

Stanford Model United Nations 2014

American Civil War



United States

Chair: Alex Richard Richard4@stanford.edu

Kalliga

Crisis Director: Ben Krausz Crisis Director: Max

Confederate States

Chair: Julien Brinson jbrinson@stanford.edu

Assistant Chair: Marina Assistant Chair: Shivani Baisiwala

Morales

Educational Topics Covered:

Students analyze the divergent paths of the American people from 1800 to the mid-1800s and the challenges they faced, with emphasis on the Northeast.

- Discuss the influence of industrialization and technological developments on the region, including human modification of the landscape and how physical geography shaped human actions (e.g., growth of cities, deforestation, farming, mineral extraction).
- Outline the physical obstacles to and the economic and political factors involved in building a network of roads, canals, and railroads (e.g., Henry Clay's American System).
- Study the lives of black Americans who gained freedom in the North and founded schools and churches to advance their rights and communities.

Students analyze the divergent paths of the American people in the South from 1800 to the mid-1800s and the challenges they faced.

- Describe the development of the agrarian economy in the South, identify the locations of the cotton-producing states, and discuss the significance of cotton and the cotton gin.
- Trace the origins and development of slavery; its effects on black Americans and on the region's political, social, religious, economic, and cultural development; and identify the strategies that were tried to both overturn and preserve it (e.g., through the writings and historical documents on Nat Turner, Denmark Vesey).
- Compare the lives of and opportunities for free blacks in the North with those of free blacks in the South.

Students analyze the early and steady attempts to abolish slavery and to realize the ideals of the Declaration of Independence.

- Describe the leaders of the movement (e.g., John Quincy Adams and his proposed constitutional amendment, John Brown and the armed resistance, Harriet Tubman and the Underground Railroad, Benjamin Franklin, Theodore Weld, William Lloyd Garrison, Frederick Douglass).
- Discuss the abolition of slavery in early state constitutions.
- Analyze the significance of the States' Rights Doctrine, the Missouri Compromise (1820), the Wilmot Proviso (1846), the Compromise of 1850, Henry Clay's role in the Missouri Compromise and the Compromise of 1850, the Kansas-Nebraska Act (1854), the Dred Scott v. Sandford decision (1857), and the Lincoln-Douglas debates (1858).
- Describe the lives of free blacks and the laws that limited their freedom and economic opportunities.

Students analyze the multiple causes, key events, and complex consequences of the Civil War.

- Compare the conflicting interpretations of state and federal authority as emphasized in the speeches and writings of statesmen such as Daniel Webster and John C. Calhoun.
- Trace the boundaries constituting the North and the South, the geographical differences between the two regions, and the differences between agrarians and industrialists.
- Identify the constitutional issues posed by the doctrine of nullification and secession and the earliest origins of that doctrine.

- Discuss Abraham Lincoln's presidency and his significant writings and speeches and their relationship to the Declaration of Independence, such as his "House Divided" speech (1858), Gettysburg Address (1863), Emancipation Proclamation (1863), and inaugural addresses (1861 and 1865).
- Study the views and lives of leaders (e.g., Ulysses S. Grant, Jefferson Davis, Robert E. Lee) and soldiers on both sides of the war, including those of black soldiers and regiments.
- Describe critical developments and events in the war, including the major battles, geographical advantages and obstacles, technological advances, and General Lee's surrender at Appomattox.
- Explain how the war affected combatants, civilians, the physical environment, and future warfare.

Students analyze the effects of the Industrial Revolution in England, France, Germany, Japan, and the United States.

- Examine how scientific and technological changes and new forms of energy brought about massive social, economic, and cultural change (e.g., the inventions and discoveries of James Watt, Eli Whitney, Henry Bessemer, Louis Pasteur, Thomas Edison).
- Describe the growth of population, rural to urban migration, and growth of cities associated with the Industrial Revolution.
- Trace the evolution of work and labor, including the demise of the slave trade and the effects of immigration, mining and manufacturing, division of labor, and the union movement.

Students analyze the relationship among the rise of industrialization, large-scale rural-to-urban migration, and massive immigration from Southern and Eastern Europe.

• Describe the changing landscape, including the growth of cities linked by industry and trade, and the development of cities divided according to race, ethnicity, and class.

Source: "History-Social Science Content Standards for California Public Schools", 1998

Letters from the Chairs:

Welcome delegates,

My name is Julien Brinson, and I will be chairing the South in the American Civil War JCC. I'm so excited to work with this committee. This is my first time chairing an actual competition committee, but this is my sixth year doing Model United Nations. In addition, I'm currently a team co-captain for the Stanford Model United Nations Team. I will be a sophomore next year at Stanford, and I am hoping to individually design my major in Robotics Engineering.

A little bit about me. I was born and raised in Atlanta, GA, so some people tell me I have a Southern accent (I'll let *y'all* decide for yourselves). I am a really big child at heart. I watch a lot of TV, including Pokemon the anime and I've recently gotten into Marvel comics.

Some notes about how I would like this committee to go. First, knowing my own personal style of Model UN and what will most likely be my style of chairing a committee, I can tell you now that there is a very good chance that I will be an extreme stickler on the history. As you're about to see in this *beautiful* background guide that I have prepared for you, I have done my research, and I would really like to see this simulation play out as organically as possible. Specifically, I have provided you with just about all the history and relevant information about the Confederate States of America (ok, maybe I got carried away at some points). However, I stop at the start date of our committee (March 5th 1861). Now it's your job to take your characters and essentially rewrite history (Note: I said rewrite, not reenact because that wouldn't be any fun; the South loses). Here's where the organic part comes in. Since this is a historical event, you have hindsight at your disposal! The first go around, the South made a LOT of mistakes, but this time you don't have to make those same mistakes, and the more ideas you have for the South to win, the better debate, crisis events, and experience you'll have at SMUNC! Which brings me to my next point: the committee itself.

This committee may run a little differently than the North, because I'm being a stickler on the history. At the beginning of committee, only those characters who are a part of the CSA may vote on directives. Everyone in committee may propose directives, make motions, and vote on procedural matters. Those characters who are still loyal to the Union but happen to be in our committee room, because they are sympathetic to the cause, may endeavor to convince those in the CSA to rejoin the Union or may switch sides via crisis. If you join the CSA, you will be allowed to vote on directives. And if you feel compelled to join the Union, you will be subject to the rules of the Union chair, and depending on your position, you may be reassigned. Word of advice, switching from the Union to CSA rooms more than twice would be excessive and unless I can see the merit in the actions, could affect awards.

Speaking of awards, they are given to delegates for exceptional performance and skills in debate and crisis. There are several specific actions that I have identified and would like to see in committee and I would be greatly impressed if any of you were to come up with them.

This last point is the deepest. This is the Confederate States of America, and if race discussions or racially charged discussions come up in our committee, delegates should refer to African-Americans as "slaves" or "freedmen" depending on the context.

Best,

Julien Brinson

jbrinson@stanford.edu

Welcome delegates,

I am Alex Richard, and I will be chairing the North in the American Civil War JCC. It is my pleasure to welcome you to this session of the Stanford Model United Nations Conference.

First, I will introduce myself a bit. I am currently a Junior at Stanford, studying Computer Science. I was born in Boston, MA, but grew up in Atlanta, GA. (I assure you, I am loyal to the United States!) On campus, I was last year's MUN team co-captain; at SMUNC, I've chaired the IAEA, the Jewish-Roman War, and been the Director of Logistics and Director of Business Affairs.

You are part of the President Abraham Lincoln's cabinet of war, tasked with resolving the secession of southern states. Although some generals will be present, this council will not be responsible for specific troop movements or tactical orders; instead, it will focus on issues of national-level policy. Four such issues are outlined in the background guide below; many more will arise during the course of the committee's deliberations. In preparing for committee, a broad overview of the most important decisions- in domestic policy and politics, in dealing with slavery, in international relations, in negotiating with the South, in choosing personnel, and in other issues- of Lincoln's cabinet will be helpful. Of the sources cited in the bibliography, I particularly recommend Team of Rivals and Why the South Lost the Civil War as particularly helpful.

The composition of this body is, for the purposes of simplicity, slightly ahistorical; I have elected to not include top officials as of March 5th, 1861, who would defect to the South or be replaced within the first months of the Lincoln administration, and I have also formalized some areas of responsibility that would have remained informal in real life. Some figures who would later go on to be important- for example, General Ulysses Grant- are not included on this body; in the event of the death, resignation, or expulsion from the Cabinet of any of its current members, these figures will be promoted. However, you should not expect events to occur historically as they did, independent of your actions.

As an aside, although it is historically inaccurate, delegates should refer to African-Americans as 'slaves' or 'blacks.'

Best.

Alex 'Abe Lincoln' Richard

richard4@stanford.edu

Rules and Procedures:

The committee will begin on March 5th, 1861, the day after the inauguration of President Lincoln.

Attire: Delegates are expected to wear Western Business Attire for the full duration of each committee session. Gentleman should wear jackets to committee but may take them off if the temperature becomes unpleasant in the room.

Points and Motions: A comprehensive list of rules of procedure may be accessed here: http://www.unausa.org/images/content/GC_Model_UN/Model_UN_Prep/ROP_Chart.pdf

This committee will deal will deal with 3 types of documents:

A <u>personal directive</u> is an order by any individual or set of individuals in the committee. It uses only that person or group of people's own authority, and under normal circumstances is not revealed to the rest of the cabinet. It is passed directly on to crisis. You may also write joint-personal directives.

A <u>committee directive</u> is submitted and voted on by all members of the committee. If passed by 50% plus one of those present, it will be able to specify the official policy of the entire government.

A <u>press release</u> is an announcement to the public (and, necessarily, the committee). They can be made by an individual or group of individuals, in which case they are passed directly to crisis; or, they can be introduced and passed by a 50% plus one vote, in which case they are a press release by the entire government.

This committees may not directly pass laws, but the members present may call upon their respective Congresses to pass laws. The more people who support a law to be passed, the higher chance it will have of passing.

Historical Context

Slavery

The institution of slavery is older the United States government. Slaves were first introduced to America in 1619 by the Dutch to the North American colony of Jamestown, Virginia. During the early colonial period all the colonies permitted slavery. Most Northern slaves worked as house servants, while Southern slaves worked on plantations. The slaves provided a cheap labor force to produce and cultivate lucrative crops such as tobacco. Some historians estimate that 6 to 7 million slaves were imported to the New World during the 18th century alone, depriving the African continent of some of its healthiest and ablest men and women. In the 17th and 18th centuries, holding slaves became less profitable in the North so it was gradually abolished there, while slavery became vital to the tobacco, rice and indigo plantations of the southern coast. After the American Revolution, many colonists—particularly in the North, where slavery was not an integral part of their economy—began to link the oppression of Black slaves to their own oppression by the British, and called for slavery's abolition. However, after the war's end, the new U.S. constitution enshrined slavery, counting each slave as three-fifths of a person for the purposes of taxation and representation in Congress and guaranteeing the right to repossess any "person held to service or labor."

In the late 18th century, the land used to grow tobacco was nearly exhausted creating an economic crisis for the South, threatening the continued growth of slavery in America. This coincided with the mechanization of the British textile industry, which created a huge demand for cotton. Cotton's production was limited by the difficulty of removing the seeds from raw cotton fibers by hand, but in 1793, Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin. This device drastically reduced the time of removing the cotton seeds from the fiber and increased the profitability of cotton. Within a few years, the South transitioned from large-scale production of tobacco to that of cotton, which reinforced the region's dependence on slave labor. Although many Northern businessmen profited from the slave trade, between 1774 and 1804, all of the northern states abolished slavery. Then in 1808, Congress outlawed the African slave trade, but allowed the domestic trade to flourish.

As the North and South became ever more divided on the issue of slavery, whenever a new state wished to be admitted to the Union, each region considered whether the admission of that particular state would be to its disadvantage. Therefore, when Ohio was admitted as a free state, in 1808, by the provision of the Northwest Ordinance of 1787, the South feeling that free states were becoming too numerous and too powerful, demanded that Louisiana, a southern, slave state, be admitted in 1812. Now, the slaves states could block any unfavorable legislation regarding slavery that might arise in Congress. This pattern continued of balancing the free and slaves states admitted to the Union: Indiana, free, in 1816; Mississippi, slave, in 1817; Illinois free, in 1818; Alabama, slave in 1819; and Maine, free in 1820.

As the question of Missouri's admission loomed, the nation faced a problem. Missouri was geographically more Northern than Southern, but the population favored slavery, and it was the South's turn to admit a slave state to keep the balance of power. Henry Clay of Kentucky proposed a bill known as the Missouri Compromise which admitted Missouri as slave state but forbade slavery west of the Mississippi river and north of 36 degrees and 30 minutes north

latitude, the southern boundary line of Missouri. The Missouri compromise was passed in 1820 and Missouri was admitted in 1821 as a slave state.

As government made no real attempts to abolish slavery, secular and religious writers fought to sway public opinion against slavery. Rev. Elijah P. Lovejoy was the editor of the "Observer," a religious paper. Pro-slavery supporters burned his printing press three times to ruin him financially and dissuade anyone else from publishing anti-slavery literature. As a pro-slavery mob attempted to destroy his fourth printing press, Lovejoy was shot and killed on November 8, 1837. Lovejoy's murder spread across the country and spurned anti-slavery writers to become even bolder in their calls to abolish slavery. Lovejoy was considered a martyr to the abolition cause and even the pro-slavery element in the South recognized that the matter had gone too far.

In 1846, David Wilmot of Pennsylvania, introduced a bill known as the Wilmot Proviso. The bill stated:

"Provided, that as an express and fundamental condition to the acquisition of territory from the republic of Mexico, by the United States, by virtue of any treaty which may be negotiated between them, and to the use by the Executive of the moneys herein appropriated, neither slavery nor involuntary servitude shall ever exist in any part of said territory, except for crime, whereof the party shall first be duly convicted"

Although, the Wilmot Proviso never became law, the debate surrounding it greatly fueled sectional divides between the North and the South and brought on the discussion of slavery in the territories. After the United States won the Mexican-American war, gold was discovered in the newly acquired California territory. The gold rush swelled the population so fast, the territory asked for statehood as a free state. Admitting California as a free state would pit 16 free states vs 15 slave states in the Senate, giving the free states a voting majority, and threatening slavery There wasn't an eligible territory that could be admitted as a slave state to keep power parity. Southerners vowed to block California's admittance for that would guarantee the passage of the Wilmot proviso.

Henry Clay, a senator from Kentucky, lauded as the "Great Pacificator" for his compromise work in 1820, headed a Committee of Thirteen to find a compromise. The results of that committee, known as the Compromise of 1850, held the nation together. It provided:

- 1. That California should be admitted as a free state
- 2. That Utah and New Mexico should be organized without any reference to the slavery question.
- 3. That Texas should be paid \$10,000,000 to give up her claim to New Mexico
- 4. That the buying and selling of slaves should be prohibited in the District of Columbia, and
- 5. That a fugitive slave law should be enacted providing for the return of runaway slaves to their owners.

Abolitionists were furious about the harsher new fugitive slave law, and many Northerners decided to outright ignore the law in their own Personal Liberty Bills, which guaranteed to runaway slaves the right of trial by jury before they could be re-taken back to slave territory. The Northerners followed their conscience rather than the law, and helped many slaves get to

Canada, where they would be free by the English law, in a system known as the "The Underground Railway."

Fans to flame further regional division between the North and the South came in the form of the Kansas-Nebraska Act and the Dred Scott decision of the Supreme Court. The Kansas-Nebraska act repealed the Missouri Compromise by leaving the question of slavery in the territories up to popular sovereignty. As a result, supporters of both sides poured into the Kansas territory to vote to keep either keep Kansas free or make it a slave state. The opposing sides saw the other as illegitimate, and violent conflict broke out. Then in 1857, United States Supreme Court Chief Justice Roger B. Taney gave the majority opinion Dred Scott case proclaiming that slaves were not citizens and therefore could not sue. Dred Scott was taken to free territory by his master, so Scott believed he should be considered free. The court did not see it that way. The South lauded the decision while the North felt more disappointed and disgust.

Finally as the election of 1860 drew closer, the issue of slavery tore the Democratic Party as well as the nation apart. Hardline pro-slavery Southern Democrats rejected Stephen Douglas of Illinois for the nomination, and instead nominated John C. Breckinridge of Kentucky. Facing a divided opposition between the Northern democrats, the Southern democrats and the new constitutional union party, Abraham Lincoln of the Republican Party won the election with virtually no support from the South. Fearing the anti-slavery positions of the new president, seven states, South Carolina, Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas succeeded from the Union and formed the Confederacy. Some of the other slave states still in Union do not want to leave the Union but would not support any military actions to bring the seceded states back into the Union.

Other Tensions

Throughout the early 1800's, the federal government generally pursued an economic policy that favored industrialization, at the expense of agriculture. From "The Report on Manufactures" by the first US Secretary of the Treasury onwards, the US opposed free trade. In order to foster the US's fledgling industries, the government imposed an extremely high tariff on imported goods. This increased prices for industrial goods, harming non-industrial industries; it also limited foreign nation's ability to import US goods, including cotton. The US tarriffs have therefore been bitterly opposed by Southern supporters of free trade.

States' rights have also been a running source of tension between the federal government and the southern states. The US Constitution established a federal system, in which sovereignty was formally divided between the national government and individual states. Some founding fathers, including Thomas Jefferson and James Madison, believed that the Constitution gave states the right to nullify national laws they didn't like; others disagreed. In 1832, South Carolina attempted to nullify a pair of tarriff acts passed by the national government. South Carolina's state government passed bills declaring the Tarriff Acts of 1828 and 1832 unconstitutional, threatened to secede if they were implemented by force, and prepared to call up 27,000 members of South Carolina's militia. When President Andrew Jackson deployed a naval flotilla to Charleston and threatened to send troops into South Carolina to hang supporters of nullification, South Carolina's government backed down and repealed the Nullification Acts. Many unionists are now urging a similar response to South Carolina's declaration of independence.

International Politics

Spain

The catholic monarchs of Spain had commissioned Christopher Columbus to look for a water route to India; a quest which would not succeed but rather informed the European powers of the existence of the American continents. Spain proceeded to colonize the Americas with a series of warrior-explorers dubbed the conquistadors. At its height, Spain occupied most of the Caribbean islands, all of Central America, all of California, the Mississippi River delta, present day Florida, the Philippines, and all of South America, save Brazil. As Spain pillaged the resources accrued by the Native American civilizations, European diseases, such as smallpox, decimated the Native American populations. The dwindling Native American population caused labor shortages on Spanish plantations, mines, and public works prompting the Spanish empire to institute the Atlantic slave trade. The Spanish Empire flourished as precious metals and stones poured into the Spanish treasury.

The advent of the French Revolution in 1789 deeply impacted all of Europe. Spain initially joined the other monarchies of Europe against the French Republic in 1793. After two years of fighting in the War of the Pyrenees, Spain decided to make peace in 1795. Spain then joined with France in 1796 under the Treaty of San Ildefonso. The temporary peace in Europe under the Treaty of Amiens in 1802, ended for France in 1803 and for Spain in 1804 after Britain attacked a Spanish squadron of four frigates laden with treasure from Spain's New World colonies. Together, Spain and France sent a fleet of 33 ships to establish naval superiority in the English Channel in preparation for a French invasion of the British Isles. The Franco-Spanish fleet was intercepted by a British fleet at the Battle of Trafalgar on Oct. 21, 1805. Eleven of the fifteen Spanish ships and eleven of the eighteen French ships were either captured or destroyed, while the Royal Navy did not lose a single vessel. Utilizing their naval superiority the British established a blockade of continental Europe, which bottled the diminished Spanish Navy in their ports. Without free range to communicate with and defend its overseas colonies due to the British blockade, Spain's grip on its overseas colonies began to loosen.

Spain's ally, France, completely severed the link between Spain and her colonies after Napoleon overthrew the Spanish king Ferdinand VII and installed his brother Joseph Bonaparte on the throne, which led to uprisings in Spain. Lacking a legitimate king, Spaniards all over the empire believed that the power reverted to the people. They established *juntas* to combat the French occupation, but there was really no centralized power in Spain, so Spain's colonies began charting their own path. They established their own juntas which saw no reason to accept a government under constant threat from French conquest. Without a monarch, the *juntas* in Spain called for the local provinces of Spain and the empire's overseas possessions to send representatives to meet in an "Extraordinary and General Cortes of the Spanish Nation." This Cortes adopted a constitution in 1812 which incorporated many of the new ideals from the French Revolution. The Constitution became the basis for the constitutions of Latin nations. When Ferdinand VII was returned to the throne in 1814, he rejected the constitution and was determined to rule as an absolute monarch. Tensions between liberals wanting reform and conservatives wishing to maintain the establishment gave Spain's colonies an opportunity to declare independence. One by one, Spain lost all of its colonial holdings on the American mainland. As most of Spain's colonies had achieved independence from Spain, President Monroe issued the Monroe doctrine forbidding any colonizing into North or South America in

1823. Although not taken as a credible threat by Spain, the United Kingdom, with its superior naval forces, agreed to enforce the doctrine forbidding Spain from reclaiming her lost colonies. By late 1826, only Cuba and Puerto Rico remained Spanish colonies in the New World.

Southerners began looking for more territory to expand slavery to reestablish the balance of power between slave and free states in the Senate, after the free states gained the upper hand in the Compromise of 1850. Southerners looked 90 miles south to Cuba, one of the last holdings of the Spanish Empire, because of its proximity to the US mainland, the previous existence of slavery, and its agrarian economy. Southern governors, senators and congressmen provided open endorsements and aid to groups determined to incite insurrections against Spanish rule in Central America, South America and the Caribbean including Cuba. In 1854, the Ostend Manifesto was published calling for the sale of Cuba to the United States but the document also implied that the United States should declare war if Spain refused. By the outbreak of the American Civil War, Spain did not have close ties to Washington D.C., and Spain was still unhappy with American involvement in the loss of its territories. At this point in time, Spain is the only remaining European nation to still hold slaves, and has colonies, Cuba and Puerto Rico in the direct sea routes to several major Southern ports.

France

Following the French Revolution of 1848, the abdication of Louis Philippe and the creation of the Second French Republic, Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte managed to get elected to the National Assembly. Lacking the necessary finances, the new republic had to close one of their most ambitious social programs, the National Workshop. The National Workshop guaranteed a job for every man and was extremely popular with French Socialists and the organized working class of Paris. News of discontinuation of the popular program drove some 20,000 workers to the streets of Paris throwing up barricades and gathering arms. The government called in the military to quell the revolt which after three days of savage street fighting left 10,000 people dead. Although the government maintained control, French society was bitterly divided along class lines. Despite the traumatized, polarized, and frightened state of the nation, France found itself at the mercy of a new Presidential election with Universal Manhood Suffrage. The first leader of a major country, outside of the United States, to be elected by universal manhood suffrage was none other than Louis Napoleon.

The constitution by which Louis Napoleon was elected provided for only a single term presidency, but Louis Napoleon had no intention of giving up power when his term was over. After a failed attempt to persuade the National Assembly to amend the constitution so he could run for reelection, Louis Napoleon staged a coup d'etat on December 2, 1851. Troops occupied government buildings and newspaper offices while Paris was plastered with sheets announcing that the assembly had been dissolved and that universal male suffrage was restored after the National Assembly had restricted it with a three-year residency requirement in 1850. Louis Napoleon then invited the French people to endorse or reject his actions at the polls. Those French democrats and radicals who opposed Napoleon's Coup—some 27,000—were rounded up and imprisoned. With his opposition imprisoned or exiled and the general fear of government retaliation, by an overwhelming majority, 7.5 million yes votes to 640,000 no votes, the French people agreed to Louis Napoleon's actions. In 1852, Louis Napoleon proclaimed himself Emperor of the French and held another vote to confirm the people's support, which he received.

Under the new Second Empire, the Emperor controlled the armed forces, police and the civil service. He alone could introduce legislation and conduct foreign policy. The Legislative Corps elected by the nation had no real authority and functioned more as a rubber stamp parliament. The creation of the Second Empire coincided with favorable economic conditions. Gold discovers in California in 1849 and Australia in 1851 increased the money supply causing a mild inflation. As prices rose, the French stock market boomed. The Second Empire floated public bond issues to finance great construction programs and promote large industrial expansion: railway building, installation of gas-lighting in French cities, and harbor construction and the major rebuilding of Paris. On the international stage, Louis Napoleon joined with long-time rival Britain against Russia in the Crimean War. France's victory in the Crimean War helped establish the Second Empire's international credibility. Economically, France consumes 240,000,000 pounds of cotton annually with virtually all of it coming from the American South. The National Assembly France officially abolished slavery in all its territories in 1848.

The United Kingdom

John Hawkins is considered the Father of the British slave trade. After leaving England in 1562 on his first slaving voyage, he sold slaves in St Domingo. At the time, British had more interest in African produce not people. As merchants established settlements on the West Coast of Africa for goods such as Ivory, gold, pepper, dyewood, and indigo, they were planting the seeds for the future slave networks that would grip the continent. By telling planters how to grow and process sugarcane, Dutch merchants nudged Barbados to a plantation system of agriculture. Sugarcane plantations required a large supply of labor, and when indentured servants could not meet the demand, planters bought African slaves from the Dutch. Slavery had not existed in England for centuries when the Britain began implementing the institution in her colonies. The common law was silent on the status and treatment of slaves and flipped back and forth from pro to anti-slavery in a series of judicial decisions. Successive English governments deferred to the colonies to make laws, while the status in England remained ambiguous. The administration in Barbados passed many laws restricting the rights of these slaves such as classifying slaves as property, and many of these laws would be copied by Britain's other colonies.

As British colonies demanded slaves, British African trading companies shifted to supply them. Merchants would trade copper, cloth, guns, ammunition and other manufactured goods in Africa for slaves, then ship the slaves to America, where they would be sold to plantation owners. The merchant would then use the profits from selling the slaves to buy the agricultural products from the plantation owners such as cotton or sugar, to take back to Europe. Until 1698, the Royal Adventurers Trading into Africa and the Royal African Company had a monopoly of British slave trade.

Widespread opposition to slavery in the United Kingdom was virtually nonexistent until the 1780s. In the Revolutionary War, many Black Americans fought on the side of the British during the war and had been given their freedom and transported to London for their service. This influx of freed slaves focused public and political attention on the wider issue of slavery and helped spark the abolition movement. Calls for abolition intensified in 1781 when a captain of a Liverpool slave ship threw more than 130 African slaves overboard and tried to claim insurance for them. The claim was disputed by the insurance company and the resulting court case exposed the previously overlooked brutality of the slave trade out into the open, turning the tide against the trade. The core of the anti-slave trade movement was the New Baptist Methodist churches

and non-conformists groups who had been calling for an end to slavery since the 1670s. They provided a platform for people to express their opinions, but the Society of Friends, later known as the Quakers, had not gathered traction before, because they believed in the radical notion of equality for all. The increasing discussions surrounding the slavery and slave trade questions led to the establishment of the Society for the Abolition of the Slave Trade, a group that aimed to promote anti-slavery beliefs through books, pamphlets, prints, and artifacts. The group frequently used graphic imagery to project the horrors of slavery and sent over 500 mass petitions to the House of Commons. In the House of Commons, abolitionists received support from Member of Parliament William Wilbeforce, an evangelical Christian with a passion for social reform. Elsewhere, leading abolitionists such as Thomas Clarkson gave public lectures decrying the evils of the trade while others like Granville Sharp fought for legal rights of Black people in Britain. Former slaves like Ottobah Cugoano and Olaudah Equiano helped to shape opinion by relaying their personal accounts and outlining the argument for a blockade against slavers. Using every avenue at their disposal to sway public opinion such as churches, theaters and newspapers, abolitionists were finally able to push through the ban on the Atlantic slave trade in 1807. The Abolition of the Slave Trade Act of 1807 forbade British ships from carrying enslaved people between Africa, the West Indies and America. After its passage, the British government began to seal the legal loopholes which stopped the Royal Navy from ending the slave trade altogether. The Royal Navy faced little opposition at home as they stretched and overstepped the boundaries of international law and engaged in seizures of foreign slave ships during the Napoleonic Wars.

When the abolitionists, chief among them Wilbeforce, learned that the Treaty of Paris (1814) allowed for the French slave trade to persist for five years, the people strongly objected in a political mobilization that reached anywhere between one fifth to one third of eligible voters. Within a generation, abolitionism had evolved from a program of an innovative public contender to a fixture of national policy. The great mobilization of 1814 shocked the British government into making abolitionism a foreign policy priority and launched Britain into a long term international, moral and political campaign against the Atlantic slave trade. At the Congress of Vienna in 1815, Britain tried to gather international support for its abolition movement, but the other rulers were wary of giving the world's major sea power more power at sea and reactions ranged from deeply hostile to mildly sympathetic, more or less in proportion to their distance from, and interest in the Atlantic system. Britain got only moral support in the form a joint declaration that the slave trade desolated Africa, degraded Europe, and afflicted humanity. After Napoleon's final defeat Britain had to resort to soft power, bilateral treaties, binational commissions to accomplish their goals. Britain's bilateral treaties called for formerly unprecedented infringements on peacetime sovereignty, chiefly a mutual "right of search," by which the ships of one nation could be searched by another to look for African captives, and bilateral mixed commissions on both sides of the Atlantic to adjudicate the validity of shipboard seizures. These supranational courts were given the power to bypass the rights of a subject to be tried to solely by magistrates of his own state for actions on the high seas. The strongest states with slaves, namely France and the United States, were the last to fall in line leaving huge gaps in the treaty network by which hundreds of thousands of Africans could be forcibly brought to the Americas.

Despite the Britain's effort and status as the world's lone naval superpower, the ending and enforcing the end of the slave trade was very difficult. Between 1826 and 1850, the volume of the Atlantic slave trade diminished by only five percent. In the midst of British diplomatic

efforts to secure treaties abolishing the slave trade and then to enforce them, British abolitionists switched tactics to the gradual abolition of British colonial slavery in 1823. By 1833, Britain formally ended the institution of slavery throughout the Empire, and in 1838, ended the forced apprenticeship system that had been established as a transitional stage to full freedom. Britain signed bilateral treaties with Sweden, Norway and Spain to help the enforcement of the patrol against the slave trade in 1835 followed by Argentina, Uruguay, Bolivia, Chile and Ecuador from 1839-1843. Denmark, Sardinia, the German Hanse towns, Tuscany, the Two Sicilies, Haiti, Venezuela, Texas, Mexico and Belgium joined by 1850. Britain hosted a gathering of philanthropists from across the globe in the first World Antislavery Convention in 1840.

As Britain continued its efforts to abolish the slave trade, Britain still relied on slave products for its economy. Slave-grown cotton from the American South counted for 80 percent of the raw cotton material in the United Kingdom. English textile mills accounted for 40 percent of Britain's exported goods, and one fifth of Britain's population were directly or indirectly involved with cotton textiles. IN 1860, Britain consumed a billion pounds of cotton a year. That cotton was turned into 2,800,000,000 yards of cloth and nearly 200,000,000 pounds of twist and yarn. 2,650 textile factories, of which 2,195 in Lancashire County. These factories contained 30,000,000 spindles and 350,000 looms and employed half a million people. The American South is responsible for 84 percent of the entire European supply of cotton. Britain received 78,000 bales of cotton a week in 1860.

Security problems: Food, Firearms, Army

Following the invention of the cotton gin by Eli Whitney in 1793, cotton joined the rank of luxury crop like that of tobacco and sugarcane. Cotton prices changed sporadically over the years. Prices stayed high until 1819, then down, up and down again. In 1837, prices hit a crisis low and remained rather low until 1848. Prices rose sharply in 1849 and 1850, but dropped in 1851, but not as severely as before. Although the South's economy is dominated by agriculture, our main crop is cotton which is not edible. The North produces half of the nation's corn, four-fifths of its wheat and seven-eights of its oats, and since we've ended formal relations with the North we have to ensure that we can keep our populace fed.

The North currently produces 3,200 firearms to every 100 produced in the South. The North currently has 90% of the nation's factories: 97% of its firearms, 94% of its textiles, 93% of its pig iron and 90% of its footwear. There are only two ironworks in the South: Richmond, Virginia, and Clarksville, Tennessee. Coal, copper, iron and precious metals are virtually non-existent in the South. Railroads, canal systems and macadamized road are scarce in the South while abundant in the North. The North has a higher proportion of the population engaged in commercial and administrative functions than the South. The only artillery factory in sympathetic territory is the Tredegar Ironworks in Richmond Virginia, and the machinery at the Federal arsenal at Harpers Ferry for making rifles. Currently the South also lacks nitre, the main component in gunpowder.

Seven of the nation's eight military academies are in the South. Since more Southerners live in rural areas, they play more rural sports, many involving guns and horses. At this point in time, the Union army has 1,080 officers and 14,926 enlisted men. The US Regular Army was consisted mainly of men of foreign birth organized into 10 regiments of infantry, 4 of artillery, 2 of cavalry, 2 of dragoons and 1 of mounted riflemen. The Army is currently deployed across seven departments, six west of the Mississippi river. Of 198 line companies, 183 are scattered

across 79 isolated posts in the territories. The other 15 were in garrisons along the Canadian border and along the Atlantic coast. Although the US military may be small and spread thin now, the North has a population of 21 million to draw troops from while we only have a population of 9 million, which includes 3.5 million slaves.

The US has extensive state-based militias, which are organized separately from and parallel to the regular army. The Militia Act of 1792 enforced universal conscription into state militias; all men between the ages of 18 and 45, with some exceptions, were required to enroll in a local militia company, to provide at their own expense a weapon and supplies, and to attend training twice a year. However, in practice militia units were nearly useless: weapons, rarely used and purchased at the lowest cost, were rarely functional; officers had no military or leadership experience and often lacked the respect of their men; no militias had ever drilled together as regiment or larger sized units; and training at best consisted of parade-ground marching. (At worst, militia training was a time for the community to get together to drink and gamble.) The US militia has been repeatedly defeated by numerically inferior opponents in the Revolutionary War, the American Indian Wars, and the War of 1812. In addition, states are usually allowed to determine how they will call up their own militias, and how many will be drafted; there has never in US history been a nationwide, federally organized draft.

The CSA has inherited the US's state-based militias, and has legally established its own military forces: the Provisional Army of the Confederate States, meant as a temporary organization for the duration of the current conflict only; and the Army of the Confederate States of America, a permanent standing army, authorized to include only 744 officers and 14,271 enlisted men. As with the USA, the CSA must either work with its constituent state governors to call up militias and share authority, or else abandon the cause of states' rights and organize a federal draft.

The US retains an overwhelming naval advantage. Because the US navy mostly recruited from the North, and because of detached nature of their service, very few naval officers have defected to the CSA. No naval officers defected with their ships, leaving the CSA with no navy. The CSA currently controls none of the US's naval shipyards; the only one located in a CSA-sympathizing state is Norfolk Yard, in Virginia, whereas the US retains definite control of shipyards in Portsmouth, Boston, Vallejo, New York, Philadelphia, and Washington DC. As noted above, the US also has a distinct advantage in ironworks.

Immediate Problems

We will face four immediate problems going forwards: the disposition of federal forts, shipyards, and other property in territory that has seceded; how to deal with Unionists within CSA territory; whether further states will secede; and how the US will respond to the current set of secessionists.

The federal government has legal control of a broad range of territories across the South; however, in practice almost all of these customs houses, arsenals, mints, and forts have already been seized by secessionists. The new Confederate government, under its President Jefferson Davis, has offered to pay for all federal facilities in the rebelling states, including those not yet seized. More urgent, however, is the question of how to deal with Forts Sumter and Pickens. Both of these forts- Fort Sumter in Charleston Harbor, Fort Pickens in Florida- are still under the control of loyal troops; however, the CSA has demanded that they be turned over, and is

mobilizing its own forces around them. Fort Sumter in particular is running out of supplies; the approaches to it lie under CSA guns, and an attempted resupply by ship was forced away.

Some southerners oppose secession from the Union. These Southern Unionists, however, have at present few arms, little to no organization, and are badly outnumbered; whereas the CSA has already set up a government and begun to establish a regular military. Throughout the south, Unionists are being imprisoned, attacked, or lynched. In addition, several broad regions- western Virginia, western North Carolina, eastern Tennessee, and northern Arkansas- are much more pro-Union that the rest of their state; thus far, the influence of these regions have managed to delay their states' outright secession. Generally speaking, the population of these regions are poorer white farmers, who farm their own land and do not have slaves; they generally see secession as a rich slaveowner's fight. Some have already offered to fight for the United States.

Although 7 states have already declared their independence from the United States, there are several more- Virginia, Arkansas, Tennessee, North Carolina, Kentucky, Missouri, and Maryland,- that have populations sympathetic to the CSA, and may attempt to join it. Many of these states have already assembled conventions to debate the issue, and are preparing to hold statewide votes. The Confederate cause is widely popular in Virginia and North Carolina, but neither state has actually voted to secede yet. Tennessee and Arkansas both have significant pro-Union minorities, but are strongly anti-abolitionist. Missouri's population appears split fairly evenly. Governor Claiborne Fox Jackson, the lieutenant-governor, and a majority of the state legislature are pro-slavery Democrats, and the governor has already called for secession; however, the state already convened a convention to debate the issue, and it decided, for the time being, against secession. In Maryland, the legislature is also solidly pro-states' rights and pro-South; however, the unionist Governor Thomas Hicks has refused to call the legislature into session, preventing them from taking any action at present. Kentucky is almost purely neutral; its government has proclaimed its neutrality in any conflict, and is attempting to hold a border states convention to pressure both sides towards peace.

Going forwards, the United States government must chose whether or not to allow the CSA to secede peacefully, and, if not, how to suppress the rebellion.

USA Positions:

Vice President **Hannibal Hamlin**

Once a prominent Maine democrat, Hamlin's defection to the fledgling Republican Party caused national shock. Hamlin has served in Maine's House or Representatives, the US House, the US Senate, and as Governor of Maine. He is a strong opponent of slavery; his defection was due to the Democrat's endorsement of the Kansas-Nebraska Act, and caused Maine to become to first solidly Republican state. Hamlin has also served as a Major in Maine's militia, and had a close working relationship throughout his career with Canadian leaders. As vice-president, he will assume the Presidency if Lincoln is unable to continue in office, and serves as Lincoln's top deputy.

Secretary of State William Henry Seward

William Seward was possibly the most popular politician among the Republican base, and is widely viewed as an elder statesman. After serving a term as governor of his home state of New York, Seward led the opposition to slavery in the Senate. In 1860, Seward was seen as the clear favorite to win the Republican nomination for President. However, Seward was widely viewed as an extreme firebrand: the President refused to meet with him, the Chief Justice stated that he would refuse to swear in Seward if he was elected, and southerners cited his words as a 'declaration of war' on the south. Abraham Lincoln, who had not stirred up controversy and whose platform attempted to avoid making the Republicans a single-issue party, won the ballot.

As Secretary of State, Seward is in charge of all foreign relations of the United States. However, there is a delay of several weeks before he is able to directly contact foreign governments, due to the need to send messages across the Atlantic.

Secretary of the Treasury Salmon P. Chase

Salmon P. Chase is the founder of the Free Soil Party, a single-issue anti-slavery party that folded into the Republican Party in 1854. He had previously defended fugitive slaves in court, which earned him the nickname of the 'Attorney General for Fugitive Slaves'. After Abraham Lincoln defeated him in the 1860 Republican primaries, Chase resigned from his senate seat to become Lincoln's Secretary of the Treasury, though he still has Presidential aspirations. He is a good friend of McClellan.

The Secretary of the Treasury is responsible for regulating and controlling the US's banking system, and ensuring that the government has sufficient funds to operate.

Secretary of War Simon Cameron

An independently wealthy politician, Cameron was able to parlay his wealth- from railroads, canals, and banks- into a senate seat. He was one of the first Republican presidential contenders to drop out and endorse Lincoln; in return, Lincoln made Cameron his Secretary of War.

As Secretary of War, Cameron provides civilian oversight for the army, and managed the

development of the army's development, supplies, and recruiting.

Attorney General Edward Bates

Although slaveowner before taking office, Bates is a Republican- he opposes both slavery and forced emancipation. He is an elder statesman from Missouri, who helped to write the state's constitution in 1820. He has decades of experience in the law, and is a committed defender of civil liberties. He has one son in the militia in CSA territory, and two in the militia in USA territory; he opposes any potential war.

As Attorney General, Bates is responsible for litigating any lawsuits the US is involved in, and for providing legal advice directly to the President and Cabinet.

Postmaster-General Montgomery Blair

Blair comes from a strongly Unionist family; he himself is a fairly hardline abolitionist, who was an early supporter of Lincoln Lincoln placed him in his cabinet in part to represent the radical republicans, who are strongly supporters of emancipation. Blair's brother Congressman Francis Blair has taken leadership of Unionist militia in Missouri.

As Postmaster-General, Blair has formal authority over the postal system. This gives him authority over the telegraph system. Blair also has significant influence over and knowledge of the operations of the nation's transportation networks- canal, railroad, and road.

Secretary of the Navy Gideon Welles

Gideon Welles was a Connecticut lawyer, journalist, and politician, whose newspaper *The Hartford Evening Press* was a key early endorser of Lincoln. An extremely competent administrator and civil servant, Welles' priority is holding together the Union, and, in the event of a war, winning it with the minimum amount of bloodshed. Although he is a Republican, he therefore opposes emancipation on the grounds that it will make the South much more likely to resist.

As Secretary of the Navy, Gideon Welles provides civil oversight for the Navy, and manages the Navy's training, recruitment, and shipbuilding.

Secretary of the Interior Caleb Blood Smith

An aging lawyer and politician from Indiana, Caleb Smith is one of the most conservative members of the cabinet. After retiring from politics, he helped sway Indiana to support Lincoln in the Republican nomination; he was rewarded with the post of Secretary of the Interior. A former whig, Smith is one of the most conservative members of the cabinet: he opposes emancipation.

As Secretary of the Interior, Smith is in charge of dealing with Indian tribes, and of the construction and maintenance of the US's transportation networks- canals, railroads, and roads.

Private Secretary John Nicolay

A German immigrant, Nicolay met Abraham Lincoln when Nicolay was Assistant Secretary of State for Illinois. He aided in Lincoln's campaign, and was appointed private secretary- a role that was considered as worthy as a cabinet post, and was a precursor to the entire White House staff, from the Press Secretary to the White House Chief of Staff.

As one of the two private secretaries of the President, Nicolay is responsible for keeping notes on all previous decisions; for gathering any information needed by the cabinet that doesn't fall under the purview of other members and recording all information presented to the cabinet; for monitoring the implementation of the cabinet's decisions; and for the President's public relations.

Private Secretary John Hay

John Hay is a close personal friend of Abraham Lincoln, who worked on his election campaign. Afterward, he was brought on as Lincoln's private secretary- a role that was considered as worthy as a cabinet post, and was a precursor to the entire White House staff, from the Press Secretary to the White House Chief of Staff.

As one of the two private secretaries of the President, Hay is responsible for keeping notes on all previous decisions; for gathering any information needed by the cabinet that doesn't fall under the purview of other members and recording all information presented to the cabinet; for monitoring the implementation of the cabinet's decisions; and for the President's public relations.

Ambassador to England Charles Francis Adams

Charles Francis Adams, the grandson of President John Adams, is a former member of the Free-Soil Party and committed Republican. As Ambassador to England, Adams is responsible for persuading the English public to support the Union, and preventing the CSA from gaining diplomatic ground. As the only top member of Lincoln's administration physically present in England, Adams is authorized to act with some degree of independence from Washington D.C.

Ambassador to France William L. Dayton

Dayton was a prominent New Jersey ex-Whig, and the 1856 Republican Vice-Presidential Candidate. As Ambassador to France, Dayton is responsible for persuading the French public to support the Union, and preventing the CSA from gaining diplomatic ground. As the only top member of Lincoln's administration physically present in Paris, Dayton is authorized to act with some degree of independence from Washington D.C.

Ambassador to Russia Cassius Marcellus Clay

As Ambassador to Russia, Clay is responsible for persuading the Russian public to support the Union, and preventing the CSA from gaining diplomatic ground. As the only top member of Lincoln's administration physically present in Russia, Adams is authorized to act with

some degree of independence from Washington D.C.

General Winfield Scott

General Scott is the most experienced United States military commander, and is the Commanding General of the United States Army. He has served as general in every military conflict since the War of 1812, and is famous and loved by the American people for his series of crushing victories that brought the Mexican-American War to a close. Following his victories, the Whig party abandoned its own incumbent President to nominate him for President, although he lost the general election. Although he has formal command of the US Army, Scott is now too old and infirm to take the field himself; he instead advises Lincoln on grand strategy.

General George McClellan

General McClellan is an expert on logistics and military science. He was trained as an engineer and served as one during the Mexican-American War, and, during his brief retirement, was president of a railroad company. He has translated numerous European military manuals into English, designed the saddle used by American cavalry, and was a foreign observer during the Crimean War. McClellan is a cautious, politically astute and popular commander, who seeks to minimize casualties and enforce strict discipline and training on his troops. He is also a good friend of Chase, and opposes both emancipation and fighting the secessionists, although he is very loyal to the Union. McClellan is currently commander of the Department of the Ohio, consisting of all troops in the central US.

General John Frémont

General Frémont is a war hero of the Mexican-American and Indian Wars; known as 'The Pathfinder,' he led numerous military expeditions across the West, and conquered California. As a leader, he was extremely aggressive, and at times insubordinate. He is also exceedingly well-connected politically; he briefly served as a Senator, was the 1856 Republican presidential candidate, and was most notable for his strong anti-slavery stance. (One of the first Free Soil/Republican slogans was 'Free Soil, Free Speech, Free Men, and Frémont'.) General Frémont is commander of the Department of the West, which consists of all territory west of the Mississippi.

Assistant Secretary of War Thomas A. Scott

Scott is a wealthy businessman and was the Vice-President of the Pennsylvania Railroad, which by a series of mergers and acquisitions spread well beyond Pennsylvania to become the largest US railroad by revenue and traffic. Scott was first appointed a Colonel of the Pennsylvania Volunteers by Pennsylvania Governor Andrew Curtis, and was later moved by Lincoln to become Assistant Secretary of War. Scott is directly responsible for making the movement of troops and supplies for efficient, but also has other responsibilities within the Department of War as determined by Secretary Cameron and President Lincoln.

Scott is politically moderate, and is primarily interested in the resumption of normal business. He is a strong supporter of the intercontinental railroad. In his personal life, Scott is known as one of the first robber barons, and is unpopular among the working class.

Assistant Secretary of the Navy Gustavus Vasa Fox

Gustavus Fox is an experienced sailor who served in the Navy for 18 years, until he retired to work as a clothing manufacturer. Fox was appointed as Assistant Secretary of he Navy at the start of Lincoln's term, in part due to the influence of his brother-in-law Montgomery Blair, and was given direct command of the first attempt to resupply Fort Sumter, which was rebuffed by Confederate forces; he retains civilian control of the mission. In Washington, Fox's is primarily responsible for naval cooperation with the army; he also has other responsibilities within the Department of the Navy as determined by Secretary Cameron and President Lincoln.

Army Colonel Michael Corcoran

Michael Corcan is a Colonel of the New York militia, and an influential Irish-American community leader and politician. He was born in Ireland, and before immigrating to the US was a member of a Catholic guerrilla group, known as the Ribbonmen. In New York, Corcoran worked with Tammany Hall to help deliver the Irish vote to Democratic politicians; he is extremely loyal to his adopted country, the United States, and strongly opposes secession.

Navy Captain **David Farragut**

David Farragut is the commander of US Naval Forces in the Gulf of Mexico, which are too far away for quick communication with the rest of the US Cabinet. (The US Navy does not currently have the rank of Admiral; so the rank of Captain is the highest in the Navy. Farragut is the most-senior Captain in the US Navy.) He is one of the longest-serving US naval officers, having enlisted in 1810; although he is from the South, he regards secession as treason and worthy of the death penalty.

Naval Ordnance Department and Commander of the Washington Navy Yard Commander **John A Dahlgren**

John Dahlgren is the founder and leader of the US Navy's Ordinance Department, and the designer of a class of naval guns, the Dahlgren Guns, which were technologically superior to contemporary naval armaments. At the start of the Civil War, Dahlgren's immediate superior, the commander of the Washington Naval Yard, which is the nation's main shipbuilding and shipfitting facility, defected to the South. Dahlgren was then promoted to command of the

Washington Naval Yard, and now has primary responsibility for shipbuilding and shipfitting, and for the production of naval ordinance.

Army Brigadier General John Alexander McClernand

John McClernand is a prominent Illinois politician, who has previously served as Representative in the US House and who is a close personal friend of Abraham Lincoln. He is a Democratic and an opponent of abolition, though he is also a strong Unionist. Although he resigned from political office to raise a volunteer brigade immediately after the war began, McClernand is a politician first and a soldier second; he has little military experience, but extensive politician connections and ambitions. His brigade serves in the West, under General Fremont.

Union Intelligence Service Chief Allan Pinkerton

Allan Pinkerton is the head of the Union Intelligence Service, the United State's primary intelligence and counter-intelligence body. He was first hired by General George McClellan but now is directly subordinate to Secretary of War Cameron. Pinkerton is responsible for all spying or other covert intelligence-gathering efforts in the South, as well as for rooting out Southern sympathizers in the North and for preventing assassination attempts on the members of this body. He has at his disposal not only the North's own organizations, but also his own private detective agency, Pinkerton & Co.

Senate President pro Tempore **Solomon Foot**

Solomon Foot is a highly experienced lawyer and politician from Vermont. He previously served as the Speaker of the House for Vermont's state congress, as a Whig, and was elected to the US Senate as a Whig in 1851. Foot opposed the Mexican-American War and the extension of slavery, and joined the Republican Party at its founding. As an influential Whig senator, Foot became the senior Republican senator, and became President pro Tempore of the US Senate upon the Republican victory in the 1860 elections.

Speaker of the House of Representatives Galusha Grow

Galusha Grow is the Speaker of the House. He is a Representative from Pennsylvania, who switched from the Democratic to the Republican Party immediately after the Kansas-Nebraska Act. Grow is an influential member of the Radical Republicans, who strongly oppose slavery and distrust the South.

CSA Positions:

Alexander Stephens (Vice President of the CSA)

A vehement supporter of slavery, Alexander Stephens was also committed to preserving the Union. As talks of secession grew, Stephens advocated to find a solution through Congress not secession. At Georgia's special convention on secession, Stephens voted "no." Despite his opposition to secession, Stephens was selected to represent Georgia at the Provisional Confederate Congress in Montgomery, Alabama. Alexander Stephens had previously served in both houses of the Georgia Assembly before being elected to the U.S. House of Representatives in 1843. In Congress, Stephens favored the annexation of Texas and played a critical role in passing the Compromise of 1850, and supported the Kansas-Nebraska Act. Stephens and Robert Toombs were lifelong friends and allies.

Robert Toombs (Secretary of State)

Toombs was a slaveholding planter who had earlier spent the majority of his political career to preserving the Union. Toombs served in the U.S. Senate from 1853-1861. Toombs supported the Georgia Platform in 1850, which helped to save the Union in 1850. As the 1850s progressed, Toombs drifted more and more into the secessionist camp, eventually becoming one of the most ardent secessionists in the U.S. Senate. Robert Toombs helped to lead Georgia out of the Union. Toombs and Alexander Stephens were lifelong friends.

Christopher Memminger (Secretary of the Treasury)

Christopher Gustavas Memminger initially criticized South Carolina's attempt to nullify Federal laws in the 1830s. Memminger joined the secessionist movement after Abraham Lincoln was elected President. Memminger was selected to write the "Declaration of the Immediate Causes Which Induce and Justify the Secession of South Carolina from the Federal Union," the legal justification for South Carolina's secession. He then became a South Carolina delegate to the Provisional Congress of Confederate States and chaired the committee which drafted the Confederate.

Leroy Pope Walker (Secretary of War)

Leroy Pope Walker served in the Alabama House of Representatives from 1843-44 and 1847-1851, serving as Speaker of the House from 1847 to 1850. He was elected Judge of the Fourth Judicial Circuit of Alabama, but resigned in 1853 to serve another year in the state legislature. During the Democratic National Convention of 1860, Walker chaired the Alabama delegation and was one of several who walked out of the convention amidst arguments over the issues of slavery and territorial expansion, which eventually lead to the split of the party into Northern and Southern platforms. As Secretary of War, Walker shall be responsible for the organization and recruitment of troops and mobilizing the army. In 1846, Walker served as a member of the Russellville Convention, which adopted a resolution that demanded the protection of slavery in any new U.S. territories. Walker was also selected as a delegate to the Nashville

Convention of 1850-51, where Southern secession was debated as a possible response to the Compromise of 1850.

Stephen Mallory (Secretary of the Navy)

Formally serving as the Chairman of the U.S. Senate Committee of Naval Affairs, Stephen Mallory was born on the Caribbean island of Trinidad but moved to Key West Florida around 1823. Mallory was appointed Customs Inspector for Key West by President Andrew Jackson. He served in the army during the Seminole War from 1835 to 1837. In 1845, Mallory was appointed Collector of the Customs at Key West by President James Polk, and in 1850 selected to serve in the U.S. Senate by the Florida Legislature. Mallory had been agreeable to the Compromise of 1850, but by 1854, debate on the Kansas-Nebraska act had hardened his views to a pro-slavery, pro-state's rights, pro-Southern position. Mallory was avoided the extremes. He never adopted the objectives of unionists, who would avoid disunion at any cost, or secessionists, who would withdraw from the Union at first hint of attack on Southern institutions. Mallory was a centrist who could switch relatively easily to the left or right as his conscience and constituency dictated.

John H. Reagan (Postmaster General)

A veteran of the Cherokee War, John Henninger Reagan of Texas, was elected the first county judge of Henderson County in 1846 and a year later to the Second Legislature of Texas. After losing reelection to the state legislature in 1849, he was nominated and elected to the U.S. House of Representatives by the Democratic Party to represent the Eastern District of Texas in 1857. Reagan won reelection in 1859 on a middle-of-the-road, pro-Union platform, but resigned his congressional seat on January 15, 1861 as Texas secession seemed imminent. Reagan attened the state Secession Convention and was elected as one of the Texas' seven representatives to the secession convention in Montgomery, Alabama.

Judah P. Benjamin (Attorney General)

Born a British subject in the British West Indies, Judah P. Benjamin prospered for a time as a sugar planter, helped organize the Illinois Central Railroad, and was elected to the Louisiana legislature in 1842. He was a member of the Whig Party when he was elected to the U.S. Senate in 1852, where he became the first acknowledged Jew. He was reelected to the Senate as a Democrat in 1858, and throughout his tenure as a Senator, he was known as an eloquent defender of Southern interests. He forged a friendship with Jefferson Davis.

Robert E. Lee

Graduating second in his class from West Point in 1829, Robert E. Lee was commissioned as officer in the Corps of Engineers. Lee worked on projects coastal defense projects in Georgia, Virginia, and New York. Lee first set foot on the battlefield in the Mexican American war under General Winfield Scott. During the war, Lee distinguished himself, earning three brevets for gallantry and emerging from the conflict with the rank of colonel. Lee served as superintendent of West Point from 1852 until 1855 when he went to the cavalry. In 1859, Lee

was called upon to put down abolitionist John Brown's raid at Harpers Ferry. Lee opposed slavery in the abstract but felt that secession had been agitated by the North.

Maria Isabella Boyd

Maria Isabella Boyd was born in May 1844 in Martinsburg, Virginia (now West Virginia) to a prosperous family with strong Southern ties. If war breaks out, her family will most likely side with the South.

Joseph E Brown (Governor of Georgia)

Joseph Emerson Brown was elected to the Georgia state senate in 1849. Soon after his election, he proved himself a leader of the Democratic Party. He was then elected as state circuit judge in 1855. In 1857, Brown managed to secure the Democrats' gubernatorial nomination and won decisively in the election. As tension between the North and the South intensified, Governor Brown became an ardent secessionist. He advised the legislature to strengthen the unprepared militia and to make other military preparations. After Lincoln's election, Brown called on Georgia to follow South Carolina out of the Union, warning of the dangers of abolition that would lead to interracial marriage and racial equality. Brown ordered for the seizure of the undefended federal Fort Pulaski before the convention voted to secede. Brown extremely favors states' rights and dislikes any strong central government.

James Murray Mason

James Murray Mason served in Virginia Legislature during the 1820s. A Jackson Democrat, Mason was elected to the 25th United States Congress in 1836 and served one term. In 1847, Mason was elected to the Senate as a Democrat after the death of Isaac S. Pennybacker, and was reelected in 1850, and 1856. Mason was a United States Congressman and Senator from Virginia. Mason authored the 1850 Fugitive Slave Law. Mason associated with the most prominent Southern Rights Democrats, especially John C. Calhoun. Mason drafted the Fugitive Slave Act of 1850, which provided for the return of runaway slaves to be returned to their owners if they escaped to freedom in the North. Mason and Jefferson Davis were old friends, and Mason had served 10 years on the Senate Foreign Relations Committee.

John Slidell

John Slidell was a senator and diplomat to Mexico during the Mexican-American War. Slidell was elected to the U.S. House of Representatives as a state-rights Democrat in 1843. In November, 1845, he was sent as minister to Mexico by President Polk, to adjust the difficulty caused by the annexation of Texas to the United States. Mexico refused to accept his credintials, so the United States declared war on Mexico on May 13, 1846. Slidell was elected to the Senate in 1853 and voted with the other pro-Southern congressmen to repeal the Missouri Compromise, acquire Cuba, and admit Kansas under the Lecompton Constitution. Slidell went back to the

Senate on December 5, 1853 and stayed there until his resignation on February 5, 1861. Slidell was a strenuous supporter of the doctrines of state-rights, and followed his state once it seceded.

Francis Pickens (Governor of South Carolina)

Francis Wilkinson Pickens served in the South Carolina House of Representatives for a number of non-consecutive terms and served in the U.S. House of Representatives from 1835 to 1843. In the 1830s, Pickens was an ardent supporter of the principle of nullification, whereby state law is held to supersede federal law. In 1850, Pickens was selected to attend the Nashville Convention of Southern Leaders, and he emerged as a strong advocate for secession but gradually moderated his views as the decade advanced. Pickens served as U.S. minister to Russia from 1858 to 1860, when he was elected governor of South Carolina. Six days after Pickens' gubernatorial election, South Carolina seceded from the Union, and Pickens authorized the first military action of the Civil War on January 9, 1861 when South Carolina troops fired on the *Star of the West* as it attempted to relieve the Federal Army at Fort Sumter.

John J. Pettus (Governor of Mississippi)

John Jones Pettus served in the Mississippi House of Representatives from 1846-48. He was then elected to the state senate in 1848 and was named president of the senate in 1854. As sectional tensions intensified, Pettus became one of the fiercest supporters of secession. His election as the governor of Mississippi by a wide margin indicated that secession was becoming more popular with the people of Mississippi. In his inaugural address, Governor Pettus predicted that the growing sectional animosity would eventually lead to the abolition of slavery and the loss of the South's enormous financial investment in the slave labor system. He believed that secession to secure southern sovereignty was the only way for the South to maintain slavery.

Madison S. Perry (Governor of Florida)

Madison Starke Perry moved to Florida in 1845 where he operated a plantation and became known as a gifted orator. Perry was elected to the Florida House of Representatives in 1849 and the Florida State Senate in 1850. Perry was elected governor of Florida on October 6, 1856. Perry anticipated the secession and in 1858 advocated for restoring the state militia.

Thomas O. Moore (Governor of Louisiana)

Thomas Overton Moore first moved to Louisiana in 1829 where he eventually became a successful planter. Moore entered politics in 1848 serving as a one-term member of the Louisiana House of Representatives. He also was elected to the Louisiana state Senate in 1856. Moore won the 1859 Democratic gubernatorial nomination and was elected governor on Nov. 7, 1859. After Lincoln's election a secession convention was assembled, which resulted in the authorization of secession from the Union on January 26, 1861.

Samuel Houston (Governor of Texas)

After serving two non-consecutive terms as President of the Republic of Texas, when Texas joined the Union in 1846, Samuel Houston was elected to represent Texas in the U.S. Senate. In the Senate, Houston emerged as an ardent Unionist, which made him an increasingly controversial figure. He stridently opposed the rising sectionalism of the antebellum period. Houston supported the 1820 Missouri Compromise and the Compromise of 1850. Houston characterized himself as a Southern man for the Union and opposed any threats of disunity, whether from Northern or Southern agitators. Houston alienated democrats by opposing the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, because he saw slavery or abolition via popular sovereignty as destabilizing to the Union. Although a slave owner, Houston opposed slavery's expansion into the territories. Houston was elected governor in 1859, and although opposed to the Texas secession convention, he allowed it to proceed to avoid civil strife.

John Letcher (Governor of Virginia)

John Letcher was a student of Jacksonian Democracy, which called for the limited federal government and white male suffrage. Letcher advocated for the gradual abolition of slavery but he opposed slavery on practical not moral reasons. Letcher won a seat in the U.S. House of Representatives in 1851. There he emphasized states' rights, strict constitutional construction and thrifty government. Although he thought that the differences between northern and southerners were exaggerated, he worried about the new Republican Party's intentions on slavery and southern rights. Letcher was elected Governor of Virginia on January 1, 1860, a time when John Brown's raid on Harpers Ferry deeply troubled the state and the nation. Talk of secession abounded and many politicians wanted to increase Virginia's military stores and the size of its armed forces. Letcher maintained that there was still time to amend the constitution in order to preserve slavery and calm sectional tensions, but quietly began preparing for war. During the Virginia Secession Convention, Letcher continues to resist the radicals, and Virginia remains in the Union.

John Willis Ellis (Governor of North Carolina)

John Willis Ellis was elected a member of the North Carolina House of Representatives in 1844. In 1848, Ellis was elected a judge of the Superior Court by the North Carolina General Assembly. Ellis remained a judge until 1858, when he won his party's nomination for governor and then won the North Carolina gubernatorial election. As governor Ellis pushed for faster movement of railroad freights, better plank roads and turnpikes, improvements in education and completion of delayed river navigation projects. During his reelection campaign in 1860, Ellis denounced abolitionists but steered clear of advocating dissolution of the Union. On Nov. 20, 1860, Ellis proposed a three-part strategy: participation in a conference of southern states to discuss the situation in the country, a state convention of the people to establish North Carolina's position, and reorganization of the militia including the creation of a corps of volunteers.

Claiborne Fox Jackson (Governor of Missouri)

Claiborne Fox Jackson joined the Howard County militia in 1832 and led the volunteers during the Black Hawk War. In 1836, Jackson was elected to the state House of Representatives, and again in 1842. Jackson, a strong supporter of slaver, became a leader in the legislature, becoming speaker in 1844. After Missouri Senator Benton opposed slavery in the territory acquired after the Mexican-American War, Jackson passed a series of measures called the Jackson Resolutions in the General Assembly which opposed Benton and asserted that Congress had no power to limit or prohibit slavery in the territories, and instructed Missouri representatives in Washington DC to support the extension of slavery into the territories. Jackson didn't hold elected office during the 1850s, but remained involved in politics. In 1860, Jackson won the Democratic nomination for governor running as a moderate. After Lincoln's election, Jackson abandoned his pro-Union stance and immediately pushed for secession. A majority of Missouri's voters rejected secession, and elected to a state convention only delegates who wanted to remain in the Union.

Thomas Jonathan Jackson

After graduating from West Point in 1846 and serving in the Mexican-American War, Thomas Jonathan Jackson was promoted to the rank of major. In 1851, Jackson resigned his military commission and accepted a teaching position at the Virginia Military Institute in Lexington, Virginia.

P. G. T. Beauregard (Brigadier General of the Provisional Confederate Army)

Pierre Gustave Toutant Beauregard trained as a civil engineer at the United States Military Academy and served with distinction as an engineer in the Mexican-American War. A native of Louisiana, Beauregard resigned from the U.S. Army in February 1861. He became the first Confederate brigadier general on March 1, 1861. Beauregard is currently the only general in the Provisional Confederate Army.

Braxton Bragg (Louisiana state military board member)

Braxton Bragg graduated from West Point fifth in a class of fifty in 1837 before serving in the Second Seminole War and the Mexican American War. After serving in the latter war, Bragg was commended for bravery and promoted to lieutenant colonel after the Battle of Buena Vista in 1847. He retired from the military in 1855 to become a sugar planter in Thibodaux, Louisiana. Bragg served as a colonel in the Louisiana Militia before being promoted to major general then to the commanding Department of Louisiana on February 22 1861.

Josiah Gorgas

Josiah Gorgas entered the United States Military Academy at West Point in 1837, graduating 6th in a class of fifty-two. After graduating, Gorgas was commissioned a second lieutenant of ordnance, serving at Watervliet Arsenal near Troy, New York, and the Detroit Arsenal before spending a year studying foreign ordnance in Europe in May 1845. During the

Mexican-American War, Gorgas served under Winfield Scott at the battles of Vera Cruz and Cerro Gordo. Gorgas was promoted to first lieutenant in 1847. Following the war, Gorgas served in Pennsylvania and in November 1851 at Fort Monroe in Virginia before being transferred to the Mount Vernon Arsenal north of Mobile, Alabama in 1853.

William Preston (U.S. Minister to Spain)

William Preston was appointed Lt. Colonel of the 4th Kentucky at the beginning of the Mexican-American War. During the 1840s and 50s, Preston was elected to both houses of the Kentucky legislature and represented Kentucky in the U.S. Congress. President James Buchanan appointed Preston minister to Spain in 1858.

Sources

American Civil War. Accessed 6/25/2014. Web; available at http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/American_Civil_War.

Abbott, John S. C. The Life of Christopher Columbus. New York: Dodd & Mead, 1875.

- Adams, Ephraim Douglass, 1865-1930. <u>Great Britain And the American Civil War</u>. New York: Russell & Russell, 1958.
- "Anglo-American Relations during the Civil War." *Bl.uk*. British Library, n.d. Web. 07 Sept. 2014.
- Arrington, Benjamin T. "Industry and Economy during the Civil War." *National Parks Service*.

 U.S. Department of the Interior, 14 Aug. 2014. Web. 7 Sept. 2014.
- Atkins, Leah R. "Andrew B. Moore (1857-61)." *Encyclopedia of Alabama*. Alabama Humanities Foundation, 3 Oct. 2011. Web. 08 Sept. 2014.
- Beringer, Richard E; Hattaway, Herman; Jones, Archer; Still, William N. Why the South Lost the Civil War. 1991. University of Georgia Press: Athens, GA.
- Boney, F. N. "Joseph E. Brown (1821-1894)." *New Georgia Encyclopedia*. Georgia Humanities Council, 20 Aug. 2014. Web. 08 Sept. 2014.
- Bowen, Wayne H. *Shades of Blue and Gray : Spain and the American Civil War*. Columbia [Mo.]: U of Missouri, 2011. Print.

"Braxton Bragg." *History.com*. A&E Television Networks, n.d. Web. 7 Sept. 2014.

- Brooksher, William R. & Snider, David K. Glory at a Gallop. 1995. Brassey's: Washington DC.
- Burton, E. Milby. *The Siege of Charleston*. 1970. The University of South Carolina Press: Columbia, SC.
- Burton, Orville V., and Patricia D. Bonnin. "King Cotton In The Civil War." *Shotgun's Home of the American Civil War*. CivilWarHome.com, 16 Feb. 2002. Web. 7 Sept. 2014.
- Catton, Bruce. Bruce Catton's Civil War. 1984. Fairfield Press.
- Catton, Bruce. *The American Heritage New History of The Civil War*. 2001. Ed. James M. McPherson. MetroBooks: New York, NY.
- "Christopher Memminger." *National Parks Service*. U.S. Department of the Interior, 06 Sept. 2014. Web. 08 Sept. 2014.
- "Claiborne Fox Jackson (1806 1862)." *Historic Missourians*. The State Historical Society of Missouri, n.d. Web. 08 Sept. 2014.
- Cross, Jerry L. "JOHN WILLIS ELLIS." *NCPEDIA*. State Library of North Carolina, 26 Aug. 2005. Web. 08 Sept. 2014.
- De Fontaine, F. G. History of American Abolitionism: Its Four Great Epochs, Embracing
 Narratives of the Ordinance of 1787, Compromise of 1820, Annexation of Texas, Mexican
 War, Wilmot Proviso, Negro Insurrections, Abolition Riots, Slave Rescues, Compromise of
 1850, Kansas Bill of 1854, John Brown Insurrection, 1859, Valuable Statistics, &c., &c.,
 Together with a History of the Southern Confederacy: (originally Published In the New
 York Herald). New York: D. Appleton & co., 1861.
- Decredico, Mary. "Josiah Gorgas (1818-1883)." *Encyclopedia Virginia*. Virginia Foundation for the Humanties, 5 May 2014. Web. 7 Sept. 2014.
- Drescher, Seymour. *Abolition: A History of Slavery and Antislavery*. Cambridge: Cambridge UP, 2009. Print.
- Evans, Eli N. "Judah P. Benjamin." *Shotgun's Home of the American Civil War*. CivilWarHome.com, n.d. Web. 05 Sept. 2014.

- "Francis Wilkinson Pickens." *National Parks Service*. U.S. Department of the Interior, 03 Sept. 2014. Web. 07 Sept. 2014.
- "Franklin Buchanan." Civil War Trust. Civil War Trust, n.d. Web. 07 Sept. 2014.
- Gascoigne, Bamber. "HISTORY OF THE SPANISH EMPIRE." *Historyworld.net*. History World, 2001. Web. 7 Sept. 2014.
- Gibbs, J. T. Slavery. Okawville, Ill.: J.T. Gibbs, 1913.
- Goodwin, Doris Kearns. A Team of Rivals: The Political Genius of Abraham Lincoln. 2005.

 Simon & Schuster: New York, NY.
- Grant, Ulysses S. Personal Memoirs. 1999. Random House: New York, NY.
- "Isham G. Harris (1818-1897)." N.p., n.d. Web. 08 Sept. 2014.
- "James Longstreet." Civil War Trust. Civil War Trust, n.d. Web. 08 Sept. 2014.
- "James Murray Mason (1798-1871)." *James Murray Mason (1798-1871)*. N.p., n.d. Web. 08 Sept. 2014.
- "John C. Breckinridge." History.com. A&E Television Networks, n.d. Web. 7 Sept. 2014.
- "John Slidell (1793-1871)." John Slidell (1793-1871). N.p., n.d. Web. 08 Sept. 2014.
- Justice, George. "Robert Toombs (1810-1885)." *New Georgia Encyclopedia*. Georgia Humanities Council, 21 Nov. 2013. Web. 05 Sept. 2014.
- Kreneck, Thomas H. "HOUSTON, SAMUEL." *Texas State Historical Association*. Texas State Historical Association, 27 Jan. 2014. Web. 07 Sept. 2014.
- "Leroy Pope Walker (February 7, 1817-August 23, 1884)." *Leroy Pope Walker (February 7, 1817-August 23, 1884)*. Confederate War Department, n.d. Web. 05 Sept. 2014.
- Lewis, James E. *The American Union and the Problem of Neighborhood : the United States and the Collapse of the Spanish Empire*, 1783-1829. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1998.
- "Madison Starke Perry." *Madison Starke Perry*. National Governors Association, n.d. Web. 09 Sept. 2014.

- McPherson, James M. Battle Cry of Freedom. 2003. Oxford University Press: New York, NY.
- Millar, Stephen. "Seizing the Gold of Spain: The Action off Cape Santa Maria." *Napoleon-series.org*. The Napoleon Series, Dec. 2007. Web. 7 Sept. 2014.
- Miles, Jim. *To The Sea: A History and Tour Guide of Sherman's March*. 1989. Rutledge Hill Press: Nashville, TN.
- Miller, William J. Great Maps of the Civil War. 2004. Rutledge Press: Nashville, TN.
- Morgan, Chad. "Alexander Stephens (1812-1883)." *New Georgia Encyclopedia*. Georgia Humanities Council, 11 Aug. 2014. Web. 09 Sept. 2014.
- "P. G. T. Beauregard." Civil War Trust. Civil War Trust, n.d. Web. 7 Sept. 2014.
- Ping, Larry. "Louis Napoleon & the Second Empire." *Suu.edu*. Southern Utah University, n.d. Web. 7 Sept. 2014.
- Procter, Ben H. "REAGAN, JOHN HENNINGER." *PROCTER, BEN H.* Texas State Historical Association, 15 June 2010. Web. 05 Sept. 2014.
- "Raphael Semmes." Civil War Trust. Civil War Trust, n.d. Web. 09 Sept. 2014.
- "Robert E. Lee." *Civil War Trust*. Civil War Trust, n.d. Web. 09 Sept. 2014.
- "SAMUEL COOPER." CONFEDERATE GENERALS. N.p., n.d. Web. 7 Sept. 2014.
- Sansing, David G. "John Jones Pettus: Twentieth and Twenty-third Governor of Mississippi: January 5, 1854 to January 10, 1854; 1859-1863." *Mississippi History Now*. Mississsippi Historical Society, Dec. 2003. Web. 09 Sept. 2014.
- Seans, Stephen W. Landscape Turned Red: The Battle of Antietam. 1983. Ticknor & Fields: New York, NY.
- Seyfrit, Phillip. "Brig. Gen. William Preston." *TheKentuckyCivilWarBugle.com*. The Kentucky Civil War Bugle, n.d. Web. 7 Sept. 2014.
- Sifakis, Stewart. "Braxton Bragg Biography." *Braxton Bragg Biography*. CivilWarHome.com, n.d. Web. 7 Sept. 2014.
- Sifakis, Stewart. "Robert Edward Lee Biography." *Shotgun's Home of the American Civil War*. CivilWarHome.com, n.d. Web. 09 Sept. 2014.

- "Slavery in America." *History.com.* A&E Television Networks, n.d. Web. 19 July 2014.
- Sobel, Robert, and John Raimo. "South Carolina Governor Francis Wilkinson Pickens." *National Governors Association*. National Governors Association, n.d. Web. 07 Sept. 2014.
- The Army. 2001. Ed. Harold W. Nelson. The Army Historical Foundation.
- "T. J. "Stonewall" Jackson." Civil War Trust. Civil War Trust, n.d. Web. 07 Sept. 2014.
- Tarpley, Webster G. "U.S. Civil War: The US-Russian Alliance That Saved the Union." *VoltaireNet.org*. Voltaire Network, 25 Apr. 2011. Web. 7 Sept. 2014.
- Tarpley, Webster G. "U.S. Civil War: The US-Russian Alliance That Saved the Union." *VoltaireNet.org*. Voltaire Network, 25 Apr. 2011. Web. 7 Sept. 2014.
- "Thomas Overton Moore." *Thomas Overton Moore*. National Governors Association, n.d. Web. 07 Sept. 2014.
- Underwood, Rodman L. Stephen Russell Mallory: A Biography of the Confederate Navy Secretary and United States Senator. Jefferson: Mcfarland, 2010. Print.
- Whalen, Paul L. "Kentucky's 21st Governor and First Civil War Governor BERIAH MAGOFFIN." *History of Kentucky Governors*. N.p., n.d. Web. 07 Sept. 2014.
- Whayne, Jeannie, Michael B. Dougan, and Waddy W. Moore. "Henry Massie Rector (1816□"1899)." *Encyclopedia of Arkansas*. The Central Arkansas Library System, 6 Sept. 2012.
 Web. 08 Sept. 2014.
- White, Jonathan. "Leroy Pope Walker." *Encyclopedia of Alabama: Leroy Pope Walker*. Alabama Humanities Foundation, 18 Sept. 2008. Web. 05 Sept. 2014.
- Wright, Catherine H. "John Letcher (1813-1884)." *Encyclopedia Virginia*. Virginia Foundation for the Humanities, 8 Mar. 2014. Web. 07 Sept. 2014.