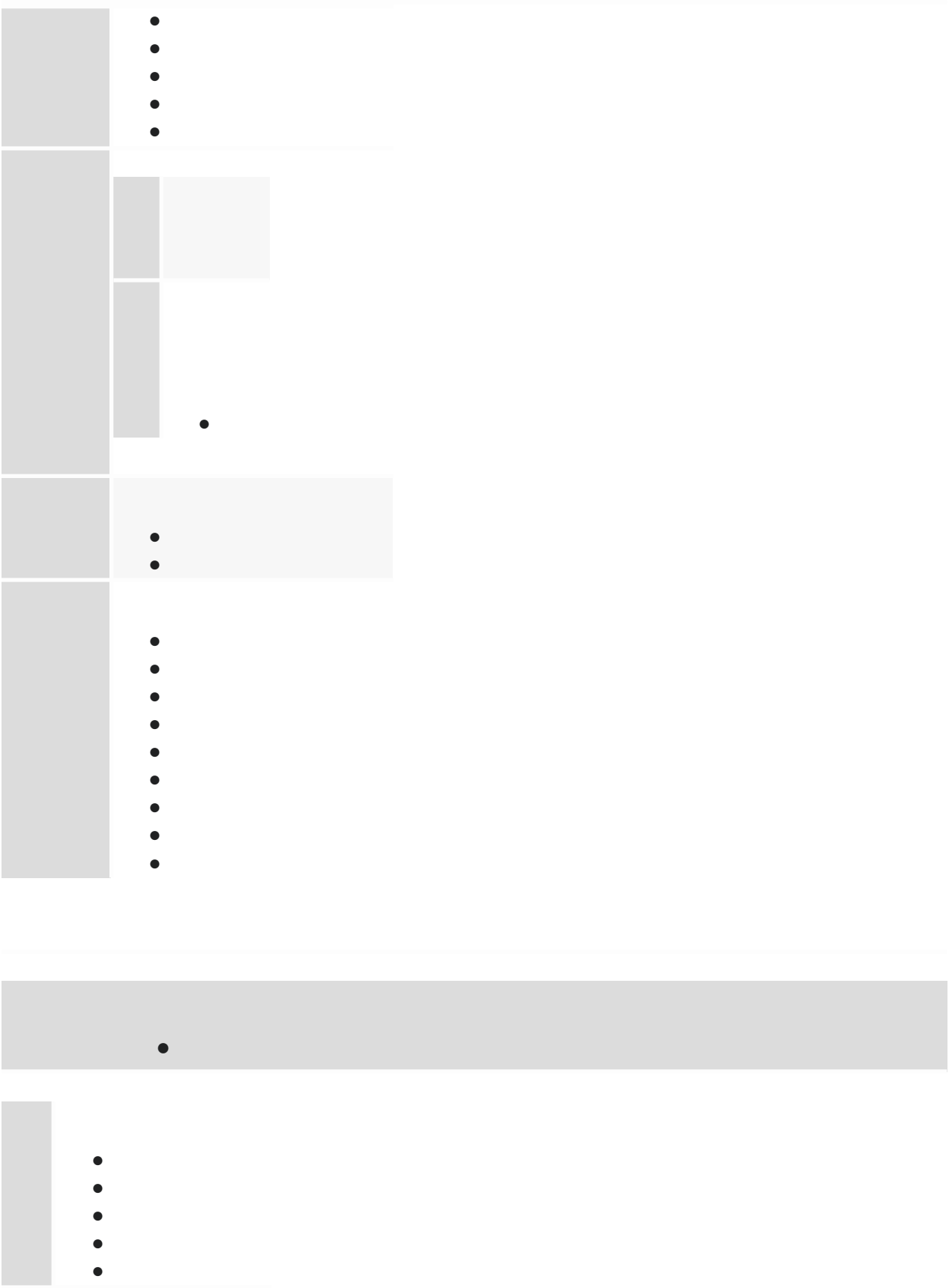

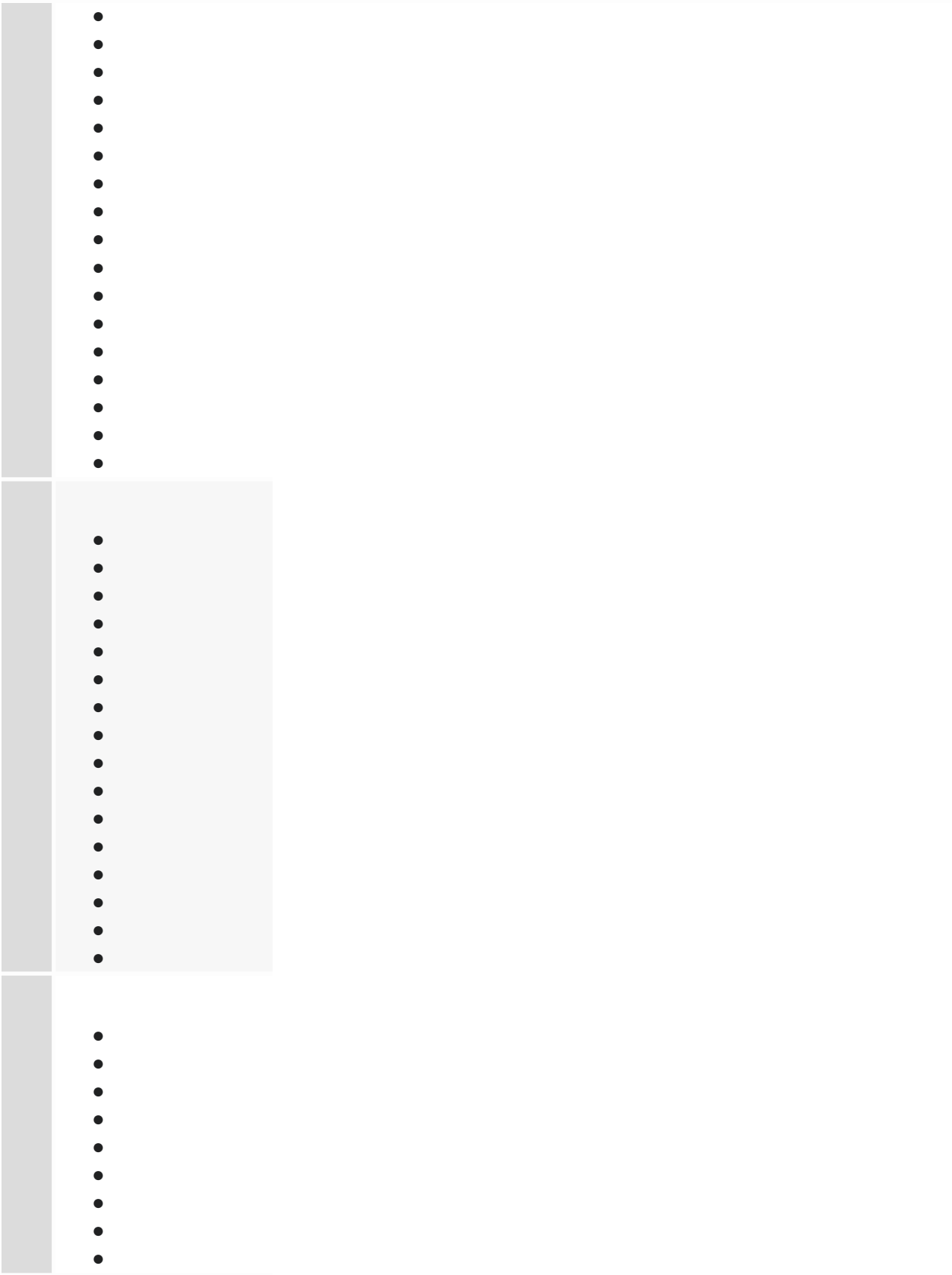

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International response to the American Civil War

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Categories:

- American Civil War
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Emancipation Proclamation

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Standard
Large

Width

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Color

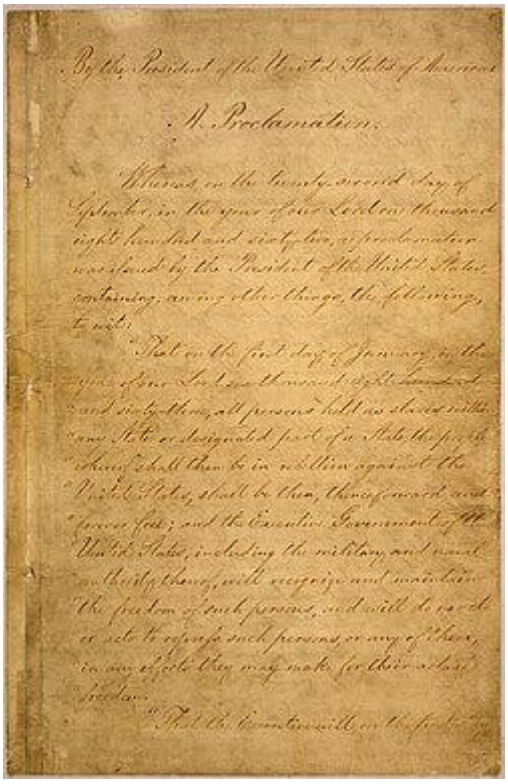
Automatic
Light
Dark

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

This article is about United States history. For emancipation proclamations in other countries, see Timeline of abolition of slavery and serfdom.

Proclamation 95—Regarding the Status of Slaves in States Engaged in Rebellion Against the United States

Emancipation: The Past and the Future (Thomas Nast, 1863)



A Proclamation.

The five-page original document, held in the National Archives Building – until 1936 it had been bound with other proclamations in a large volume held by the Department of State.[1]

Type	Presidential proclamation
President	Abraham Lincoln
Signed	September 22, 1862

Federal Register **details**

Publication date January 1, 1863

Summary

During the American Civil War, enslaved people in the Confederate States of America declared "free".

Part of a series on

Forced labour and slavery

Contemporary

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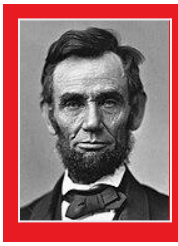

This article is part of a series about
Abraham Lincoln

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The **Emancipation Proclamation**, officially **Proclamation 95**,[2][3] was a presidential proclamation and executive order[4] issued by United States President Abraham Lincoln on January 1, 1863, during the American Civil War. The Proclamation changed the legal status of more than 3.5 million enslaved African Americans in the secessionist Confederate states from enslaved to free. As soon as slaves escaped the control of their enslavers, either by fleeing to Union lines or through the advance of federal troops, they were permanently free. In addition, the Proclamation allowed for former slaves to

"be received into the armed service of the United States".[5] The Emancipation Proclamation played a significant part in the end of slavery in the United States.

On September 22, 1862, Lincoln issued the Preliminary Emancipation Proclamation (Proclamation 93).[6][7] Its third paragraph begins:

That on the first day of January in the year of our Lord, one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, all persons held as slaves within any State, or designated part of a State, the people whereof shall then be in rebellion against the United States shall be then, thenceforward, and forever free;...

On January 1, 1863, Lincoln issued the Final Emancipation Proclamation.[5] It stated:

Now, therefore I, Abraham Lincoln, President of the United States, by virtue of the power in me vested as Commander-in-Chief, of the Army and Navy of the United States in time of actual armed rebellion against the authority and government of the United States, and as a fit and necessary war measure for suppressing said rebellion, do ... order and designate as the States and parts of States wherein the people thereof respectively, are this day in rebellion against the United States, the following, to wit:

Lincoln then listed the ten states — of the eleven that had seceded — still in rebellion, Tennessee then being under Union control,[8] and continued:

And by virtue of the power, and for the purpose aforesaid, I do order and declare that all persons held as slaves within said designated States, and parts of States, are, and henceforward shall be free.... And I further declare and make known, that such persons of suitable condition, will be received into the armed service of the United States.... And upon this act, sincerely believed to be an act of justice, warranted by the Constitution,

upon military necessity, I invoke the considerate judgment of mankind, and the gracious favor of Almighty God.

The Proclamation applied to more than 3.5 million of the 4 million enslaved people in the country, though it excluded states not in rebellion, as well as parts of Virginia under Union control and Louisiana parishes thought to be pro-Union.[9][10][11] Around 25,000 to 75,000 were immediately emancipated in those regions of the Confederacy where the US Army was already in place. It could not be enforced in the areas still in rebellion,[11] but, as the Union army took control of Confederate regions, the Proclamation provided the legal framework for the liberation of more than three and a half million enslaved people in those regions by the end of the war. The Emancipation Proclamation outraged white Southerners and their sympathizers, who saw it as the beginning of a race war. It energized abolitionists, and undermined those Europeans who wanted to intervene to help the Confederacy.[12] The Proclamation lifted the spirits of African Americans, both free and enslaved. It encouraged many to escape from slavery and flee toward Union lines, where many joined the Union Army.[13] The Emancipation Proclamation became a historic document because it "would redefine the Civil War, turning it from a struggle to preserve the Union to one focused on ending slavery, and set a decisive course for how the nation would be reshaped after that historic conflict."[14]

The Emancipation Proclamation was never challenged in court. To ensure the abolition of slavery in all of the U.S., Lincoln also mandated that Reconstruction plans for Southern states require them to enact laws abolishing slavery (which occurred during the war in Tennessee, Arkansas, and Louisiana); Lincoln encouraged border states to adopt abolition (which occurred during the war in Maryland, Missouri, and West Virginia) and pushed for passage of the 13th Amendment. The Senate passed the 13th Amendment by the necessary two-thirds vote on April 8, 1864; the House of Representatives did the same on January 31, 1865; and the required ratification by

three-fourths of the states was completed on December 6, 1865.[a] The amendment made slavery and involuntary servitude unconstitutional, "except as a punishment for crime...".[15]

Authority

Further information: Slave states and free states and Slavery and the United States Constitution

Abraham Lincoln

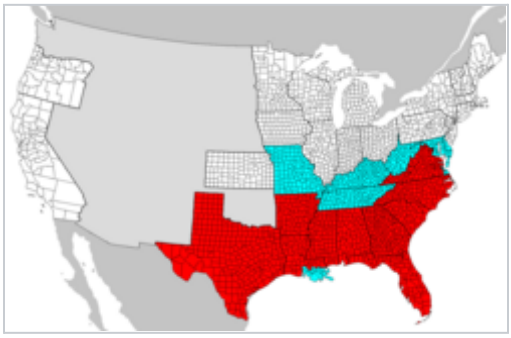
The United States Constitution of 1787 did not use the word "slavery" but included several provisions about unfree persons. The Three-Fifths Compromise (in Article I, Section 2) allocated congressional representation, and therefore the number of each states' votes in the Electoral College, based "on the whole Number of free Persons" and "three-fifths of all other Persons".[16] Under the Fugitive Slave Clause (Article IV, Section 2), "No person held to Service or Labour in one State" would become legally free by escaping to another. Article I, Section 9 allowed Congress to pass legislation to outlaw

the "Importation of Persons", but not until 1808.[17] In addition, for purposes of the Fifth Amendment—which states, "No person shall ... be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law"—slaves were understood to be property.[18] Although abolitionists used the Fifth Amendment to argue against slavery, it was made part of the legal basis for treating slaves as property by *Dred Scott v. Sandford* (1857).[19] Slavery was also supported in law and in practice by a pervasive culture of white supremacy.[20] Nonetheless, between 1777 and 1804, every Northern state provided for the immediate or gradual abolition of slavery. No Southern state did so, and the slave population of the South continued to grow, peaking at almost four million people at the beginning of the Civil War, when most slave states sought to break away from the United States.[21]

Lincoln accepted the conventional interpretation of the Constitution before 1865 as not allowing the federal government in peacetime to end slavery in the states where it existed, as opposed to in U.S. territories and the District of Columbia.[22] During the Civil War, however, Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation under his authority as "Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy" under Article II, section 2 of the United States Constitution.[23] As such, in the Emancipation Proclamation he claimed to have the authority to free persons held as slaves in those states that were in rebellion "as a fit and necessary war measure for suppressing said rebellion". In the Preliminary Emancipation Proclamation, Lincoln said "attention is hereby called" to two 1862 statutes, namely "An Act to Make an Additional Article of War" and the Confiscation Act of 1862, but he didn't mention any statute in the Final Emancipation Proclamation and, in any event, the source of his authority to issue the Preliminary Emancipation Proclamation and the Final Emancipation Proclamation was his "joint capacity as President and Commander-in-Chief".[24] Lincoln therefore did not have such authority over the four border slave-holding states that were not in rebellion—Missouri, Kentucky,

Maryland and Delaware—so those states were not named in the Proclamation.[26] The fifth border jurisdiction, West Virginia, where slavery remained legal but was being abolished, was, in January 1863, still part of the legally recognized "reorganized" state of Virginia, based in Alexandria, which was in the Union (as opposed to the Confederate state of Virginia, based in Richmond).[*citation needed*]

Coverage



Areas covered by the Emancipation Proclamation are in red, slave-holding areas not covered are in blue

The Emancipation Proclamation applied only in the ten states that were still in rebellion on January 1, 1863, namely South Carolina, Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Texas, Virginia, Arkansas, North Carolina. The Proclamation did not cover the nearly 500,000 slaves in the slaveholding border states of Maryland, Delaware, Missouri and Kentucky. Also not named was the state of Tennessee, in which a Union-controlled military government had already been set up, based in the capital, Nashville. Specific exemptions were stated for other areas under Union control on January 1, 1863, namely 48 counties that would soon become West Virginia, seven other named counties of Virginia including Berkeley county, which was soon added to West Virginia, New Orleans and 13 named parishes nearby.[27]

Exemptions were also made for certain areas that were deemed no longer in rebellion and areas Lincoln considered loyal to the Union.[9][10] Enslaved people in those areas would be freed by later state and federal actions.[28] The areas covered were, as the Proclamation stated, "Arkansas, Texas, Louisiana (except the Parishes of St. Bernard, Plaquemines, Jefferson, St. John, St. Charles, St. James, Ascension, Assumption, Terrebonne, Lafourche, St. Mary, St. Martin, and Orleans, including the city of New Orleans), Mississippi, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, South Carolina, North Carolina, and Virginia (except the forty-eight counties designated as West Virginia, and also the counties of Berkley, Accomac, Northampton, Elizabeth City, York, Princess Ann, and Norfolk, including the cities of Norfolk and Portsmouth)."[b][29][30]

Also, six additional counties and two independent cities[c] were exempted in the Union-controlled Tidewater region of Virginia.[31] And, in Louisiana, the city of New Orleans[d] and the 13 named parishes were exempted because Lincoln regarded them as loyal to the Union. These exemptions left unemancipated an additional 300,000 slaves.[9][10][32][e]

The Emancipation Proclamation resulted in the emancipation of a substantial percentage of the slaves in the Confederate states as the Union armies advanced through the South and slaves escaped to Union lines, or slave owners fled, leaving slaves behind. The Emancipation Proclamation "deserves much of the credit for the Union Army's ultimate successes in 1863-1864.... Slave escapes crippled the southern economy, and slave enlistments bolstered the northern military".[33]

Although the Emancipation Proclamation resulted in the gradual freeing of most slaves, it did not make slavery illegal. Of the states that were exempted from the Emancipation Proclamation, Maryland,[34] Missouri,[35] Tennessee,[36] and West Virginia[37] prohibited

slavery before the war ended. In 1863, President Lincoln proposed a moderate plan for the Reconstruction of the captured Confederate State of Louisiana.[38] Only 10 percent of the state's electorate had to take the loyalty oath. The state was also required to accept the Emancipation Proclamation and abolish slavery in its new constitution. By December 1864, the Lincoln plan abolishing slavery had been enacted not only in Louisiana, but also in Arkansas and Tennessee.[39][40] In Kentucky, Union Army commanders relied on the Proclamation's offer of freedom to slaves who enrolled in the Army and provided freedom for an enrollee's entire family; for this and other reasons, the number of slaves in the state fell by more than 70 percent during the war.[41] However, in Delaware[42] and Kentucky,[43] slavery continued to be legal until December 18, 1865, when the Thirteenth Amendment took effect.

Background

Military action prior to emancipation

The Fugitive Slave Act of 1850 required individuals to return runaway slaves to their owners. During the war, in May 1861, Union general Benjamin Butler declared that three slaves who escaped to Union lines were contraband of war, and accordingly he refused to return them, saying to a man who sought their return, "I am under no constitutional obligations to a foreign country, which Virginia now claims to be".[44] On May 30, after a cabinet meeting called by President Lincoln, "Simon Cameron, the secretary of war, telegraphed Butler to inform him that his contraband policy 'is approved.'"[45] This decision was controversial because it could have been taken to imply recognition of the Confederacy as a separate, independent sovereign state under international law, a notion that Lincoln steadfastly denied.[*citation needed*] In addition, as contraband, these

people were legally designated as "property" when they crossed Union lines and their ultimate status was uncertain.[46]

Governmental action toward emancipation

First Reading of the Emancipation Proclamation of President Lincoln by Francis Bicknell Carpenter (1864)

Clickable image: *use cursor to identify.*

In December 1861, Lincoln sent his first annual message to Congress (the State of the Union Address, but then typically given in writing and not referred to as such). In it he praised the free labor system for respecting human rights over property rights; he endorsed legislation to address the status of contraband slaves and slaves in loyal states, possibly through buying their freedom with federal money; and he endorsed federal funding of voluntary colonization.[47][48] In January 1862, Thaddeus Stevens, the Republican leader in the House, called for total war against the rebellion to include emancipation of slaves, arguing that emancipation, by forcing the loss of enslaved labor, would ruin the rebel economy. On March 13, 1862, Congress approved an Act Prohibiting the Return of Slaves, which prohibited "All officers or persons in the military

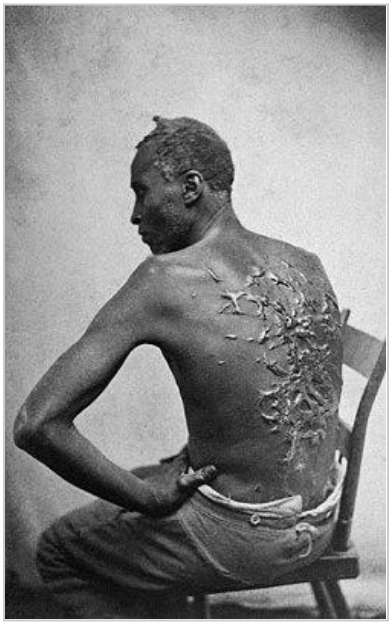
or naval service of the United States" from returning fugitive slaves to their owners.[49] Pursuant to a law signed by Lincoln, slavery was abolished in the District of Columbia on April 16, 1862, and owners were compensated.[50] Compensated owners included free black people who had purchased the freedom of family members.[51]

On June 9, 1862, Congress passed a bill that prohibited slavery in all current and future United States territories (though not in the states), and, on June 19, President Lincoln signed it into law. This act effectively repudiated the 1857 opinion of the Supreme Court of the United States in the *Dred Scott* case that Congress was powerless to regulate slavery in U.S. territories.[52][53] It also rejected the notion of popular sovereignty that had been advanced by Stephen A. Douglas as a solution to the slavery controversy, while completing the effort first legislatively proposed by Thomas Jefferson in 1784 to confine slavery within the borders of existing states.[54][55]

On August 6, 1861, the First Confiscation Act freed the slaves who were employed "against the Government and lawful authority of the United States."[56] On July 17, 1862, the Second Confiscation Act freed the slaves "within any place occupied by rebel forces and afterwards occupied by forces of the United States."[57] The Second Confiscation Act, unlike the First Confiscation Act, explicitly provided that all slaves covered by it would be permanently freed, stating in section 10 that "all slaves of persons who shall hereafter be engaged in rebellion against the government of the United States, or who shall in any way give aid or comfort thereto, escaping from such persons and taking refuge within the lines of the army; and all slaves captured from such persons or deserted by them and coming under the control of the government of the United States; and all slaves of such person found on [or] being within any place occupied by rebel forces and afterwards occupied by the forces of the United States, shall be deemed captives of war, and shall be forever free of their servitude, and not

again held as slaves."[58] However, Lincoln's position continued to be that, although Congress lacked the power to free the slaves in rebel-held states, he, as commander in chief, could do so if he deemed it a proper military measure.[59] By this time, in the summer of 1862, Lincoln had drafted the Preliminary Emancipation Proclamation, which he issued on September 22, 1862. It declared that, on January 1, 1863, he would free the slaves in states still in rebellion.[60]

Public opinion of emancipation



Carte de visite image of Peter, taken in Baton Rouge spring 1863; widely distributed by abolitionists to expose the brutality of slavery

Abolitionists had long been urging Lincoln to free all slaves. In the summer of 1862, Republican editor Horace Greeley of the highly influential *New-York Tribune* wrote a famous editorial entitled "The Prayer of Twenty Millions" demanding a more aggressive attack on the Confederacy and faster emancipation of the slaves: "On the face of this wide earth, Mr. President, there is not one ... intelligent champion of the Union cause

who does not feel ... that the rebellion, if crushed tomorrow, would be renewed if slavery were left in full vigor and that every hour of deference to slavery is an hour of added and deepened peril to the Union."[61] Lincoln responded in his open letter to Horace Greeley of August 22, 1862:

If there be those who would not save the Union, unless they could at the same time *save* slavery, I do not agree with them. If there be those who would not save the Union unless they could at the same time *destroy* slavery, I do not agree with them. My paramount object in this struggle *is* to save the Union, and is *not* either to save or to destroy slavery. If I could save the Union without freeing *any* slave I would do it, and if I could save it by freeing *all* the slaves I would do it; and if I could save it by freeing some and leaving others alone I would also do that. What I do about slavery, and the colored race, I do because I believe it helps to save the Union; and what I forbear, I forbear because I do *not* believe it would help to save the Union.... I have here stated my purpose according to my view of *official* duty; and I intend no modification of my oft-expressed *personal* wish that all men everywhere could be free.[62]

Lincoln scholar Harold Holzer wrote about Lincoln's letter: "Unknown to Greeley, Lincoln composed this after he had already drafted a preliminary Emancipation Proclamation, which he had determined to issue after the next Union military victory. Therefore, this letter, was in truth, an attempt to position the impending announcement in terms of saving the Union, not freeing slaves as a humanitarian gesture. It was one of Lincoln's most skillful public relations efforts, even if it has cast longstanding doubt on his sincerity as a liberator."[60] Historian Richard Striner argues that "for years" Lincoln's letter has been misread as "Lincoln only wanted to save the Union."[63] However, within the context of Lincoln's entire career and pronouncements on slavery this interpretation is wrong, according to Striner. Rather, Lincoln was softening the strong Northern white supremacist opposition to his imminent emancipation by tying it to the cause of the

Union. This opposition would fight for the Union but not to end slavery, so Lincoln gave them the means and motivation to do both, at the same time.[63] In effect, then, Lincoln may have already chosen the third option he mentioned to Greeley: "freeing some and leaving others alone"; that is, freeing slaves in the states still in rebellion on January 1, 1863, but leaving enslaved those in the border states and Union-occupied areas.

Nevertheless, in the Preliminary Emancipation Proclamation itself, Lincoln said that he would recommend to Congress that it compensate states that "adopt, immediate, or gradual abolishment of slavery". In addition, during the hundred days between September 22, 1862, when he issued the Preliminary Emancipation Proclamation, and January 1, 1863, when he issued the Final Emancipation Proclamation, Lincoln took actions that suggest that he continued to consider the first option he mentioned to Greeley — saving the Union without freeing any slave — a possibility. Historian William W. Freehling wrote, "From mid-October to mid-November 1862, he sent personal envoys to Louisiana, Tennessee, and Arkansas".[64][65] Each of these envoys carried with him a letter from Lincoln stating that if the people of their state desired "to avoid the unsatisfactory" terms of the Final Emancipation Proclamation "and to have peace again upon the old terms" (*i.e.*, with slavery intact), they should rally "the largest number of the people possible" to vote in "elections of members to the Congress of the United States ... friendly to their object".[66] Later, in his Annual Message to Congress of December 1, 1862, Lincoln proposed an amendment to the U.S. Constitution providing that any state that abolished slavery before January 1, 1900, would receive compensation from the United States in the form of interest-bearing U.S. bonds. Adoption of this amendment, in theory, could have ended the war without ever permanently ending slavery, because the amendment provided, "Any State having received bonds ... and afterwards reintroducing or tolerating slavery therein, shall refund to the United States the bonds so received, or the value thereof, and all interest paid thereon".[67]

In his 2014 book, *Lincoln's Gamble*, journalist and historian Todd Brewster asserted that Lincoln's desire to reassert the saving of the Union as his sole war goal was, in fact, crucial to his claim of legal authority for emancipation. Since slavery was protected by the Constitution, the only way that he could free the slaves was as a tactic of war—not for its own sake.[68] But that carried the risk that when the war ended, so would the justification for freeing the slaves. Late in 1862, Lincoln asked his Attorney General, Edward Bates, for an opinion as to whether slaves freed through a war-related proclamation of emancipation could be re-enslaved once the war was over. Bates had to work through the language of the *Dred Scott* decision to arrive at an answer, but he finally concluded that they could indeed remain free. Still, a complete end to slavery would require a constitutional amendment.[69]

Conflicting advice as to whether to free the slaves was presented to Lincoln in public and private. Thomas Nast, a cartoon artist during the Civil War and the late 1800s considered "Father of the American Cartoon", composed many works, including a two-sided spread that showed the transition from slavery into civilization after President Lincoln signed the Proclamation. Nast believed in equal opportunity and equality for all people, including enslaved Africans or free blacks. A mass rally in Chicago on September 7, 1862, demanded immediate and universal emancipation of slaves. A delegation headed by William W. Patton met the president at the White House on September 13. Lincoln had declared in peacetime that he had no constitutional authority to free the slaves. Even used as a war power, emancipation was a risky political act. Public opinion as a whole was against it.[70] There would be strong opposition among Copperhead Democrats and an uncertain reaction from loyal border states. Delaware and Maryland already had a high percentage of free blacks: 91.2% and 49.7%, respectively, in 1860.[71]

Drafting and issuance of the Proclamation

English Wikisource has original text related to this article:

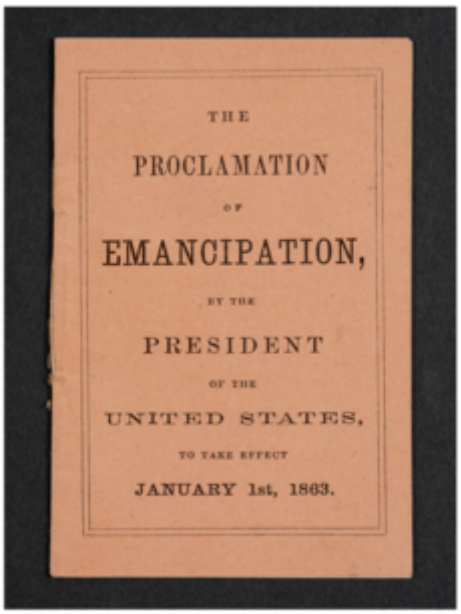
The Emancipation Proclamation

Eastman Johnson (American, 1824–1906) – *A Ride for Liberty – The Fugitive Slaves*, c. 1862

Lincoln first discussed the Proclamation with his cabinet in July 1862. He drafted his Preliminary Emancipation Proclamation and read it to Secretary of State William Seward and Secretary of the Navy Gideon Welles, on July 13. Seward and Welles were at first speechless, then Seward referred to possible anarchy throughout the South and resulting foreign intervention; Welles apparently said nothing. On July 22, Lincoln presented it to his entire cabinet as something he had determined to do and he asked their opinion on wording.[72] Although Secretary of War Edwin Stanton supported it, Seward advised Lincoln to issue the Proclamation after a major Union victory, or else it would appear as if the Union was giving "its last shriek of retreat".[73] Walter Stahr,

however, writes, "There are contemporary sources, however, that suggest others were involved in the decision to delay", and Stahr quotes them.[74]

In September 1862, the Battle of Antietam gave Lincoln the victory he needed to issue the Preliminary Emancipation Proclamation. In the battle, though the Union suffered heavier losses than the Confederates and General McClellan allowed the escape of Robert E. Lee's retreating troops, Union forces turned back a Confederate invasion of Maryland, eliminating more than a quarter of Lee's army in the process. This marked a turning point in the Civil War.

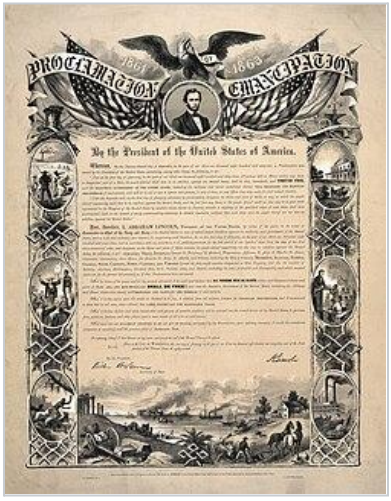


Pamphlet containing the Preliminary Emancipation Proclamation, published in December 1862 and distributed to Union soldiers.

On September 22, 1862, five days after Antietam, Lincoln called his cabinet into session and issued the Preliminary Emancipation Proclamation.[75] According to Civil War

historian James M. McPherson, Lincoln told cabinet members, "I made a solemn vow before God, that if General Lee was driven back from Pennsylvania, I would crown the result by the declaration of freedom to the slaves."[76][77] Lincoln had first shown an early draft of the proclamation to Vice President Hannibal Hamlin,[78] an ardent abolitionist, who was more often kept in the dark on presidential decisions. In December 1862, out of concern that Lincoln might not issue the Final Emancipation Proclamation, John Murray Forbes published pamphlets including the text of the Preliminary Emancipation Proclamation and announcing the forthcoming final proclamation "to take effect January 1st, 1863". He worked with Massachusetts Governor John Andrew to distribute them to Union soldiers.[79][80]

Lincoln issued the Final Emancipation Proclamation, as he had promised in the Preliminary Emancipation Proclamation, on January 1, 1863. Although implicitly granted authority by Congress, Lincoln used his powers as Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy to issue the Proclamation "as a necessary war measure." Therefore, it was not the equivalent of a statute enacted by Congress or a constitutional amendment, because Lincoln or a subsequent president could revoke it.



1864 reproduction of the Emancipation Proclamation from the Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division

One week after issuing the final Proclamation, Lincoln wrote to Major General John McClernand: "After the commencement of hostilities I struggled nearly a year and a half to get along without touching the 'institution'; and when finally I conditionally determined to touch it, I gave a hundred days fair notice of my purpose, to all the States and people, within which time they could have turned it wholly aside, by simply again becoming good citizens of the United States. They chose to disregard it, and I made the peremptory proclamation on what appeared to me to be a military necessity. And being made, it must stand". Lincoln continued, however, that the states included in the Proclamation could "adopt systems of apprenticeship for the colored people, conforming substantially to the most approved plans of gradual emancipation; and ... they may be nearly as well off, in this respect, as if the present trouble had not occurred". He concluded by asking McClernand not to "make this letter public".[81][82]

Initially, the Emancipation Proclamation effectively freed only a small percentage of the slaves, namely those who were behind Union lines in areas not exempted. Most slaves were still behind Confederate lines or in exempted Union-occupied areas. Secretary of State William H. Seward commented, "We show our sympathy with slavery by emancipating slaves where we cannot reach them and holding them in bondage where we can set them free." Had any slave state ended its secession attempt before January 1, 1863, it could have kept slavery, at least temporarily. The Proclamation freed the slaves only in areas of the South that were still in rebellion on January 1, 1863. But as the Union army advanced into the South, slaves fled to behind its lines, and "[s]hortly after issuing the Emancipation Proclamation, the Lincoln administration lifted the ban on enticing slaves into Union lines."[83] These events contributed to the destruction of slavery.

A printed broadside recruiting men of color to enlist in the U.S. military after the Emancipation Proclamation in 1863 (Philadelphia, Pennsylvania).

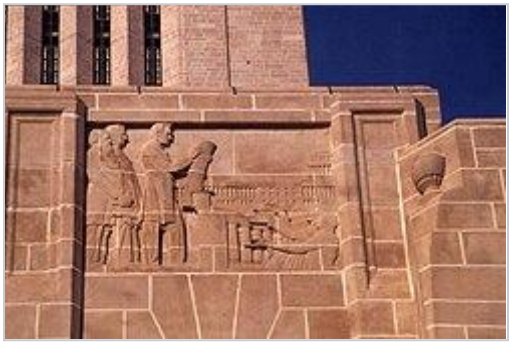
The Emancipation Proclamation also allowed for the enrollment of freed slaves into the United States military. During the war nearly 200,000 black men, most of them ex-slaves, joined the Union Army.[84] Their contributions were significant in winning the war. The Confederacy did not allow slaves in their army as soldiers until the last month before its defeat.[85]

Though the counties of Virginia that were soon to form West Virginia were specifically exempted from the Proclamation (Jefferson County being the only exception), a condition of the state's admittance to the Union was that its constitution provide for the gradual abolition of slavery (an immediate emancipation of all slaves was also adopted there in early 1865). Slaves in the border states of Maryland and Missouri were also emancipated by separate state action before the Civil War ended. In Maryland, a new state constitution abolishing slavery in the state went into effect on November 1, 1864. The Union-occupied counties of eastern Virginia and the allegedly pro-Union parishes of Louisiana, which had been exempted from the Proclamation, both adopted state

constitutions that abolished slavery in April 1864.[9][10][86][87] In early 1865, Tennessee adopted an amendment to its constitution prohibiting slavery.[88][89]

Implementation

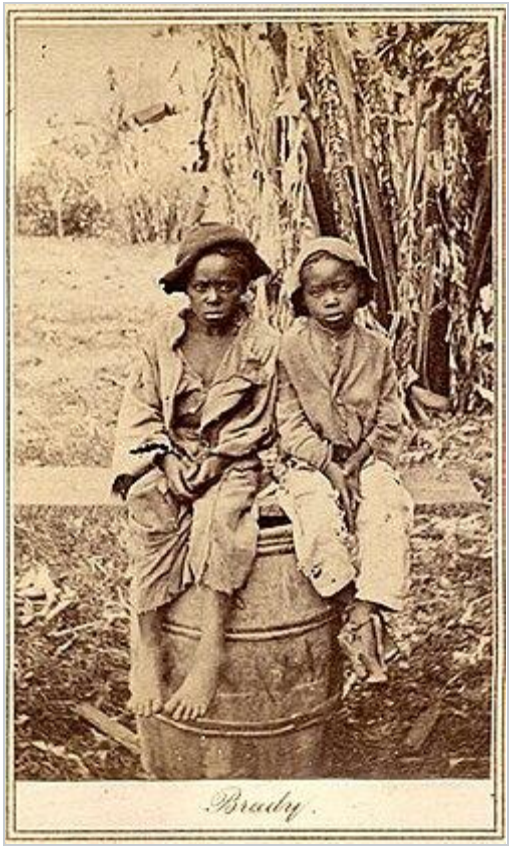
Further information: Slave states and free states



The moment the Proclamation was signed, portrayed by Lee Lawrie in Lincoln, Nebraska

Union-occupied areas of the Confederate states where the Proclamation was put into immediate effect by local commanders included Winchester, Virginia,[90] Corinth, Mississippi,[91] the Sea Islands along the coasts of the Carolinas and Georgia,[92] Key West, Florida,[93] and Port Royal, South Carolina.[94]

Immediate impact



A photograph of two children who likely, were recently emancipated – circa 1870

Scene Along the Route.

A correspondent of the Philadelphia Inquirer, with the Army of the Potomac, tells the following story:

At intervals of every few miles families of negroes were gathered along the road-side, exchanging words of salutation to our soldiers as they passed, and grinning all over their faces. "Massa's gone away, gem'men," was the answer in almost all cases where the query in relation to their master's whereabouts was raised.—"Specs he gwan to Richmon." "Dun know. He went away in a right smart hurry last night; dat's all I know." A sight of the fine, athletic, plump appearance of some of these negroes, of both sexes and all ages, would have driven a negro trader crazy, especially when he became convinced of the fact that, according to the terms of President Lincoln's proclamation, these negroes are free from the moment the lines of the Yankee army closed in upon them. It was a pleasing spectacle, and commingled with not a little pathos, to hear the benedictions which the aged and infirm negroes poured out upon our soldiers as they marched by. "I'se been waitin' for you," said an old negro, whose eyesight was almost entirely gone, and whose head was covered with the frosts of some eighty-five winters. "Ah! I'se been waitin for you gem'men some time. I knew you was comin', kase I heard massa and misses often talkin' about you," and then the old hero chuckled, and almost ground his ivories out of his head.

"Scene Along the Route" from a *Philadelphia Inquirer* correspondent (possibly U.H. Painter[95])

embedded with the Army of the Potomac, *The Indiana Progress*, June 1, 1864

On New Year's Eve in 1862, African Americans – enslaved and free – gathered across the United States to hold Watch Night ceremonies for "Freedom's Eve", looking toward the stroke of midnight and the promised fulfillment of the Proclamation.[96] It has been inaccurately claimed that the Emancipation Proclamation did not free a single slave;[97] historian Lerone Bennett Jr. alleged that the Proclamation was a hoax deliberately designed not to free any slaves.[98] However, as a result of the Proclamation, most slaves became free during the war, beginning on the day it took effect; eyewitness

accounts at places such as Hilton Head Island, South Carolina,[99] and Port Royal, South Carolina[94] record celebrations on January 1 as thousands of blacks were informed of their new legal status of freedom. "Estimates of the number of slaves freed immediately by the Emancipation Proclamation are uncertain. One contemporary estimate put the 'contraband' population of Union-occupied North Carolina at 10,000, and the Sea Islands of South Carolina also had a substantial population. Those 20,000 slaves were freed immediately by the Emancipation Proclamation."[100][101] This Union-occupied zone where freedom began at once included parts of eastern North Carolina, the Mississippi Valley, northern Alabama, the Shenandoah Valley of Virginia, a large part of Arkansas, and the Sea Islands of Georgia and South Carolina.[102] Although some counties of Union-occupied Virginia were exempted from the Proclamation, the lower Shenandoah Valley and the area around Alexandria were covered.[100]

Emancipation was immediately enforced as Union soldiers advanced into the Confederacy. Slaves fled their masters and were often assisted by Union soldiers.[103] But Robert Gould Shaw was skeptical and, on September 25, 1862, wrote to his mother, "So the 'Proclamation of Emancipation' has come at last, or rather, its forerunner. I suppose you all are very much excited about it. For my part, I can't see what *practical* good it can do now. Wherever our army has been, there remain no slaves, and the Proclamation will not free them where we don't go." Ten days later, he wrote her again, "Don't imagine, from what I said in my last that I thought Mr. Lincoln's 'Emancipation Proclamation' not right ... but still, as a *war-measure*, I don't see the immediate benefit of it, ... as the slaves are *sure* of being free at any rate, with or without an Emancipation Act."[104]

Booker T. Washington, as a boy of 9 in Virginia, remembered the day in early 1865:[105]

As the great day drew nearer, there was more singing in the slave quarters than usual. It was bolder, had more ring, and lasted later into the night. Most of the verses of the plantation songs had some reference to freedom.... [S]ome man who seemed to be a stranger (a United States officer, I presume) made a little speech and then read a rather long paper—the Emancipation Proclamation, I think. After the reading we were told that we were all free, and could go when and where we pleased. My mother, who was standing by my side, leaned over and kissed her children, while tears of joy ran down her cheeks. She explained to us what it all meant, that this was the day for which she had been so long praying, but fearing that she would never live to see.

Winslow Homer 1876 – "A Visit from the Old Mistress" depicts a tense meeting between a group of newly freed slaves and their former slaveholder – Smithsonian Museum of American Art

Runaway slaves who had escaped to Union lines had previously been held by the Union Army as "contraband of war" under the Confiscation Acts. The Sea Islands off the coast of Georgia had been occupied by the Union Navy earlier in the war. The whites had fled to the mainland while the blacks stayed. An early program of Reconstruction was set up for the former slaves, including schools and training. Naval officers read the Proclamation and told them they were free.[92]

Slaves had been part of the "engine of war" for the Confederacy. They produced and prepared food; sewed uniforms; repaired railways; worked on farms and in factories,

shipping yards, and mines; built fortifications; and served as hospital workers and common laborers. News of the Proclamation spread rapidly by word of mouth, arousing hopes of freedom, creating general confusion, and encouraging thousands to escape to Union lines.[106][*page needed*] George Washington Albright, a teenage slave in Mississippi, recalled that like many of his fellow slaves, his father escaped to join Union forces. According to Albright, plantation owners tried to keep news of the Proclamation from slaves, but they learned of it through the grapevine. The young slave became a "runner" for an informal group they called the *4Ls* ("Lincoln's Legal Loyal League") bringing news of the Proclamation to secret slave meetings at plantations throughout the region.[107]

Confederate general Robert E. Lee saw the Emancipation Proclamation as a way for the Union to increase the number of soldiers it could place on the field, making it imperative for the Confederacy to increase its own numbers. Writing on the matter after the sack of Fredericksburg, Lee wrote, "In view of the vast increase of the forces of the enemy, of the savage and brutal policy he has proclaimed, which leaves us no alternative but success or degradation worse than death, if we would save the honor of our families from pollution [and] our social system from destruction, let every effort be made, every means be employed, to fill and maintain the ranks of our armies, until God in his mercy shall bless us with the establishment of our independence."[108][109][*page needed*]

The Emancipation Proclamation marked a significant turning point in the war as it made the goal of the North not only preserving the Union, but also freeing the slaves.[110] The Proclamation also rallied support from abolitionists and Europeans, while encouraging enslaved individuals to escape to the North. This weakened the South's labor force while bolstering the North's ranks.[111]

Political impact

This section **needs additional citations for verification**. Please help improve this article by

adding citations to reliable sources in this section. Unsourced material may be challenged and removed

d. *(September 2020)* *(Learn how and when to remove this message)*

"Abe Lincoln's Last Card; Or, Rouge-et-Noir" (Red and Black), a cartoon by John Tenniel printed by *Punch*[112] after the *London Times* wrote in October 1862 that Lincoln had played his "last card" in issuing the Proclamation.[113][114] Lincoln's hair is in points, suggesting horns. The cartoon was reprinted often in the Copperhead press.[115][116][*page needed*]

The Proclamation was immediately denounced by Copperhead Democrats, who opposed the war and advocated restoring the union by allowing slavery. Horatio Seymour, while running for governor of New York, cast the Emancipation Proclamation as a call for slaves to commit extreme acts of violence on all white Southerners, saying it was "a proposal for the butchery of women and children, for scenes of lust and rapine, and of arson and murder, which would invoke the interference of civilized Europe".[117] The Copperheads also saw the Proclamation as an unconstitutional abuse of presidential power. In the *Republican Watchman* in Greenpoint, Long Island, its editor Henry A. Reeves wrote, "In the name of freedom for Negroes, [the proclamation] imperils the liberty of white men; to test an utopian theory of equality of races which Nature, History and Experience alike condemn as monstrous, it overturns the Constitution and Civil Laws and sets up Military Usurpation in their stead."[117] By contrast, in a speech delivered in February 1863 at the Cooper Union and published in the New-York Tribune, Frederick Douglass called the Proclamation "the greatest event of our nation's history, if not the greatest event of the century".[118]

Racism remained pervasive on both sides of the conflict and many in the North supported the war only as an effort to force the South to stay in the Union. The promises of many Republican politicians that the war was to restore the Union and not about black rights or ending slavery were declared lies by their opponents, who cited the Emancipation Proclamation. In Columbiana, Ohio, Copperhead David Allen told a crowd, "Now fellow Democrats I ask you if you are going to be forced into a war against your Britheren of the Southern States for the Negro. I answer No!"[119] The Copperheads saw the Proclamation as proof of their position and the beginning of a political rise for their members; in Connecticut, H. B. Whiting wrote that the truth was now plain even to "those stupid thickheaded persons who persisted in thinking that the

President was a conservative man and that the war was for the restoration of the Union under the Constitution."[119]

War Democrats, who rejected the Copperhead position within their party, found themselves in a quandary. While throughout the war they had continued to espouse the racist positions of their party and their disdain of the concerns of slaves, they did see the Proclamation as a viable military tool against the South and worried that opposing it might demoralize troops in the Union army. The question would continue to trouble them and eventually lead to a split within their party as the war progressed.[119]

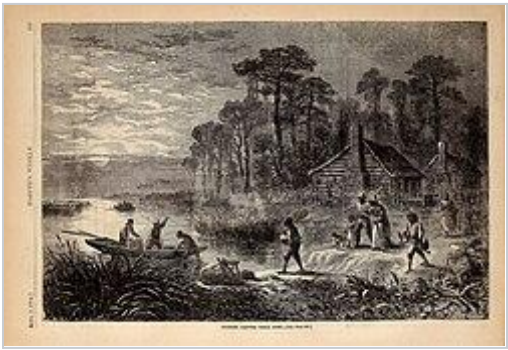
Lincoln further alienated many in the Union two days after issuing the Preliminary Emancipation Proclamation by suspending habeas corpus. His opponents linked these two actions in their claims that he was becoming a despot. In light of this and a lack of military success for the Union armies, many War Democrat voters who had previously supported Lincoln turned against him and joined the Copperheads in the off-year elections held in October and November.[119]

In the 1862 elections, the Democrats gained 28 seats in the House as well as the governorship of New York. Lincoln's friend Orville Hickman Browning told the president that the Proclamation and the suspension of habeas corpus had been "disastrous" for his party by handing the Democrats so many weapons. Lincoln made no response. Copperhead William Jarvis of Connecticut pronounced the election the "beginning of the end of the utter downfall of Abolitionism".[120]

Historians James M. McPherson and Allan Nevins state that though the results looked very troubling, they could be seen favorably by Lincoln; his opponents did well only in their historic strongholds and "at the national level their gains in the House were the smallest of any minority party's in an off-year election in nearly a generation. Michigan,

California, and Iowa all went Republican.... Moreover, the Republicans picked up five seats in the Senate."[120] McPherson states, "If the election was in any sense a referendum on emancipation and on Lincoln's conduct of the war, a majority of Northern voters endorsed these policies."[120]

Confederate response



"NEGROES LEAVING THEIR HOME: The view on page 237 illustrates a phase of the war which the rebels have found it difficult to contemplate with any complacency. The exodus of the slaves from the bondage which has so long oppressed them has been steady and continuous from the moment the first blow was struck against the national honor, and it still goes on, hundreds and thousands of the poor, outraged creatures cowing weekly into tho Union lines at all points in the field. Our sketch gives an admirable view of the desolation which surrounds the homes of the negroes, and the heartiness and energy with which they make their way to freedom upon the slightest opportunity. The Federal gun-boat, it will be seen, lies far out at sea, but the sharp eyes of the waiting, watching bondmen have caught sight of the flag she carries; they know there is shelter under it for them, and launching their little boat, they carefully put the aged and infirm, with their few more valuable effects, aboard, and, with a pang, it may be, at leaving their rude home, but with hope and joy in their hearts at the prospect of deliverance, pull away from the shore, which henceforth is to be to them only a dark dreary line marking a yet darker past. There is pathos as well as history in the picture." (*Harper's Weekly*, April 9, 1864)

The initial Confederate response was outrage. The Proclamation was seen as vindication of the rebellion and proof that Lincoln would have abolished slavery even if the states had remained in the Union.[121] It intensified the fear of slaves revolting and undermined morale, especially spurring fear among slave owners who saw it as a threat to their business.[122] In an August 1863 letter to President Lincoln, U.S. Army general Ulysses S. Grant observed that the Proclamation's "arming the negro", together with "the emancipation of the negro, is the heavyest [*sic*] blow yet given the Confederacy. The South rave a greatdeel [*sic*] about it and profess to be very angry."[123]

In May 1863, a few months after the Proclamation took effect, the Confederacy passed a law demanding "full and ample retaliation" against the U.S. for such measures. The Confederacy stated that black U.S. soldiers captured while fighting against the Confederacy would be tried as slave insurrectionists in civil courts—a capital offense with an automatic sentence of death. Less than a year after the law's passage, the Confederates massacred black U.S. soldiers at Fort Pillow.[124]

Confederate President Jefferson Davis reacted to the Emancipation Proclamation with outrage and in an address to the Confederate Congress on January 12 threatened to send any U.S. military officer captured in Confederate territory covered by the Proclamation to state authorities to be charged with "exciting servile insurrection", which was a capital offense.[125]

Confederate General Robert E. Lee called the Proclamation a "savage and brutal policy he has proclaimed, which leaves us no alternative but success or degradation worse than death."[126]

However, some Confederates welcomed the Proclamation, because they believed it would strengthen pro-slavery sentiment in the Confederacy and thus lead to greater

enlistment of white men into the Confederate army. According to one Confederate cavalry sergeant from Kentucky, "The Proclamation is worth three hundred thousand soldiers to our Government at least.... It shows exactly what this war was brought about for and the intention of its damnable authors."[127] Even some Union soldiers concurred with this view and expressed reservations about the Proclamation, not on principle, but rather because they were afraid it would increase the Confederacy's determination to fight on and maintain slavery. One Union soldier from New York stated worryingly after the Proclamation's issuance, "I know enough of the southern spirit that I think they will fight for the institution of slavery even to extermination."[128]

As a result of the Proclamation, the price of slaves in the Confederacy increased in the months after its issuance, with one Confederate from South Carolina opining in 1865 that "now is the time for Uncle to buy some negro women and children...."[129]

International impact

As Lincoln had hoped, the Proclamation turned foreign popular opinion in favor of the Union by gaining it the support of anti-slavery countries and countries that had already abolished slavery (especially the developed countries in Europe such as the United Kingdom and France). This shift ended the Confederacy's hopes of gaining official recognition.[130]

Since the Emancipation Proclamation made the eradication of slavery an explicit Union war goal, it linked support for the South to support for slavery. Public opinion in Britain would not tolerate support for slavery. As Henry Adams noted, "The Emancipation Proclamation has done more for us than all our former victories and all our diplomacy." In Italy, Giuseppe Garibaldi hailed Lincoln as "the heir of the aspirations of John Brown". On August 6, 1863, Garibaldi wrote to Lincoln: "Posterity will call you the great

emancipator, a more enviable title than any crown could be, and greater than any merely mundane treasure".[131]

Mayor Abel Haywood, a representative for workers from Manchester, England, wrote to Lincoln saying, "We joyfully honor you for many decisive steps toward practically exemplifying your belief in the words of your great founders: 'All men are created free and equal.'"[132] The Emancipation Proclamation served to ease tensions with Europe over the North's conduct of the war, and combined with the recent failed Southern offensive at Antietam, to remove any practical chance for the Confederacy to receive foreign military intervention in the war.[133]

However, in spite of the Emancipation Proclamation, arms sales to the Confederacy through blockade running, from British firms and dealers, continued, with knowledge of the British government.[134] The Confederacy was able to sustain the fight for two more years largely thanks to the weapons supplied by British blockade runners. As a result, the blockade runners operating from Britain were responsible for killing 400,000 additional soldiers and civilians on both sides.[135][136][137][138]

Gettysburg Address

Lincoln's Gettysburg Address on November 19, 1863 made indirect reference to the Proclamation and the ending of slavery as a war goal with the phrase "new birth of freedom". The Proclamation solidified Lincoln's support among the rapidly growing abolitionist elements of the Republican Party and ensured that they would not block his renomination in 1864.[139][*page needed*]

Proclamation of Amnesty and Reconstruction (1863)

In December 1863, Lincoln issued his *Proclamation of Amnesty and Reconstruction*, which dealt with the ways the rebel states could reconcile with the Union. Key provisions required that the states accept the Emancipation Proclamation and thus the freedom of their slaves, and accept the Confiscation Acts, as well as the Act banning slavery in United States territories.[140]

Postbellum

"Ambrotype of African American woman with flag," said to be a washerwoman for Union troops quartered outside Richmond, Virginia (Smithsonian 2005.0002.01)

Near the end of the war, abolitionists were concerned that the Emancipation Proclamation would be construed solely as a war measure, as Lincoln intended, and

would no longer apply once fighting ended. They also were increasingly anxious to secure the freedom of all slaves, not just those freed by the Emancipation Proclamation. Thus pressed, Lincoln staked a large part of his 1864 presidential campaign on a constitutional amendment to abolish slavery throughout the United States. Lincoln's campaign was bolstered by votes in both Maryland and Missouri to abolish slavery in those states. Maryland's new constitution abolishing slavery took effect on November 1, 1864.[141] Slavery in Missouri ended on January 11, 1865, when a state convention approved an ordinance abolishing slavery by a vote of 60-4,[142] and later the same day, Governor Thomas C. Fletcher followed up with his own "Proclamation of Freedom."[143]

Winning re-election, Lincoln pressed the lame duck 38th Congress to pass the proposed amendment immediately rather than wait for the incoming 39th Congress to convene. In January 1865, Congress sent to the state legislatures for ratification what became the Thirteenth Amendment, banning slavery in all U.S. states and territories, except as punishment for a crime. The amendment was ratified by the legislatures of enough states by December 6, 1865, and proclaimed 12 days later. There were approximately 40,000 slaves in Kentucky and 1,000 in Delaware who were liberated then.[144]

Critiques

Further information: Abraham Lincoln and slavery

The Emancipation Proclamation has been ridiculed, notably by Richard Hofstadter, who wrote that it "had all the moral grandeur of a bill of lading" and "declared free all slaves ... precisely where its effect could not reach".[145][146] Disagreeing with Hofstadter, William W. Freehling wrote that "in rebel-held areas, Lincoln presided over ... a conquering army, perfect to smooth the fugitives' road toward liberating

themselves".[147] Freehling added that Lincoln's asserting his power as Commander-in-Chief to issue the proclamation "reads not like an entrepreneur's bill for past services but like a warrior's brandishing of a new weapon".[148]

Lincoln's proclamation has been called "one of the most radical emancipations in the history of the modern world."[149] Nonetheless, as over the years American society continued to be deeply unfair towards black people, cynicism towards Lincoln and the Emancipation Proclamation increased. One attack was Lerone Bennett's *Forced into Glory: Abraham Lincoln's White Dream* (2000), which claimed that Lincoln was a white supremacist who issued the Emancipation Proclamation in lieu of the real racial reforms for which radical abolitionists pushed. To this, one scholarly review states, "Few Civil War scholars take Bennett and DiLorenzo seriously, pointing to their narrow political agenda and faulty research."[150] In his *Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation*, Allen C. Guelzo noted professional historians' lack of substantial respect for the document, since it has been the subject of few major scholarly studies. He argued that Lincoln was the U.S.'s "last Enlightenment politician"[151] and as such had "allegiance to 'reason, cold, calculating, unimpassioned reason'.... But the most important among the Enlightenment's political virtues for Lincoln, and for his Proclamation, was prudence".[151]

Other historians have given more credit to Lincoln for what he accomplished toward ending slavery and for his own growth in political and moral stature.[152] More might have been accomplished if he had not been assassinated. As Eric Foner wrote:

Lincoln was not an abolitionist or Radical Republican, a point Bennett reiterates innumerable times. He did not favor immediate abolition before the war, and held racist views typical of his time. But he was also a man of deep convictions when it came to

slavery, and during the Civil War displayed a remarkable capacity for moral and political growth.[153]

Legacy in the civil rights era

Dr. Martin Luther King Jr.

President Barack Obama views the Emancipation Proclamation in the Oval Office hung above a bust of Martin Luther King Jr. in 2010

Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. made many references to the Emancipation Proclamation during the civil rights movement. These include an "Emancipation Proclamation Centennial Address" he gave in New York City on September 12, 1962, in which he placed the Proclamation alongside the Declaration of Independence as an "imperishable" contribution to civilization and added, "All tyrants, past, present and future, are powerless to bury the truths in these declarations...." He lamented that despite a history where the United States "proudly professed the basic principles inherent in both documents," it "sadly practiced the antithesis of these principles." He concluded, "There is but one way to commemorate the Emancipation Proclamation. That is to make its declarations of freedom real; to reach back to the origins of our nation when our message of equality electrified an unfree world, and reaffirm

democracy by deeds as bold and daring as the issuance of the Emancipation Proclamation."[154]

King's most famous invocation of the Emancipation Proclamation was in a speech from the steps of the Lincoln Memorial at the 1963 March on Washington for Jobs and Freedom (often referred to as the "I Have a Dream" speech). King began the speech saying "Five score years ago, a great American, in whose symbolic shadow we stand, signed the Emancipation Proclamation. This momentous decree came as a great beacon light of hope to millions of Negro slaves who had been seared in the flames of withering injustice. It came as a joyous daybreak to end the long night of their captivity. But one hundred years later, we must face the tragic fact that the Negro still is not free. One hundred years later, the life of the Negro is still sadly crippled by the manacles of segregation and the chains of discrimination."[155]

The "Second Emancipation Proclamation"

Main article: Second Emancipation Proclamation

In the early 1960s, Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. and his associates called on President John F. Kennedy to bypass Southern segregationist opposition in the Congress by issuing an executive order to put an end to segregation.[156] This envisioned document was referred to as the "Second Emancipation Proclamation". Kennedy, however, did not issue a second Emancipation Proclamation "and noticeably avoided all centennial celebrations of emancipation." Historian David W. Blight points out that, although the idea of an executive order to act as a second Emancipation Proclamation "has been virtually forgotten," the manifesto that King and his associates produced calling for an executive order showed his "close reading of American politics" and recalled how moral leadership could have an effect on the American public through an executive order. Despite its failure "to spur a second Emancipation Proclamation from the White House,

it was an important and emphatic attempt to combat the structured forgetting of emancipation latent within Civil War memory."[157]

President John F. Kennedy

On June 11, 1963, President Kennedy spoke on national television about civil rights. Kennedy, who had been routinely criticized as timid by some civil rights activists, reminded Americans that two black students had been peacefully enrolled in the University of Alabama with the aid of the National Guard, despite the opposition of Governor George Wallace.

John Kennedy called it a "moral issue."[158] Invoking the centennial of the Emancipation Proclamation he said,

One hundred years of delay have passed since President Lincoln freed the slaves, yet their heirs, their grandsons, are not fully free. They are not yet freed from the bonds of injustice. They are not yet freed from social and economic oppression. And this Nation, for all its hopes and all its boasts, will not be fully free until all its citizens are free. We preach freedom around the world, and we mean it, and we cherish our freedom here at home, but are we to say to the world, and much more importantly, to each other that this is a land of the free except for the Negroes; that we have no second-class citizens except Negroes; that we have no class or caste system, no ghettoes, no master race except with respect to Negroes? Now the time has come for this Nation to fulfill its promise. The events in Birmingham and elsewhere have so increased the cries for equality that no city or State or legislative body can prudently choose to ignore them.[159]

In the same speech, Kennedy announced he would introduce a comprehensive civil rights bill in the United States Congress, which he did a week later. Kennedy pushed for its passage until he was assassinated on November 22, 1963. Historian Peniel E. Joseph holds Lyndon Johnson's ability to get that bill, the Civil Rights Act of 1964, signed into law on July 2, 1964, to have been aided by "the moral forcefulness of the June 11 speech", which had turned "the narrative of civil rights from a regional issue into a national story promoting racial equality and democratic renewal."[158]

President Lyndon B. Johnson

During the civil rights movement of the 1960s, Lyndon B. Johnson invoked the Emancipation Proclamation, holding it up as a promise yet to be fully implemented.

As vice president, while speaking from Gettysburg on May 30, 1963 (Memorial Day), during the centennial year of the Emancipation Proclamation, Johnson connected it directly with the ongoing civil rights struggles of the time, saying "One hundred years ago, the slave was freed. One hundred years later, the Negro remains in bondage to the color of his skin.... In this hour, it is not our respective races which are at stake—it is our nation. Let those who care for their country come forward, North and South, white and Negro, to lead the way through this moment of challenge and decision.... Until justice is blind to color, until education is unaware of race, until opportunity is unconcerned with color of men's skins, emancipation will be a proclamation but not a fact. To the extent that the proclamation of emancipation is not fulfilled in fact, to that extent we shall have fallen short of assuring freedom to the free."[160]

As president, Johnson again invoked the Proclamation in a speech presenting the Voting Rights Act at a joint session of Congress on Monday, March 15, 1965. This was one week after violence had been inflicted on peaceful civil rights marchers during the Selma to Montgomery marches. Johnson said "it's not just Negroes, but really it's all of

us, who must overcome the crippling legacy of bigotry and injustice. And we shall overcome. As a man whose roots go deeply into Southern soil, I know how agonizing racial feelings are. I know how difficult it is to reshape the attitudes and the structure of our society. But a century has passed—more than 100 years—since the Negro was freed. And he is not fully free tonight. It was more than 100 years ago that Abraham Lincoln—a great President of another party—signed the Emancipation Proclamation. But emancipation is a proclamation and not a fact. A century has passed—more than 100 years—since equality was promised, and yet the Negro is not equal. A century has passed since the day of promise, and the promise is unkept. The time of justice has now come, and I tell you that I believe sincerely that no force can hold it back. It is right in the eyes of man and God that it should come, and when it does, I think that day will brighten the lives of every American."[161]

In popular culture

U.S. commemorative stamp, 1963 [162]

In the 1963 episode of *The Andy Griffith Show*, "Andy Discovers America", Andy asks Barney to explain the Emancipation Proclamation to Opie who is struggling with history at school.[163] Barney brags about his history expertise, yet it is apparent he cannot answer Andy's question. He finally becomes frustrated and explains it is a proclamation

for certain people who wanted emancipation.[164] In addition, the Emancipation Proclamation was also a main item of discussion in the movie *Lincoln* (2012) directed by Steven Spielberg.[165]

The Emancipation Proclamation is celebrated around the world, including on stamps of nations such as the Republic of Togo.[166] The United States commemorative was issued on August 16, 1963, the opening day of the Century of Negro Progress Exhibition in Chicago, Illinois. Designed by Georg Olden, an initial printing of 120 million stamps was authorized.[162]

Notes

a. The procedure for amending the Constitution is set forth in Article Five of the United States Constitution.
b. The 48 counties then in the process of becoming West Virginia were Hancock, Brooke, Ohio, Marshall, Wetzel, Monongalia, Preston, Marion, Taylor, Tyler, Dodridge, Harrison, Barbour, Tucker, Pleasants, Wood, Ritchie, Lewis, Upshur, Randolph, Wirt, Calhoun, Gilmer, Braxton, Webster, Jackson, Roane, Clay, Nicholas, Mason, Putnam, Kanawha, Fayette, Cabell, Boone, Raleigh, Wayne, Logan, Wyoming, Pocahontas, Greenbrier, Monroe, Mercer, McDowell, Hampshire, Hardy, Highland, and Morgan. Frederick, Berkeley, and Jefferson counties had been invited to join as well. Berkley County was exempted by name, and Jefferson County was the only West Virginia county whose slaves the Proclamation freed. Frederick County remained a part of Virginia.
c. The two cities, Norfolk and Portsmouth were inside Norfolk county but independent of it.
d. New Orleans was both an independent municipality and the seat of government for the Orleans parish.
e. The Union controlled several regions of seceding states that were not exempted from the Emancipation Proclamation, including additional counties in Virginia, Baton Rouge Louisiana, northern Arkansas, the northern edges of Mississippi and Alabama, northern coastal North Carolina, southern coastal South Carolina, and the Jacksonville region of Florida.

See also

- 1866 Georgia State Freedmen's Conventions
- Abolition of slavery timeline
- Act Prohibiting Importation of Slaves
- Act Prohibiting the Return of Slaves – 1862 statute
- Confiscation Acts
- Contraband (American Civil War)
- District of Columbia Compensated Emancipation Act
- *Emancipation Memorial* – a sculpture in Washington, D.C., completed in 1876
- Emancipation reform of 1861 – Russia
- Juneteenth emancipation in Texas
- Lieber Code
- Reconstruction Amendments – amendments added to the Constitution after 1863
- Slavery Abolition Act 1833 – an act passed by the British parliament abolishing slavery in British colonies with compensation to the owners
- Slave Trade Acts
- Territorial Slavery Act of 1862
- Thirteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution – 1865, abolished slavery and involuntary servitude, except as punishment for a crime.
- Timeline of the civil rights movement
- War Governors' Conference – gave Lincoln the much needed political support to issue the Proclamation

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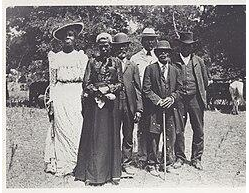

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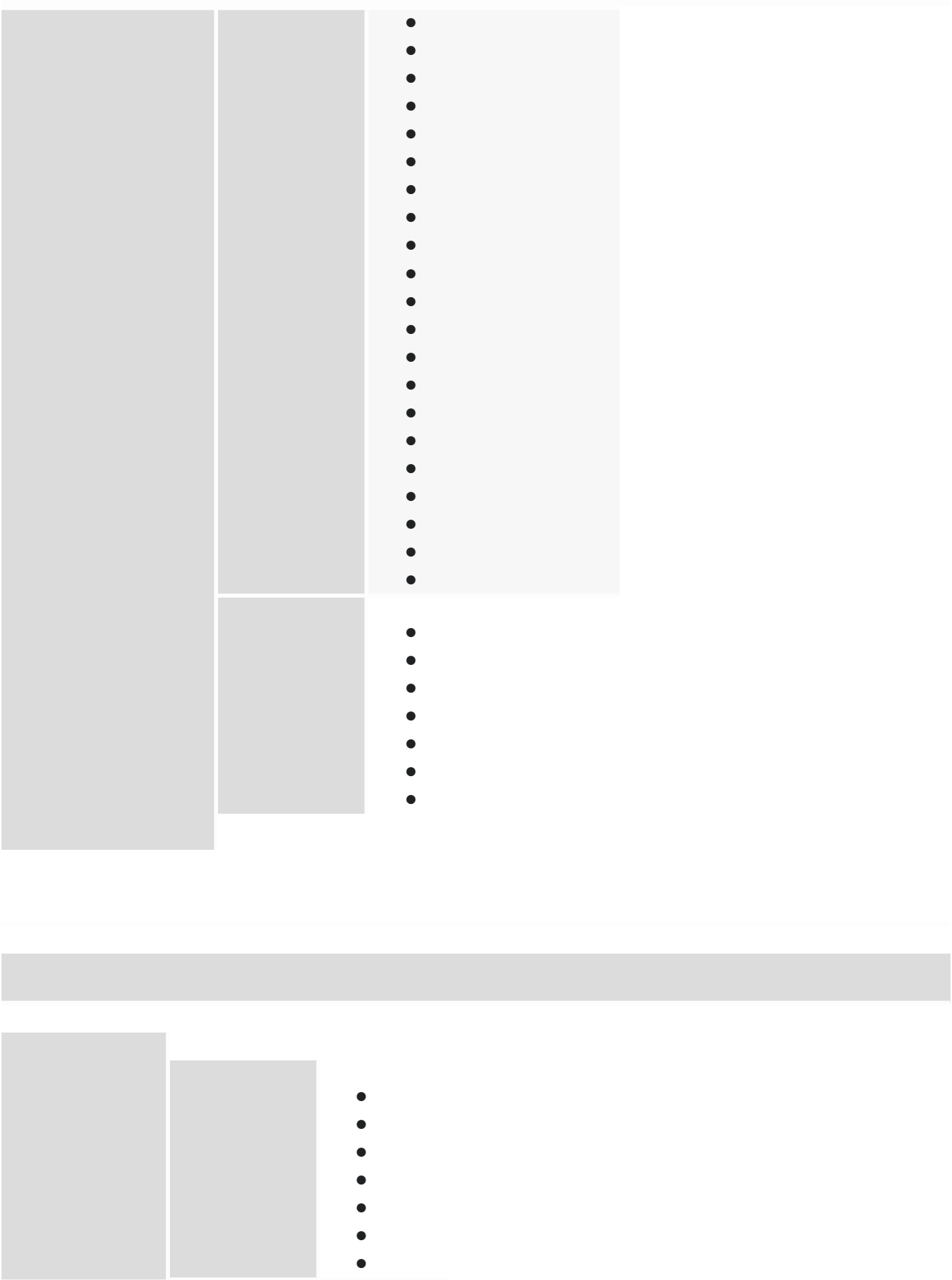

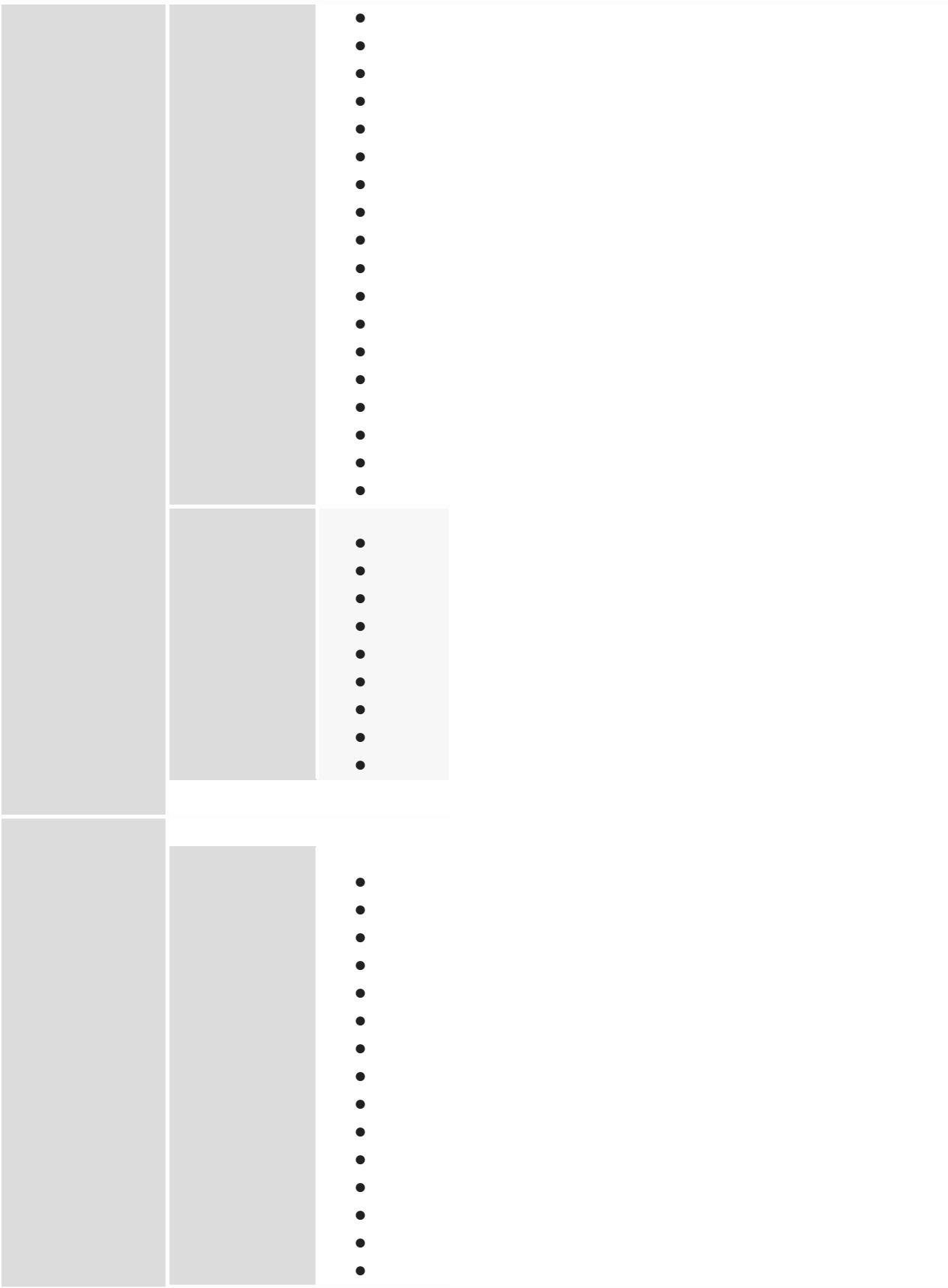

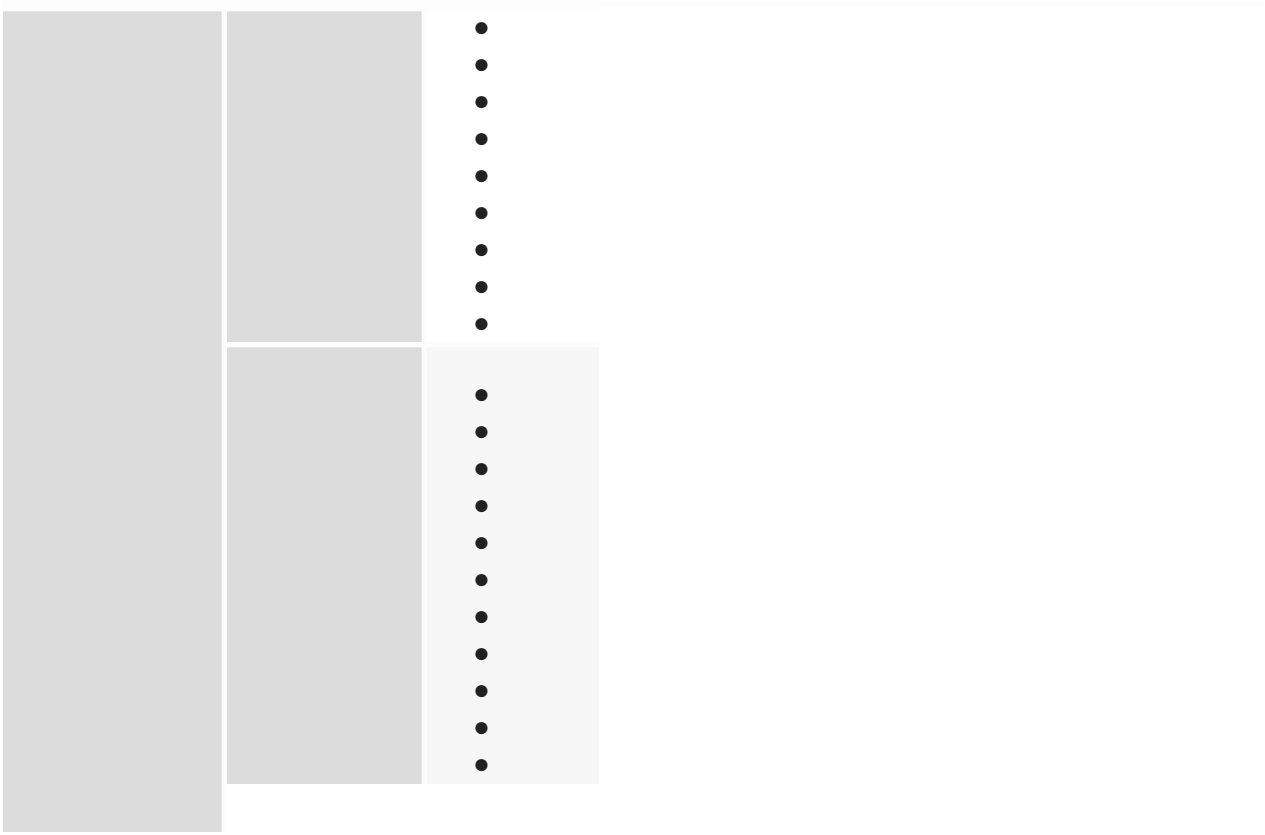

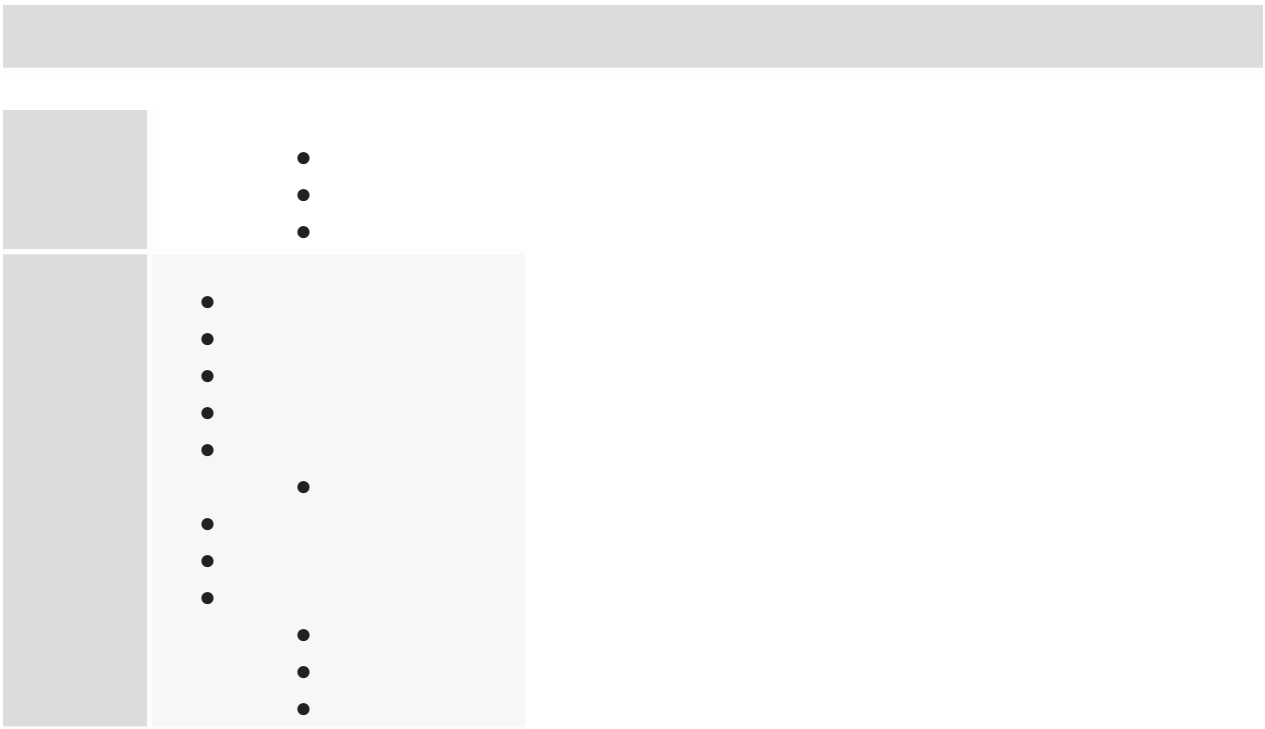

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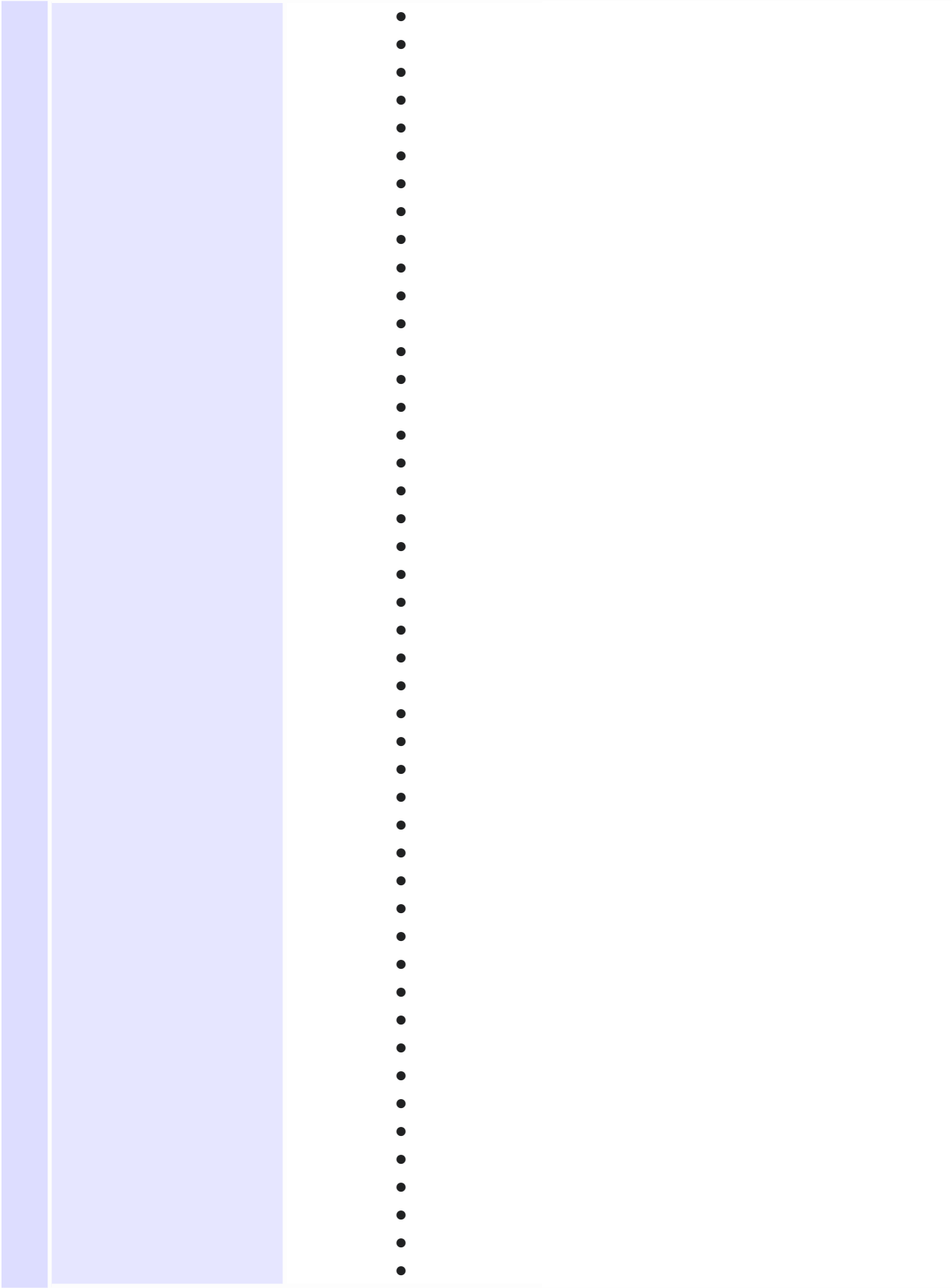

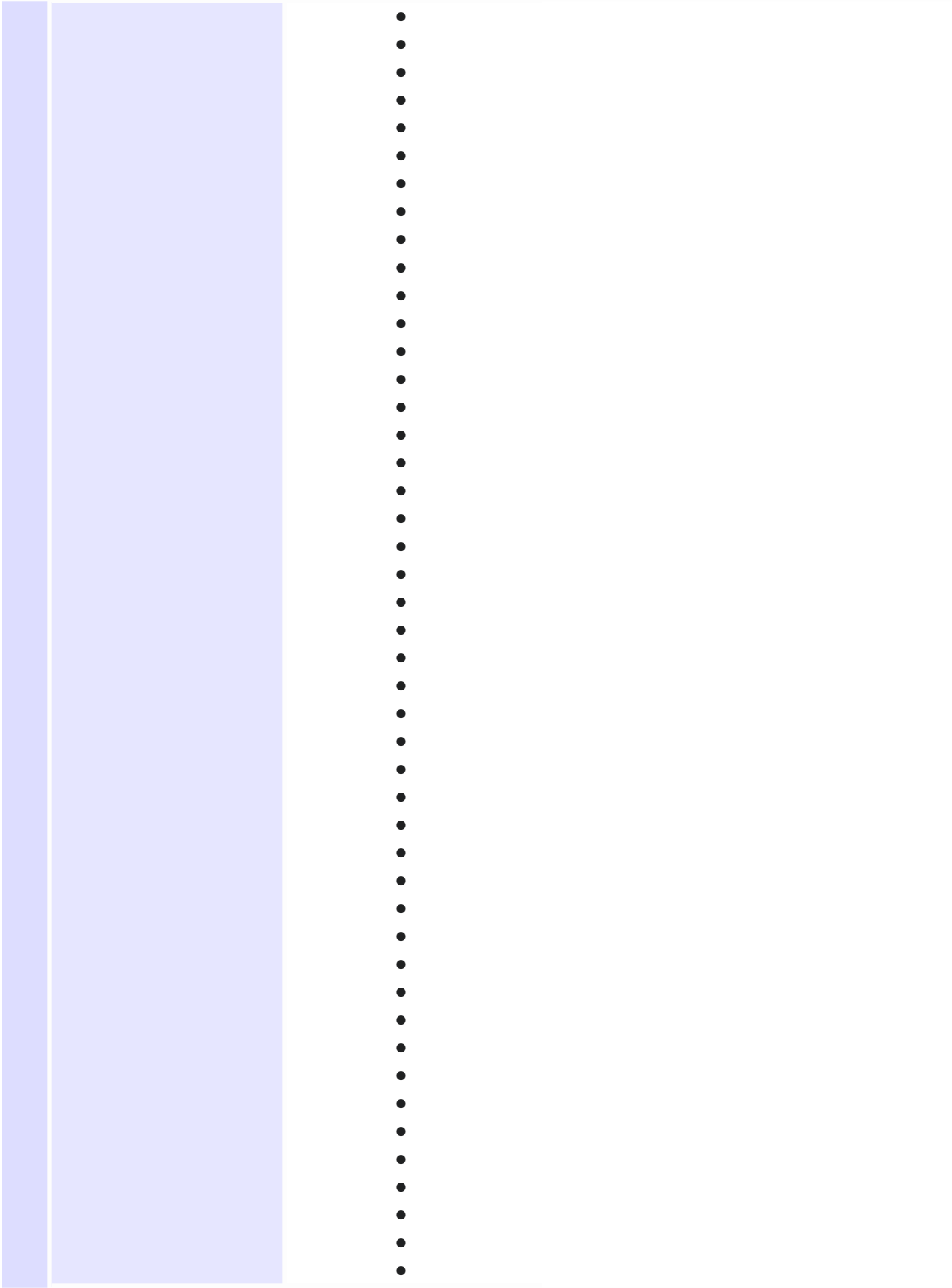

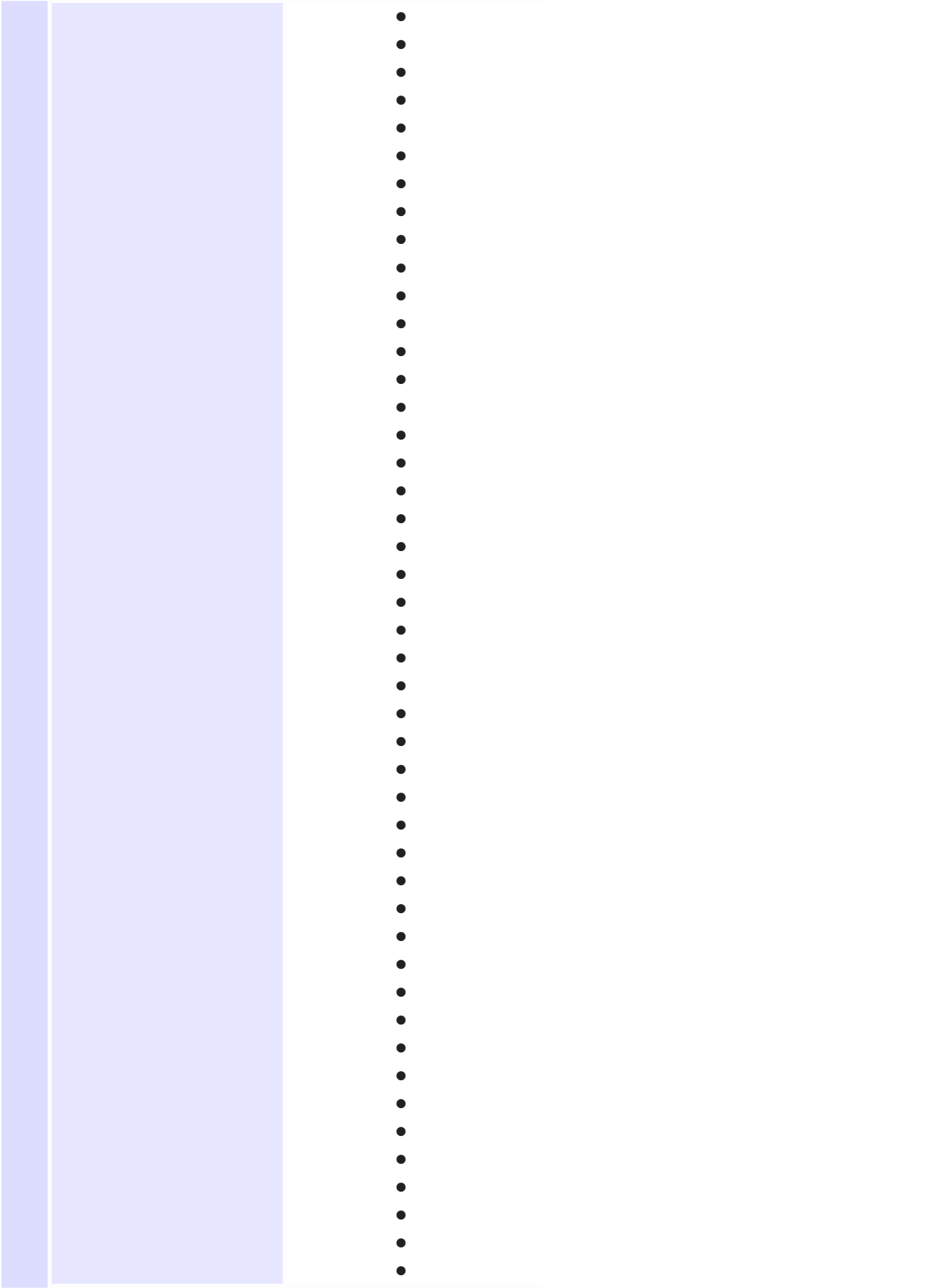

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"President Lincoln" and "Mr. Lincoln" redirect here. For the troopship, see USS President Lincoln. For other uses, see Abraham Lincoln (disambiguation) and Lincoln (name).

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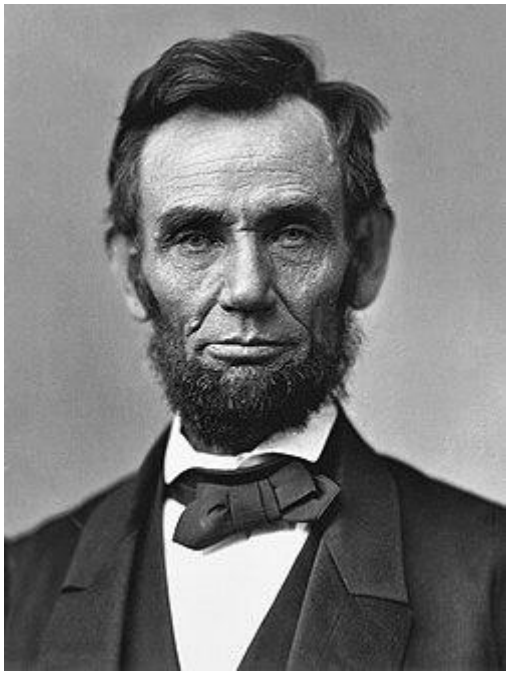


Lincoln in 1863

16th President of the United States

In office

March 4, 1861 – April 15, 1865

Vice President	Hannibal Hamlin (1861–1865) Andrew Johnson (Mar–Apr 1865)
Preceded by	James Buchanan

Succeeded by Andrew Johnson

Member of the U.S. House of Representatives

from Illinois's 7th district

In office

March 4, 1847 – March 3, 1849

Preceded by John Henry

Succeeded by Thomas L. Harris

Member of the Illinois House of Representatives from Sangamon County

In office

December 1, 1834 – December 4, 1842

Preceded by Achilles Morris

Personal details

Born	February 12, 1809 LaRue County, Kentucky, U.S.
Died	April 15, 1865 (aged 56) Washington, D.C., U.S.
Cause of death	Assassination by gunshot
Resting place	Lincoln Tomb
Party	Whig (before 1856) Republican (after 1856)
Other political affiliations	National Union (1864–1865)
Height	6 ft 4 in (193 cm)[1]
Spouse	Mary Todd (m. 1842)

Relatives	Lincoln family
Occupation	• Politician • lawyer
Signature	Abraham Lincoln
Nickname	"Honest Abe"
Military service	
Allegiance	United States
Branch/service	Illinois Militia
Years of service	April–July 1832
Rank	Captain[a] Private[a]
Battles/wars	Black Hawk War (see Abraham Lincoln in the Black Hawk War)

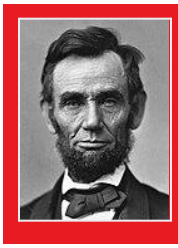
Abraham Lincoln[b] (February 12, 1809 – April 15, 1865) was the 16th president of the United States, serving from 1861 until his assassination in 1865. He led the United States through the American Civil War, defeating the Confederacy and playing a major role in the abolition of slavery.

Born in a one-room log cabin in Kentucky, Lincoln was raised on the frontier. He was self-educated and became a lawyer, Illinois state legislator, and U.S. representative. Angered by the Kansas–Nebraska Act of 1854, which opened the territories to slavery, he became a leader of the new Republican Party. He reached a national audience in the 1858 Senate campaign debates against Stephen A. Douglas. Lincoln won the 1860 presidential election, becoming the first Republican president. His victory prompted a majority of the slave states to begin seceding and form the Confederate States. A month after Lincoln assumed the presidency, Confederate forces attacked Fort Sumter, starting the Civil War.

As a moderate Republican, Lincoln had to navigate conflicting political opinions from contentious factions during the war effort. He closely supervised the Union's strategy and tactics, including the selection of generals and the implementation of a naval blockade of Southern ports. He suspended the writ of *habeas corpus* in April 1861, an action that Chief Justice Roger Taney found in *Ex parte Merryman* that only Congress could do, and he averted war with Britain by defusing the *Trent* Affair. On January 1, 1863, he issued the Emancipation Proclamation, which declared the slaves in the states "in rebellion" to be free. On November 19, 1863, he delivered the Gettysburg Address, which became one of the most famous speeches in American history. He promoted the Thirteenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution, which, in 1865, abolished chattel

slavery. Following his re-election in 1864, he sought to heal the war-torn nation through Reconstruction.

On April 14, 1865, five days after the Confederate surrender at Appomattox, Lincoln was fatally shot by John Wilkes Booth at Ford's Theatre in Washington, D.C., becoming the first U.S. president to be assassinated. Lincoln is remembered as a martyr and a national hero for his wartime leadership and for his efforts to preserve the Union and abolish slavery. He is consistently ranked in both popular and scholarly polls as among the greatest presidents in American history.



This article is part of a series about
Abraham Lincoln

Personal

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Political

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16th President of the United States

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Presidential campaigns

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Family and childhood

Early life

Main article: Early life and career of Abraham Lincoln

Further information: Lincoln family

Born in a one-room log cabin in Kentucky on February 12, 1809, Abraham Lincoln was raised on Sinking Spring Farm near Hodgenville, Kentucky.[3][1] The second child of Thomas Lincoln and Nancy Hanks Lincoln, he was a descendant of Samuel Lincoln, an Englishman who emigrated to Massachusetts in 1637[4] (Abraham Lincoln said that

Samuel Lincoln "came from Norwich, England, in 1638"[5]) and of the Harrison family of Virginia.[c] His paternal grandfather and namesake, Captain Abraham Lincoln, moved the family from Virginia to Kentucky. The captain was killed in a Native American raid in 1786.[7] The family settled in Hardin County, Kentucky, in the early 1800s.[8] Nancy is widely assumed to have been the daughter of Lucy Hanks.[9] Thomas and Nancy married on June 12, 1806, and moved to Elizabethtown, Kentucky.[10] They had three children: Sarah, Abraham, and Thomas Jr., who died as an infant.[11]

Lincoln's father bought multiple farms in Kentucky but could not get clear property titles to any, losing hundreds of acres in legal disputes.[12] In 1816, the family moved to Indiana, where land titles were more reliable.[13] They settled on a forested plot in Little Pigeon Creek Community.[14] In Kentucky and Indiana, Thomas worked as a farmer, cabinetmaker, and carpenter.[15] At various times, he owned farms, livestock, and town lots, appraised estates, and served on county patrols. Thomas and Nancy were members of a Separate Baptist Church, a pious evangelical group whose members largely opposed slavery.[16] Overcoming financial challenges, Thomas obtained clear title to 80 acres (32 ha) in Little Pigeon Creek Community in 1827.[17]

On October 5, 1818, Nancy died from milk sickness, leaving 11-year-old Sarah in charge of the household, which included her father, 9-year-old Abraham, and Nancy's 19-year-old orphan cousin, Dennis Hanks.[18] Thomas married Sarah Bush Johnston, a widow with three children of her own, on December 2, 1819.[1] Abraham became close to his stepmother and called her "Mama".[19] On January 20, 1828, Lincoln's sister died in childbirth, devastating him.[20]

Education and move to Illinois

Lincoln was largely self-educated.[21] His formal schooling was from itinerant teachers. It included two short stints in Kentucky, where he learned to read, but probably not to write. After moving to Indiana at age seven, he attended school only sporadically, for a total of less than 12 months by age 15.[22] Nevertheless, he was an avid reader and maintained a lifelong interest in learning.[23]

When Lincoln was a teenager his father relied heavily on him for farmwork and for supplementary income, hiring the boy out to area farmers and pocketing the money, as was the custom at the time.[24] When he was somewhat older, Lincoln and some friends took a job carrying goods by flatboat to New Orleans, Louisiana, where the slave markets, according to the historian Michael Burlingame, "would leave an indelible impression on him.... It was the first time, but not the last, that he would be repelled while observing slavery firsthand."[25]

In March 1830, fearing another milk-sickness outbreak, several members of the extended Lincoln family, including Abraham, moved west to Illinois and settled in Macon County.[26] Abraham became increasingly distant from Thomas, in part due to his father's lack of interest in education;[27] he would later refuse to attend his father's deathbed or funeral in 1851.[1]

Marriage and children

Further information: Lincoln family, Health of Abraham Lincoln, and Sexuality of Abraham Lincoln

Mary Todd Lincoln with Willie and Tad

Some historians, such as Michael Burlingame, identify Lincoln's first romantic interest as Ann Rutledge, a young woman also from Kentucky whom he met when he moved to New Salem, Illinois.[28] Lewis Gannett disputes that the evidence supports a romantic relationship between the two.[29] David Herbert Donald states that "How that friendship [between Lincoln and Rutledge] developed into a romance cannot be reconstructed from the record".[30] Rutledge died on August 25, 1835, of typhoid fever. Lincoln took her death very hard, sinking into a serious depression and contemplating suicide.[31][32]

In the early 1830s, Lincoln met Mary Owens from Kentucky.[33] Late in 1836, Lincoln agreed to a match with Owens if she returned to New Salem. Owens arrived that November and he courted her, but they both had second thoughts. On August 16, 1837,

he wrote Owens a letter saying he would not blame her if she ended the relationship, and she declined to marry him.[34]

In 1839, Lincoln met Mary Todd in Springfield, Illinois, and the following year they became engaged.[35] She was a daughter of Robert Smith Todd, a wealthy lawyer and businessman in Lexington, Kentucky.[36] Lincoln initially broke off the engagement in early 1841, but the two were reconciled and married on November 4, 1842.[37] In 1844, the couple bought a house in Springfield near his law office.[38] The marriage was turbulent; Mary was verbally abusive and at times physically violent towards her husband.[39]

They had four sons. The eldest, Robert Todd Lincoln, was born in 1843, and was the only child to live to maturity. Edward Baker "Eddie" Lincoln, born in 1846, died February 1, 1850, probably of tuberculosis. Lincoln's third son, William Wallace "Willie" Lincoln, was born on December 21, 1850, and died of a fever at the White House on February 20, 1862. The youngest, Thomas "Tad" Lincoln, was born on April 4, 1853, and died of edema at age 18 on July 16, 1871.[40] Lincoln loved children,[41] and the Lincolns were not considered to be strict with their own.[42] The deaths of Eddie and Willie had profound effects on both parents. Lincoln suffered from "melancholy", a condition now thought to be clinical depression.[32]

Early vocations and militia service

Further information: Early life and career of Abraham Lincoln and Abraham Lincoln in the Black Hawk War

In 1831, Lincoln's father moved the family to a new homestead in Coles County, Illinois, after which Abraham struck out on his own.[43] He made his home in New Salem, Illinois, for six years.[44] During 1831 and 1832, Lincoln worked at a general store in New Salem.[45] He gained a reputation for strength and courage after winning a wrestling match with the leader of a group of ruffians known as the Clary's Grove boys.[46] In 1832, he declared his candidacy for the Illinois House of Representatives, though he interrupted his campaign to serve as a captain in the Illinois Militia during the Black Hawk War.[45] He was elected the captain of his militia company but did not see combat.[47] In his political campaigning, Lincoln advocated for navigational improvements on the Sangamon River.[48] He drew crowds as a raconteur, but he lacked name recognition, powerful friends, and money, and he lost the election.[49]

When Lincoln returned home from the war, he planned to become a blacksmith but instead purchased a New Salem general store in partnership with William Berry. Because a license was required to sell customers alcoholic beverages, Berry obtained bartending licenses for Lincoln and himself, and in 1833 the Lincoln–Berry General Store became a tavern as well.[50] Burlingame wrote that Berry was "an undisciplined, hard-drinking fellow", and Lincoln "was too soft-hearted to deny anyone credit".[51] Although the economy was booming, the business struggled and went into debt, prompting Lincoln to sell his share.[50]

Lincoln served as New Salem's postmaster and later as county surveyor, but he continued his voracious reading and decided to become a lawyer.[52] Rather than studying in the office of an established attorney, as was customary, Lincoln read law on his own, borrowing legal texts, including Blackstone's *Commentaries* and Chitty's

Pleadings, from attorney John Todd Stuart.[53] He later said of his legal education that he "studied with nobody."[54] He was bestowed an honorary degree of Doctor of Laws by Columbia University in 1861.[55]

Early political offices and prairie lawyer

Illinois state legislature (1834–1842)

Lincoln's home in Springfield, Illinois, where he resided from 1844 until becoming president in 1861

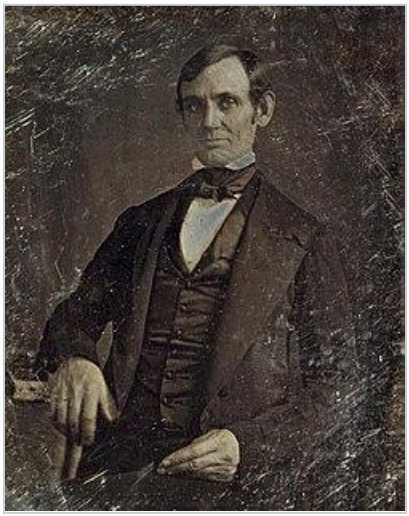
In Lincoln's second state house campaign in 1834, as a supporter of Whig Party leader Henry Clay, he finished second among thirteen candidates running for four places.[56] Lincoln echoed Clay's support for the American Colonization Society, which advocated abolition in conjunction with settling freed slaves in Liberia.[57] The Whigs also favored economic modernization in banking, tariffs to fund internal improvements such as railroads, and urbanization.[58]

Lincoln served four terms in the Illinois House of Representatives for Sangamon County.[59] In this role, he championed construction of the Illinois and Michigan Canal.[60] Lincoln voted to expand suffrage beyond White landowners to all White men.[61] He supported the chartering of the Illinois State Bank,[62] and also led a successful campaign for moving the state capital from Vandalia to Springfield.[63]

On January 27, 1838, Lincoln delivered an address at the Lyceum in Springfield, after the murder of the anti-slavery newspaper editor Elijah Parish Lovejoy. In this ostensibly non-partisan speech, Lincoln attacked Stephen A. Douglas and the Democratic Party, who the Whigs argued were supporting "mobocracy". His speech also attacked anti-abolitionism and racial bigotry.[64]

Lincoln was criticized in the press for a planned duel with James Shields, whom he had ridiculed in letters published under the name "Aunt Rebecca". Although the duel did not take place, Burlingame noted that "the affair embarrassed Lincoln terribly".[65]

U.S. House of Representatives (1847–1849)



A daguerreotype of Lincoln, taken around 1847, the earliest known photograph of him[66]

In 1843, Lincoln sought the Whig nomination for Illinois's 7th district seat in the U.S. House of Representatives; John J. Hardin was the winning candidate, though Lincoln convinced the party convention to limit Hardin to one term.[67] Lincoln not only gained the nomination in 1846, but also won the election.[68] The only Whig in the Illinois delegation, he was assigned to the Committee on Post Office and Post Roads and the Committee on Expenditures in the War Department.[69] Lincoln teamed with Joshua R. Giddings on a bill to abolish slavery in the District of Columbia, but dropped the bill when it failed to attract support from most other Whigs.[70][71]

Lincoln spoke against the Mexican–American War (1846–1848), for which he said President James K. Polk had "some strong motive ... to involve the two countries in a war, and trusting to escape scrutiny, by fixing the public gaze upon the exceeding brightness of military glory—that attractive rainbow, that rises in showers of blood".[72] He supported the Wilmot Proviso, a failed 1846 proposal to ban slavery in any U.S. territory won from Mexico.[73] Polk insisted that Mexican soldiers had begun the war by "invading the territory of the State of Texas ... and shedding the blood of our citizens on our own soil".[74] In his 1847 "spot resolutions", Lincoln rhetorically demanded that Polk tell Congress the exact "spot" where this occurred, but the Polk administration did not respond.[75][1] His approach and rhetoric cost Lincoln political support in his district, and newspapers derisively nicknamed him "spotty Lincoln".[1]

Lincoln had pledged in 1846 to serve only one term in the House.[76] At the 1848 Whig National Convention, he initially supported Henry Clay and was among the leaders of the Illinois delegation backing Clay, voting for him on the early ballots. When it became

clear that Clay could not secure the nomination, Lincoln joined other Whigs in shifting support to Zachary Taylor, who won the party's nomination and the presidency in 1848.[77] After Taylor won, Lincoln hoped in vain to be appointed commissioner of the United States General Land Office.[78] The administration offered to appoint him secretary of the Oregon Territory instead.[79] This would have disrupted his legal and political career in Illinois, so he declined and resumed his law practice.[80]

Prairie lawyer

See also: List of cases involving Abraham Lincoln

Lincoln was admitted to the Illinois bar on September 9, 1836.[81] He moved to Springfield and began to practice law under John T. Stuart, Mary Todd's cousin.[82] He partnered for several years with Stephen T. Logan and, in 1844, began his practice with William Herndon.[83]

In his Springfield practice, according to Donald, Lincoln handled "virtually every kind of business that could come before a prairie lawyer".[84] He dealt with many transportation cases in the midst of the nation's western expansion, particularly river barge conflicts under the new railroad bridges. In 1849 he received a patent for a flotation device for the movement of riverboats in shallow water[85] and Lincoln initially favored riverboat legal interests, but he represented whoever hired him.[86]

He represented a bridge company against a riverboat company in *Hurd v. Rock Island Bridge Company*, a landmark case involving a canal boat that sank after hitting a bridge.[87] His patent was never commercialized, but it made Lincoln the only president

to hold a patent.[85] Lincoln appeared before the Illinois Supreme Court in 411 cases.[88] From 1853 to 1860, one of his largest clients was the Illinois Central Railroad, which Lincoln successfully sued to recover his legal fees.[89]

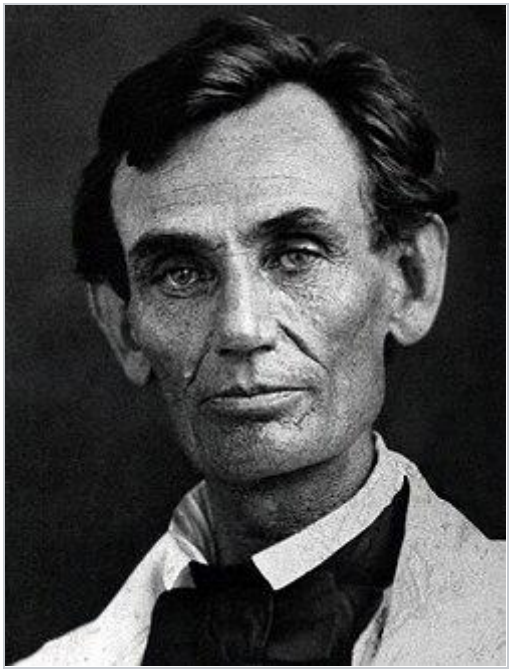
Lincoln represented William "Duff" Armstrong in his 1858 trial for the murder of James Preston Metzker.[90] The case is famous for Lincoln's use of a fact established by judicial notice to challenge the credibility of an eyewitness. After a witness testified to seeing the crime in the moonlight, Lincoln produced a *Farmers' Almanac* showing the Moon was at a low angle, drastically reducing visibility. Armstrong was acquitted.[91] In an 1859 murder case, he defended "Peachy" Quinn Harrison, the grandson of Peter Cartwright, Lincoln's political opponent.[92] Harrison was charged with the murder of Greek Crafton who, according to Cartwright, said as he lay dying that he had "brought it upon myself" and that he forgave Harrison.[93] Lincoln angrily protested the judge's initial decision to exclude Cartwright's claim as hearsay. Lincoln argued that the testimony involved a dying declaration and so was not subject to the hearsay rule. Instead of holding Lincoln in contempt of court as expected, the judge, a Democrat, admitted the testimony into evidence, resulting in Harrison's acquittal.[94]

Republican politics (1854–1860)

Main article: Political career of Abraham Lincoln (1849–1861)

Emergence as Republican leader

Further information: Slave states and free states and Abraham Lincoln and slavery



Lincoln in 1858, the year of his debates with Stephen Douglas over slavery

The Compromise of 1850 failed to alleviate tensions over slavery between the slave-holding South and the free North.[95] As the slavery debate in the Nebraska and Kansas territories became particularly acrimonious, Illinois Senator Stephen A. Douglas proposed popular sovereignty as a compromise; the measure would allow the electorate of each territory to decide the status of slavery. The legislation alarmed many Northerners, who sought to prevent the spread of slavery, but Douglas's Kansas–Nebraska Act narrowly passed Congress in May 1854.[96] Lincoln's Peoria Speech of October 1854, in which he declared his opposition to slavery,[97] was one of an estimated 175 speeches he delivered in the next six years on the topic of excluding slavery from the territories.[1] Lincoln's attacks on the Kansas–Nebraska Act marked his return to political life.[98]

Nationally, the Whigs were irreparably split by the Kansas–Nebraska Act and other ineffective efforts to compromise on the slavery issue. Reflecting on the demise of his party, Lincoln wrote in 1855, "I think I am a whig; but others say there are no whigs, and that I am an abolitionist.... I now do no more than oppose the *extension* of slavery."[99] The new Republican Party was formed as a northern party dedicated to anti-slavery, drawing from the anti-slavery wing of the Whig Party and combining Free Soil, Liberty, and anti-slavery Democratic Party members.[100]

Lincoln resisted early Republican entreaties, fearing that the new party would become a platform for extreme abolitionists.[101] Lincoln held out hope for rejuvenating the Whigs, though he lamented his party's growing closeness with the nativist Know Nothing movement.[102] In 1854, Lincoln was elected to the Illinois legislature, but before the term began he declined to take his seat so that he would be eligible to run in the upcoming U.S. Senate election.[103]

At that time, senators were elected by state legislatures. After leading in the first six rounds of voting, Lincoln was unable to obtain a majority. Lincoln instructed his backers to vote for Lyman Trumbull, an anti-slavery Democrat who had received few votes in the earlier ballots. Lincoln's decision to withdraw enabled his Whig supporters and Trumbull's anti-slavery Democrats to combine and defeat the mainstream Democratic candidate, Joel Aldrich Matteson.[104]

1856 campaign

Violent political confrontations in Kansas continued, and opposition to the Kansas–Nebraska Act remained strong throughout the North. As the 1856 elections approached, Lincoln joined the Republicans and attended the Bloomington Convention, where the Illinois Republican Party was established. The convention platform endorsed

Congress's right to regulate slavery in the territories and backed the admission of Kansas as a free state. Lincoln gave the final speech of the convention, calling for the preservation of the Union.[105]

At the June 1856 Republican National Convention, Lincoln received support to run as vice president, but the party put forward a ticket of John C. Frémont and William Dayton, which Lincoln supported throughout Illinois. The Democrats nominated James Buchanan and the Know Nothings nominated Millard Fillmore.[106] Buchanan prevailed, while Republican William Henry Bissell won election as Governor of Illinois, and Lincoln became a leading Republican in Illinois.[107][d]

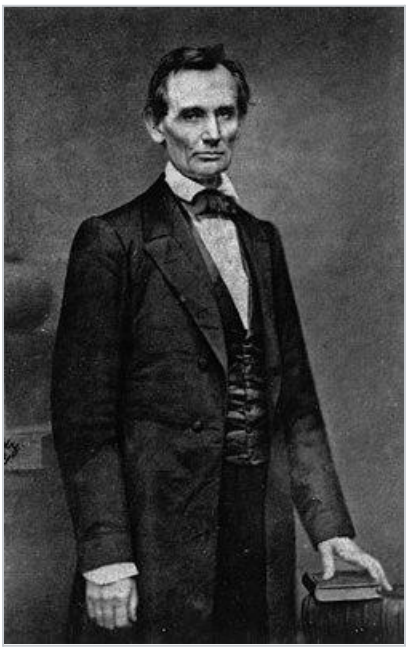
Dred Scott v. Sandford

Main article: Dred Scott v. Sandford

Dred Scott was a slave whose master took him from a slave state to a territory that was free as a result of the Missouri Compromise. After Scott was returned to the slave state, he petitioned a federal court for his freedom. His petition was denied in *Dred Scott v. Sandford* (1857).[109] Supreme Court Chief Justice Roger B. Taney wrote in his opinion that the Missouri Compromise was unconstitutional because it infringed on slave owners' property rights by prohibiting them from bringing their slaves into the territories. While many Democrats hoped that *Dred Scott* would end the dispute over slavery in the territories, the decision sparked further outrage in the North.[110] Lincoln denounced it as the product of a conspiracy of Democrats to support the Slave Power.[111] He argued that the decision was at variance with the Declaration of Independence, which stated that "all men are created equal ... with certain unalienable rights", among them "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness".[112]

Lincoln–Douglas debates and Cooper Union speech

Main articles: Lincoln–Douglas debates and Cooper Union speech



Abraham Lincoln, a portrait by Mathew Brady taken February 27, 1860, the day of Lincoln's Cooper Union speech in New York City.

In 1858, Douglas was up for re-election in the U.S. Senate, and Lincoln hoped to defeat him. Many in the party felt that a former Whig should be nominated in 1858, and Lincoln's 1856 campaigning and support of Trumbull had earned him a favor.[113] For the first time, Illinois Republicans held a convention to agree upon a Senate candidate, and Lincoln won the nomination with little opposition.[114] Lincoln accepted the nomination with great enthusiasm and zeal. After his nomination he delivered his House Divided Speech:

"A house divided against itself cannot stand." I believe this government cannot endure, permanently half *slave* and half *free*. I do not expect the Union to be *dissolved*—I do not

expect the house to *fall*—but I *do* expect it will cease to be divided. It will become all one thing, or all the other.[115]

The speech created a stark image of the danger of disunion.[116] When informed of Lincoln's nomination, Douglas stated, "[Lincoln] is the strong man of the party ... and if I beat him, my victory will be hardly won."[117]

The Senate campaign featured seven debates between Lincoln and Douglas; they had an atmosphere akin to a prizefight and drew thousands.[118] Lincoln warned that the Slave Power was threatening the values of republicanism, and he accused Douglas of distorting Jefferson's premise that all men are created equal. In his Freeport Doctrine, Douglas argued that, despite the *Dred Scott* decision, which he claimed to support, local settlers, under popular sovereignty, should be free to choose whether to allow slavery in their territory. He accused Lincoln of having joined the abolitionists.[119]

Though the Republican legislative candidates won more popular votes, the Democrats won more seats, and the legislature re-elected Douglas. However, Lincoln's articulation of the issues had given him a national political presence.[120] In the aftermath of the 1858 election, newspapers frequently mentioned Lincoln as a potential Republican presidential candidate. While Lincoln was popular in the Midwest, he lacked support in the Northeast and was unsure whether to seek the office.[121] In January 1860, Lincoln told a group of political allies that he would accept the presidential nomination if offered and, in the following months, William O. Stoddard's *Central Illinois Gazette*, the *Chicago Press & Tribune*, and other local papers endorsed his candidacy.[122]

In February 1860, Henry Ward Beecher invited Lincoln to address his congregation at Plymouth Church in Brooklyn, New York. Lincoln agreed, but the venue shifted to

Cooper Union in Manhattan.[123] In his speech at Cooper Union, which he gave on February 27, Lincoln argued that the Founding Fathers had little use for popular sovereignty, and that in the Northwest Ordinance they had restricted slavery in the territories;[124] he insisted that morality required opposition to slavery and rejected any "groping for some middle ground between the right and the wrong".[125] Many in the audience thought he appeared awkward and even ugly.[126] But Lincoln demonstrated intellectual leadership, which brought him into contention for the presidency. Journalist Noah Brooks reported, "No man ever before made such an impression on his first appeal to a New York audience".[127] Historian David Herbert Donald described the speech as "a superb political move for an unannounced presidential aspirant."[128] In response to an inquiry about his ambitions, Lincoln said, "The taste *is* in my mouth a little".[129]

1860 presidential election

Main article: 1860 United States presidential election

The Rail Candidate, a critical Currier and Ives illustration, which depicted Lincoln's platform in the 1860 presidential campaign as being held up by a slave and Horace Greeley

On May 9–10, 1860, the Illinois Republican State Convention was held in Decatur.[130] Exploiting his embellished frontier legend of clearing land and splitting fence rails, Lincoln's supporters promoted him as "The Rail Candidate".[131] On May 18 at the Republican National Convention in Chicago, Lincoln won the nomination on the third ballot.[1] A former Democrat, Hannibal Hamlin of Maine, was nominated for vice president to balance the ticket.[132]

Throughout the 1850s, Lincoln had doubted the prospects of civil war, and his supporters rejected claims that his election would incite secession.[133] When Douglas was selected as the candidate of the Northern Democrats, delegates from the Southern slave states elected incumbent Vice President John C. Breckinridge as their candidate.[134] A group of former Whigs and Know Nothings formed the Constitutional Union Party and nominated John Bell of Tennessee. Lincoln and Douglas competed for votes in the North, while Bell and Breckinridge found support primarily in the South.[113] A nationwide militaristic Republican youth organization, the Wide Awakes, "turned it into one of the most excited elections in American history" and "triggered massive popular enthusiasm", according to the political historian Jon Grinspan.[135] People of the Northern states knew the Southern states would vote against Lincoln and rallied supporters for him.[136]

As Douglas and the other candidates campaigned, Lincoln gave no speeches, relying on the enthusiasm of the Republican Party. Republican speakers emphasized Lincoln's childhood poverty to demonstrate the power of "free labor", which allowed a common farm boy to work his way to the top by his own efforts.[137] Though he did not make public appearances, many sought to visit and write to Lincoln. In the runup to the election, he took an office in the Illinois state capitol to deal with the influx of attention.

He also hired John George Nicolay as his personal secretary, who would remain in that role during the presidency.[138]

On November 6, 1860, Lincoln was elected as the first Republican president. His victory was entirely due to his support in the North and West. No ballots were cast for him in 10 of the 15 Southern slave states.[139] Lincoln received 1,866,452 votes, or 39.8 percent of the total in a four-way race, carrying the free Northern states, as well as California and Oregon, and winning the electoral vote decisively.[140]

Presidency (1861–1865)

Main article: Presidency of Abraham Lincoln

First term

Secession and inauguration

Main article: Presidential transition of Abraham Lincoln

Further information: Secession winter and Baltimore Plot

Lincoln's first inaugural at the United States Capitol on March 4, 1861, with the Capitol dome above the rotunda still under construction.

The New-York Times.

NEW-YORK, MONDAY, MARCH 4, 1861.

AFFAIRS OF THE NATION.

THE CHANGE OF ADMINISTRATIONS TO-DAY.

Preparations for the Inauguration of Abraham Lincoln.

Tremendous Crowds in the National Capital.

The Last Struggle Over the New Cabinet.

CHARACTER OF THE INAUGURAL ADDRESS.

Exciting Scenes in the Senate—A Sunday Night Session.

An Ambassador Demanding Recognition for the Southern Confederacy.

Impending Attack on Forts Sumter and Pickens.

AN ISSUE OF FORCE TO BE PRECIPITATED.

Headlines in *The New York Times* following Lincoln's first inauguration portended imminent hostilities.

After Lincoln's election, secessionists implemented plans to leave the Union before he took office in March 1861.[141][1] On December 20, 1860, South Carolina adopted an ordinance of secession; by February 1, 1861, Florida, Mississippi, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas had followed.[142] Six of these states declared themselves to be a sovereign nation, the Confederate States of America, selecting Jefferson Davis as its provisional president.[143]

The upper South and border states (Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, Kentucky, Missouri, and Arkansas) initially rejected the secessionist appeal.[144] President Buchanan and President-elect Lincoln refused to recognize the Confederacy, declaring secession illegal.[145] On February 11, 1861, Lincoln gave a particularly emotional farewell address upon leaving Springfield for Washington.[146]

Lincoln and the Republicans rejected the proposed Crittenden Compromise as contrary to the party's platform of free-soil in the territories.[147] Lincoln said, "I will suffer death

before I consent ... to any concession or compromise which looks like buying the privilege to take possession of this government to which we have a constitutional right".[148] Lincoln supported the Corwin Amendment to the U.S. Constitution, which would have protected slavery in states where it already existed. The amendment passed Congress and was awaiting ratification by the required three-fourths of the states when Southern states began to secede.[149] On March 4, 1861, in his first inaugural address, Lincoln said that, because he held "such a provision to now be implied constitutional law, I have no objection to its being made express, and irrevocable".[150]

Lincoln was mocked by opposition papers falsely claiming that he sneaked into Washington in disguise after the 1860 election.

Due to secessionist plots, careful attention was paid to Lincoln's security and the train he took to Washington. The president-elect evaded suspected assassins in Baltimore. He traveled in disguise, wearing a soft felt hat instead of his customary stovepipe hat and draping an overcoat over his shoulders while hunching to conceal his height. On February 23, 1861, he arrived in Washington, D.C., which was placed under military

guard. Many in the opposition press criticized his secretive journey; opposition newspapers mocked Lincoln with caricatures showing him sneaking into the capital.[151] Lincoln directed his inaugural address to the South, proclaiming once again that he had no inclination to abolish slavery in the Southern states:

Apprehension seems to exist among the people of the Southern States, that by the accession of a Republican Administration, their property, and their peace, and personal security, are to be endangered. There has never been any reasonable cause for such apprehension. Indeed, the most ample evidence to the contrary has all the while existed, and been open to their inspection. It is found in nearly all the published speeches of him who now addresses you. I do but quote from one of those speeches when I declare that "I have no purpose, directly or indirectly, to interfere with the institution of slavery in the States where it exists. I believe I have no lawful right to do so, and I have no inclination to do so."

—First inaugural address, 4 March 1861[152]

The president ended his address with an appeal to the people of the South: "We are not enemies, but friends.... The mystic chords of memory, stretching from every battle-field, and patriot grave, to every living heart and hearthstone ... will yet swell the chorus of the Union, when again touched ... by the better angels of our nature".[153] According to Donald, the failure of the Peace Conference of 1861 to attract the attendance of seven of the Confederate states signaled that legislative compromise was not a practical expectation.[154]

Personnel

Main articles: Presidency of Abraham Lincoln § Foreign policy, and Diplomacy of the American Civil War

Lincoln cabinet[155]		
Office	**Name**	**Term**
President	**Abraham Lincoln**	1861–1865
Vice President	**Hannibal Hamlin**	1861–1865
	Andrew Johnson	1865
Secretary of State	**William H. Seward**	1861–1865
Secretary of the Treasury	**Salmon P. Chase**	1861–1864

	William P. Fessenden	1864–1865
	Hugh McCulloch	1865
Secretary of War	**Simon Cameron**	1861–1862
	Edwin M. Stanton	1862–1865
Attorney General	**Edward Bates**	1861–1864
	James Speed	1864–1865
Postmaster General	**Montgomery Blair**	1861–1864
	William Dennison Jr.	1864–1865

Secretary of the Navy	**Gideon Welles**	1861–1865
Secretary of the Interior	**Caleb Blood Smith**	1861–1862
	John Palmer Usher	1863–1865

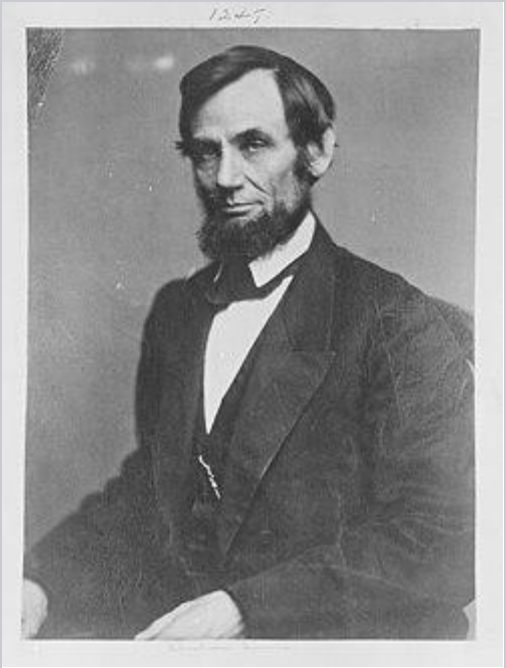
In selecting his cabinet, Lincoln chose the men he found the most competent, even when they had been his opponents for the presidency. Lincoln commented on his thought process, "We need the strongest men of the party in the Cabinet. We needed to hold our own people together. I had looked the party over and concluded that these were the very strongest men. Then I had no right to deprive the country of their services."[156] Doris Kearns Goodwin described the group in her 2005 biography of Lincoln as a "team of rivals".[157] Lincoln named his main political opponent, William H. Seward, as Secretary of State.[158]

Lincoln made five appointments to the Supreme Court. Noah Haynes Swayne, a prominent corporate lawyer from Ohio, replaced John McLean after the latter's death in April 1861. Like McLean, Swayne opposed slavery.[159] Samuel Freeman Miller, who replaced Peter V. Daniel, was an avowed abolitionist and received widespread support

from Iowa politicians.[160] David Davis was Lincoln's campaign manager in 1860 and had served as a judge in the Illinois court circuit where Lincoln practiced.[161]

Democrat Stephen Johnson Field, a previous California Supreme Court justice, provided geographic and political balance.[162] After the death of Roger B. Taney, Lincoln appointed his former secretary of the treasury, Salmon P. Chase, to replace Taney as chief justice. Lincoln believed Chase was an able jurist who would support Reconstruction legislation and that his appointment would unite the Republican Party.[163]

Commander-in-Chief



Portrait of Lincoln c. 1862

In early April 1861, Major Robert Anderson, commander of Fort Sumter in Charleston, South Carolina, advised that he was nearly out of food. After considerable deliberation,

Lincoln decided to send provisions; according to Michael Burlingame, he "could not be sure that his decision would precipitate a war, though he had good reason to believe that it might".[164] On April 12, 1861, Confederate forces fired on Union troops at Fort Sumter, starting the American Civil War.[165] Donald concludes:

His repeated efforts to avoid collision ... showed that he adhered to his vow not to be the first to shed fraternal blood. But he had also vowed not to surrender the forts.... The only resolution of these contradictory positions was for the Confederates to fire the first shot.[166]

The April 12 and 13 attack on Fort Sumter rallied the Northern public to see military action against the South as necessary to defend the nation.[167] On April 15, Lincoln called for 75,000 militiamen to recapture forts, protect Washington, and preserve the Union. This call forced states to choose whether to secede or to support the Union. North Carolina, Virginia, Tennessee, and Arkansas seceded. As the Northern states sent regiments south, on April 19 Baltimore mobs in control of the rail links attacked Union troops who were changing trains. Local leaders' groups later burned critical rail bridges to the capital and the Army responded by arresting local Maryland officials. Lincoln suspended the writ of *habeas corpus*, allowing arrests without formal charges.[168]

John Merryman, a Maryland officer arrested for hindering U.S. troop movements, successfully petitioned Supreme Court Chief Justice Taney to issue a writ of *habeas corpus*. In an opinion titled *Ex parte Merryman*, Taney, not ruling on behalf of the Supreme Court, wrote that the Constitution authorized only Congress and not the president to suspend habeas corpus.[169] But Lincoln engaged in nonacquiescence and persisted with the policy of suspension in select areas.[170] Under various suspensions,

15,000 civilians were detained without trial; several, including the anti-war Democrat Clement L. Vallandigham, were tried in military courts for "treasonable" actions, which was condemned as an attack on free speech.[1][171]

Early Union military strategy

Main articles: Eastern theater of the American Civil War and Western theater of the American Civil War

Further information: Trans-Mississippi theater of the American Civil War and Lower seaboard theater of the American Civil War

Lincoln took executive control of the war and shaped the Union military strategy. He responded to the unprecedented political and military crisis as commander-in-chief by exercising unprecedented authority. He expanded his war powers, imposed a naval blockade on Confederate ports, disbursed funds before appropriation by Congress, suspended *habeas corpus*, and arrested and imprisoned thousands of suspected Confederate sympathizers. Lincoln gained the support of Congress and the northern public for these actions. Lincoln also had to reinforce Union sympathies in the border slave states and keep the war from becoming an international conflict.[172]

It was clear from the outset that bipartisan support was essential to success, and that any compromise alienated factions in both political parties. Copperheads (anti-war Democrats) criticized Lincoln for refusing to compromise on slavery; the Radical Republicans, who demanded harsh treatment against secession, criticized him for moving too slowly to abolish slavery.[173] On August 6, 1861, Lincoln signed the Confiscation Act, which authorized judicial proceedings to confiscate and free slaves who were used to support the Confederates. The law had little practical effect, but it signaled political support for abolishing slavery.[174]

Running the Machine, an 1864 political cartoon satirizing Lincoln and his administration, including William Fessenden, Edwin Stanton, William H. Seward, and Gideon Welles.

Lincoln's war strategy had two priorities: ensuring that Washington was well defended and conducting an aggressive war effort for a prompt, decisive victory.[e] Twice a week, Lincoln met with his cabinet. Occasionally, Lincoln's wife, Mary, prevailed on him to take a carriage ride, concerned that he was working too hard.[176] Early in the war, Lincoln selected civilian generals from varied political and ethnic backgrounds "to secure their and their constituents' support for the war effort and ensure that the war became a national struggle".[177] In January 1862, after complaints of inefficiency and profiteering in the War Department, Lincoln replaced Simon Cameron as secretary of war with Edwin Stanton.[178] Stanton worked more often and more closely with Lincoln than did any other senior official. According to Stanton's biographers Benjamin P. Thomas and Harold Hyman, "Stanton and Lincoln virtually conducted the war together".[179]

Lincoln saw the importance of Vicksburg for control of the Mississippi River valley and understood the necessity of defeating the enemy's army, rather than merely capturing territory.[180] In directing the Union's war strategy, Lincoln valued the advice of Winfield Scott, even after his retirement as Commanding General of the United States Army. In

1861 Scott proposed the Anaconda Plan, which relied on port blockades and advancing down the Mississippi to subdue the South. In June 1862, Lincoln made an unannounced visit to West Point, where he spent five hours consulting with Scott regarding the handling of the war.[181]

Internationally, Lincoln wanted to forestall foreign military aid to the Confederacy.[182] He relied on his combative Secretary of State William Seward while working closely with Senate Foreign Relations Committee chairman Charles Sumner.[183] In 1861 the U.S. Navy illegally intercepted a British mail ship, the *RMS Trent*, on the high seas and seized two Confederate envoys. Although the North celebrated the seizure, Britain protested vehemently, and the Trent Affair threatened war between the Americans and the British. Lincoln ended the crisis by releasing the two diplomats.[184]

McClellan

Lincoln meeting with Union Army officers on October 3, 1862, following the Battle of Antietam, including left to right: Col. Delos Sackett; 4. Gen. George W. Morell; 5. Alexander S. Webb, Chief of Staff, V Corps; 6. McClellan;. 8. Jonathan Letterman; 10. Lincoln; 11. Henry J. Hunt; 12. Fitz John Porter; 15. Andrew A. Humphreys; 16. Capt. George Armstrong Custer

Main article: George B. McClellan

After the Union rout at Bull Run and Winfield Scott's retirement, Lincoln appointed George B. McClellan general-in-chief.[185] Early in the war, McClellan created defenses for Washington that were almost impregnable: 48 forts and batteries, with 480 guns manned by 7,200 artillerists.[186] He spent months planning his Virginia Peninsula Campaign. McClellan's slow progress and excessive precautions frustrated Lincoln. McClellan, in turn, blamed the failure of the campaign on Lincoln's cautiousness in having reserved troops for the capital.[187] In 1862, Lincoln removed McClellan as general-in-chief; he elevated Henry Halleck to the post and appointed John Pope as head of the new Army of Virginia.[188] In the summer of 1862 Pope was soundly defeated at the Second Battle of Bull Run, forcing him to retreat to Washington. Soon after, the Army of Virginia was disbanded.[189]

Despite his dissatisfaction with McClellan's failure to reinforce Pope, Lincoln restored him to command of all forces around Washington, which included both the Army of the Potomac and the remains of the Army of Virginia.[190] Two days later, Robert E. Lee's forces crossed the Potomac River into Maryland, leading to the Battle of Antietam.[191] This battle, a Union victory, was among the bloodiest in American history.[192] A crisis of command occurred for Lincoln when McClellan then resisted the president's demand that he pursue Lee's withdrawing army, while Don Carlos Buell likewise refused orders to move the Army of the Ohio against rebel forces in eastern Tennessee. Lincoln replaced Buell with William Rosecrans and McClellan with Ambrose Burnside; according to Donald, this was a "shrewd" political move as they were non-partisan—unlike McClellan, a Democrat.[193] Against presidential advice, Burnside launched an offensive across the Rappahannock River and was defeated by Lee at Fredericksburg in December.[194] Facing low morale and discontent among the troops,

Lincoln replaced Burnside with Joseph Hooker.[195] Hooker endured heavy casualties at the Battle of Chancellorsville in May, then resigned in June and was replaced by George Meade.[196] Meade followed Lee north into Pennsylvania and defeated him in the Gettysburg campaign but then failed to effectively block Lee's orderly retreat to Virginia, despite Lincoln's demands. At the same time, Ulysses S. Grant captured Vicksburg and gained control of the Mississippi River.[197] In May 1863, Lincoln issued the Lieber Code, which governed wartime conduct of the Union Army, defining command responsibility for war crimes and crimes against humanity.[198]

Emancipation Proclamation

Main articles: Abraham Lincoln and slavery and Emancipation Proclamation

First Reading of the Emancipation Proclamation of President Lincoln, an 1864 portrait by Francis Bicknell Carpenter *(clickable image—use cursor to identify)*

Two Union generals had issued emancipation orders in 1861 and 1862, but Lincoln overrode both: he found that the decision to emancipate was not within the generals' power, and that it might induce loyal border states to secede.[199] However, in June 1862, Congress passed an act banning slavery in all federal territories, which Lincoln signed.[200] In July, the Confiscation Act of 1862 was enacted,[201] allowing the seizure

of slaves from those disloyal to the United States. On July 22, 1862, Lincoln reviewed a draft of the Emancipation Proclamation with his cabinet.[202] Senator Willard Saulsbury Sr. criticized the proclamation, stating that it "would light their author to dishonor through all future generations".[203] By contrast, Horace Greeley, editor of the *New-York Tribune*, in his public letter, "The Prayer of Twenty Millions", implored Lincoln to embrace emancipation.[204] In a public letter of August 22, 1862, Lincoln replied to Greeley that while he personally wished all men could be free, his first obligation as president was to preserve the Union:[205]

My paramount object in this struggle *is* to save the Union, and is *not* either to save or to destroy slavery. If I could save the Union without freeing *any* slave I would do it, and if I could save it by freeing *all* the slaves I would do it; and if I could save it by freeing some and leaving others alone I would also do that.[1]

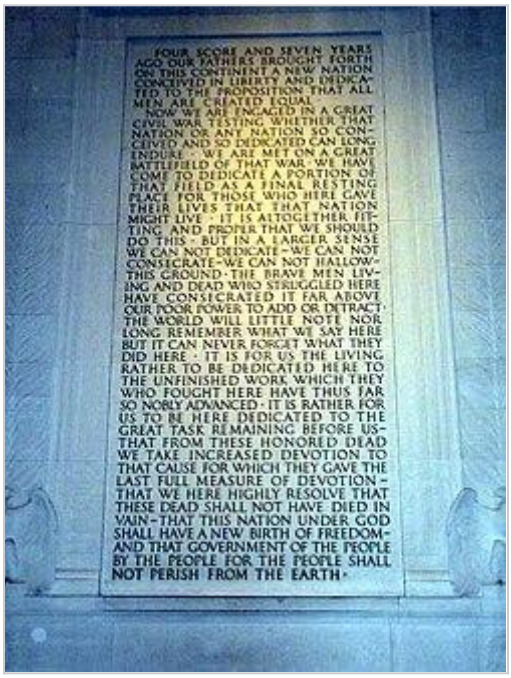
Buttressed by news of the recent Union victory at Antietam, on September 22, 1862, Lincoln issued the preliminary Emancipation Proclamation, which proclaimed that, on January 1, 1863, all persons held as slaves within any state still in rebellion would be free. On January 1, 1863, he issued the final Emancipation Proclamation,[206] freeing the slaves in the ten states not then under Union control,[207] exempting areas under such control.[208][209] Lincoln commented on signing the Proclamation: "I never, in my life, felt more certain that I was doing right, than I do in signing this paper."[210] On New Year's Eve in 1862, Black people – enslaved and free – gathered across the United States to hold Watch Night ceremonies for "Freedom's Eve", looking toward the promised fulfillment of the Proclamation.[211] With the abolition of slavery in the rebel

states now a military objective, Union armies advancing south enabled thousands to escape bondage.[212]

The Proclamation was immediately denounced by Copperheads, who advocated restoring the union by allowing slavery.[213] It was also seen as a betrayal of his promise to Southern Unionists not to tamper with slavery; Emerson Etheridge, then Clerk of the House of Representatives, joined an unsuccessful plot to give the Democrats and Southern Unionists control of the House.[214] As a result of the Proclamation, enlisting freedmen became official policy. In a letter to Tennessee military governor Andrew Johnson, Lincoln wrote, "The bare sight of fifty thousand armed, and drilled black soldiers on the banks of the Mississippi would end the rebellion at once".[215]

Gettysburg Address (1863)

Main article: Gettysburg Address



Gettysburg Address engraved in the Lincoln Memorial

Lincoln gave the dedication for the Gettysburg battlefield cemetery on November 19, 1863.[216] He asserted that the nation was "conceived in liberty and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal", and that the deaths of the "brave men ... who struggled here" would not be in vain, but that the nation "shall have a new birth of freedom—and that government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth".[217] The address became the most quoted speech in American history.[218]

Following Admiral David Farragut's capture of New Orleans in 1862, and after victories at Gettysburg and Vicksburg, Lincoln proclaimed a national Thanksgiving holiday, to be celebrated on the final Thursday of November 1863.[219]

Promoting Grant

Grant's victories at the Battle of Shiloh and in the Vicksburg campaign impressed Lincoln. Responding to criticism of Grant after Shiloh, Lincoln said, "I can't spare this man. He fights."[220] Following Meade's failure to capture Lee's army after Gettysburg and after Grant's success at Chattanooga, Lincoln promoted Grant to commander of all Union armies.[1]

Lincoln reacted to Union losses by mobilizing support throughout the North.[221] Union forces targeted infrastructure—plantations, railroads, and bridges—to weaken the South's morale and fighting ability.[222] While Lincoln sanctioned this approach, he emphasized the defeat of the Confederate armies over destruction for its own sake.[223] Grant's bloody Overland Campaign[224] turned into a strategic success for the Union

despite a number of setbacks. But the campaign was the bloodiest in American history: approximately 55,000 casualties on the Union side (including 7,600 deaths), compared to about 33,000 on the Confederate (including 4,200 deaths). Lee's losses, although lower in absolute numbers, were proportionately higher (over 50%) than Grant's (about 45%).[225][226] In early April, the Confederate government evacuated Richmond and Lincoln visited the conquered capital.[227]

Amid the turmoil of military actions, on June 30, 1864, Lincoln signed into law the Yosemite Grant, which provided unprecedented federal protection for the area now known as Yosemite National Park.[228] According to Rolf Diamant and Ethan Carr, "the Yosemite Grant was a direct consequence of the war ... an embodiment of the ongoing process of remaking government ... an intentional assertion of a steadfast belief in the eventual Union victory."[229]

Fiscal and monetary policy

Main article: Economic history of the United States Civil War

One-dollar "greenback"

Lincoln and Secretary of the Treasury Salmon Chase faced a challenge in funding a wartime economy. Congress quickly approved Lincoln's request to assemble an army, even increasing his proposed 400,000 soldiers to 500,000, but both Congress and Chase initially resisted raising taxes.[230] After the Union defeat at the First Battle of Bull Run, which collapsed the bond market, Congress passed the Revenue Act of 1861. This act imposed the first U.S. federal income tax, creating a flat tax of three percent on annual incomes above $800 ($28,700 in current dollars). The preference for taxation based on income rather than property reflected the increasing amount of wealth held in stocks and bonds; for example, Representative Schuyler Colfax declared during the debate, "I cannot go home and tell my constituents that I voted for a bill that would allow a man, a millionaire, who has put his entire property into stock, to be exempt from taxation, while a farmer who lives by his side must pay a tax".[231] As the average urban worker made approximately $600 per year, many were not required to pay income taxes.[232][f] Lincoln also signed increases to the Morrill Tariff, which had become law in the final months of Buchanan's tenure. These tariffs raised import duties considerably and were designed both to increase revenue and to help manufacturers offset the burden of new taxes.[234] Throughout the war, Congress debated whether to raise additional revenue primarily by increasing tariff rates, which most strongly affected rural areas, or by increasing income taxes, which most affected wealthier individuals; the latter view proved more popular.[235]

The revenue measures of 1861 proved inadequate for funding the war, forcing Congress to take further action.[236] In February 1862, Congress passed the Legal Tender Act, which authorized the minting of $150 million in "greenbacks"—the first banknotes issued by the U.S. government since the end of the American Revolution. Greenbacks were not backed by gold or silver, but rather by the government's promise to honor their value. By the end of the war, $450 million worth of greenbacks were in

circulation.[237][g] Congress also passed the Revenue Act of 1862, which established an excise tax affecting nearly every commodity, as well as the first national inheritance tax.[239][240] It also added a progressive tax structure to the federal income tax.[241] To collect these taxes, Congress created the Office of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue.[240]

Despite the new revenue measures, funding the war remained challenging.[242] The government continued to issue greenbacks and borrow large amounts of money, and the U.S. national debt grew from $65 million in 1860 to over $2 billion in 1866.[243] The Revenue Act of 1864 represented a compromise between those who favored a more progressive tax structure and those who favored a flat tax.[244][240] It established a five-percent tax on incomes above $600 and a ten-percent tax on incomes above $10,000, and it raised taxes on businesses.[240] In early 1865, Congress reduced the threshold for ten-percent taxation to incomes above $5000.[245] By the end of the war, the income tax constituted about one-fifth of the federal government's revenue,[240] though it was intended as a temporary wartime measure.[246][240]

Lincoln also took action against wartime fraud, signing into law the False Claims Act of 1863. This statute imposed penalties for false claims and made it possible for private citizens to file false-claim (*qui tam*) lawsuits on behalf of the U.S. government and share in the recovery.[247][248] Hoping to stabilize the currency, Lincoln convinced Congress to pass the National Banking Act in 1863, established the Office of the Comptroller of the Currency to oversee "national banks," which were subject to federal, rather than state, regulation. In return for investing a third of their capital in federal bonds, national banks were authorized to issue federal banknotes.[249] After Congress imposed a tax on

private banknotes in March 1865, federal banknotes became the dominant form of paper currency.[250] Other economic policies passed under Lincoln included the 1862 Homestead Act, which made millions of acres of government-held land in the West available for purchase at low cost. The 1862 Morrill Land-Grant Colleges Act provided government grants for agricultural colleges in each state. The Pacific Railway Acts of 1862 and 1864 granted federal support for the construction of the United States' first transcontinental railroad, which was completed in 1869.[251]

Foreign policy

Further information: Diplomacy of the American Civil War and History of U.S. foreign policy, 1861–1897

Portrait of Lincoln on February 5, 1865

At the start of the war, Russia was the lone great power to support the Union, while the other European powers had varying degrees of sympathy for the Confederacy.[252] According to the historian Dean Mahin, Lincoln had "limited familiarity with diplomatic

practices" but exerted "substantial influence on U.S. diplomacy" as the Union attempted to avoid war with Britain and France.[253] Lincoln appointed diplomats to try to persuade European nations not to recognize the Confederacy.[254] Lincoln's policy succeeded: all foreign nations were officially neutral throughout the Civil War, with none recognizing the Confederacy.[255] Some European leaders looked for ways to exploit the inability of the U.S. to enforce the Monroe Doctrine opposing European colonial intervention in the Americas: Spain invaded the Dominican Republic in 1861, while France established a puppet regime in Mexico.[256] However, many in Europe also hoped for a quick end to the war, both for humanitarian reasons and because of the economic disruption it caused.[257]

The European aristocracy was "absolutely gleeful in pronouncing the American debacle as proof that the entire experiment in popular government had failed", according to Don H. Doyle. Union diplomats initially had to explain that the United States was not committed to ending slavery, and instead they argued that secession was unconstitutional. Confederate spokesmen, on the other hand, were more successful by ignoring slavery and instead focusing on their struggle for independence, their commitment to free trade, and the essential role of cotton in the European economy.[258] However, the Confederacy's hope that cotton exports would compel European interference did not come to fruition, as Britain found alternative sources and maintained economic ties with the Union.[259] Though the issuance of the Emancipation Proclamation in January 1863 did not immediately end the possibility of European intervention, it rallied European public opinion to the Union by adding abolition as a Union war goal. Any chance of a European intervention in the war ended with the Union victories at Gettysburg and Vicksburg in July 1863, as European leaders came to believe that the Confederate cause was doomed.[260]

Native Americans

Lincoln appointed William P. Dole as commissioner of the Bureau of Indian Affairs and made "extensive use of Indian Service positions to reward political supporters", according to the historian Thomas Britten.[261][262] Lincoln's policies largely focused on assimilation of Native Americans and diminishing tribal landholdings, consistent with those of his predecessors, but his direct involvement in Native American affairs was unclear.[262] His administration faced difficulties guarding Western settlers, railroads, and telegraph lines from Native American attacks.[263]

Tensions arose with the Dakota people due to American treaty violations, unfair trading, and government practices that led to starvation.[264] In August 1862, the Dakota War broke out in Minnesota. Hundreds of settlers were killed and 30,000 were displaced from their homes.[265] Some feared incorrectly that it might represent a Confederate conspiracy to start a war on the Northwestern frontier.[266] Lincoln ordered thousands of paroled prisoners of war be sent to put down the uprising. When the Confederacy protested, Lincoln revoked the policy and none arrived in Minnesota.[267] Lincoln sent Pope as commander of the new Department of the Northwest.[268] Appointed as a state militia colonel, Henry Hastings Sibley eventually defeated the Dakota chief Little Crow at the Battle of Wood Lake.[269] A war crimes trial led by Sibley sentenced 303 Dakota warriors to death;[267] the legal scholar Carol Chomsky described the trial as "a study in military injustice" designed to "guarantee an unjust outcome".[264] Lincoln pardoned all but 39 of the condemned warriors, and, with one execution suspended, the remaining 38 were hanged in the largest mass execution in U.S. history.[264] Congressman Alexander Ramsey told Lincoln in 1864 that he would have received more re-election

support in Minnesota had he executed all 303 warriors. Lincoln responded, "I could not afford to hang men for votes."[270] Lincoln called for reform of federal Indian policy but prioritized the war and Reconstruction. Changes were made in response to the Sand Creek Massacre of November 1864, prioritizing peaceful administration of Native affairs and condemning those encroaching on Native territory, but not until after Lincoln's death.[271]

Second term

Lincoln's second inaugural address at the nearly completed U.S. Capitol on March 4, 1865

Re-election

Main article: 1864 United States presidential election

Lincoln ran for re-election in 1864; the Democratic nominee was former general McClellan.[272] The Republican Party selected Andrew Johnson, a War Democrat, as Lincoln's running mate. To broaden his coalition to include War Democrats as well as Republicans, Lincoln ran under the new label of the National Union Party.[273] Grant's bloody stalemates and Confederate victories such as the Battle of the Crater damaged Lincoln's re-election prospects, and many Republicans feared defeat.[1][274] Lincoln prepared a confidential memorandum pledging that, if he should lose the election, he would "co-operate with the President-elect, as to save the Union between the election and the inauguration; as he will have secured his election on such ground that he cannot possibly save it afterwards".[1][275]

Victories at Atlanta in September and in the Shenandoah Valley in October turned public opinion, and Lincoln was re-elected with 55.1 percent of the popular vote as well as 212 electoral votes to McClellan's 21.[272][1] As Grant continued to weaken Lee's forces, efforts to discuss peace began. On February 3, 1865, Alexander H. Stephens, the Confederate vice president, and two other Confederate officials met with Lincoln and Seward at Hampton Roads. Lincoln refused to negotiate with the Confederacy as a coequal, and the only agreement reached at the meeting concerned the exchange of prisoners.[276]

Lincoln's second inauguration took place on March 4, 1865; historian Mark Noll places his second inaugural address "among the small handful of semi-sacred texts by which Americans conceive their place in the world"; it is inscribed in the Lincoln Memorial.[277] Lincoln closed his speech with these words:

With malice toward none; with charity for all; with firmness in the right, as God gives us to see the right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in; to bind up the nation's

wounds; to care for him who shall have borne the battle, and for his widow, and his orphan—to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and lasting peace, among ourselves, and with all nations.[278]

A month later, on April 9, Lee surrendered to Grant at Appomattox, signaling the end of the war.[279] It triggered a series of subsequent surrenders across the South—in North Carolina, Alabama, and the trans-Mississippi Theater—and finally at sea with the surrender of the CSS *Shenandoah* in November 1865.[280][281]

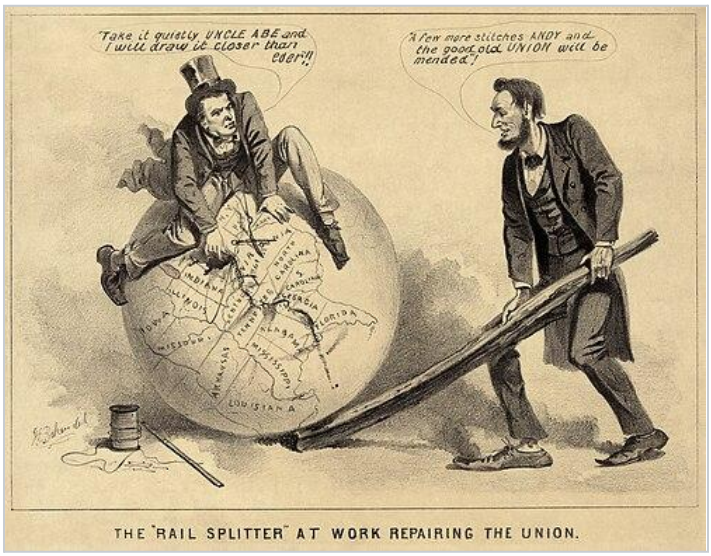
Reconstruction

Main article: Reconstruction era

Reconstruction began before the war's end, as Lincoln and his associates considered the reintegration of the nation, and the fates of Confederate leaders and freed slaves. When a general asked Lincoln how the defeated Confederates were to be treated, Lincoln replied, "Let 'em up easy";[282] he focused not on blame for the war but on rebuilding.[283] Determined to reunite the nation and not alienate the South, Lincoln urged that speedy elections under generous terms be held. His Amnesty Proclamation of December 8, 1863, offered pardons to those who had not held a Confederate civil office and had not mistreated Union prisoners, if they signed an oath of allegiance. Lincoln led the moderates in Reconstruction policy and was opposed by the Radicals, under Thaddeus Stevens, Charles Sumner and Benjamin Wade, who otherwise remained Lincoln's allies.[284]

As Southern states fell, they needed leaders while their administrations were being restored. In Tennessee and Arkansas, Lincoln appointed Andrew Johnson and Frederick Steele, respectively, as military governors.[285] In Louisiana, Lincoln ordered

Nathaniel P. Banks to promote a plan that would reestablish statehood when 10 percent of the voters agreed, but only if the reconstructed states abolished slavery. Democratic opponents accused Lincoln of using the plan to ensure his and the Republicans' political aspirations. The Radicals denounced his policy as too lenient and passed their own plan, the 1864 Wade–Davis Bill, but Lincoln pocket-vetoed it. The Radicals retaliated by refusing to seat elected representatives from Louisiana, Arkansas, and Tennessee.[286]



An 1865 political cartoon, *The 'Rail Splitter' At Work Repairing the Union*, depicting Vice President Andrew Johnson, a former tailor, sewing with needle and thread, and Lincoln, the rail splitter, applying a rail leverage to repair the globe.

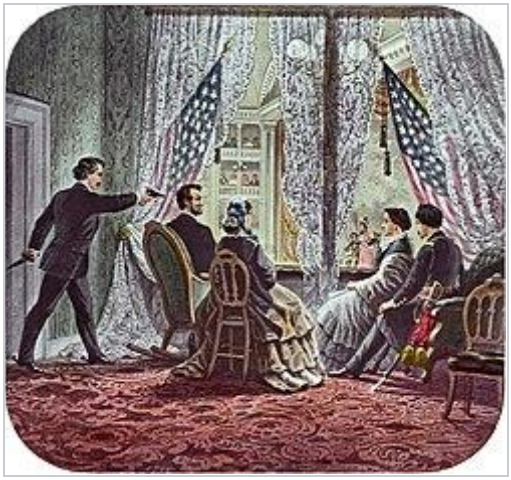
After implementing the Emancipation Proclamation, Lincoln increased pressure on Congress to outlaw slavery nationwide with a constitutional amendment. By December 1863 an amendment was brought to Congress.[287] The Senate passed it on April 8, 1864, but the first vote in the House of Representatives fell short of the required two-thirds majority. Passage became part of Lincoln's re-election platform, and after his re-election, the second attempt in the House passed on January 31, 1865.[288] After ratification by three-fourths of the states in December 1865, it became the Thirteenth

Amendment to the United States Constitution, abolishing "slavery [and] involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime".[289]

Lincoln announced a Reconstruction plan that involved short-term military administration, pending readmission under the control of southern Unionists. He also signed Senator Charles Sumner's Freedmen's Bureau bill that set up a temporary federal agency designed to meet the immediate needs of former slaves. The law opened land for a lease of three years with the ability for the freedmen to purchase title. In signing it, according to the historian Richard Carwardine, Lincoln "acknowledged that the government had at least some responsibility for the material needs of millions of ex-slaves",[290] although it fell short of the "forty acres and a mule" that many slaves understood they would receive from confiscated property.[291] Eric Foner argues that "Lincoln did not see Reconstruction as an opportunity for a sweeping political and social revolution beyond emancipation. He had long made clear his opposition to the confiscation and redistribution of land."[292] However, the Lincoln scholar Phillip S. Paludan suggests that at the end of his life Lincoln was moving towards a more radical position, particularly with regards to freedmen's rights.[293] Foner adds that, had Lincoln lived into the Reconstruction era, "It is entirely plausible to imagine Lincoln and Congress agreeing on a Reconstruction policy that encompassed federal protection for basic civil rights plus limited black suffrage, along the lines Lincoln proposed just before his death."[292]

Assassination

Main article: Assassination of Abraham Lincoln



An illustration of Lincoln's assassination on April 14, 1865, in the presidential booth at Ford's Theatre, featuring (left to right): assassin John Wilkes Booth, Abraham Lincoln, Mary Todd Lincoln, Clara Harris, and Henry Rathbone

John Wilkes Booth was a well-known actor and a Confederate spy from Maryland; although he never joined the Confederate army, he had contacts within the Confederate secret service.[294] After attending Lincoln's last public address, on April 11, 1865, in which Lincoln stated his preference that the franchise be conferred on some Black men, specifically "on the very intelligent, and on those who serve our cause as soldiers",[295] Booth plotted to assassinate the President.[296] When Booth learned of the Lincolns' intent to attend a play with Grant, he planned to assassinate Lincoln and Grant at Ford's Theatre.[297] Lincoln and his wife attended the play *Our American Cousin* on the evening of April 14. At the last minute, Grant decided to go to New Jersey to visit his children instead.[298]

At 10:15 pm, Booth entered Lincoln's theater box, crept up from behind, and fired at the back of Lincoln's head, mortally wounding him. Lincoln's guest, Major Henry Rathbone, momentarily grappled with Booth, but Booth stabbed him and escaped.[299][300] After

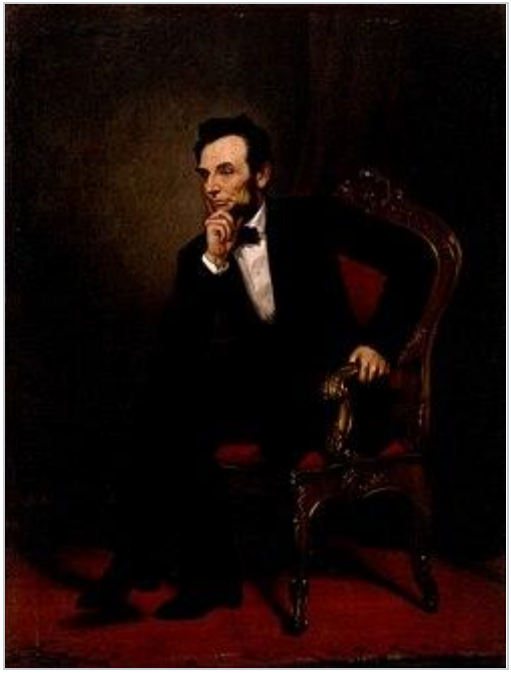
being attended by Charles Leale and two other doctors, Lincoln was taken across the street to Petersen House. He remained in a coma for nine hours and died at 7:22 am on April 15.[301] Lincoln's body was wrapped in a flag and placed in a coffin, which was loaded into a hearse and escorted to the White House by Union soldiers.[302] Johnson was sworn in as president later that day.[303] Two weeks later, Booth was located, shot, and killed at a farm in Virginia by Sergeant Boston Corbett.[304]

Funeral and burial

Main article: State funeral of Abraham Lincoln

From April 19 to 20, Lincoln lay in state, first in the White House and then in the Capitol rotunda.[305] The caskets containing Lincoln's body and the body of his third son Willie then traveled for two weeks on a funeral train following a circuitous route from Washington D.C. to Springfield, Illinois, stopping at several cities for memorials attended by hundreds of thousands.[306] Many others gathered along the tracks as the train passed with bands, bonfires, and hymn singing or in silent grief.[307] Historians emphasized the widespread shock and sorrow, but noted that some who had hated Lincoln celebrated his death.[308] Walt Whitman composed four elegies to Lincoln, including "When Lilacs Last in the Dooryard Bloom'd" and "O Captain! My Captain!".[309] Lincoln's body was buried at Oak Ridge Cemetery in Springfield and now lies within the Lincoln Tomb.[310]

Philosophy and views



Abraham Lincoln (1869)

Lincoln redefined the political philosophy of republicanism in the United States. Because the Declaration of Independence says that all men have an unalienable right to life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness, he called it the "sheet anchor" of republicanism, at a time when the Constitution was the focus of most political discourse.[311] He presented the Declaration as establishing equality as a foundational principle for the United States, which had a significant impact on social and political movements in the US into the 20th century.[312]

As a Whig activist, Lincoln was a spokesman for business interests, favoring high tariffs, banks, infrastructure improvements, and railroads, in opposition to Jacksonian democrats.[313] Nevertheless, Lincoln admired Andrew Jackson's steeliness and patriotism,[314] and adopted the Jacksonian "belief in the common man".[315] According to historian Sean Wilentz, "just as the Republican Party of the 1850s absorbed certain

elements of Jacksonianism, so Lincoln, whose Whiggery had always been more egalitarian than that of other Whigs, found himself absorbing some of them as well."[316]

Historian William C. Harris found that Lincoln's "reverence for the Founding Fathers, the Constitution, the laws under it, and the preservation of the Republic and its institutions strengthened his conservatism."[317] In Lincoln's first inaugural address, he denounced secession as anarchy and argued that "a majority held in restraint by constitutional checks, and limitations, and always changing easily with deliberate changes of popular opinions and sentiments, is the only true sovereign of a free people."[318]

Religious views

Main article: Religious views of Abraham Lincoln

As a young man, Lincoln was a religious skeptic.[319] However, he was deeply familiar with the Bible;[320] throughout his public career, he often quoted scripture.[321] His three most famous speeches—the House Divided Speech, the Gettysburg Address, and his second inaugural address—all contain such quotes. In the 1840s, Lincoln subscribed to the Doctrine of Necessity, a belief that the human mind was controlled by a higher power.[322][323]

After the death of his son Edward in 1850, Lincoln more frequently expressed a dependence on God.[324] He never joined a church, although he and his wife frequently attended First Presbyterian Church in Springfield, Illinois, beginning in 1852.[325] While president, Lincoln often attended services at the New York Avenue Presbyterian Church in Washington, D.C.[326] The death of his son Willie in February 1862 may have caused him to look toward religion for solace.[327]

Lincoln's frequent use of religious imagery and language toward the end of his life may have reflected his own personal beliefs or might have been a device to reach his audiences, who were mostly evangelical Protestants.[328] Sources differ in how they describe his religious beliefs. His law partner William Herndon gave a lecture after Lincoln's death stating that he was an "unbeliever";[329] James Smith, the pastor of First Presbyterian Church in Springfield, responded to this lecture with an open letter asserting that Lincoln "did avow his belief in the Divine Authority and the Inspiration of the Scriptures".[330] Stephen Mansfield describes "an atheist or religiously skeptical Lincoln" as "the prevailing view", although he argues that "there was a spiritual journey of some kind in Abraham Lincoln's life".[331] Richard Carwardine writes that "Many elements of the inner Lincoln, including his personal faith ... necessarily remain a puzzle".[332] Lincoln's last words were, as reported by his wife, "There is no place I so much desire to see as Jerusalem".[333]

Health and appearance

Main article: Health of Abraham Lincoln

According to Michael Burlingame, Lincoln was described as "awkward" and "gawky" as a youth.[334] In adolescence he was tall and strong, participating in jumping, throwing, wrestling, and footraces, and demonstrating exceptional strength.[335] Burlingame notes that Lincoln's clothes "were typically rough and suited to the frontier", with a gap between his shoes, socks, and pants that often exposed six or more inches of his shin; "he cared little about fashion".[336]

Lincoln was a slender six feet four inches,[336] with a high-pitched voice.[337] While he is usually portrayed bearded, he did not grow a beard until 1860 at the suggestion of 11-year-old Grace Bedell; he was the first U.S. president to do so.[338] William H. Herndon described Lincoln's face as "long, narrow, sallow, and cadaverous", his cheeks as "leathery and saffron-colored".[339] Lincoln described himself as having a "dark complexion, with coarse black hair".[339] Although Lincoln's features were said to be "unpleasant to behold,"[340] Walt Whitman "wrote that Lincoln's face was 'so awful ugly it becomes beautiful.'"[341] Lincoln's detractors also remarked on his appearance. For example, the Charleston *Mercury* described him as having "the dirtiest complexion" and asked "Faugh! after him what decent white man would be President?"[342]

Among the illnesses that Lincoln is either documented or speculated to have suffered from are depression,[32] smallpox,[343] and malaria.[344] He took blue mass pills, which contained mercury, to treat melancholy or hypochondriasis; this could have resulted in mercury poisoning.[345] Several claims have been made that Lincoln's health was declining before his assassination, as photographs of Lincoln appear to show weight loss and facial changes.[346][347] It has been proposed that he could have had a rare genetic disorder such as Marfan syndrome or multiple endocrine neoplasia type 2B.[346][348]

Legacy

Bureau of Engraving and Printing portrait of Lincoln as president

Historical reputation

In surveys of U.S. scholars ranking presidents since 1948, the top three presidents are generally Lincoln, George Washington, and Franklin D. Roosevelt, although the order varies.[349] A 2004 study found that scholars in history and politics ranked Lincoln number one, while legal scholars placed him second after Washington.[350] Between 1999 and 2011, Lincoln, John F. Kennedy, and Ronald Reagan were the top-ranked presidents in eight public opinion surveys by Gallup.[351]

Lincoln's assassination made him a national martyr. He was viewed by abolitionists as a champion of human liberty. Many, though not all, in the South considered Lincoln to be a man of outstanding ability.[352] In the New Deal era, liberals honored Lincoln as an advocate of the common man who they claimed would have supported the welfare state,[353] and Lincoln became a favorite of liberal intellectuals across the world.[354] The sociologist Barry Schwartz argues that in the 1930s and 1940s, Lincoln provided

the nation with "a moral symbol inspiring and guiding American life."[355] Schwartz states that Lincoln's American reputation grew slowly from the late 19th century until the Progressive Era (1900–1920s), when he emerged as one of America's most venerated heroes, even among White Southerners. The high point came in 1922 with the dedication of the Lincoln Memorial on the National Mall in Washington, D.C.[356] However, Schwartz also argued in 2008 that since World War II Lincoln's symbolic power has lost relevance, and this "fading hero is symptomatic of fading confidence in national greatness."[357] By the 1970s, Lincoln had become a hero to political conservatives[358]—apart from neo-Confederates such as Mel Bradford, who denounced his treatment of the White South—for his nationalism, his support for business, his insistence on stopping the spread of slavery, and his perceived devotion to the principles of the Founding Fathers.[359]

The Black orator and former slave Frederick Douglass stated that in "his company, I was never reminded of my humble origin, or of my unpopular color",[360] and Lincoln has long been known as the Great Emancipator.[h] By the late 1960s, some Black intellectuals denied that Lincoln deserved that title.[362][363] Lerone Bennett Jr. won wide attention when he called Lincoln a White supremacist in 1968.[364] He noted that Lincoln used ethnic slurs and argued that Lincoln opposed social equality and proposed that freed slaves voluntarily move to another country.[365] Defenders of Lincoln highlighted his condemnation of slavery and his contributions to its abolition, casting his delays and racist rhetoric as concessions to political necessity rather than reflections of his personal beliefs.[366][367][368]

Lincoln has also been characterized as a folk hero and as "Honest Abe".[369] David Herbert Donald opined in his 1996 biography that Lincoln was endowed with the personality trait of negative capability, attributed to extraordinary leaders who were "capable of being in uncertainties ... without any irritable reaching after fact and reason".[370] Lincoln has often been portrayed by Hollywood, almost always in a flattering light; the film historian Melvyn Stokes writes that "moviemakers have commonly used Lincoln primarily as a metaphor for ideas and values they approved".[371][372] Lincoln has also been admired by political figures outside the U.S., including the German philosopher Karl Marx;[373] Giuseppe Garibaldi, leader of the Italian Risorgimento;[374] Indian independence leader Mahatma Gandhi; German politician Willy Brandt; and Nelson Mandela, who likened the "new birth of freedom" Lincoln spoke of in the Gettysburg Address to the end of apartheid in South Africa.[375]

Memorials and commemorations

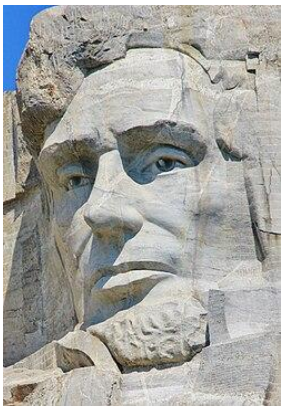
Main article: Memorials to Abraham Lincoln

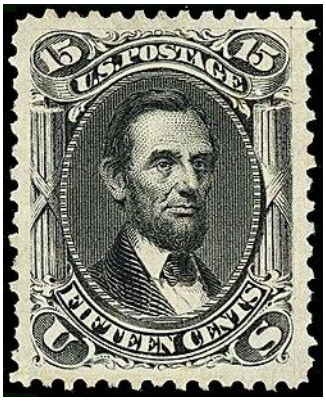
See also: Cultural depictions of Abraham Lincoln

Lincoln's portrait appears on two denominations of United States currency, the penny and the $5 bill. He appears on postage stamps across the world, including in Ghana, Honduras, China, Haiti, Nicaragua, Colombia, and Argentina.[376] He has been memorialized in many town, city, and county names, including the capital of Nebraska.[377] The United States Navy has named three vessels after Lincoln, including the *Nimitz*-class aircraft carrier USS *Abraham Lincoln* (CVN-72).[378][379][380] The Lincoln Memorial in Washington, D.C., is one of the most visited National Park Service sites in the country.[381] Memorials in Springfield, Illinois, include the Abraham Lincoln

Presidential Library and Museum, Lincoln's home, and his tomb.[382] A carving of Lincoln appears with those of three other presidents on Mount Rushmore, which receives about 3 million visitors a year.[383] A statue of Lincoln completed by Augustus Saint-Gaudens stands in Lincoln Park, Chicago,[384] with recastings given as diplomatic gifts standing in Parliament Square, London, and Parque Lincoln, Mexico City.[385][386] Several states commemorate "Presidents' Day" as "Washington–Lincoln Day".[387][388]

Lincoln has also been extensively portrayed in media. Early works, such as *Abraham Lincoln's Clemency* (1910), attempted to mythologize him, emphasizing his mercifulness. Works from the Great Depression era, such as *Young Mr. Lincoln* (1939), embellished his early struggles and folksiness.[372] The 1938 play *Abe Lincoln in Illinois* won a Pulitzer Prize and was adapted in film.[372] After a marked decrease in film portrayals between 1941 and 1999,[372] Daniel Day-Lewis won the Academy Award for Best Actor for his portrayal in *Lincoln*, a 2012 biographical film directed by Steven Spielberg.[389]

- 
  Lincoln's image carved into the stone of Mount Rushmore

- 

The Lincoln memorial postage stamp of 1866 was issued by the U.S. Post Office exactly one year after Lincoln's assassination.
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The Lincoln Memorial in Washington, D.C.
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The Lincoln cent is a one-cent coin that has been struck since 1909.

See also

- Outline of Abraham Lincoln
- Lincoln family
- Walt Whitman and Abraham Lincoln

Notes

a. Discharged from command-rank of captain and re-enlisted at rank of private[2]
b. /ˈlɪŋkən/ ⓘ *LINK-ən*
c. Though it is uncertain, Lincoln's grandmother is believed to have been Bathsheba Herring, the daughter of Alexander and Abigail Herring (née Harrison).[6]
d. Eric Foner contrasts the abolitionists and anti-slavery Radical Republicans of the Northeast, who saw slavery as a sin, with the conservative Republicans, who thought it was bad because it hurt White people and blocked progress. Foner argues that Lincoln was in the middle, opposing slavery primarily because it violated the republicanism principles of the Founding Fathers, especially the equality of all men and democratic self-government as expressed in the Declaration of Independence.[108]
e. Major Northern newspapers predicted victory within 90 days.[175]
f. In 1866, when income tax applied to those with incomes above $600, only an estimated 1.3% of the national population were required to pay.[233]
g. Government borrowing amounted to $2.8 billion by 1866.[238]
h. The origin of the nickname is unknown.[361]

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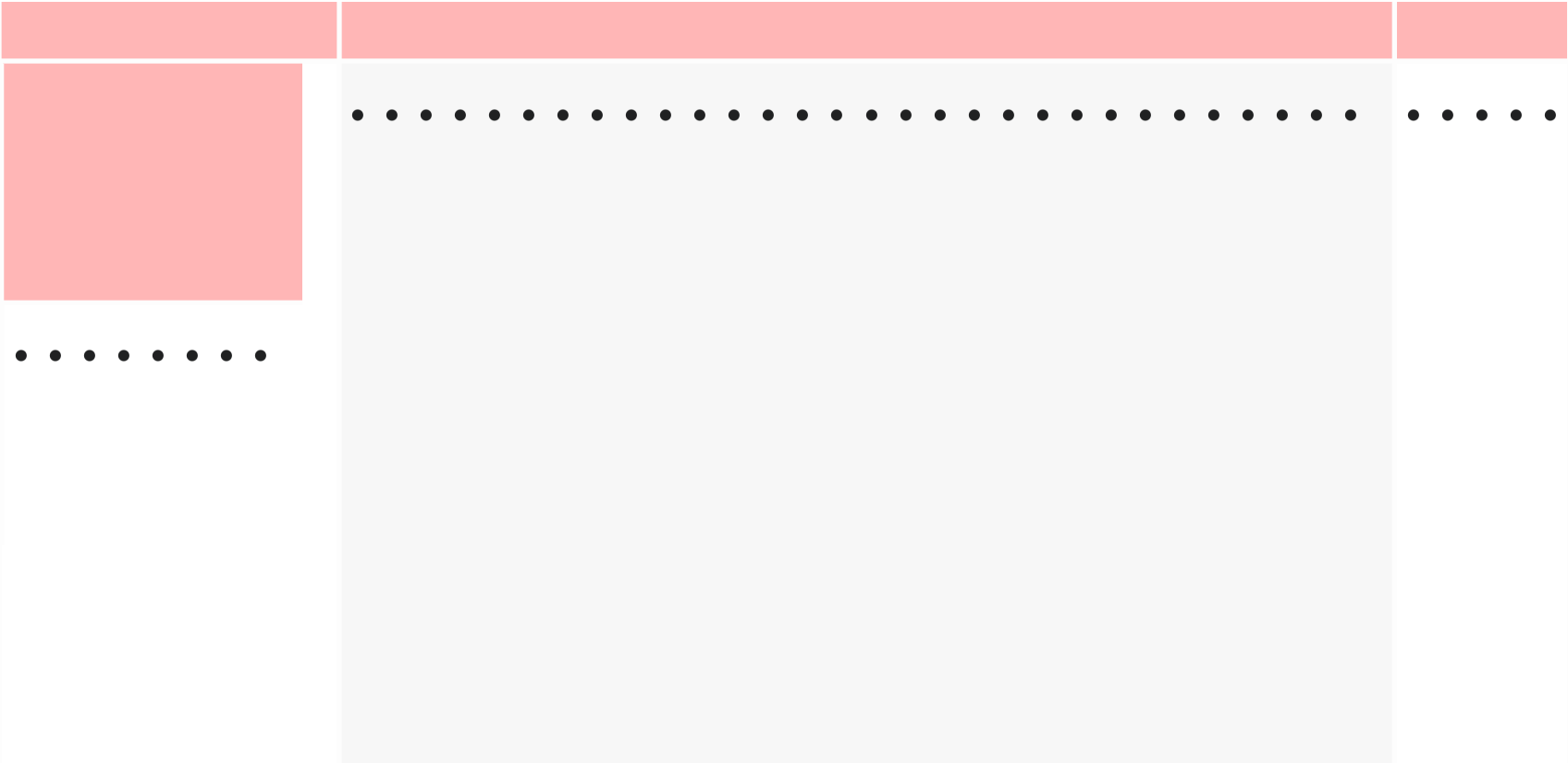

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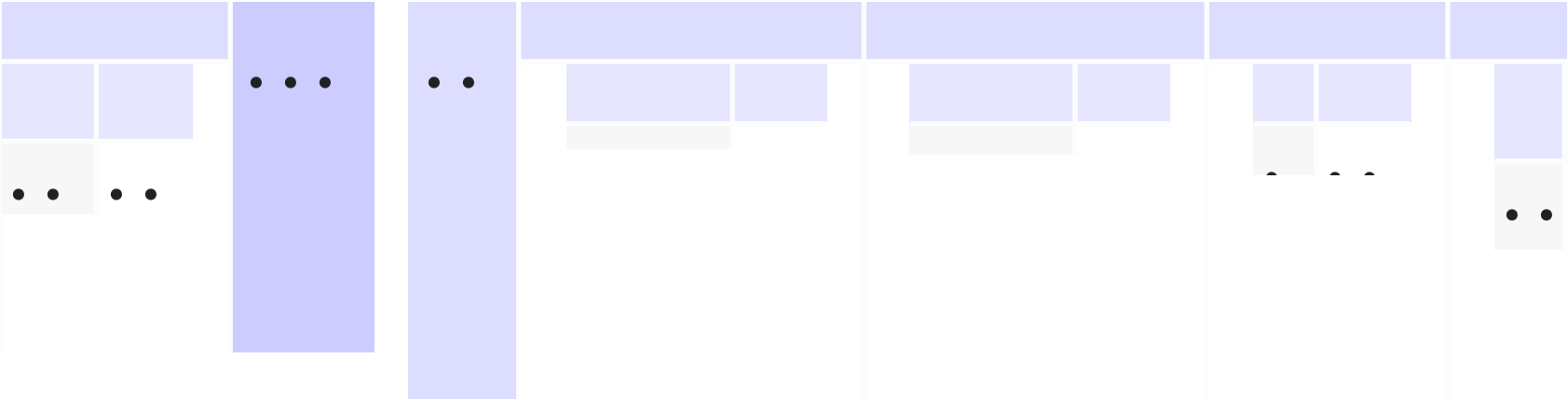

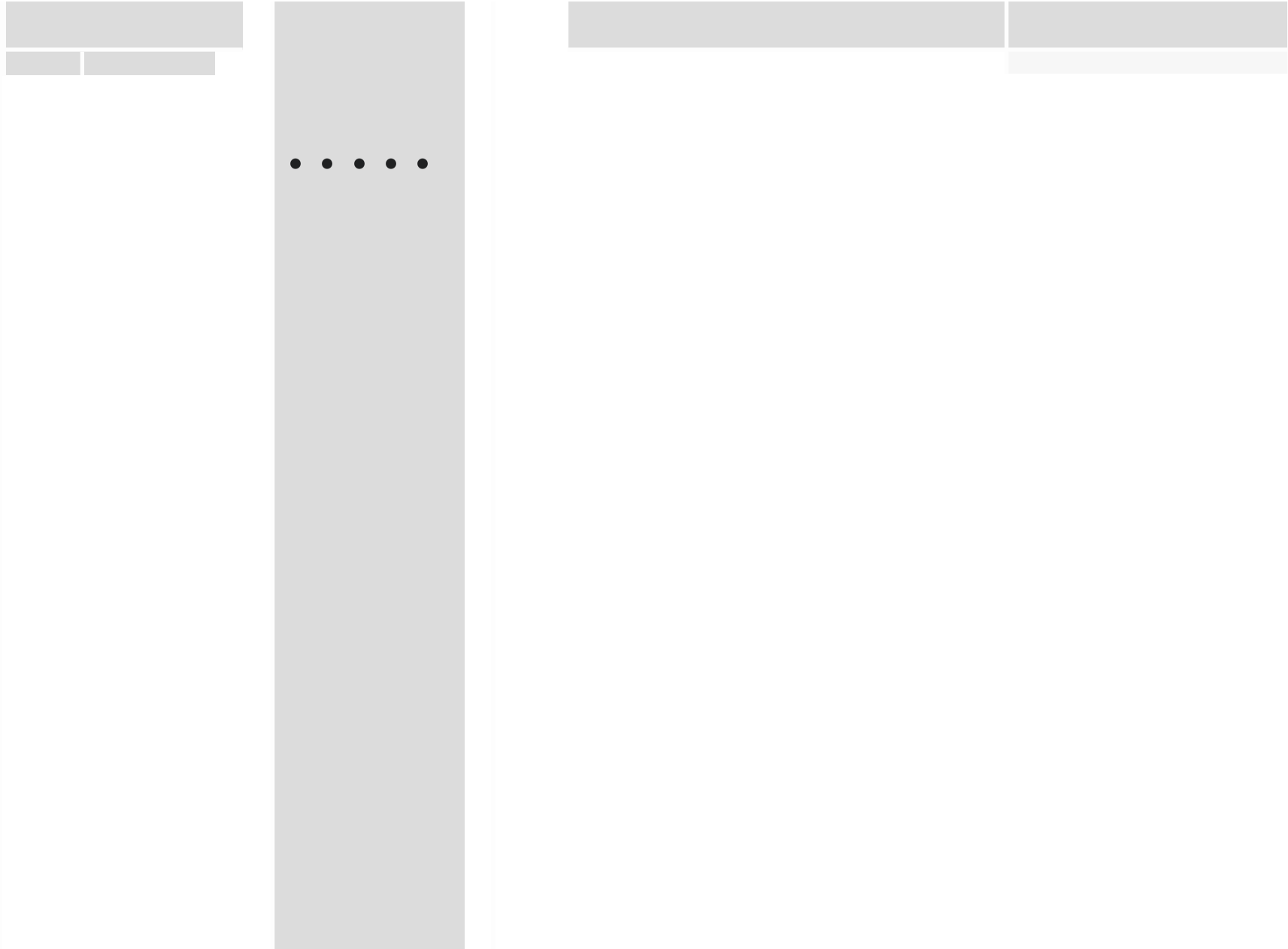

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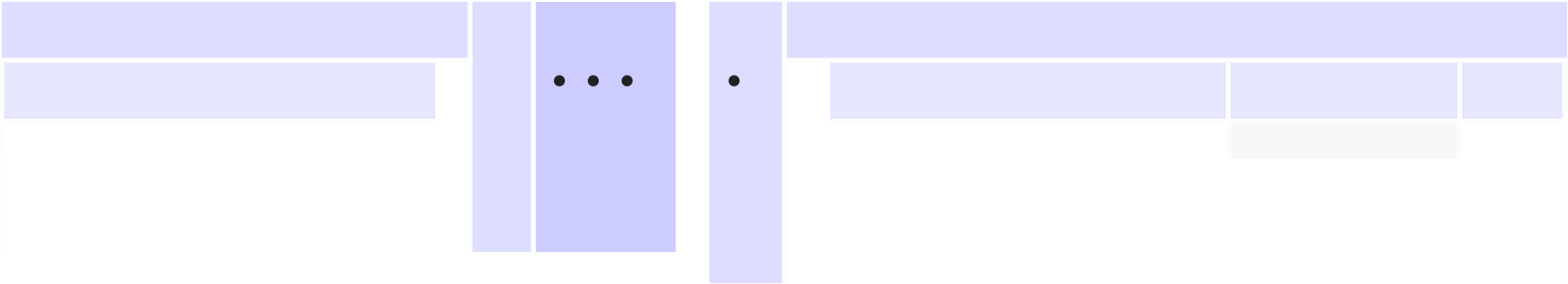

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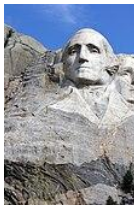

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Five Civilized Tribes

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Standard
Large

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Standard
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Color

Automatic
Light
Dark

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Illustrations of members of the Five Civilized Tribes painted between 1775 and 1850 (clockwise from top left): Sequoyah, Pushmataha, Selocta, Osceola, and Piominko

The term **Five Civilized Tribes** was applied by the United States government in the early federal period of the history of the United States to the five major Native American nations in the Southeast: the Cherokee, Chickasaw, Choctaw, Muscogee (Creek), and Seminoles.[1][2][3] White Americans classified them as "civilized" because they had adopted attributes of the Anglo-American culture.[4]

Examples of such colonial attributes adopted by these five tribes included Christianity, centralized governments, literacy, market participation, written constitutions, intermarriage with White Americans, and chattel slavery practices, including purchase of enslaved Black Americans.[5][6] For a period, the Five Civilized Tribes tended to maintain stable political relations with the White population. However, White encroachment continued and eventually led to the removal of these tribes from the Southeast, most prominently along the Trail of Tears.

In the 21st century, this term has been criticized by some scholars for its ethnocentric assumptions by Anglo-Americans of what they considered civilized,[7] but representatives of these tribes continue to meet regularly on a quarterly basis in their Inter-Tribal Council of the Five Civilized Tribes.[8]

The descendants of these tribes, who primarily live in what is now Oklahoma, are sometimes referred to as the Five Tribes of Oklahoma, although several other federally recognized tribes are also located in that state.

Terminology

The term "civilized tribes" was adopted to distinguish the Five Tribes from other Native American tribes that were described as "wild" or "savage".[9][10] Texts written by non-indigenous scholars and writers have used words like "savage" and "wild" to identify Indian groups that retained their traditional cultural practices after European contact. As a consequence of evolving attitudes toward ethnocentric word usage and more rigorous ethnographical standards, the term "Five Civilized Tribes" is rarely used in contemporary academic publications.[11]

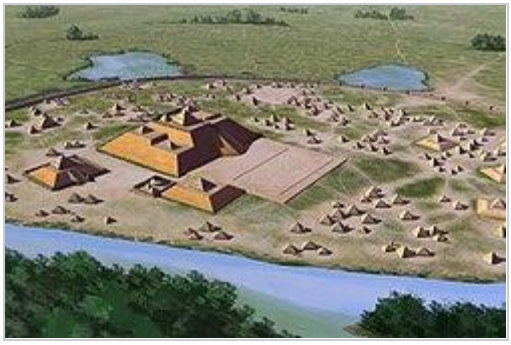
George Washington believed that the only way Indians could survive in proximity to White settlers was for them to become civilized. The United States accordingly adopted a policy of civilizing Indians while Washington was president. The policy assumed that civilized Indians would require less land, and would need money, so that they would be willing to sell the excess land to White settlers. In White American terms, Indians became civilized by the men giving up hunting and becoming farmers, displacing the women who traditionally had been the primary farmers. They were expected to use draft animals and to give up maize as a main crop and instead raise wheat and cotton. The women were to become housekeepers, caring for children and weaving cotton for clothing. The Indians were also expected to acquire slaves and use them like their White plantation neighbors did.[3]

The word "civilized" was used by White settlers to refer to the Five Tribes, who, during the 18th and early 19th centuries, actively integrated Anglo-American customs into their own cultures.[12] Sociologists, anthropologists, and interdisciplinary scholars alike are interested in how and why these native peoples assimilated certain features of the alien culture of the White settlers who were encroaching on their lands. Historian Steve Brandon asserts that this "adaptation and incorporation of aspects of white culture" was a tactic employed by the Five Nations peoples to resist removal from their lands.[13]

While the term "Five Civilized Tribes" has been institutionalized in federal government policy to the point that the US Congress passed laws using the name, the Five Nations themselves have been less accepting of it in formal matters, and some members have declared that grouping the different peoples under this label is effectively another form of colonization and control by White society.[13] Other modern scholars have suggested that the very concept of "civilization" was internalized by individuals who belonged to the Five Nations,[14][11] but because much of Native North American history has been communicated by oral tradition, little scholarly research has been done to substantiate this.

In present-day commentary on Native American cultures, the term "civilized" is contentious and not commonly used in academic literature. Some commentators, including the Indian activist Vine Deloria Jr., have declared that it is demeaning and implies that the indigenous peoples of the North American continent were "uncivilized" before their contact with the habits, customs, and beliefs of Anglo-American settlers. The term is based on the assumption that different peoples possess objective "degrees" of civilization that may be assessed and raises the question of just what qualities define "civilization". Consequently, it is considered a judgmental term whose meaning is dependent on the user's perspective, and thus best avoided.[15][16]

History



The Mississippian culture was a mound-building Native American urban culture, which flourished in the South and Eastern regions of the United States prior to the arrival of White settlers.

The Five Civilized Tribes is a term used for five major indigenous tribes who lived in the Southeastern United States. They lived in an area that had been influenced by the Mississippian culture. Prior to the arrival of white settlers, these tribes generally had matrilineal kinship systems, with property and hereditary positions passed through the mother's family.[*citation needed*]

First to 18th centuries

Based on the development of surplus foods from cultivation, Mississippian towns had more dense populations, and they developed artisan classes, and hereditary religious and political elites. The Mississippian culture flourished in what is now the Midwestern, Eastern, and Southeastern United States from 800 to 1500 CE. Agriculture was the primary economic pursuit. The bulk of the tribes lived in towns, some covering hundreds of acres and populated with thousands of people. They were known for building large, complex earthwork mounds. These communities regulated their space with planned streets, subdivided into residential and public areas. Their system of government was hereditary. Chiefdoms were of varying size and complexity, with high levels of military organization.[17]

18th century

Routes of southern removals to the first Indian Territory of the Five Civilized Tribes

President George Washington and Henry Knox, the first Secretary of War, implemented a policy of cultural transformation in relation to Native Americans.[*citation needed*] The Cherokee and Choctaw tended, in turn, to adopt and appropriate certain cultural aspects of the federation of colonies.

In 1776, assembled in Philadelphia, the Second Continental Congress unanimously adopted the Declaration of Independence, which was largely written by Thomas Jefferson. American independence was subsequently achieved by the victory of the Continental Army, led by George Washington, in the American Revolutionary War and codified in the Treaty of Paris in 1784.

The Five Tribes generally adopted cultural practices from Americans that they found useful. Tribal groups who had towns or villages closer to European-descendant Americans, or interacted more with them through trading or intermarriage, took up more of such new practices. Those towns that were more isolated tended to maintain their traditional cultures.[18]

George Washington promulgated a doctrine that held that Indian Americans were biologically equals, but that their societies were inferior. He formulated and implemented a policy to encourage civilizing them, which Thomas Jefferson continued and expanded.[19] Historian Robert Remini wrote that the American leaders "presumed that once the Indians adopted the practice of private property, built homes, farmed, educated their children, and embraced Christianity, these Native Americans would win acceptance from Americans of European descent.[19]

George Washington's six-point plan included: regulating the buying of Indian lands, promoting commerce with the tribes, promoting experiments to civilize or improve Indian society, authorizing presidential authority to bestow presents on the tribes, and punish those who violated Indian rights.[20]

The US government appointed Indian agents, such as Benjamin Hawkins in the Southeast, to live among Indians and to encourage them, through example and instruction, to assimilate and adopt the lifestyle of White settlers.[18] The tribes of the Southeast adopted Washington's policy as they established schools, took up yeoman farming practices, converted to Christianity, and built homes similar to those of their colonial neighbors.[20] These five tribes also adopted the practice of chattel slavery: holding enslaved African Americans as forced workers.[6]

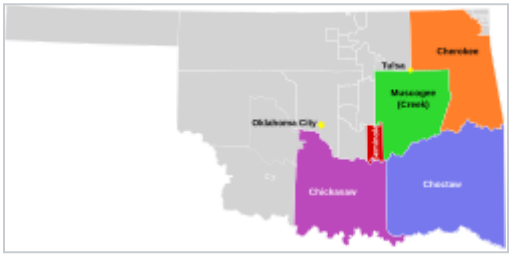
How different would be the sensation of a philosophic mind to reflect that instead of exterminating a part of the human race by our modes of population that we had persevered through all difficulties and at last had imparted our Knowledge of cultivating and the arts, to the Aboriginals of the Country by which the source of future life and happiness had been preserved and extended. But it has been conceived to be

impracticable to civilize the Indians of North America – This opinion is probably more convenient than just.

—Henry Knox letter to George Washington, July 7, 1789[21]

Following the establishment of independence following the American Revolutionary War, Americans pushed into the interior and into the Deep South, areas that were still largely dominated by Native Americans. The invention of the cotton gin made cultivation of short-staple cotton profitable in the interior, and settlers encroached on Native American lands in the Upper South, including western Georgia, and the future states of Alabama, Louisiana, and Mississippi. They demanded the chance to cultivate these lands for agriculture. Armed conflicts occurred between some of the tribes and the settlers, who kept pushing west and acquired additional territories through negotiated treaties with European colonial powers and sometimes by force.

19th century



The boundaries of the Five Civilized Tribes in Oklahoma, in 1866

Cherokee Nation Historic Courthouse in Tahlequah, Oklahoma, built in 1849, the oldest public building in present-day Oklahoma[22]

In the early 19th century, under such leaders as Andrew Jackson, elected president in 1828, and others, the US government formally initiated Indian removal, forcing those tribes still living east of the Mississippi River, including the Five Tribes, to lands west of the river. Congress passed authorizing legislation in 1830, to fund such moves and arrange for new lands in what became known as Indian Territory to the west.

Most members of the Five Tribes were forced to Indian Territory before 1840, many to what later became the states of Kansas and Oklahoma. The Cherokee Nation resisted removal until 1838 and lost thousands of members in removal, along what they called the Cherokee Trail of Tears. President Martin Van Buren had enforced the Treaty of New Echota, although the Senate had not ratified it, and a majority of the tribe said they had not agreed to its cessions of communal land.[*citation needed*]

Once the tribes had been relocated to Indian Territory, the US government promised that their lands would be free of American settlers. But settlers soon began to violate that, and enforcement was difficult in the western frontier.

Freedmen of the Five Tribes

Main articles: Choctaw freedmen, Cherokee freedmen controversy, Creek Freedmen, and Black Seminoles

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The Five Tribes participated in Native American slave ownership that had enslaved Black people before and during the American Civil War. The Five Tribes largely supported the Confederacy, which had severed ties with the Union prior to the war, in large part because they were promised their own state if the Confederacy won.[23] During removal to Indian Territory, "the Five Tribes considered enslaved Black people an ideal way of transporting capital to the West" because they were "movable property."[24]

After the end of the Civil War, the US required these tribes to make new peace treaties, and to emancipate their slaves, as slaves had been emancipated and were granted citizenship in the US. All Five Tribes acknowledged "in writing that, because of the agreements they had made with the Confederate States during the Civil War, previous

treaties made with the United States would no longer be upheld, thus prompting the need for a new treaty and an opportunity for the United States to fulfill its goal of wrenching more land" from their grasp.[24]

They were required to offer full citizenship in their tribes to those freedmen who wanted to stay with the tribes. Those who wanted to leave could become US citizens. By that time, numerous families had intermarried or had other personal ties with African Americans.[25]

The Emancipation Proclamation of 1863 declared all slaves in the Confederacy, which were states that had separated from the Union, to be permanently free - except for Tennessee and other parts of the Confederacy already under Union Army control. The proclamation did not end slavery in the five border states that remained in the Union, but slavery everywhere in the nation was abolished, except as punishment for a crime, with the ratification of the Thirteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution in December 1865.

The Civil Rights Act of 1866, passed over the veto of President Andrew Johnson, gave ex-slaves full citizenship, except for voting, in the United States. The Fourteenth Amendment was ratified to make clear that Congress had the legal authority to do so.[26] The Fifteenth Amendment extended the franchise to all adult males; only adult males among Whites had previously had the franchise, and it was sometimes limited by certain requirements. The 13th, 14th, and 15th amendments are known as the "civil rights amendments", the "post-Civil War amendments", and the "Reconstruction Amendments".

To help freedmen transition from slavery to freedom, including a free labor market, President Abraham Lincoln created the Freedmen's Bureau, which assigned agents throughout the former Confederate states. The Bureau also founded schools to educate

freedmen, both adults and children; helped freedmen negotiate labor contracts; and tried to minimize violence against freedmen. The era of Reconstruction was an attempt to establish new governments in the former Confederacy and to bring freedmen into society as voting citizens. Northern church bodies, such as the American Missionary Association and the Freewill Baptists, sent teachers to the South to assist in educating freedmen and their children, and eventually established several colleges for higher education. US Army occupation soldiers were stationed throughout the South via military districts enacted by the Reconstruction Acts; they tried to protect freedmen in voting polls and public facilities from violence and intimidation by White Southerners, which were common throughout the region.

The Chickasaw were allied with the Confederacy. After the Civil War, the US government required the nation also to make a new peace treaty in 1866. It included the provision that they emancipate the enslaved African Americans and provide full citizenship to those who wanted to stay in the Chickasaw Nation. The Chickasaw and Choctaw negotiated new treaties "without a clause accepting their guilt, allowing them to declare that they had been forced into a Confederate alliance by American desertion." Unlike other tribes, Chickasaw tribal leaders never offered freedpeople citizenship. The slaves were freed and they could continue to live within the boundaries of the nation as second-class citizens, or they could move to Union states and no longer be associated with the tribe, which meant they did not participate in the Dawes Rolls of the 1890s, which registered tribal members.[24]

The Choctaw-Chickasaw Freedmen Association of Oklahoma currently represents the interests of freedmen descendants in both of these tribes.[27] The freed people of the Cherokee, Creek, and Seminole nations were able to enjoy most citizenship rights immediately after emancipation.[28]

But the Chickasaw Nation and Choctaw Nation of Oklahoma never granted citizenship to their Freedmen.[29][30] They enacted legislation similar to the US Black Codes, which set certain wages for ex-slaves and attempted to force freed people to find employment under Indian tribal members.[28]

The only way that African Americans could become citizens of the Chickasaw Nation at that time was to have one or more Chickasaw parents, or to petition for citizenship and go through the process available to other non-Natives, even if they were known to have been of partial Chickasaw descent in an earlier generation. Because the Chickasaw Nation did not provide citizenship to their freedmen after the American Civil War, which they felt would be akin to formal adoption of individuals into the tribe, they were penalized by the US government. It took more than half of their territory, with no compensation. They lost territory that had been negotiated in treaties in exchange for their use after removal from the Southeast.[*citation needed*]

In the late 19th century, under the Dawes Act and related legislation, the US government decided to break up communal tribal lands, allocating 160-acre plots to heads of households of enrolled members of the tribes. It determined that land left over was "surplus" and could be sold, including to non-Native Americans. Allotment was also a means to extinguish Indian title to these lands, and the US government required the dissolution of tribal governments prior to admission of the territories as the US state of Oklahoma.

As American settlement increased in the Oklahoma Territory, pressure built to combine the territories and admit Oklahoma as a state.

In 1893, the government opened the "Cherokee Strip" to outside settlement in the Oklahoma Land Run.

20th century

In 1907, the Oklahoma Territory and the Indian Territory were merged to form the state of Oklahoma. Relative to other states, all Five Tribes are represented in significant numbers in the population of Oklahoma today.

In the late 20th century, the Cherokee Nation voted to restrict membership to only those descendants of persons listed as "Cherokee by blood" on the Dawes Rolls of the early 20th century. This decision excluded most Cherokee Freedmen; by this time, this term referred to descendants of the original group. At the time, registrars tended to classify any person with visible African American features as a Freedman, not inquiring or allowing them to document Indian descent.

21st century

Since the 20th century, the Freedmen have argued that the Dawes Rolls were often inaccurate in terms of recording Cherokee ancestry among persons of mixed race, even if they were considered Cherokee by blood within the tribe. The registrars confused appearance with culture. In addition, the Freedmen have argued that the post-Civil War treaties made between the tribes and the US granted them full citizenship in the tribes. The Choctaw Freedmen and Creek Freedmen have similarly struggled with their respective tribes over the terms of citizenship in contemporary times.

The tribes have wanted to limit those who can benefit from tribal citizenship, in an era in which gaming casinos are yielding considerable revenues for members. The majority of members of the tribes have voted to limit membership, and as sovereign nations, they have the right to determine their rules. But descendants of freedmen believe their long standing as citizens since the post-Civil War treaties should be continued.

In 2017, the Cherokee Freedmen were granted citizenship again in the tribe.[31][32][33] The Cherokee Nation was the first among the five tribes to update its constitution to include the Cherokee Freedmen as full citizens.[34]

In 2018, the US Congress removed the blood quantum requirement for land allotment for the Five Tribes, though it had not been a tribal citizenship requirement.[35] Historian Mark Miller noted:

Even so-called purely 'descendancy' tribes such as the Five Tribes with no blood quantum requirement jealously guard some proven, documentary link by blood to distant ancestors. More than any single BIA [Bureau of Indian Affairs] requirement, however, this criterion has proven troublesome for southeastern groups [seeking federal recognition] because of its reliance on non-Indian records and the confused (and confusing) nature of surviving documents.[36]

In July 2021, the Cherokee Freedmen asked Congress to withhold housing assistance money until the Five Civilized Tribes addressed the citizenship status of freedmen's descendants. They took this action although the Cherokee Nation had already updated its constitution to end their exclusion of the Cherokee Freedmen as members.[37]

Like other federally-recognized tribes, the Five Tribes have participated in shaping the current BIA Federal Acknowledgment Process for tribes under consideration for such recognition. They are suspicious of groups that claim Indian identity but appear to have no history of culture and community.[38]

Tribes

Cherokee

Main articles: Cherokee and Cherokee Nation

The Cherokee, (/ˈtʃɛrəkiː/; Cherokee: ᎠᏂᏴᏫᏯᏙ, romanized: *Aniyvwiyaʔi*) are people of the Southeastern United States, principally upland Georgia, North Carolina, and South Carolina. They speak an Iroquoian language. In the 19th century, historians and ethnographers recorded their oral tradition that told of the tribe having migrated south in ancient times from the Great Lakes region, the base of most other Iroquoian-speaking peoples.[39]

Of the three federally recognized Cherokee tribes, the Cherokee Nation and the United Keetoowah Band of Cherokee Indians (UKB) have headquarters in Tahlequah, Oklahoma. The UKB are mostly descendants of "Old Settlers", Cherokee who migrated to Arkansas and Oklahoma about 1817. They are related to the Cherokee who were forcibly relocated there in the 1830s under the Indian Removal Act. The Eastern Band of Cherokee Indians is on the Qualla Boundary in western North Carolina, and are descendants of those who resisted or avoided relocation.[40] Although the Cherokee Nation sponsors some satellite communities, it does not recognize Cherokee heritage groups that are seeking federal recognition. The Cherokee tribe has 729,533 enrolled members.[41]

Chickasaw

Main articles: Chickasaw and Chickasaw Nation

The Chickasaw are Indian people of the United States who originally resided along the Tennessee River and other parts of present-day Tennessee, in the southwest side of present-day Kentucky, west of present-day Huntsville, Alabama, and in parts of Mississippi. They spoke some French and some English. Some historians credit the Chickasaw intervention in the French and Indian War on the side of the British as

decisive in ensuring that the United States became an English-speaking nation.[42] Originating further west, the Chickasaw moved east of the Mississippi River long before European contact. All historical records indicate the Chickasaw lived in northeastern Mississippi from the first European contact until they were forced to remove to Oklahoma, where most now live.

The Chickasaw are related to the Choctaw, who speak a similar language, both forming the Western Group of the Muskogean languages. "Chickasaw" is the English spelling of *Chikasha* (Creek pronunciation: [tʃikaʃːa]), that either means "rebel" or "comes from Chicsa". The Chickasaw are divided in two groups: the "Impsaktea" and the "Intcutwalipa". The Chickasaw were one of the "Five Civilized Tribes" who went to the Indian Territory during the era of Indian removal. Unlike other tribes, who exchanged land grants, the Chickasaw received financial compensation from the United States for their lands east of the Mississippi River.[43] The Chickasaw Nation is the thirteenth largest federally recognized tribe in the United States. The Chickasaw built some of the first banks, schools, and businesses in Indian Territory. They also signed a treaty with the Southern United States during the Civil War and brought troops to fight for the Confederates.[44]

Choctaw

Main articles: Choctaw and Choctaw Nation

The Choctaw are Native American people originally from the Southeastern United States, including present-day Mississippi, Alabama, and Louisiana. There were about 20,000 members of this tribe when they were forced to move to Indian Territory. Many of them did not survive.[45] They are of the Muskogean linguistic group. The word *Choctaw* (also rendered as *Chahta*, *Chato*, *Tchakta*, and *Chocktaw*) is possibly a corruption of the Spanish *chato*, meaning flattened, in allusion to the tribe's custom of flattening the

heads of infants.[46][47] Noted anthropologist John Swanton suggests instead that the name belonged to a Choctaw leader.[48] They were descended from people of the Mississippian culture which was located throughout the Mississippi River Valley. Historians such as Walter Lee Williams have documented some early Spanish explorers encountering chiefs of the Mississippian culture, ancestors of some of the Five Tribes.[49]

Although smaller Choctaw groups are located in the southern region, the Choctaw Nation of Oklahoma and the Mississippi Band of Choctaw Indians are the two primary federally recognized tribes. This people historically cultivated beans, maize, and squash, like other settled Indians. They also hunted and fished for some of their diet. Since the early nineteenth century, the tribe has recovered and increased in number. The federally recognized tribes have about 231,000 members in total, making the Choctaw the third-largest Native American population in the United States. The capital of the Choctaw Nation is in Durant, Oklahoma.[50]

Muscogee

Main article: Muscogee

The Muscogee, or Creek, are originally from present-day Alabama, Florida, Georgia, and South Carolina.[51] They resided there from approximately 1500 AD until they were forcibly displaced by the American government in the early 19th century. *Mvskoke* is their name in the Muskogee language. The Muscogee Creek were not one tribe but a confederacy of several, each of which had their own distinct land and sometimes dialects or languages in the Muskogean family.

Starting in 1836, the US government forced them to remove west of the Mississippi along with the other Southeast tribes to what was designated as Indian Territory. About 20,000 Muscogee members were forced to walk the Trail of Tears, the same number as the Choctaw.[52] Modern Muscogee live primarily in Oklahoma, Alabama, Georgia, and Florida. Their language, *Mvskoke*, is a member of the Creek branch of the Muskogean language family.

Federally recognized tribes descended from the Creek Confederacy include the Muscogee Creek Nation, Kialegee Tribal Town, and Thlopthlocco Tribal Town in Oklahoma; Poarch Band of Creek Indians in Alabama, and Alabama–Quassarte Tribal Town.

The Seminole people originally included many of Creek origin, but developed as a separate culture, through a process of ethnogenesis, before Indian removal.

Seminoles

Main article: Seminole

The Seminoles are a Native American people that developed in present-day Florida. Federally recognized tribes of this people now reside in Oklahoma and Florida.

The Seminole nation came into existence in the late 18th century and was composed of renegade and outcast Native Americans from Georgia, Mississippi, and Alabama, most significantly from among the loose Creek confederacy. They were joined by African Americans who escaped from slavery in South Carolina and Georgia. During Indian removal and the Seminole Wars, roughly 3,000 Seminoles were forced by the U.S. to remove west of the Mississippi River. The Seminole Nation of Oklahoma is made up of their descendants.

But approximately 300 to 500 Seminoles migrated to the Everglades of Florida, where they gained refuge and resisted removal. The US waged two more wars against the Seminoles in Florida in an effort to dislodge them, and about 1,500 US soldiers died. The Seminoles never surrendered to the US government, and consequently the Seminoles of Florida call themselves the "Unconquered People".[53][54]

For about twenty years after the move to Indian Territory (Oklahoma), the Seminoles refused to live with the Muscogee Creek tribe or under their government until they finally reached an agreement with the government to sign a treaty and live with them. The Seminoles favored the North during the Civil War and remained loyal to the Union. They moved north into Kansas during the war.[55]

Seminole tribes include the Seminole Nation of Oklahoma and Seminole Tribe of Florida. In addition, the Miccosukee Tribe of Indians of Florida was part of the Seminole Tribe in that state until 1962, when they gained independent federal recognition as a tribe. They speak the Mikasuki language, also called Seminole and related to Creek, or Muskogee, but the two languages are mutually unintelligible. Ancestors of each of these tribes were among Creek bands in the region in the eighteenth century, but the Seminoles developed an independent culture in Florida.

Works

- *Kill the Indian, Save the Man*

See also

- Civilization Fund Act
- Cultural assimilation of Native Americans
- Former Indian Reservations in Oklahoma
- Martial race

- Mission Indians
- Praying Indians

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External links

Wikimedia Commons has media related to ***Five Civilized Tribes***.

- Five Civilized Tribes Museum
- *The Five Civilized Tribes* — book by Grant Foreman (University of Oklahoma Press, Norman 1934; 431pp)
- Five Civilized Tribes (archived 28 December 2014)
- Trail of Tears
- Indian Removal Act

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Indian removal

Battles and mi	• Battle of Burnt Corn (1813) • Fort Mims massacre (1813) • Battle of Horseshoe Bend (1814) • Battle of Negro Fort (1816) • Battle of Fowltown (1817) • Scott Massacre (1817) • Attack at Fort Hughes (1817)

Military incidents (chronologically)	• Battle of Ocheesee (1817–1818) • Seminole Wars
Policies and laws	• Removal Act • Georgia Land Lotteries • Manifest destiny • *Worcester v. Georgia*
Removals (c	• Indian removals in Indiana • Indian removals in Ohio • Choctaw Trail of Tears (1831–1833) • Trail of Tears (1831–1838) • Cherokee removal (1836–1839) • Potawatomi Trail of Death (1838) • Sandy Lake Tragedy (1850) • Nome Cult Trail (1863)

hr o n ol o gi ca lly)	• Long Walk of the Navajo (1864) • Burt Lake burn-out (1900)
A m er ic an p oli tic ia ns an d mi lit ar y of fic ial s	• John C. Calhoun • Lewis Cass • James Gadsden • George Rockingham Gilmer • Andrew Jackson • Thomas Jefferson • James Monroe • Winfield Scott • John Tipton • David Wallace
P eo pl e w	• Robert C. Ambrister • George Arbuthnot • Benjamin Hawkins • Edward Nicolls • Benjamin Marie Petit

who helped Indians document removals	• George Winter
Land cession treaties	• Fort Stanwix (1st) (1768) • Fort Stanwix (2nd) (1784) • Fort McIntosh (1785) • Buffalo Creek (1st) (1788) • New York (1st) (1790) • Greenville (1795) • New York (2nd) (1796) • Forbes Purchase (1804–1811) • Fort Jackson (1814) • Creek Agency (1818) • Doak's Stand (1820) • Indian Springs (1821) • Prairie du Chien (1st) (1825) • Prairie du Chien (2nd) (1829) • Prairie du Chien (3rd) (1829)

(chronologically)	• Dancing Rabbit Creek (1830) • Prairie du Chien (4th) (1831) • Cusseta (1832) • Payne's Landing (1832) • Pontotoc Creek (1832) • New Echota (1835) • Buffalo Creek (2nd) (1838) • La Pointe (1st) (1842) • Buffalo Creek (3rd) (1842) • La Pointe (2nd) (1854) • Buffalo Creek (4th) (1857)
Landbases	• Former reservations • in Oklahoma • Indian Territory • Indian barrier state (proposed) • Indian Reserve (1763) • Unassigned Lands

Related topics	• Aboriginal title
	  • in the Thirteen Colonies
	  • Land claims settlements
	• Native American genocide in the United States
	• Reservation checkerboarding
	• Reservation diminishment
	• Reservation politics
	• Treaty of Nicolls' Outpost

Authority control databases	• NARA

Categories:

Assimilation of Indigenous peoples of North America
Cherokee Nation
Cherokee Nation (1794–1907)
Chickasaw
Choctaw
Ethnic groups in Oklahoma

History of the Cherokee
Indigenous peoples of the Southeastern Woodlands
Muscogee culture
Native American history of Oklahoma
Seminole

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Constitution of the United States

Standard
Wide

Color

Automatic
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Dark

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Constitution of the United States

Page one of Jacob Shallus' officially engrossed copy of the Constitution signed in Philadelphia by delegates of the Constitutional Convention in 1787[1]

Overview

Jurisdiction	United States
Created	September 17, 1787
Presented	September 28, 1787
Ratified	June 21, 1788 (9 of 13 states)
Date effective	March 4, 1789 (237 years ago)[a][2]
System	Federal presidential republic

Government structure	
Branches	3
Chambers	Bicameral
Executive	President
Judiciary	Supreme, Circuits, Districts

Federalism	Yes
Electoral college	Yes
Entrenchments	2, 1 still active[b]

History	
First legislature	March 4, 1789 (11 of 13 states)
First executive	April 30, 1789
First court	February 2, 1790
Amendments	27[c]
Last amended	May 5, 1992
Citation	*The Constitution of the United States of America, As Amended* (PDF), July 25, 2007

Location	National Archives Building in Washington, D.C., U.S.
Commissioned by	Congress of the Confederation in Philadelphia, U.S.
Author	Philadelphia Convention
Signatories	39 of the 55 delegates
Media type	Parchment
Supersedes	Articles of Confederation

Full text

Constitution of the United States of America at Wikisource

This article is part of a series on the

Constitution of the United States

Preamble and Articles

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This article is part of a series on the

Politics of the

United States

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Legislature

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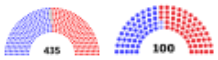

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Part of a series on the

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Reading of the United States Constitution of 1787

The **Constitution of the United States** is the supreme law of the United States of America.[3] It superseded the Articles of Confederation, the nation's first constitution, on March 4, 1789. Originally including seven articles, the Constitution defined the foundational structure of the federal government.[4]

The drafting of the Constitution by many of the nation's Founding Fathers, often referred to as its framing, was completed at the Constitutional Convention, which assembled at Independence Hall in Philadelphia between May 25 and September 17, 1787.[5] Influenced by English common law and the Enlightenment liberalism of philosophers like John Locke and Montesquieu, the Constitution's first three articles embody the doctrine of the separation of powers, in which the federal government is divided into the legislative, bicameral Congress;[d] the executive, led by the president;[e] and the judiciary, within which the Supreme Court has apex jurisdiction.[f] Articles IV, V, and VI embody concepts of federalism, describing the rights and responsibilities of state governments, the states in relationship to the federal government, and the process of constitutional amendment. Article VII establishes the procedure used to ratify the constitution.

Since the Constitution became operational in 1789, it has been amended 27 times.[6][7] The first ten amendments, known collectively as the Bill of Rights, offer specific protections of individual liberty and justice and place restrictions on the powers of government within the U.S. states.[8][9] Amendments 13–15 are known as the Reconstruction Amendments. The majority of the later amendments expand individual civil rights protections, with some addressing issues related to federal authority or modifying government processes and procedures. Amendments to the United States Constitution, unlike ones made to many constitutions worldwide, are appended to the document.

The Constitution of the United States is the oldest and longest-standing written and codified national constitution in force in the world.[10][g] The first permanent constitution,[h] it has been interpreted, supplemented, and implemented by a large body of federal constitutional law and has influenced the constitutions of other nations.

History

See also: History of the United States Constitution

For a chronological guide, see Timeline of drafting and ratification of the United States Constitution.

Background

Main article: Articles of Confederation

From September 5, 1774, to March 1, 1781, the Second Continental Congress, convened in Philadelphia in what is now Independence Hall, functioned as the provisional government of the United States. Delegates to the First Continental Congress in 1774 and then the Second Continental Congress from 1775 to 1781 were chosen largely from the revolutionary committees of correspondence in various colonies rather than through the colonial governments of the Thirteen Colonies.[13]

The Articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union was the first constitution of the United States.[14] The document was drafted by a committee appointed by the Second Continental Congress in mid-June 1777 and was adopted by the full Congress in mid-November of that year. Ratification by the 13 colonies took more than three years and was completed March 1, 1781. The Articles gave little power to the central government. While the Confederation Congress had some decision-making abilities, it

lacked enforcement powers. The implementation of most decisions, including amendments to the Articles, required legislative approval by all 13 of the newly formed states.[15][16]

Despite these limitations, based on the Congressional authority granted in Article 9, the league of states was considered as strong[*clarification needed*] as any similar republican confederation ever formed.[17] The chief problem was, in the words of George Washington, "no money".[18] The Confederated Congress could print money, but it was worthless,[*why?*] and while the Congress could borrow money, it could not pay it back.[18] No state paid its share of taxes to support the government, and some paid nothing. A few states met the interest payments toward the national debt owed by their citizens, but nothing greater, and no interest was paid on debts owed to foreign governments. By 1786, the United States was facing default on its outstanding debts.[18]

Under the Articles, the United States had little ability to defend its sovereignty. Most of the troops in the nation's 625-man army were deployed facing non-threatening British forts on American soil. Soldiers were not being paid, some were deserting, and others were threatening mutiny.[19] Spain closed New Orleans to American commerce, despite the protests of U.S. officials. When Barbary pirates began seizing American ships of commerce, the Treasury had no funds to pay toward ransom. If a military crisis required action, the Congress had no credit or taxing power to finance a response.[18]

Domestically, the Articles of Confederation was failing to bring unity to the diverse sentiments and interests of the various states. Although the Treaty of Paris in 1783 was signed between Britain and the U.S., and named each of the American states, various states proceeded to violate it. New York and South Carolina repeatedly prosecuted Loyalists for wartime activity and redistributed their lands.[18] Individual state legislatures

independently laid embargoes, negotiated directly with foreign authorities, raised armies, and made war, all violating the letter and the spirit of the Articles.[*citation needed*]

In September 1786, during the inter–state Annapolis convention to discuss and develop a consensus about reversing the protectionist trade barriers that each state had erected, James Madison questioned whether the Articles of Confederation was a binding compact or even a viable government. Connecticut paid nothing and "positively refused" to pay U.S. assessments for two years.[20] A rumor at the time was that a seditious party of New York legislators had opened a conversation with the Viceroy of Canada. To the south, the British were said to be openly funding Creek Indian raids on Georgia, and the state was under martial law.[21] Additionally, during Shays' Rebellion (August 1786 – June 1787) in Massachusetts, Congress could provide no money to support an endangered constituent state. General Benjamin Lincoln was obliged to raise funds from Boston merchants to pay for a volunteer army.[22]

Congress could do nothing significant without nine states, and some legislation required all 13. When a state produced only one member in attendance, its vote was not counted. If a state's delegation was evenly divided, its vote could not be counted towards the nine-count requirement.[23] The Congress of the Confederation had "virtually ceased trying to govern".[24] The vision of a respectable nation among nations seemed to be fading in the eyes of revolutionaries such as George Washington, Benjamin Franklin, and Rufus King. Their dream of a republic, a nation without hereditary rulers, with power derived from the people in frequent elections, was in doubt.[25][26]

On February 21, 1787, the Confederation Congress called a convention of state delegates in Philadelphia to propose revisions to the Articles.[27] Unlike earlier attempts,

the convention was not meant for new laws or piecemeal alterations, but for the "sole and express purpose of revising the Articles of Confederation". The convention was not limited to commerce but intended to "render the federal constitution adequate to the exigencies of government and the preservation of the Union".[28]

1787 drafting

Main articles: Constitutional Convention (United States) and James Madison as Father of the Constitution

Scene at the Signing of the Constitution of the United States on September 17, 1787, a 1940 portrait by Howard Chandler Christy depicting the signing of the Constitution in Philadelphia

On the appointed day, May 14, 1787, only the Virginia and Pennsylvania delegations were present, and the convention's opening meeting was postponed for lack of a quorum.[29] A quorum of seven states met on May 25, and deliberations began. Eventually 12 states were represented, with Rhode Island refusing to participate.[30] Of the 74 delegates appointed by the states, 55 attended.[30] The convention's initial mandate was limited to amending the Articles of Confederation, which had proven

highly ineffective in meeting the young nation's needs.[31] Almost immediately, however, the delegates began considering measures to replace the Articles of Confederation.[32]

Two plans for structuring the federal government arose shortly after the convention's outset:

- The first proposal discussed, introduced by delegates from Virginia, was known as the Virginia Plan, *Large State Plan*, or the *Randolph Plan*. It called for a bicameral Congress that was to be elected on a proportional basis based on state population, an elected chief executive, and an appointed judicial branch.[33] Generally favoring the most highly populated states, it used the philosophy of John Locke to rely on consent of the governed, Montesquieu for divided government, and Edward Coke to emphasize civil liberties.[33]
- The alternative to the Virginia Plan, known as the New Jersey Plan, also called for an elected executive but retained the legislative structure created by the Articles, a unicameral Congress where all states had one vote.[34] Generally favoring the less-populous states, it used the philosophy of English Whigs, such as Edmund Burke, to rely on received procedure and the jurist William Blackstone to emphasize sovereignty of the legislature. This position reflected the belief that the states were independent entities and, as they entered the United States of America freely and individually, remained so.[34]

On May 31, the Convention devolved into the Committee of the Whole, charged with considering the Virginia Plan. On June 13, the Virginia resolutions in amended form were reported out of committee. The New Jersey Plan was put forward in response to the Virginia Plan.[*citation needed*]

On June 19, 1787, delegates rejected the New Jersey Plan with three states voting in favor, seven against, and one divided. The plan's defeat led to a series of compromises centering primarily on two issues: slavery and proportional representation.[i][35][36]

Scope of judicial power

Proposals by Madison (Virginia) and Wilson (Pennsylvania) called for a supreme court veto over national legislation. This proposal resembled the system in New York, where the Constitution of 1777 called for a "Council of Revision" by the governor and justices of the state supreme court, which council would review and veto any passed legislation. Madison's proposal was defeated three times and replaced by a presidential veto with congressional override.[37]

The justification for judicial review is to be explicitly found in the open ratifications held in the states and reported in their newspapers. John Marshall in Virginia, James Wilson in Pennsylvania and Oliver Ellsworth of Connecticut all argued for Supreme Court judicial review of acts of state legislature. In Federalist No. 78, Alexander Hamilton advocated the doctrine of a written document held as a superior enactment of the people. "A limited constitution can be preserved in practice no other way" than through courts which can declare void any legislation contrary to the Constitution. The preservation of the people's authority over legislatures rests "particularly with judges."[38][j]

Connecticut and Three-Fifths Compromise

The issue of proportional representation was of concern to less populous states, which under the Articles had the same power as larger states.[40] From July 2 to 16,[41] a Committee of Eleven, including one delegate from each state represented, met to work out a compromise on the issue of representation in the federal legislature. All agreed to a republican form of government grounded in representing the people in the states. For the legislature, two issues were to be decided: (i) how the votes were to be allocated among the states in the Congress, and (ii) how the representatives should be elected. In its report, now known as the Connecticut Compromise (or "Great Compromise"), the committee proposed proportional representation for seats in the House of Representatives based on population (with the people voting for representatives), equal

representation for each state in the Senate (with each state's legislators generally choosing their respective senators), and that all money bills would originate in the House.[42]

The Great Compromise ended the stalemate between patriots and nationalists, leading to numerous other compromises in a spirit of accommodation.[*citation needed*] The issue of slavery pitted Northern states, where slavery was slowly being abolished, against Southern states, whose agricultural economies depended on slave labor.[43] To satisfy interests in the South, the delegates agreed to protect the slave trade for 20 years.[44] Slavery was protected further by the Three-Fifths Compromise, which allowed states to count three-fifths of their slaves as part of their populations, for the purpose of representation in the federal government, and by requiring the return of escaped slaves to their owners, even if captured in states where slavery had been abolished.[45] Further compromises were also made on presidential term, powers, and method of selection, as well as the jurisdiction of the federal judiciary.[*citation needed*]

While these compromises held the Union together and aided the Constitution's ratification, slavery continued for eight more decades, and less populous states continue to have disproportional representation in the U.S. Senate and Electoral College.[46][36]

Drafting and signature

On July 24, a Committee of Detail, including John Rutledge (South Carolina), Edmund Randolph (Virginia), Nathaniel Gorham (Massachusetts), Oliver Ellsworth (Connecticut), and James Wilson (Pennsylvania), was elected to draft a detailed constitution reflective of the resolutions passed by the convention up to that point.[47] The Convention

recessed from July 26 to August 6 to await the report of this "Committee of Detail". Overall, the report of the committee conformed to the resolutions adopted by the convention, adding some elements. A twenty-three article (plus preamble) constitution was presented.[48]

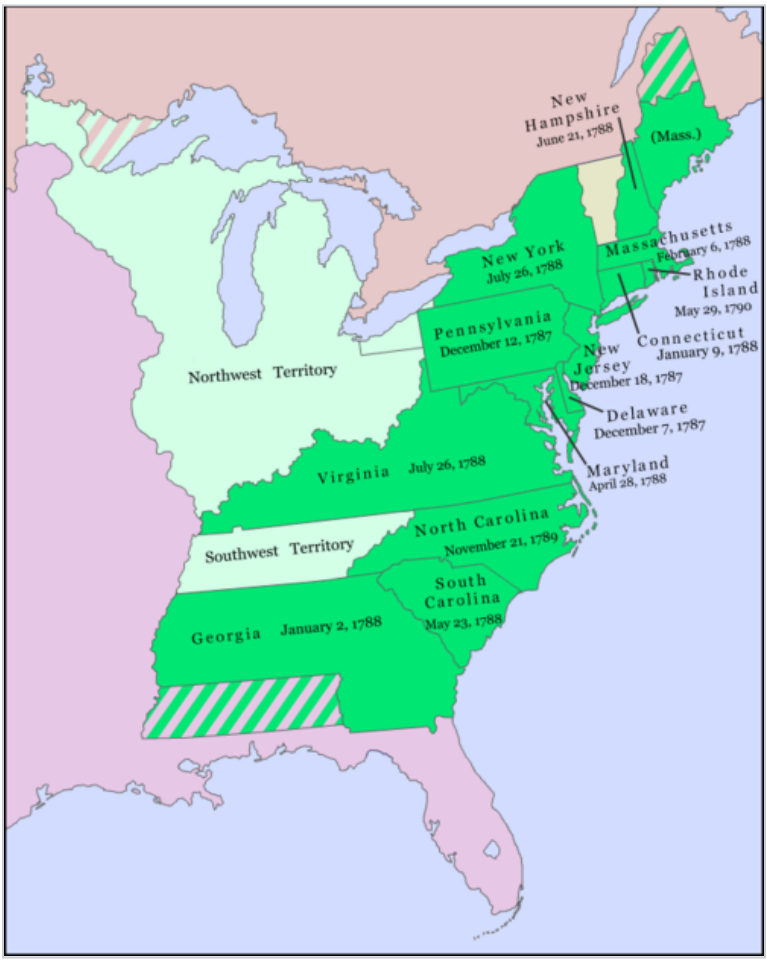
From August 6 to September 10, the report of the committee of detail was discussed, section by section and clause by clause. Details were attended to, and further compromises were effected.[41][47] Toward the close of these discussions, on September 8, a Committee of Style and Arrangement, including Alexander Hamilton from New York, William Samuel Johnson from Connecticut, Rufus King from Massachusetts, James Madison from Virginia, and Gouverneur Morris from Pennsylvania, was appointed to distill a final draft constitution from the 23 approved articles.[47] The final draft, presented to the convention on September 12, contained seven articles, a preamble and a closing endorsement, of which Morris was the primary author.[30] The committee also presented a proposed letter to accompany the constitution when delivered to Congress.[49]

The original U.S. Constitution[50] was handwritten on five pages of parchment by Jacob Shallus.[51] The final document was taken up on Monday, September 17, at the convention's final session. Several of the delegates were disappointed in the result, a makeshift series of unfortunate compromises. Some delegates left before the ceremony and three others refused to sign. Of the thirty-nine signers, Benjamin Franklin summed up, addressing the convention: "There are several parts of this Constitution which I do not at present approve, but I am not sure I shall never approve them." He would accept the Constitution, "because I expect no better and because I am not sure that it is not the best".[52]

The advocates of the Constitution were anxious to obtain unanimous support of all twelve states represented in the convention. Their accepted formula for the closing endorsement was "Done in Convention, by the unanimous consent of the States present". At the end of the convention, the proposal was agreed to by eleven state delegations and the lone remaining delegate from New York, Alexander Hamilton.[53]

Ratification by the states

Further information: History of the United States Constitution § Ratification of the Constitution



Dates the 13 original U.S. states ratified the Constitution

Within three days of its signing on September 17, 1787, the Constitution was submitted to the Congress of the Confederation, then sitting in New York City, the nation's temporary capital.[54][55][56] The document, originally intended as a revision of the Articles of Confederation, instead introduced a completely new form of government.[57][58][59] While members of Congress had the power to reject it, they voted unanimously on September 28 to forward the proposal to the thirteen states for their ratification.[60][61] Under the process outlined in Article VII of the proposed Constitution, the state legislatures were tasked with organizing "Federal Conventions" to ratify the document. This process ignored the amendment provision of the Articles of Confederation which required unanimous approval of all the states. Instead, Article VII called for ratification by just nine of the 13 states—a two-thirds majority.[62][15][63]

Two factions soon emerged, one supporting the Constitution, the Federalists, and the other opposing it, the so-called Anti-Federalists.[64][65] Over the ensuing months, the proposal was debated, criticized, and expounded upon clause by clause. In the state of New York, at the time a hotbed of anti-Federalism, three delegates from the Philadelphia Convention who were also members of the Congress—Hamilton, Madison, and Jay—published a series of commentaries, now known as *The Federalist Papers*, in support of ratification.[66][67]

Before year's end, three state legislatures voted in favor of ratification. Delaware was first, voting unanimously 30–0; Pennsylvania second, approving the measure 46–23;[68][69][70] and New Jersey third, also recording a unanimous vote.[71] As 1788 began, Connecticut and Georgia followed Delaware's lead with almost unanimous votes, but the outcome became less certain as leaders in key states such as Virginia, New York, and Massachusetts expressed concerns over the lack of protections for people's rights.[72][73][74][75] Fearing the prospect of defeat, the Federalists relented,

promising that if the Constitution was adopted, amendments would be added to secure individual liberties.[76] With that, the anti-Federalists' position collapsed.[77]

On June 21, 1788, New Hampshire became the ninth state to ratify. Three months later, on September 17, the Congress of the Confederation certified the ratification of eleven states, and passed resolutions setting dates for choosing the first senators and representatives, the first Wednesday of January (January 7, 1789); electing the first president, the first Wednesday of February (February 4); and officially starting the new government, the first Wednesday of March (March 4), when the first Congress would convene in New York City.[78] As its final act, the Congress of Confederation agreed to acquire 100 square miles of land from Maryland and Virginia for establishing a permanent capital.

North Carolina waited to ratify the Constitution until after the Bill of Rights was passed by the new Congress, and Rhode Island's ratification would only come after a threatened trade embargo.[79][80]

Aftermath

Federal judiciary

The Supreme Court was initially made up of jurists who had been intimately connected with the framing of the Constitution and the establishment of its government as law. John Jay (New York), a co-author of *The Federalist Papers*, served as chief justice for the first six years. The second chief justice, John Rutledge (South Carolina), was appointed by Washington in 1795 as a recess appointment, but was not confirmed by the Senate. Resigning later that year, he was succeeded in 1796 by the third chief justice, Oliver Ellsworth (Connecticut).[81] Both Rutledge and Ellsworth were delegates

to the Constitutional Convention. John Marshall (Virginia), the fourth chief justice, had served in the Virginia Ratification Convention in 1788. His 34 years of service on the Court would see some of the most important rulings to help establish the nation the Constitution had begun. Other early members of the Supreme Court who had been delegates to the Constitutional Convention included James Wilson (Pennsylvania) for ten years, and John Blair Jr. (Virginia) for five years.[*citation needed*]

Section 1, Article 3 provides that Congress can create lower (or "inferior") courts. The Judiciary Act of 1789 saw Congress's first exercise of such power. Currently, Title 28 of the U.S. Code describes judicial powers and administration.[82] As of the First Congress, the Supreme Court justices rode circuit to sit as panels to hear appeals from the district courts.[k] In 1891, Congress enacted a new system, where district courts would have original jurisdiction; intermediate appellate circuit courts with exclusive jurisdiction heard regional appeals before consideration by the Supreme Court; and the Supreme Court holds discretionary jurisdiction.[82]

No part of the Constitution expressly authorizes judicial review, but the framers did contemplate the idea, and precedent has since established that the courts could exercise judicial review over the actions of Congress or the executive branch. To establish a federal system of national law, considerable effort goes into developing a spirit of comity between federal government and states. By the doctrine of res judicata, federal courts give "full faith and credit" to State Courts.[l] The Supreme Court will decide Constitutional issues of state law only on a case-by-case basis, and only by strict Constitutional necessity, independent of state legislators' motives, their policy outcomes or its national wisdom.[m] Two conflicting federal laws are under "pendent" jurisdiction if one presents a strict constitutional issue. Federal court jurisdiction is rare when a state legislature enacts something as under federal jurisdiction.[n]

Amendments

Clauses 4 and 9 of Article One, Section 9 were explicitly shielded from Constitutional amendment prior to 1808. On January 1, 1808, the first day it was permitted to do so, Congress approved legislation prohibiting the importation of slaves into the country. On February 3, 1913, with ratification of the Sixteenth Amendment, Congress gained the authority to levy an income tax without apportioning it among the states or basing it on the United States Census.

Influences

John Locke, author of *Two Treatises of Government*

The U.S. Constitution was a federal one and was greatly influenced by the study of Magna Carta and other federations, both ancient and extant. The Due Process Clause of the Constitution was partly based on common law and on Magna Carta (1215), which had become a foundation of English liberty against arbitrary power wielded by a

ruler.[83][84] The idea of Separation of Powers inherent in the Constitution was largely inspired by eighteenth-century Enlightenment philosophers, such as Montesquieu and John Locke.[85]

The influence of Montesquieu, Locke, Edward Coke and William Blackstone were evident at the Constitutional Convention. Prior to and during the framing and signing of the Constitution, Blackstone, Hume, Locke and Montesquieu were among the political philosophers most frequently referred to.[86] James Madison, for example made frequent reference to Blackstone, Locke, and Montesquieu,[87] who were among the most prominent political theorists of the late eighteenth century.[88]

While the ideas of unalienable rights, the separation of powers and the structure of the Constitution were largely influenced by the European Enlightenment thinkers, like Montesquieu, John Locke and others,[86][89][90] Benjamin Franklin and Thomas Jefferson still had reservations about the existing forms of government in Europe.[91] In a speech at the Constitutional Convention Franklin stated, "We have gone back to ancient history for models of Government, and examined different forms of those Republics ... And we have viewed modern States all round Europe but find none of their Constitutions suitable to our circumstances."[92] Jefferson maintained, that most European governments were autocratic monarchies and not compatible with the egalitarian character of the American people.

English law

Historian Jack P. Greene maintains that by 1776 the founders drew heavily upon Magna Carta and the later writings of "Enlightenment rationalism" and English common law.

In his *Institutes of the Lawes of England*, Coke interpreted Magna Carta protections and rights to apply not just to nobles, but to all British subjects. In writing the Virginia Charter of 1606, he enabled the King in Parliament to give those to be born in the colonies all rights and liberties as though they were born in England. William Blackstone's *Commentaries on the Laws of England* are considered the most influential books on law in the new republic.[86][93]

The English Bill of Rights (1689) was an inspiration for the American Bill of Rights. Both require jury trials, contain a right to keep and bear arms, prohibit excessive bail and forbid "cruel and unusual punishments".[94] Many liberties protected by state constitutions and the Virginia Declaration of Rights were incorporated into the Bill of Rights.[95] Upon the arrival of the American Revolution, many of the rights guaranteed by the Federal Bill of Rights were recognized as being inspired by English law.[94] A substantial body of thought had been developed from the literature of republicanism in the United States, typically demonstrated by the works of John Adams, who often quoted Blackstone and Montesquieu verbatim, and applied to the creation of state constitutions.[96]

Enlightenment philosophy

Historian Herbert W. Schneider held that the Scottish Enlightenment was "probably the most potent single tradition in the American Enlightenment" and the advancement of personal liberties.[97] Historian Daniel Walker Howe notes that Benjamin Franklin greatly admired David Hume, an eighteenth-century Scottish philosopher, and had studied many of his works while at Edinburgh in 1760. Both embraced the idea that high-ranking public officials should receive no salary[98] and that the lower class was a better judge of character when it came to choosing their representatives.[99]

Following the Glorious Revolution of 1688, British political philosopher John Locke was a major influence,[100] expanding on the contract theory of government advanced by Thomas Hobbes, his contemporary.[101] Locke advanced the principle of consent of the governed in his *Two Treatises of Government*. Government's duty under a social contract among the sovereign people was to serve the people by protecting their rights. These basic rights were life, liberty, and property.[102]

Montesquieu's influence on the framers is evident in Madison's *Federalist No. 47* and Hamilton's *Federalist No. 78*. Thomas Jefferson, Adams, and Mason were known to read Montesquieu.[103] Montesquieu emphasized the need for balanced forces pushing against each other to prevent tyranny (reflecting the influence of Polybius's 2nd century BC treatise on the checks and balances of the Roman Republic). In his *The Spirit of Law*, Montesquieu maintained that the separation of state powers should be by its service to the people's liberty: legislative, executive and judicial,[104][105] while also emphasizing that the idea of separation had for its purpose the even distribution of authority among the several branches of government.[106]

Supreme Court Justices, the ultimate interpreters of the constitution, have also cited Montesquieu throughout the Court's history.[107] (See, *e.g.*, *Green v. Biddle*, 21 U.S. 1, 1, 36 (1823). *United States v. Wood*, 39 U.S. 430, 438 (1840). *Myers v. United States*, 272 U.S. 52, 116 (1926). *Nixon v. Administrator of General Services*, 433 U.S. 425, 442 (1977). *Bank Markazi v. Peterson*, 136 U.S. 1310, 1330 (2016).)

Iroquois

American Indian history scholars Donald Grinde and Bruce Johansen claim there is "overwhelming evidence" that Iroquois Confederacy political concepts and ideas

influenced the U.S. Constitution,[108] and are considered to be the most outspoken supporters of the Iroquois thesis.[109] The idea as to the extent of that influence on the founding, however, varies among historians and has been questioned or criticized by various historians, including Samuel Payne,[110] William Starna, George Hamell,[111] and historian and archaeologist Philip Levy, who claims the evidence is largely coincidental and circumstantial.[112] The most outspoken critic, anthropologist Elisabeth Tooker, claimed the Iroquois influence thesis is largely the product of "white interpretations of Indians" and "scholarly misapprehension".[113][114]

John Napoleon Brinton Hewitt, who was born on the Tuscarora Indian Reservation, and was an ethnologist at the Smithsonian Institution's Bureau of Ethnology is often cited by historians of Iroquois history. Hewitt, however, rejected the idea that the Iroquois League had a major influence on the Albany Plan of Union, Benjamin Franklin's plan to create a unified government for the Thirteen Colonies, which was rejected.[113]

Structure

The Constitution includes four sections: an introductory paragraph titled Preamble, a list of seven Articles that define the government's framework, an untitled closing endorsement with the signatures of 39 framers. 27 amendments have also been adopted under Article V.

Preamble

Main article: Preamble to the United States Constitution

"We the People" in its original edition

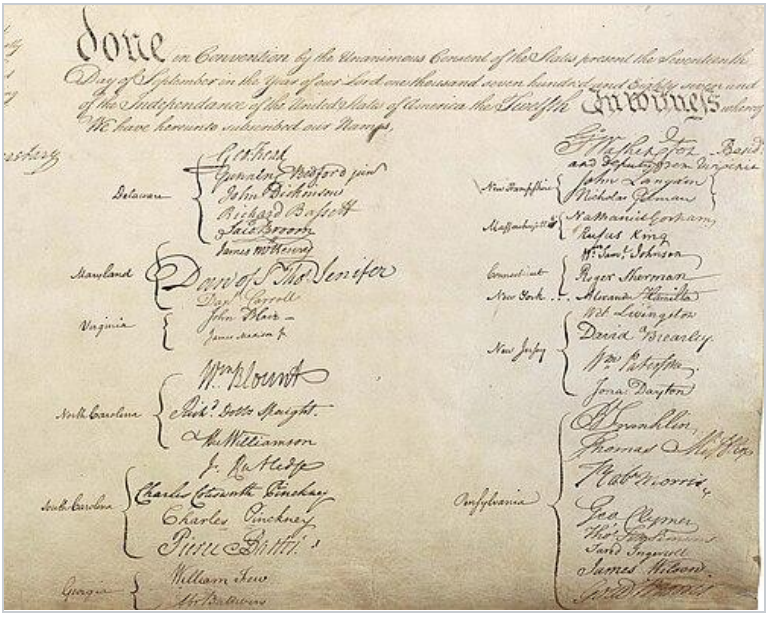
Reading of the 1787 United States Constitution

The Preamble, the Constitution's introductory paragraph, lays out the purposes of the new government:[115]

We the People of the United States, in Order to form a more perfect Union, establish Justice, insure domestic Tranquility, provide for the common defence, promote the general Welfare, and secure the Blessings of Liberty to ourselves and our Posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

The opening words, "We the People", represented a new thought: the idea that the people and not the states were the source of the government's legitimacy.[116][117][118][119][120][121] Coined by Gouverneur Morris of Pennsylvania, who chaired the convention's Committee of Style, the phrase is considered an improvement on the section's original draft which followed the words *We the People* with a list of the 13 states.[122][115] In place of the names of the states Morris substituted "of the United States" and then listed the Constitution's six goals, none of which were mentioned originally.[123][124]

Closing endorsement



The signatures in the closing endorsement section of the United States Constitution

The signing of the United States Constitution occurred on September 17, 1787, when 39 delegates endorsed the constitution created during the convention. In addition to signatures, this closing endorsement, the Constitution's eschatocol, included a brief declaration that the delegates' work has been successfully completed and that those whose signatures appear on it subscribe to the final document. Included are a statement pronouncing the document's adoption by the states present, a formulaic dating of its adoption, and the delegates' signatures. Additionally, the convention's secretary, William Jackson, added a note to verify four amendments made by hand to the final document, and signed the note to authenticate its validity.[125]

The language of the concluding endorsement, conceived by Gouverneur Morris and presented to the convention by Benjamin Franklin, was made intentionally ambiguous in hopes of winning over the votes of dissenting delegates. Advocates for the new frame of

government, realizing the impending difficulty of obtaining the consent of the states needed to make it operational, were anxious to obtain the unanimous support of the delegations from each state. It was feared that many of the delegates would refuse to give their individual assent to the Constitution. Therefore, in order that the action of the convention would appear to be unanimous, the formula, *Done in convention by the unanimous consent of the states present ...* was devised.[126][*better source needed*]

Articles

Main article: List of clauses of the United States Constitution

The Constitution's main provisions include seven articles that define the basic framework of the federal government. Articles that have been amended still include the original text, although provisions repealed by amendments under Article V are usually bracketed or italicized to indicate they no longer apply.[*citation needed*]

Article I – The Legislature

Main article: Article One of the United States Constitution

Article I describes the Congress, the legislative branch of the federal government: Congress comprises both the Senate and House of Representatives;[o] members of both houses are subject to age, citizenship, and state residency requirements;[p] and are elected by the people of a state.[q]

Section 3, Clause 1 provides for equal representation of the states in the Senate. Section 8 enumerates the powers delegated to the legislature and includes broad

provisions such as the General Welfare Clause (also known as the Taxing and Spending Clause), Commerce Clause, and Necessary and Proper Clause.

Section 9 lists eight specific limits on congressional power. In *McCulloch v. Maryland* (1819), the Supreme Court read the Necessary and Proper Clause to permit the federal government to take action that would "enable [it] to perform the high duties assigned to it [by the Constitution] in the manner most beneficial to the people,"[127] even if that action is not itself within the enumerated powers.[127] Section 9, Clause 1 prevents Congress from passing any law that would restrict the importation of slaves into the United States prior to 1808. Clause 4 holds that direct taxes must be apportioned according to state populations.

Article II – The Executive

Main article: Article Two of the United States Constitution

Article II describes the office, qualifications, and duties of the president of the United States and the vice president. The Article is modified by the 12th Amendment, which regulates presidential elections, and the 25th Amendment, relating to office succession.

The president is head of the executive branch of the federal government; the nation's head of state and head of government; and the Commander in Chief of the United States Armed Forces, as well as of state militias when they are mobilized. The president makes treaties with the advice and consent of the Senate. To administer the federal government, the president commissions all the offices of the federal government as Congress directs; and may require the opinions of its principal officers and make "recess appointments" for vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate. The president ensures the laws are faithfully executed and may grant reprieves and pardons with the exception of Congressional impeachment. The president reports to

Congress on the State of the Union, and by the Recommendation Clause, recommends "necessary and expedient" national measures. The president may convene and adjourn Congress under special circumstances.

Section 4 provides for the removal of the president and other federal officers. The president is removed on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

Article III – The Judiciary

Main article: Article Three of the United States Constitution

Article III describes the court system, including the Supreme Court. Section 1 vests the judicial power of the United States in federal courts and, with it, the authority to interpret and apply the law to particular cases. Also included is the power to punish, sentence, and direct future action to resolve conflicts. Implied powers under Article III include the enforcement of judicial decisions through criminal contempt and civil contempt powers; injunctive relief and the habeas corpus remedy; and the ability to imprison for contumacy, bad-faith litigation, and failure to obey a writ of mandamus.[82]

Clause 1 of Section 2, known as the Case or Controversy Clause, authorizes the federal courts to hear actual cases and controversies only. Their judicial power does not extend to cases that are hypothetical, or which are proscribed due to standing, mootness, or ripeness issues. Generally, a case or controversy requires the presence of adverse parties who have some interest genuinely at stake in the case.[r] Section 2 also protects the right to trial by jury in all criminal cases. Section 3 bars Congress from changing or modifying Federal law on treason by simple majority. This section also defines treason as an overt act of making war or materially helping those at war with the United States.[s]

Article IV – The States

Main article: Article Four of the United States Constitution

Article IV outlines the relations among the states and between each state and the federal government. It also provides for such matters as admitting new states, border changes between the states, and extradition between the states, as well as laying down a legal basis for freedom of movement and travel among the states.

The Full Faith and Credit Clause requires states to recognise the public acts, records, and court proceedings of the other states. Congress is permitted to regulate the manner in which proof of such acts may be admitted. The "privileges and immunities" clause prohibits state governments from discriminating against citizens of other states in favor of resident citizens. For instance, in criminal sentencing, a state may not increase a penalty on the grounds that the convicted person is a non-resident. The Territorial Clause gives Congress the power to make rules for disposing of federal property and governing non-state territories of the United States. Finally, the fourth section of Article Four requires the United States to guarantee to each state a republican form of government and to protect them from invasion and violence.

Article V – Amendment Process

Main article: Article Five of the United States Constitution

Article V outlines the process for amending the Constitution. The Articles of Confederation provided that amendments were to be proposed by Congress and ratified by the unanimous vote of all 13 state legislatures. This proved to be a major flaw in the Articles, as it created an insurmountable obstacle to constitutional reform. The amendment process crafted during the Philadelphia Constitutional Convention was, according to The Federalist No. 43, designed to establish a balance between pliancy

and rigidity.[128][*better source needed*] Article Five ends by shielding certain clauses in the Constitution from being amended.

Article VI – Federal Powers

Main article: Article Six of the United States Constitution

Article VI establishes that the Constitution and all federal laws and treaties made in accordance with it have supremacy over state laws, and that "the judges in every state shall be bound thereby, any thing in the laws or constitutions of any state notwithstanding". It validates national debt created under the Articles of Confederation and requires that all federal and state legislators, officers, and judges take oaths or affirmations to support the Constitution. This means that the states' constitutions and laws should not conflict with the laws of the federal constitution and that in case of a conflict, state judges are legally bound to honor the federal laws and constitution over those of any state. Article Six also states "no religious Test shall ever be required as a Qualification to any Office or public Trust under the United States".

Article VII – Ratification

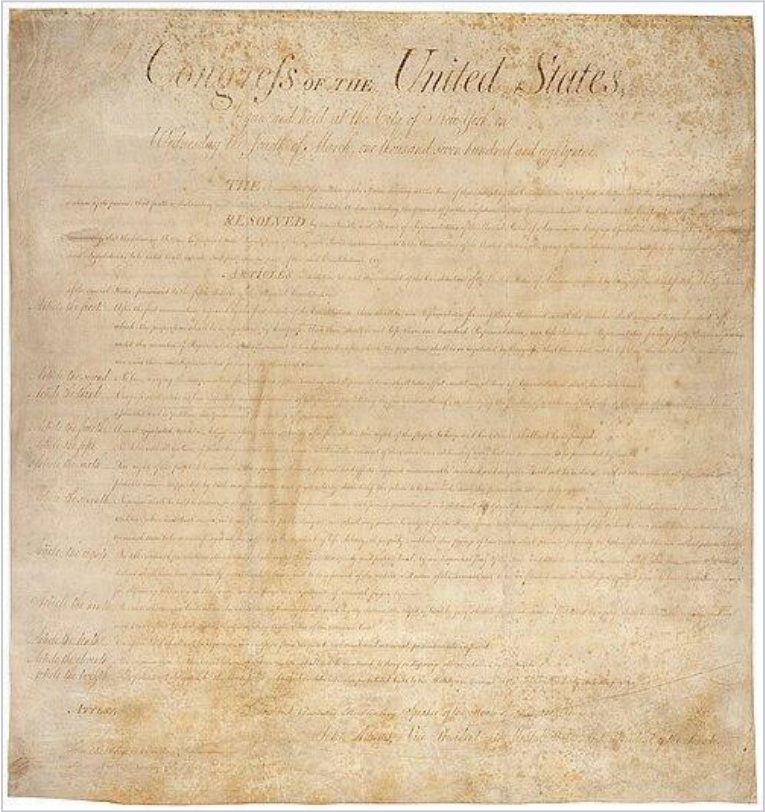
Main article: Article Seven of the United States Constitution

Article VII describes the process for establishing the proposed new frame of government. Anticipating that the influence of many state politicians would be Antifederalist, delegates to the Philadelphia Convention provided for ratification of the Constitution by popularly elected ratifying conventions in each state. The convention method also made it possible that judges, ministers and others ineligible to serve in state legislatures, could be elected to a convention. Suspecting that Rhode Island, at least, might not ratify, delegates decided that the Constitution would go into effect as

soon as nine states (two-thirds rounded up) ratified.[129] Each of the remaining four states could then join the newly formed union by ratifying.[130]

Amendments

See also: List of amendments to the United States Constitution



The United States Bill of Rights, currently housed in the National Archives in Washington, D.C.

The procedure for amending the Constitution is outlined in Article V and is currently overseen by the archivist of the United States. Between 1949 and 1985, it was overseen by the administrator of General Services, and before that by the secretary of state.[131]

Under Article V, a proposal for an amendment must be adopted either by two-thirds of both houses of Congress or by a national convention that had been requested by two-thirds of the state legislatures.[131] Following this, Congress decides whether the proposed amendment is to be ratified by state legislatures or state ratifying conventions. The proposed amendment along with the method of ratification is sent to the Office of the Federal Register, which copies it in slip law format and submits it to the states.[131] To date, the convention method of proposal has never been tried and the convention method of ratification has only been used once, for the Twenty-first Amendment.[132]

A proposed amendment becomes an operative part of the Constitution as soon as it is ratified by three-fourths of the States (currently 38 of the 50 states). No additional action by Congress or anyone else after ratification is required.[133] When the Office of the Federal Register verifies that it has received the required number of authenticated ratification documents, it drafts a formal proclamation for the Archivist to certify that the amendment is valid. This certification is published in the *Federal Register* and *United States Statutes at Large* and serves as official notice to Congress and the nation that the ratification process has been completed.[131]

The Constitution has twenty-seven amendments. Structurally, the Constitution's original text and all prior amendments remain untouched. The precedent for this practice was set in 1789, when Congress considered and proposed the first several Constitutional amendments. Among these, Amendments 1–10 are collectively known as the Bill of Rights, and Amendments 13–15 are known as the Reconstruction Amendments. Excluding the Twenty-seventh Amendment, which was pending before the states for 202 years, 225 days, the longest pending amendment that was successfully ratified was the Twenty-second Amendment, which took 3 years, 343 days. The Twenty-sixth Amendment was ratified in the shortest time, 100 days. The average ratification time for

the first twenty-six amendments was 1 year, 252 days; for all twenty-seven, 9 years, 48 days.

The first ten Amendments introduced were referred to as the Bill of Rights which consists of 10 amendments that were added to the Constitution in 1791, as supporters of the Constitution had promised critics during the debates of 1788.[134]

Bill of Rights (1791)

First Amendment

The First Amendment prohibits Congress from obstructing the exercise of certain individual freedoms: freedom of religion, freedom of speech, freedom of the press, freedom of assembly, and right to petition. Its Free Exercise Clause guarantees a person's right to hold whatever religious beliefs they want, and to freely exercise that belief; its Establishment Clause prevents the federal government from creating an official national church or favoring one set of religious beliefs over another.[135]

Second Amendment

The Second Amendment protects the right of individuals[136][137] to keep and bear arms.[138][139][140][141] The Supreme Court has ruled that this right applies to individuals, not merely to collective militias. It has also held that the government may regulate or place some limits on the manufacture, ownership and sale of firearms or other weapons.[142][143]

Requested by several states during the constitutional ratification debates, the amendment followed the efforts of the British to confiscate the colonists' firearms at the outbreak of the Revolutionary War. Patrick Henry had rhetorically asked, if the States

would be stronger "when we are totally disarmed, and when a British Guard shall be stationed in every house?"[144]

Third Amendment

The Third Amendment prohibits the federal government from forcing individuals to provide lodging to soldiers in their homes during peacetime without their consent. Requested by several states during the Constitutional ratification debates, the amendment reflected the lingering resentment over the Quartering Acts passed by the British Parliament during the Revolutionary War, which had allowed British soldiers to take over private homes for their own use.[145]

Fourth Amendment

The Fourth Amendment protects people against unreasonable searches and seizures of either self or property by government officials. A search can mean everything from a frisking by a police officer or to a demand for a blood test to a search of an individual's home or car. A seizure occurs when the government takes control of an individual or something in the possession of the individual. Items that are seized often are used as evidence when the individual is charged with a crime. It also imposes certain limitations on police investigating a crime and prevents the use of illegally obtained evidence at trial.[146]

Fifth Amendment

The Fifth Amendment establishes the requirement that a trial for a major crime may commence only after an indictment has been handed down by a grand jury; protects individuals from double jeopardy; prohibits punishment without due process of law; and provides that an accused person may not be compelled to reveal to the police,

prosecutor, judge, or jury any information that might incriminate or be used against him or her in a court of law. Additionally, the Fifth Amendment also prohibits government from taking private property for public use without "just compensation", the basis of eminent domain in the United States.[147]

Sixth Amendment

The Sixth Amendment provides several protections and rights to an individual accused of a crime. The accused has the right to a fair, speedy, and public trial by a local and impartial jury. This right also protects defendants from secret proceedings that might encourage abuse of the justice system, enshrines a right to legal counsel if accused of a crime, guarantees that the accused may require witnesses to attend the trial and testify in the presence of the accused, and guarantees the accused a right to know the charges against them. In 1966, the Supreme Court ruled that, with the Fifth Amendment, this amendment requires what has become known as the *Miranda* warning.[148]

Seventh Amendment

The Seventh Amendment extends the right to a jury trial to federal civil cases, and inhibits courts from overturning a jury's findings of fact. Although the Seventh Amendment itself says that it is limited to "suits at common law", meaning cases that triggered the right to a jury under English law, the amendment has been found to apply in lawsuits that are similar to the old common law cases. For example, the right to a jury trial applies to cases brought under federal statutes that prohibit race or gender discrimination in housing or employment. This amendment guarantees the right to a jury trial only in federal court, not in state court.[149]

Eighth Amendment

The Eighth Amendment protects people from having bail or fines set at an amount so high that it would be impossible for all but the richest defendants to pay, and also protects people from being subjected to cruel and unusual punishment. Although this phrase originally was intended to outlaw certain gruesome methods of punishment, it has been broadened over the years to protect against punishments that are grossly disproportionate to or too harsh for the particular crime. This provision has also been used to challenge prison conditions such as extremely unsanitary cells, overcrowding, insufficient medical care and deliberate failure by officials to protect inmates from one another.[150]

Ninth Amendment

The Ninth Amendment declares that individuals have other fundamental rights, in addition to those stated in the Constitution. During the Constitutional ratification debates, Anti-Federalists argued that a Bill of Rights should be added. The Federalists opposed it on grounds that a list would necessarily be incomplete but would be taken as explicit and exhaustive, thus enlarging the power of the federal government by implication. The Anti-Federalists persisted, and several state ratification conventions refused to ratify the Constitution without a more specific list of protections, so the First Congress added what became the Ninth Amendment as a compromise. Because the rights protected by the Ninth Amendment are not specified, they are referred to as "unenumerated". The Supreme Court has found that unenumerated rights include such important rights as the right to travel, the right to vote, the right to privacy, and the right to make important decisions about one's health care or body.[151]

Tenth Amendment

The Tenth Amendment (1791) was included in the Bill of Rights to further define the balance of power between the federal government and the states. The amendment

states that the federal government has only those powers specifically granted by the Constitution. These powers include the power to declare war, to collect taxes, to regulate interstate business activities and others that are listed in the articles or in subsequent constitutional amendments. Any power not listed is, says the Tenth Amendment, left to the states or the people. While there is no specific list of what these "reserved powers" may be, the Supreme Court has ruled that laws affecting family relations, commerce within a state's own borders, abortion, and local law enforcement activities, are among those specifically reserved to the states or the people.[152][153]

Remaining amendments (1795–present)

Eleventh Amendment (1795)

The Eleventh Amendment specifically prohibits federal courts from hearing cases in which a state is sued by an individual from another state or another country, thus extending to the states sovereign immunity protection from certain types of legal liability. Article Three, Section 2, Clause 1 has been affected by this amendment, which also overturned the Supreme Court's decision in *Chisholm v. Georgia* (1793).[154][155]

Twelfth Amendment (1804)

The Twelfth Amendment modifies the way the Electoral College chooses the president and vice president. It stipulates that each elector must cast a distinct vote for president and vice president, instead of two votes for president. It also suggests that the president and vice president should not be from the same state. Article II, Section 1, Clause 3 is superseded by this amendment, which also extends the eligibility requirements to become president to the vice president.[156]

Reconstruction Amendments (1865–1870)

The Thirteenth Amendment (1865) abolished slavery and involuntary servitude, except as punishment for a crime, and authorized Congress to enforce abolition. Though millions of slaves had been declared free by the 1863 Emancipation Proclamation, their post-Civil War status was unclear, as was the status of other millions.[157] Congress intended the Thirteenth Amendment to be a proclamation of freedom for all slaves throughout the nation and to take the question of emancipation away from politics. This amendment rendered inoperative or moot several of the original parts of the constitution.[158]

The Fourteenth Amendment (1868) granted United States citizenship to former slaves and to all persons "subject to U.S. jurisdiction". It also contained three new limits on state power: a state shall not violate a citizen's privileges or immunities; shall not deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law; and must guarantee all persons equal protection of the laws. These limitations dramatically expanded the protections of the Constitution. This amendment, according to the Supreme Court's Doctrine of Incorporation, makes most provisions of the Bill of Rights applicable to state and local governments as well. It superseded the mode of apportionment of representatives delineated in Article 1, Section 2, Clause 3, and also overturned the Supreme Court's decision in *Dred Scott v. Sandford* (1857).[159]

The Fifteenth Amendment (1870) prohibits the use of race, color, or previous condition of servitude in determining which citizens may vote. The last of three post Civil War Reconstruction Amendments, it sought to abolish one of the key vestiges of slavery and to advance the civil rights and liberties of former slaves.[160]

Sixteenth Amendment (1913)

The Sixteenth Amendment removed existing Constitutional constraints that limited the power of Congress to lay and collect taxes on income. Specifically, the apportionment constraints delineated in Article 1, Section 9, Clause 4 have been removed by this amendment, which also overturned an 1895 Supreme Court decision, in *Pollock v. Farmers' Loan & Trust Co.*, that declared an unapportioned federal income tax on rents, dividends, and interest unconstitutional. This amendment has become the basis for all subsequent federal income tax legislation and has greatly expanded the scope of federal taxing and spending in the years since.[161]

Seventeenth Amendment (1913)

The Seventeenth Amendment modifies the way senators are elected. It stipulates that senators are to be elected by direct popular vote. The amendment supersedes Article 1, Section 3, Clauses 1 and 2, under which the two senators from each state were elected by the state legislature. It also allows state legislatures to permit their governors to make temporary appointments until a special election can be held.[162]

Prohibition Amendments (1919–1933)

The Eighteenth Amendment (1919) prohibited the making, transporting, and selling of alcoholic beverages nationwide. It also authorized Congress to enact legislation enforcing this prohibition. Adopted at the urging of a national temperance movement, proponents believed that the use of alcohol was reckless and destructive and that prohibition would reduce crime and corruption, solve social problems, decrease the need for welfare and prisons, and improve the health of all Americans. During prohibition, it is estimated that alcohol consumption and alcohol related deaths declined dramatically. But prohibition had other, more negative consequences. The amendment drove the lucrative alcohol business underground, giving rise to a large and pervasive black market. In addition, prohibition encouraged disrespect for the law and

strengthened organized crime. Prohibition came to an end in 1933, when this amendment was repealed.[163]

The Twenty-first Amendment (1933) repealed the Eighteenth Amendment and returned the regulation of alcohol to the states. Each state sets its own rules for the sale and importation of alcohol, including the drinking age. Because a federal law provides federal funds to states that prohibit the sale of alcohol to minors under the age of twenty-one, all fifty states have set their drinking age there. Rules about how alcohol is sold vary greatly from state to state.[164]

Nineteenth Amendment (1920)

The Nineteenth Amendment prohibits the government from denying women the right to vote on the same terms as men. Prior to the amendment's adoption, only a few states permitted women to vote and to hold office.[165]

Twentieth Amendment (1933)

The Twentieth Amendment changes the date on which a new president, vice president and Congress take office, thus shortening the time between Election Day and the beginning of presidential, vice presidential and congressional terms.[166] Originally, the Constitution provided that the annual meeting was to be on the first Monday in December unless otherwise provided by law. This meant that, when a new Congress was elected in November, it did not come into office until the following March, with a "lame duck" Congress convening in the interim. By moving the beginning of the president's new term from March 4 to January 20 (and in the case of Congress, to January 3), proponents hoped to put an end to lame duck sessions, while allowing for a speedier transition for the new administration and legislators.[167]

Twenty-second Amendment (1951)

The Twenty-second Amendment limits an elected president to two terms in office, a total of eight years. However, under some circumstances it is possible for an individual to serve more than eight years. Although nothing in the original frame of government limited how many presidential terms one could serve, the nation's first president, George Washington, declined to run for a third term, suggesting that two terms of four years were enough for any president. This precedent remained an unwritten rule of the presidency until broken by Franklin D. Roosevelt, who was elected to a third term as president 1940 and in 1944 to a fourth.[168]

Twenty-third Amendment (1961)

The Twenty-third Amendment extends the right to vote in presidential elections to citizens residing in the District of Columbia by granting the District electors in the Electoral College, as if it were a state. When first established as the nation's capital in 1800, the District of Columbia's five thousand residents had neither a local government, nor the right to vote in federal elections. By 1960 the population of the District had grown to over 760,000.[169]

Twenty-fourth Amendment (1964)

The Twenty-fourth Amendment prohibits a poll tax for voting. Although passage of the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments helped remove many of the discriminatory laws left over from slavery, they did not eliminate all forms of discrimination. Along with literacy tests and durational residency requirements, poll taxes were used to keep low-income (primarily African American) citizens from participating in elections. The Supreme Court has since struck down these discriminatory measures.[170]

Twenty-fifth Amendment (1967)

The Twenty-fifth Amendment clarifies what happens upon the death, removal, or resignation of the president or vice president and how the presidency is temporarily filled if the president becomes disabled and cannot fulfill the responsibilities of the office. It supersedes the ambiguous succession rule established in Article II, Section 1, Clause 6. A concrete plan of succession has been needed on multiple occasions since 1789. However, for nearly 20% of U.S. history, there has been no vice president in office who could assume the presidency.[171]

Twenty-sixth Amendment (1971)

The Twenty-sixth Amendment prohibits the government from denying the right of United States citizens, eighteen years of age or older, to vote on account of age. The drive to lower the voting age was driven in large part by the broader student activism movement protesting the Vietnam War. It gained strength following the Supreme Court's decision in *Oregon v. Mitchell* (1970).[172]

Twenty-seventh Amendment (1992)

The Twenty-seventh Amendment (1992) prevents members of Congress from granting themselves pay raises during the current session. Rather, any raises that are adopted must take effect during the next session of Congress. Its proponents believed that Federal legislators would be more likely to be cautious about increasing congressional pay if they have no personal stake in the vote. Article One, Section 6, Clause 1 has been affected by this amendment, which remained pending for over two centuries as it contained no time limit for ratification.[173]

Unratified amendments

Main article: List of amendments to the Constitution of the United States

Collectively, members of the House and Senate propose around 150 amendments during each two-year term of Congress.[174] Most however, never get out of the Congressional committees in which they are proposed, and only a fraction of those approved in committee receive sufficient support to win Congressional approval and actually enter the constitutional ratification process.[*citation needed*]

Six amendments approved by Congress and proposed to the states for consideration have not been ratified by the required number of states to become part of the Constitution. Four of these are technically still pending, as Congress did not set a time limit for their ratification.[175] The other two are no longer pending, as both had a time limit attached and in both cases the time period set for their ratification expired.[*citation needed*]

Pending

- The Congressional Apportionment Amendment (proposed 1789) would, if ratified, establish a formula for determining the appropriate size of the House of Representatives and the appropriate apportionment of representatives among the states following each constitutionally mandated decennial census.
- The Titles of Nobility Amendment (proposed 1810) would, if ratified, strip United States citizenship from any citizen who accepted a title of nobility from a foreign country.
- The Corwin Amendment (proposed 1861) would, if ratified, shield "domestic institutions" of the states (which in 1861 included slavery) from the constitutional amendment process and from abolition or interference by Congress.
- The Child Labor Amendment (proposed 1924) would, if ratified, specifically authorize Congress to limit, regulate and prohibit labor of persons less than eighteen years of age. The amendment was proposed in response to Supreme Court rulings in *Hammer v. Dagenhart* (1918) and *Bailey v. Drexel Furniture Co.* (1922) that found federal laws regulating and taxing goods

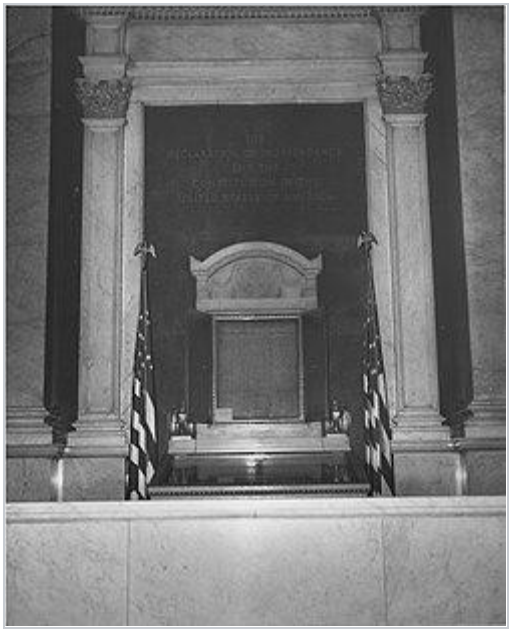
produced by employees under the ages of 14 and 16 unconstitutional. A federal statute approved June 25, 1938, regulated the employment of those under 16 or 18 years of age in interstate commerce. The Supreme Court, by unanimous vote in *United States v. Darby Lumber Co.* (1941), found this law constitutional, effectively overturning *Hammer v. Dagenhart*. As a result, the movement pushing for the amendment concluded.[176]

Expired

- The Equal Rights Amendment (proposed 1972) would have prohibited deprivation of equality of rights (discrimination) by the federal or state governments on account of sex. A seven-year ratification time limit was initially placed on the amendment, but as the deadline approached, Congress granted a three-year extension. Thirty-five states ratified the proposed amendment prior to the original deadline, three short of the number required for it to be implemented (five of them later voted to rescind their ratification).
- The District of Columbia Voting Rights Amendment (proposed 1978) would have granted the District of Columbia full representation in the United States Congress as if it were a state, repealed the Twenty-third Amendment, granted the District unconditional Electoral College voting rights, and allowed its participation in the process by which the Constitution is amended. A seven-year ratification time limit was placed on the amendment. Sixteen states ratified the amendment (twenty-two short of the number required for it to be implemented) prior to the deadline, thus it failed to be adopted.

Judicial review

See also: Judicial review in the United States, Judicial review, and Appeal § Appellate review

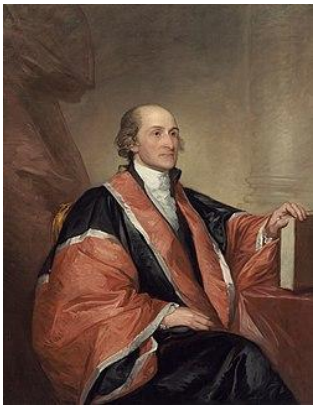


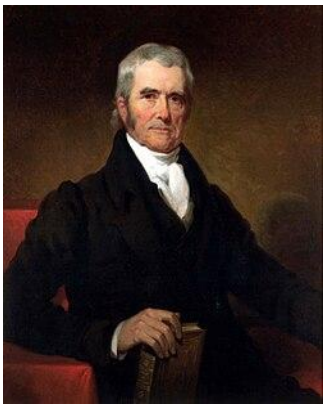
The Declaration of Independence and The Constitution on Display in the Library of Congress Prior to the Removal to the National Archives 13 December 1952

The National Archives' Rotunda for the Charters of Freedom in Washington, D.C. where, in-between two Barry Faulkner murals, the original Bill of Rights, Constitution, Declaration of Independence, and other American founding documents are publicly exhibited.

Scope and theory

- **Early Court roots in the founding**

- 

  John Jay, 1789–1795, New York co-author *The Federalist Papers*
- 

  John Marshall, 1801–1835, Fauquier County delegate, Virginia Ratification Convention

Courts established by the Constitution can regulate government under the Constitution, the supreme law of the land.[t] First, they have jurisdiction over actions by an officer of government and state law. Second, federal courts may rule on whether coordinate branches of national government conform to the Constitution. Until the twentieth century, the Supreme Court of the United States may have been the only high tribunal in the world to use a court for constitutional interpretation of fundamental law, others generally depending on their national legislature.[178]

The basic theory of American judicial review is summarized by constitutional legal scholars and historians as follows: the written Constitution is fundamental law within the

states. It can change only by extraordinary legislative process of national proposal, then state ratification. The powers of all departments are limited to enumerated grants found in the Constitution. Courts are expected (a) to enforce provisions of the Constitution as the supreme law of the land, and (b) to refuse to enforce anything in conflict with it.[179] Judicial review relies on the jurisdictional authority in Article III, and the Supremacy Clause.[37]

Case law

Main article: List of landmark court decisions in the United States

Barron v. Baltimore **(1833)**

When John Marshall followed Oliver Ellsworth as chief justice of the Supreme Court in 1801, the federal judiciary had been established by the Judiciary Act, but there were few cases. Review of state legislation and appeals from state supreme courts was understood. But the Court's jurisdiction over state legislation was limited. The Marshall Court's landmark *Barron v. Baltimore* held that the Bill of Rights restricted only the federal government, and not the states.[38]

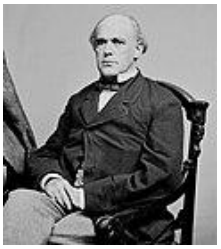
Marbury v. Madison **(1803)**

In the landmark *Marbury v. Madison* case, the Supreme Court asserted its authority of judicial review over Acts of Congress. Its findings were that Marbury and the others had a right to their commissions as judges in the District of Columbia. Marshall, writing the opinion for the majority, announced his discovered conflict between Section 13 of the Judiciary Act of 1789 and Article III.[u][180][v] In this case, both the Constitution and the statutory law applied to the particulars at the same time. "The very essence of judicial duty" according to Marshall was to determine which of the two conflicting rules should

govern. The Constitution enumerates powers of the judiciary to extend to cases arising "under the Constitution". Further, justices take a Constitutional oath to uphold it as "Supreme law of the land."[181] Therefore, since the United States government as created by the Constitution is a limited government, the federal courts were required to choose the Constitution over congressional law if there were deemed to be a conflict.[*citation needed*] "This argument has been ratified by time and by practice ..."[w][x]

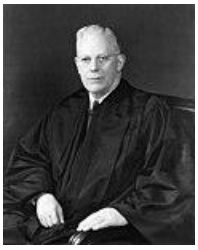
Dred Scott (1857)

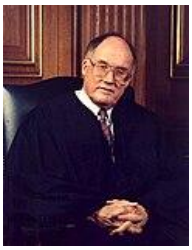
The Supreme Court did not declare another act of Congress unconstitutional until the controversial Dred Scott decision in 1857, held after the voided Missouri Compromise statute had already been repealed. In the eighty years following the Civil War to World War II, the Court voided congressional statutes in 77 cases, on average almost one a year.[183]

- **Scope of judicial review expanded**
- 

  Salmon P. Chase[y]
  Union, Reconstruction
-

  William Howard Taft[z]
  commerce, incorporation

- 

  Earl Warren[aa]
  due process, civil rights
- 

  William Rehnquist[ab]
  federalism, privacy

Chase Court (1864–1873)

Salmon P. Chase was a Lincoln appointee, serving as chief justice from 1864 to 1873. In one of his first official acts, Chase admitted John Rock, the first African American to practice before the Supreme Court. The Chase Court is famous for *Texas v. White*, which asserted a permanent Union of indestructible states. *Veazie Bank v. Fenno* upheld the Civil War tax on state banknotes. *Hepburn v. Griswold* found parts of the Legal Tender Acts unconstitutional, though it was reversed under a late Supreme Court majority.

Civil Rights Cases (1883)

The *Civil Rights Cases*, 109 U.S. 3 (1883), were a group of five landmark cases in which the Supreme Court of the United States held that the Thirteenth and Fourteenth Amendments did not empower Congress to outlaw racial discrimination by private individuals. The holding that the Thirteenth Amendment did not empower the federal

government to punish racist acts done by private citizens would be overturned by the Supreme Court in the 1968 case *Jones v. Alfred H. Mayer Co.*The Fourteenth Amendment not applying to private entities, however, is still valid precedent to this day. Although the Fourteenth Amendment-related decision has never been overturned, in the 1964 case of *Heart of Atlanta Motel, Inc. v. United States*, the Supreme Court held that Congress could prohibit racial discrimination by private actors under the Commerce Clause.

Taft Court (1921–1930)

As chief justice, William Taft advocated for the Judiciary Act of 1925 that brought the Federal District Courts under the administrative jurisdiction of the Supreme Court. In 1925, the Taft Court issued a ruling overturning a Marshall Court ruling on the Bill of Rights. In *Gitlow v. New York*, the Court established the doctrine of "incorporation", which applied the Bill of Rights to the states. Important cases included the *Board of Trade of City of Chicago v. Olsen*, which upheld Congressional regulation of commerce; *Olmstead v. United States*, which allowed exclusion of evidence obtained without a warrant based on application of the 14th Amendment proscription against unreasonable searches; and *Wisconsin v. Illinois*, which ruled the equitable power of the United States can impose positive action on a state to prevent its inaction from damaging another state.

New Deal (1935–1936)

A crisis arose when, in 1935 and 1936, the Supreme Court handed down twelve decisions voiding acts of Congress relating to the New Deal. President Franklin D. Roosevelt then responded with his abortive "court packing plan". Other proposals have suggested a Court super-majority to overturn Congressional legislation, or a constitutional amendment to require that the justices retire at a specified age by law. To date, the Supreme Court's power of judicial review has persisted.[39]

Warren Court (1953–1969)

Earl Warren was an Eisenhower nominee, chief justice from 1953 to 1969. In 1954, the Warren Court overturned a landmark Fuller Court ruling on the Fourteenth Amendment interpreting racial segregation as permissible in government and commerce providing "separate but equal" services. Warren built a coalition of justices after 1962 that developed the idea of natural rights as guaranteed in the Constitution. *Brown v. Board of Education* banned segregation in public schools. *Baker v. Carr* and *Reynolds v. Sims* established Court ordered "one-man-one-vote". Bill of Rights Amendments were incorporated into the states. Due process was expanded in *Gideon v. Wainwright* and *Miranda v. Arizona.* First Amendment rights were addressed in *Griswold v. Connecticut* concerning privacy, and *Engel v. Vitale* relative to free speech.

Burger Court (1969–1986)

Warren E Burger was appointed by Richard Nixon. Under his tenure, the Court decided the landmark cases of *Roe v. Wade* and *Swann v. Charlotte-Mecklenburg Board of Education.*

Rehnquist Court (1986–2005)

William Rehnquist was a Reagan-appointed chief justice, serving from 1986 to 2005. While he would concur with overthrowing a state supreme court's decision, as in *Bush v. Gore*, he built a coalition of Justices after 1994 that developed the idea of federalism as provided for in the Tenth Amendment. In the hands of the Supreme Court, the Constitution and its amendments were to restrain Congress, as in *City of Boerne v. Flores*. Nevertheless, the Rehnquist Court was noted in the contemporary "culture wars" for overturning state laws relating to privacy, prohibiting late-term abortions in *Stenberg v. Carhart*, prohibiting sodomy in *Lawrence v. Texas*, or ruling so as to protect free speech in *Texas v. Johnson* or affirmative action in *Grutter v. Bollinger*.

Roberts Court (2005–Present)

John Roberts was appointed Chief Justice in 2005.

Principles

Judicial restraint

The Supreme Court has developed a system of doctrine and practice that limits its own power of judicial review.[184] The Court controls almost all of its business by choosing what cases to consider, limiting decisions by defining what is a "justiciable question". The Court requires a personal interest, not one generally held, and a legally protected right must be immediately threatened by government action. Cases are not taken up if the litigant has no standing to sue.[184] The Court also generally refuses to make any advisory opinions in advance of actual cases.[ac] Further, friendly suits between those of the same legal interest are not considered.

The procedural ways by which the Court dismisses cases have led critics to charge that the Supreme Court delays decisions by unduly insisting on technicalities in their "standards of litigability". They say cases are left unconsidered which are in the public interest, with genuine controversy, and resulting from good faith action.[185]

Separation of powers

The Supreme Court balances several pressures to maintain its roles in national government. It seeks to be a co-equal branch of government, but its decrees must be enforceable. The Court seeks to minimize situations where it asserts itself superior to either president or Congress, but federal officers must be held accountable. The Supreme Court assumes power to declare acts of Congress as unconstitutional but it

self-limits its passing on constitutional questions.[186] But the Court's guidance on basic problems of life and governance in a democracy is most effective when American political life reinforces its rulings.[187]

Justice Brandeis summarized four general guidelines that the Supreme Court uses to avoid constitutional decisions relating to Congress:[ad] The Court will not anticipate a question of constitutional law nor decide open questions unless a case decision requires it. If it does, a rule of constitutional law is formulated only as the precise facts in the case require. The Court will choose statutes or general law for the basis of its decision if it can without constitutional grounds. If it does, the Court will choose a constitutional construction of an act of Congress, even if its constitutionality is seriously in doubt.[186]

Likewise with the executive department, Edwin Corwin observed that the Court does sometimes rebuff presidential pretensions, but it more often tries to rationalize them. Against Congress, an act is merely "disallowed". In the executive case, exercising judicial review produces "some change in the external world" beyond the ordinary judicial sphere.[188] The "political question" doctrine especially applies to questions which present a difficult enforcement issue. Chief Justice Charles Evans Hughes addressed the Court's limitation when political process allowed future policy change, but a judicial ruling would "attribute finality". Political questions lack "satisfactory criteria for a judicial determination."[189]

John Marshall recognized that the president holds "important political powers" which as executive privilege allows great discretion. This doctrine was applied in Court rulings on President Grant's duty to enforce the law during Reconstruction. It extends to the sphere of foreign affairs. Justice Robert Jackson explained, foreign affairs are inherently

political, "wholly confided by our Constitution to the political departments of the government ... [and] not subject to judicial intrusion or inquiry".[190]

Critics of the Court object in two principal ways to self-restraint in judicial review, deferring as it does as a matter of doctrine to acts of Congress and presidential actions. Its inaction is said to allow "a flood of legislative appropriations" which permanently create an imbalance between the states and federal government. It has also been argued that the Supreme Court's deference to Congress and the executive compromises American protection of civil rights, political minority groups and aliens.[191]

In anthropology and sociology

Main article: American civil religion

There is a viewpoint that some Americans have come to see the documents of the Constitution, along with the Declaration of Independence and the Bill of Rights, as being a cornerstone of a type of civil religion. Some commentators depict the multi-ethnic, multi-sectarian United States as held together by political orthodoxy, in contrast with a nation-state of people having more "natural" ties.[192][193]

Worldwide influence

Main article: Worldwide influence of the Constitution of the United States

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  José Rizal

-

  Sun Yat-sen

The United States Constitution has been a notable model for governance worldwide, especially through the 1970s. Its international influence is found in similarities in phrasing and borrowed passages in other constitutions, as well as in the principles of the rule of law, separation of powers, and recognition of individual rights.[194]

The American experience of fundamental law with amendments and judicial review has motivated constitutionalists at times when they were considering the possibilities for their nation's future.[195] It informed Abraham Lincoln during the American Civil War,[ae] his contemporary and ally Benito Juárez of Mexico,[af] and the second generation of 19th-century constitutional nationalists, José Rizal of the Philippines[ag] and Sun Yat-sen of China.[ah] The framers of the Australian constitution integrated federal ideas from the U.S. and other constitutions.[201]

Since the 1980s, the influence of the United States Constitution has been waning as other countries have created new constitutions or updated older constitutions, a process which Sanford Levinson believes to be more difficult in the United States than in any other country.[202][203][204]

Criticism

Further information: History of the United States Constitution § Criticism of the Constitution

The United States Constitution has faced various criticisms since its inception in 1787.

The Constitution did not originally define who was eligible to vote, allowing each state to determine who was eligible. In the early history of the U.S., most states allowed only white male adult property owners to vote; the notable exception was New Jersey, where women were able to vote on the same basis as men.[205][206][207] Until the Reconstruction Amendments were adopted between 1865 and 1870, the five years immediately following the American Civil War, the Constitution did not abolish slavery, nor give citizenship and voting rights to former slaves.[208] These amendments did not include a specific prohibition on discrimination in voting on the basis of sex; it took another amendment—the Nineteenth, ratified in 1920—for the Constitution to prohibit any United States citizen from being denied the right to vote on the basis of sex.[209]

According to a 2012 study by David Law and Mila Versteeg published in the *New York University Law Review*, the U.S. Constitution guarantees relatively few rights compared to the constitutions of other countries and contains fewer than half (26 of 60) of the provisions listed in the average bill of rights. It is also one of the few in the world today that still features the right to keep and bear arms; the other two being the constitutions of Guatemala and Mexico.[203][204]

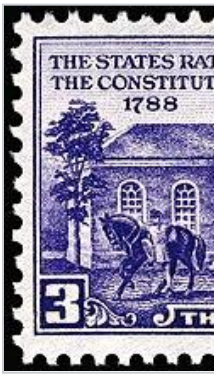
Sanford Levinson wrote in 2006 that it has been the most difficult constitution in the world to amend since the fall of Yugoslavia.[202][210] Levitsky and Ziblatt argue that the US Constitution is the most difficult in the world to amend, and that this helps explain why the US still has so many undemocratic institutions that most or all other

democracies have reformed, directly allowing significant democratic backsliding in the United States.[211]

Commemorations

In 1937, the U.S. Post Office, at the prompting of President Franklin Delano Roosevelt, an avid stamp collector himself, released a commemorative postage stamp celebrating the 150th anniversary of the signing of the U.S. Constitution. The engraving on this issue is after an 1856 painting by Junius Brutus Stearns of Washington and shows delegates signing the Constitution at the 1787 Convention.[212] The following year another commemorative stamp was issued celebrating the 150th anniversary of the ratification of the Constitution.[213] In 1987 the U.S. Mint issued commemorative coins in celebration of the 200th anniversary of the signing of the Constitution.[214][215]

Postage Issue of 1937 commemorating the 150th anniversary of the signing of the Constitution



Postage Issue of 1938 commemorating the 150th anniversary of the ratification

1987 Constitution Commemorative Silver Dollar

of the
Constitution

See also

- *Commentaries on the Constitution of the United States* by Joseph Story (1833, three volumes)
- Congressional power of enforcement
- Constitution Day and Citizenship Day
- Constitution Week
- *The Constitution of the United States of America: Analysis and Interpretation*
- Constitution of 3 May 1791
- Constitutionalism in the United States
- Gödel's Loophole
- Founding Fathers of the United States
- Founders Online
- History of democracy
- History of the United States Constitution
- List of national constitutions (world countries)
- List of proposed amendments to the United States Constitution
- List of sources of law in the United States
- Pocket Constitution
- Second Constitutional Convention of the United States
- Timeline of drafting and ratification of the United States Constitution
- UK constitutional law

Related documents

- Constitution of Massachusetts (1780)
- Fundamental Orders of Connecticut (1639)
- Massachusetts Body of Liberties (1641)
- Mayflower Compact (1620)
- Virginia Statute for Religious Freedom (1779)

Notes

a. The federal government began operating under the new Constitution on that day. See 1st United States Congress.
b. The first entrenchment clause restricted Congress from passing laws restricting the importation of slaves prior to 1808. The second entrenchment clause states that no state, without its consent, shall be deprived of its representation in the Senate.
c. Thirty-three amendments have been proposed by Congress and sent to the states for ratification since the Constitution entered force in 1789; but only 27 have been ratified by the requisite number of states and become part of the Constitution.
d. Article I
e. Article II
f. Article III
g. Other countries, such as the United Kingdom, Canada, and New Zealand, and other Commonwealth countries, have constitutional provisions such as the Bill of Rights 1689, among other statutes, that are older than the United States Constitution that are still in force to this day.
h. Historically, the first written constitution of an independent polity which was adopted by representatives elected by the people was the 1755 Corsican Constitution, despite being short-lived, drafted by Pasquale Paoli, whose work was an inspiration for many American patriots,[11] including the Hearts of Oak, originally named "The Corsicans", and the Sons of Liberty.[12] Earlier written constitutions of independent states exist but were not adopted by bodies elected by the people, such as the Swedish Constitution of 1772, adopted by the king, the Constitution of San Marino of 1600 which is the oldest surviving constitution in the world, or the Constitution of Pylyp Orlyk, the first establishing separation of powers.
i. Not to be confused with proportional representation, an electoral system that typically elects multiple members of a party to a legislature based on that party's percentage of a popular vote.
j. The Supreme Court found 658 cases of invalid state statutes from 1790 to 1941 before the advent of civil rights cases in the last half of the twentieth century[39]
k. The Judiciary Act of 1789 established six Supreme Court justices. The number was periodically increased, reaching ten in 1863, allowing Lincoln additional appointments. After the Civil War, vacancies reduced the number to seven. Congress finally fixed the number at nine.
l. For instance, 'collateral estoppel' directs that when a litigant wins in a state court, they cannot sue in federal court to get a more favorable outcome.
m. Recently numerous habeas corpus reforms have tried to preserve a working "relationship of comity" and simultaneously streamline the process for state and lower courts to apply Supreme Court interpretations.[82]
n. Judicial Review is explained in Hamilton's Federalist No. 78. It also has roots in Natural Law expressions in the Declaration of Independence. The Supreme

Court first ruled an act of Congress unconstitutional in *Marbury v. Madison*, the second was Dred Scott.[82]

o. Section 1
p. Section 2
q. Section 2
r. The four concepts which determine "justiciability", the formula for a federal court taking and deciding a case, are the doctrines of (a) standing, (b) real and substantial interests, (c) adversity, and (d) avoidance of political questions.[82]
s. Contrary to this source when viewed, the Constitution provides that punishments, including forfeiture of income and property, must apply to the person convicted. "No attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood or forfeiture" on the convicted traitor's children or heirs. This avoids the perpetuation of civil war into the generations by Parliamentary majorities as in the Wars of the Roses.[82]
t. In this context, colonial territories held by the U.S. are not considered part of the land, so the constitution does not apply to them.[177]
u. In this, John Marshall leaned on the argument of Hamilton in Federalist No. 78.
v. Although it may be that the true meaning of the Constitution to the people of the United States in 1788 can only be divined by a study of the state ratification conventions, the Supreme Court has used *The Federalist Papers* as a supplemental guide to the Constitution since their co-author, John Jay, was the first Chief Justice.
w. The entire quote reads, "This argument has been ratified by time and by practice, and there is little point in quibbling with it. Of course, the president also takes an oath to support the Constitution."[182]
x. The presidential reference is to Andrew Jackson's disagreement with Marshall's Court over *Worcester v. Georgia*, finding Georgia could not impose its laws in Cherokee Territory. Jackson replied, "John Marshall has made his decision; now let him enforce it!", and the Trail of Tears proceeded. Jackson would not politically interpose the U.S. Army between Georgia and the Cherokee people as Eisenhower would do between Arkansas and the integrating students.
y. The Chase Court, 1864–1873, in 1865 were Salmon P. Chase (chief Justice); Hon. Nathan Clifford, Maine; Stephen J. Field, Justice Supreme Court, U.S.; Hon. Samuel F. Miller, U.S. Supreme Court; Hon. Noah H. Swayne, Justice Supreme Court, U.S.; Judge Morrison R. Waite
z. The Taft Court, 1921–1930, in 1925 were James Clark McReynolds, Oliver Wendell Holmes Jr., William Howard Taft (chief justice), Willis Van Devanter, Louis Brandeis. Edward Sanford, George Sutherland, Pierce Butler, Harlan Fiske Stone
aa. The Warren Court, 1953–1969, in 1963 were Felix Frankfurter; Hugo Black; Earl Warren (chief justice); Stanley Reed; William O. Douglas. Tom Clark; Robert H. Jackson; Harold Burton; Sherman Minton
bb. The Rehnquist Court, 1986–2005.

cc. "Advisory opinions" are not the same as "declaratory judgments". (a) These address rights and legal relationships in cases of "actual controversy", and (b) the holding has the force and effect of a final judgment. (c) There is no coercive order, as the parties are assumed to follow the judgment, but a "declaratory judgment" is the basis of any subsequent ruling in case law.

dd. Louis Brandeis concurring opinion, *Ashwander v. Tennessee Valley Authority*, 1936.

ee. "Secession was indeed unconstitutional ... military resistance to secession was not only constitutional but also morally justified.[196] "the *primary* purpose of the Constitution was ... to create 'a more perfect union' ... the Constitution was an exercise in nation building.[197]

ff. Juarez regarded the United States as a model of republican democracy and consistently supported Abraham Lincoln.[198]

gg. The institutions of the two countries which have most influenced constitutional development are Spain and the United States". One of the reforms, "sine quibus non", to use the words of Rizal and Mabini, always insisted upon by the Filipinos, was Philippine representation in the Spanish Cortes, the promulgation in the Islands of the Spanish Constitution, and the complete assimilation equal to that of any in the Spanish provinces on the continent.[199]

hh. In the modern history of China, there were many revolutionaries who tried to seek the truth from the West in order to overthrow the feudal system of the Qing dynasty. Sun Yat-sen, for example, was much influenced by American democracy, especially the U.S. Constitution.[200]

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right to vote; and term limits and regularized appointment schedules for Supreme Court justices. Having documented the... difficulty of enacting constitutional change under the U.S. amendment process (the reform of which is *also* on their prescriptive wish list), [the authors] acknowledge the steep odds that such an undertaking faces." (p. 54.)

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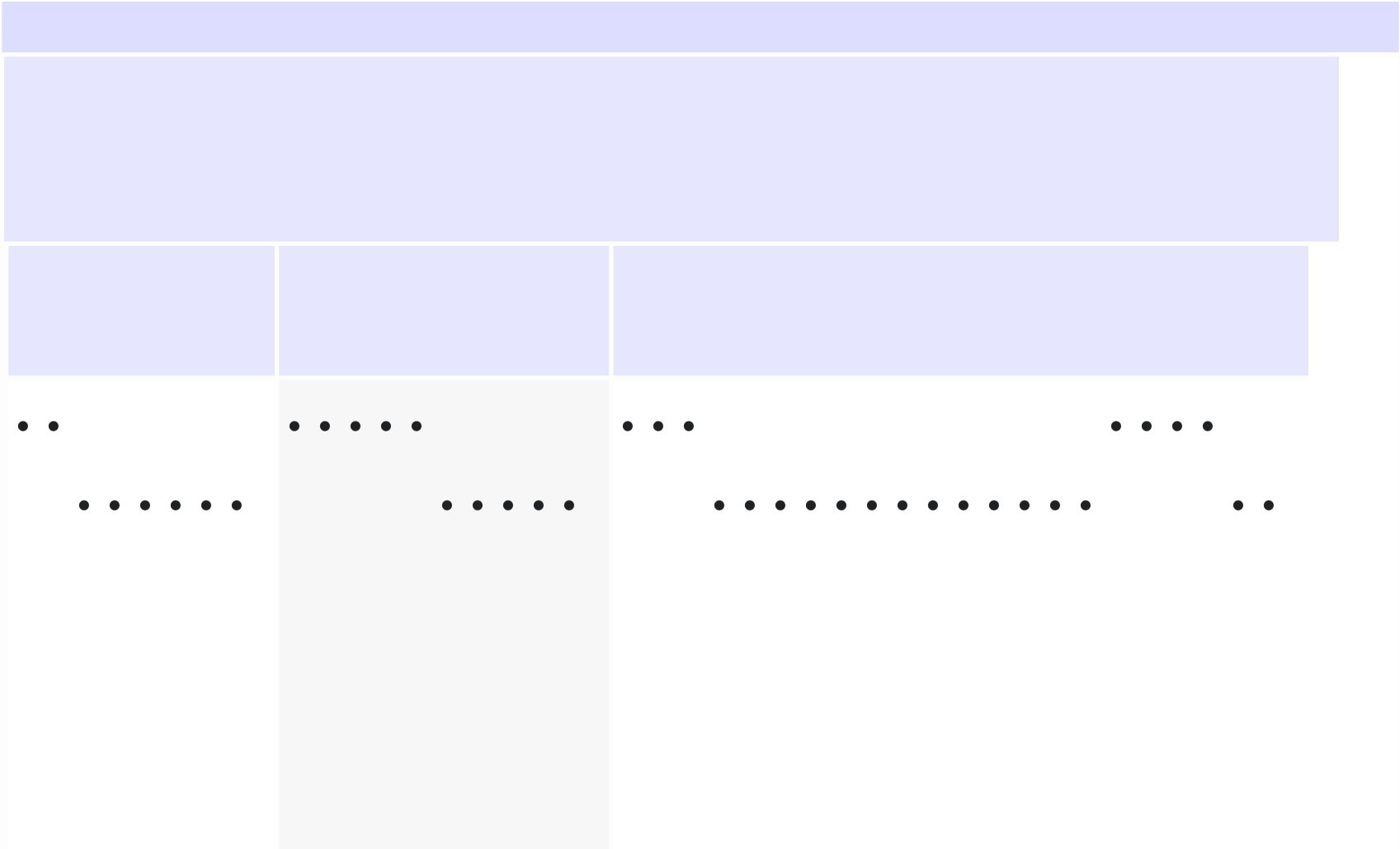

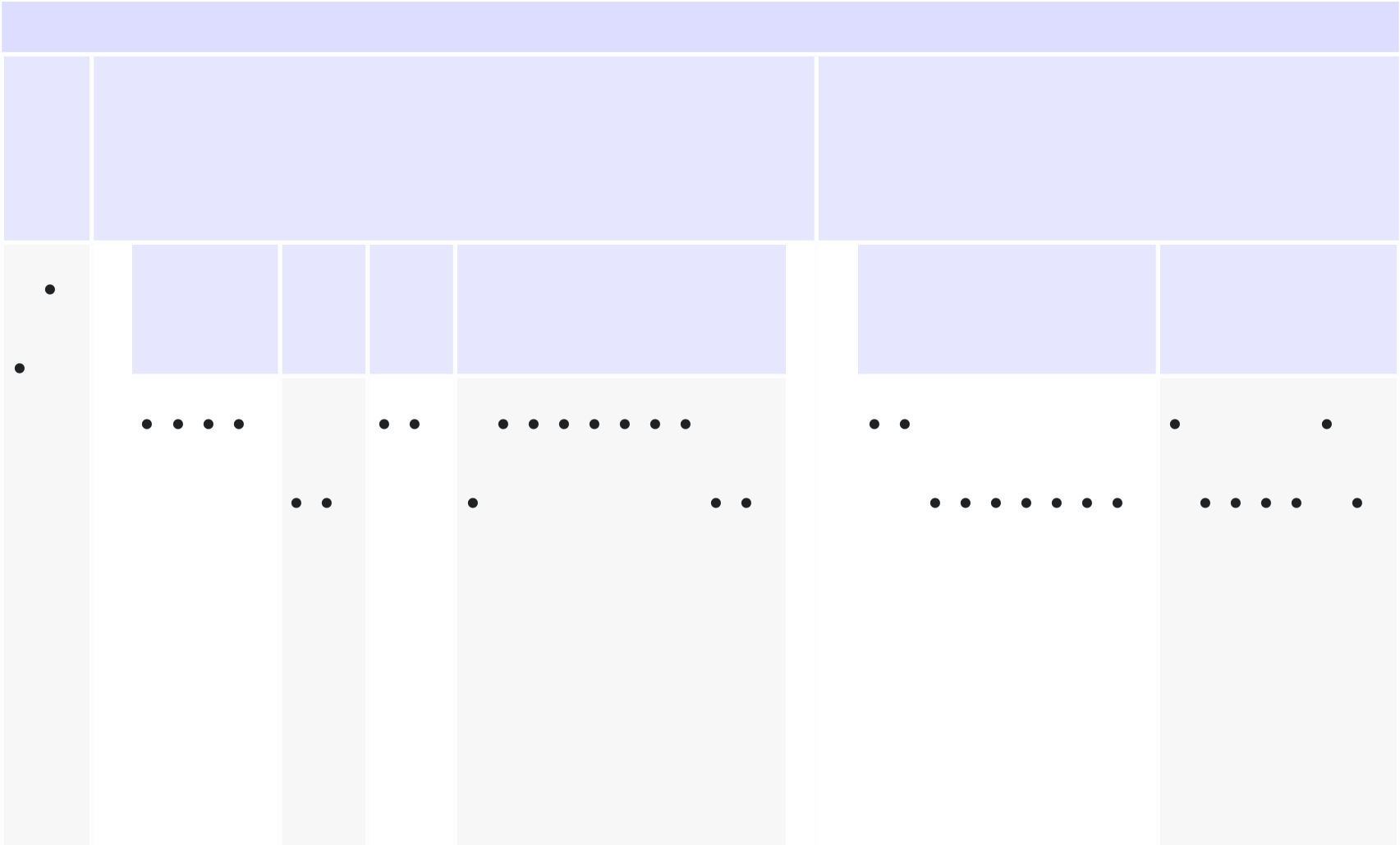

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