I. AMERICAN COMMUNITIES Hale County, Alabama: From Slavery to Freedom in a Black Belt Community

Violent political encounters were common between black people and white people in southern communities after the Civil War. Communities throughout the South struggled over the meaning of freedom in ways that reflected their particular circumstances. More than anything, freed people wanted more autonomy. Overseers grudgingly allowed them to work the land in familial groups and letting them choose their own supervisors. The result was a shift from gang labor to the sharecropping system where African American families worked the land in exchange for a small share of the crop. The majority of African Americans had to settle for sharecropping or tenant farming. Local African Americans began to organize politically and in 1866, Congress passed the Civil Rights Act and sent the Fourteenth Amendment to the states for ratification. Both measures promised full citizenship rights to the former slaves. These economic and political gains by African Americans soon drew white protest and violence. After the murder of a black voting registrar in Greensboro, freedmen enlisted in the Union League and scared angry whites joined the Ku Klux Klan as white resistance to Reconstruction spread. Although the passage of the Ku Klux Klan Act of 1871 led to a federal crackdown on the Klan, the destruction of slavery made it apparent that whites and African Americans would have to renegotiate their respective roles. In the end, Reconstruction was only partly successful.

II. THE POLITICS OF RECONSTRUCTION

Although Abraham Lincoln had characterized the Civil War as a struggle to preserve the Union, by 1863 it became a war for African American freedom and the end of slavery. The Civil War settled the issue of slavery permanently and resolved the Constitutional crisis provoked by the secession of the Confederacy. The old notion of the United States as a voluntary union of sovereign states was replaced by the new reality of a single nation where the federal government took precedence over the individual states.

a. The Defeated South

The South paid a high price for its secession and eventual defeat. Much of the best agricultural land lay in waste, many towns and cities laid in ruins, and by 1865, the South’s most precious commodities, cotton and slaves, no longer were measures of wealth. It would take the South’s economy a generation to overcome the severe blows dealt by the war. In 1860, the South held approximately 25 percent of the nation’s wealth. In 1870, that number had shrunk to only 12 percent. Emancipation proved the most loathed effect of the war and white people responded, more than ever, by regarding African Americans as inferior to themselves. Emancipation forced white Southerners to redefine their world. The fear of African American political power and social equality
became a driving force in the South’s obsession with racial order during the Reconstruction years.

MHL document: *Confederate Song, “I’m a Good Old Rebel”* (1866) at www.myhistorylab.com

b. Abraham Lincoln’s Plan

In December 1863, Lincoln issued a Proclamation of Amnesty and Reconstruction that allowed full pardon and the restoration of property, except slaves, to white Southerners willing to swear an oath of allegiance to the United States and its laws. When 10 percent of the population that voted in the 1860 election swore allegiance to the United States a loyal state government could be formed. Lincoln’s plan angered Radical Republicans seeking equal rights for the freedmen and less forgiving treatment of the white South. The Radicals’ Wade-Davis bill required 50 percent of a seceding state’s white male citizens to take a loyalty oath before a government could be reestablished. Lincoln vetoed the Wade-Davis bill. While army leader—Benjamin Butler and William T. Sherman—began distributing confiscated land to freedmen, Congress hesitated to support the policy. In March 1865, Congress established the Freedmen’s Bureau to supervise and manage all matters relating to freedmen and refugees, including a provision to lease land to freedmen. At the time of his assassination, Lincoln’s reconstruction policy remained unsettled and incomplete. Generally, his plans seemed to favor a speedy restoration of the southern states to the Union and a minimum of federal intervention into their affairs.

MHL document: *Carl Schurz, Report on the Condition of the South (1865)* at www.myhistorylab.com

c. Andrew Johnson and Presidential Reconstruction

Lincoln’s successor, Vice President Andrew Johnson, a Tennessee Democrat and former slaveholder had been the only southern member of the Senate to remain loyal to the Union. Johnson held the planter elite responsible for the South’s secession and defeat. Republicans had nominated Johnson in 1864 to appeal to northern and border state “War Democrats,” although many Radical Republicans distrusted him. As president, Johnson asserted executive, not legislative control of Reconstruction. Blaming the planter elite for the war and hoping to restore the Union as soon as possible, he outlined mild terms for reentry into the Union. In the spring of 1865, while Congress was not in session, Johnson granted amnesty and pardon, including restoration of property rights except slaves, to all Confederates who pledged loyalty to the Union and support for emancipation. Certain Southerners, mostly the planter elite and Confederate officials, were excluded, but Johnson pardoned 90 percent of these who applied to him. By the fall of 1865, 10 of 11 Confederate states claimed to have met Johnson’s requirements to reenter the Union and Johnson declared Reconstruction all but complete. Congress was determined not to allow Johnson to determine the conditions of southern readmission and Johnson’s opposition of political rights for the freedmen put him in direct opposition with the Radical Republicans.
d. Free Labor and the Radical Republican Vision

Most Radicals’ political careers had been shaped by the slavery controversy. They envisioned the end of the plantation system and a southern society based on free labor with political—but not economic—equality backed by the federal government. Northern Republicans were disturbed by the strict “black codes” enacted in many southern states that challenged the Radical vision by restricting freedmen’s economic and political freedom. Clearly, many white Southerners refused to accept the full meaning of freedom for African Americans, and in response Congress refused to seat representatives from states “reconstructed” under Johnson’s plan. In the spring of 1866, Congress passed a Civil Rights bill that bestowed full citizenship on African Americans, and a bill to enlarge the scope of the Freedmen’s Bureau. Johnson vetoed both bills but Congress overrode the vetoes. In June 1866, Congress passed the Fourteenth Amendment, which defined citizenship to include former slaves. Johnson’s violent opposition to the amendment during the 1866 Congressional elections alienated many moderates, and sweeping Republican victories in the elections set the stage for a battle between president and Congress.

MHL document: Mississippi Black Code (1865) at www.myhistorylab.com

e. Congressional Reconstruction and the Impeachment Crisis

United against Johnson, Radical and moderate Republicans took control of Reconstruction in early 1867. In March, Congress passed the First Reconstruction Act over Johnson’s veto, dividing the South into five military districts subject to martial law and requiring southern states to call new constitutional conventions prior to their readmission to the Union. The states were also required to guarantee African American voting rights and ratify the Fourteenth Amendment before they could qualify for readmission. Congress also passed laws aimed at limiting Johnson’s power. On February 24, 1868, Republicans in the House of Representatives voted to impeach the president. The articles of impeachment focused on Johnson’s violations of the Tenure of Office Act but in reality the Radicals wanted the president removed from office because of his political views and his opposition to the Reconstruction Acts. During his Senate trial, Johnson agreed to abide by the Reconstruction Acts. The Senate failed to convict Johnson by one vote.

MHL map: Reconstruction at www.myhistorylab.com

f. The Election of 1868

As the presidential election of 1868 neared, Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Louisiana, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Tennessee had earned readmission to the Union. Republicans nominated Ulysses S. Grant, the North’s most celebrated war hero, as their candidate while the Democrats, determined to reverse Congressional Reconstruction, nominated Horatio Seymour, the former governor of New York and a supporter of states
rights. In the South, the Klan threatened and murdered black and white Republicans to prevent them from voting. In the end, Grant won an electoral majority but received less than 53 percent of the popular vote. In February 1869, Congress passed the Fifteenth Amendment, guaranteeing the vote for freedmen. It required the remaining Confederate states to ratify both the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments prior to readmission. They did so, and in February 1870, the Fifteenth Amendment was ratified and the remaining Confederate states were readmitted to the Union.

MHL document: History Bookshelf: Ulysses S. Grant, Memoirs (1886) at www.myhistorylab.com

g. Woman Suffrage and Reconstruction

Many women’s rights advocates were frustrated by the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments. Insisting that African Americans’ and women’s rights were linked, in 1866, Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Susan B. Anthony, and Lucy Stone founded the American Equal Rights Association. By 1869 woman suffragists had split into two competing organizations: the moderate American Woman Suffrage Association and the more radical all-female National Woman Suffrage Association. Although women did not win the vote immediately, they did establish a movement that drew millions of women into political life. The failure of woman suffrage after the Civil War was a result of the defeat of Radical Reconstruction and the idea of expanded citizenship.

III. THE MEANING OF FREEDOM

The meaning of “freedom” would be contested for many years to come after the Civil War and Reconstruction. Newly freed slaves deeply desired independence from white control while most white Southerners sought to restrict the boundaries of that independence. Former slaves struggled to establish economic, political, and cultural autonomy. To do so, they built on the twin pillars of slave culture—the family and the church—to lay the foundation of the African American community.

a. Moving About

Many emancipated slaves immediately tested their freedom by leaving home. Yet many who left their old neighborhoods returned soon afterward to seek work in the same general area, sometimes even on their former plantations. Others moved away altogether, seeking jobs in nearby towns and cities, which attracted African Americans because of the schools, churches, and fraternal societies available to them. Many freed people rejected the old subservience that was part of the slave system, angering and puzzling whites who expected the old deference and condemned “insolent” freemen celebrating emancipation and “putting on airs.”

MHL document: Jourdon Anderson to His Former Master (1865) at www.myhistorylab.com
b. African American Families, Churches, and Schools

Emancipation allowed freed people to strengthen family ties and the opportunity to reunite with long-lost family members. Thousands of family reunions took place after the war and thousands of African American couples demanded to be legally married. Emancipation also brought changes in gender roles to the African American family. Black men could now serve on juries, vote, and hold office. Black women could not and this effectively undermined the gender equality that had existed under the system of slavery. African American males further asserted their authority by insisting that their wives work at home rather than in the field. African American families, not white masters, now decided when and where women and children worked. Separate African American churches became another symbol of autonomy and led to the establishment of black Baptist and Methodist organizations free of white influence. Schools were a third area of community outside white control as freedmen—90 percent of them illiterate at emancipation—sought self-improvement. Although white organizations such as the Freedmen’s Bureau and northern missionary groups founded and supported schools, blacks started their own schools raised money for schools and teachers.

c. Land and Labor After Slavery

While most freedmen aspired to leave the plantation altogether, doing so was not a simple task. White planters tried to retain African Americans as permanent agricultural laborers by restricting employment opportunities through the infamous black codes. The majority of African Americans hoped to become self-sufficient farmers. But when the federal government failed to redistribute abandoned southern lands, sharecropping and tenant farming emerged as the dominant forms of working the land. African Americans preferred sharecropping to gang labor because it allowed families to set their own hours and tasks while offering freedom from white supervision and control. Owning land outright and tenant farming were both more desirable options. Although black sharecroppers had more autonomy than they did under slavery, the vast majority never achieved economic independence or land ownership.

MHL document: A Sharecrop Contract (1882) at www.myhistorylab.com

e. The Origins of African American Politics

Inclusion, rather than separation, was the objective of early African American political activity. Hundreds of African American delegates, selected by local meetings or churches, attended statewide political conventions throughout the South in 1865 and 1866. Convention debates sometimes reflected the tensions within African American communities, such as the friction between poorer former slaves and better-off free black people, or between lighter- and darker-skinned African Americans. However, most of these gatherings concentrated on passing resolutions on issues that united all African Americans: suffrage and equality before the law. Newly enfranchised freedmen voted Republican and formed the core of the Republican Party in the South and enjoyed electoral majorities in five states. The Union League brought African Americans together
but provoked white backlash. It was soon evident that politics was the only arena where black and white Southerners could engage each other on an equal basis.

MHL document: Address from the Colored Citizens of Norfolk, VA (1865) at www.myhistorylab.com

IV. SOUTHERN POLITICS AND SOCIETY

By the summer of 1868, when the South had returned to the Union, the majority of Republicans believed the task of Reconstruction was finished. They believed that a healthy two-party system would solve many of the remaining problems in the South. Yet over the next decade, the political structure created in the southern states proved too restricted and fragile to sustain itself. To most southern whites, the active participation of African Americans in politics seemed extremely dangerous. Southern Republicanism proved to be an unstable coalition that was unable to sustain power for very long. By 1877, Democrats had regained political control of all the former Confederate states.

a. Southern Republicans

Three major groups composed the Republican coalition in the postwar South: African Americans, white Northerners, and southern whites. Northern “carpetbaggers” tended to be well-educated and from the middle class and played a disproportionately large role in southern politics, winning a large share of Reconstruction offices. Republican native whites were pejoratively termed “scalawags.” Some prominent prewar Whigs who saw the Republican Party as their best chance to regain political influence, while others viewed the party as an agent of modernization and economic expansion. Few Southern whites sincerely identified with black aspirations; many scalawags were more concerned with white control of the Republican Party.

b. Reconstructing the States: A Mixed Record

Republicans managed to dominate the southern constitutional conventions from 1867 to 1869. The new constitutions created at these conventions guaranteed the political and civil rights of African Americans and they abolished property qualifications for office holding and jury service. They also created the first state-funded systems of education in the South. By 1869, new constitutions had been ratified in all of the former Confederate states. Republican governments in the South faced a continual crisis of legitimacy that limited their ability to legislate change, and segregation became the norm in public school systems. African American leaders often accepted segregation because they feared that insistence on integrated education would undermine the new school system and jeopardize its funding. In economic matters, Republican governments failed to fulfill African Americans’ hopes of acquiring land. Rising taxes and investment in infrastructure, especially railroads, led to charges of waste and corruption, undermining confidence in Reconstruction regimes.

c. White Resistance and “Redemption”
Democratic opponents of Reconstruction refused to acknowledge Republicans’ right to participate in southern political life and viewed the party as a partisan instrument of the northern Congress. The Ku Klux Klan carried out an ongoing terrorist campaign against Reconstruction governments and local leaders and acted as a kind of guerrilla military in the service of the Democratic Party and the restoration of white supremacy, with often murderous success. In 1870 and 1871, Congress passed three Enforcement Acts designed to counter racial terrorism and declared interference with voting rights a federal offense. By the election of 1872, the federal government’s intervention had helped break the Klan. As wartime idealism faded, Northern Republicans became less inclined toward direct intervention in Southern affairs, and in 1874, the Democrats gained a majority in the House of Representatives. Northern Republicans slowly abandoned the freedmen and their white allies in the South. A series of Supreme Court decisions curtailed federal protection of black civil rights, and in 1883, the Court declared the Civil Rights Act of 1875 unconstitutional. By separating federal and state citizenship, the Court invited a return to legal discrimination that the South happily embraced. These decisions marked the end of federal attempts to protect African American rights until well into the next century.

d. King Cotton: Sharecroppers, Tenants, and the Southern Environment

As the Radicals’ vision of a “new South” modeled on the industrial North failed to materialize, the South declined into the country’s poorest agricultural region in the years after the Civil War. A chronic shortage of capital and banking institutions made local merchants and planters the sole source of credit and many southern communities found themselves entirely dependent on one crop, cotton. The spread of the “crop lien” system as the South’s main form of agricultural credit had forced more farmers into cotton growing. The railroads, commercial fertilizer, and opening of new lands for cultivation all played a role in the South’s transformation to a market-oriented farming society. The expanding production of cotton, in turn, depressed prices. As competition from Egypt and India accelerated, the downward economic spiral and per capita wealth in the South fell steadily. Large parts of the South would remain entangled in the debt-ridden crop-lien system well into the twentieth century, with poor whites and blacks alike locked into an inescapable cycle of poverty and debt.

MHL document: James T. Rapier, Testimony Before U.S. Senate (1880) at www.myhistorylab.com

V. RECONSTRUCTING THE NORTH

The triumph of the North in the Civil War brought with it fundamental changes in the economy, in labor relations, and in politics. The spread of the factory system and the growth of large corporations hastened the development of a large unskilled workforce. More and more workers found themselves permanently confined to wage labor. The grim reality of class conflict showed that northern society, like southern society, was more hierarchical than equal.
a. The Age of Capital

The North’s economy continued the boom begun during the Civil War and by 1873, the number of nonagricultural workers in the North has surpassed the number of farmers. Only Great Britain boasted a larger manufacturing economy than the United States. The railroad business both symbolized and advanced this new industrial order. Private companies took on the huge and expensive job of constructing the transcontinental railroads, but the federal government funded the project and provided the largest subsidy in American history. In 1868, the Senate ratified the Burlingame Treaty, that allowed Chinese to emigrate to the United States, in order to meet the labor needs of the railroads. After the transcontinental railroad was completed, thousands of unemployed Chinese flooded the California labor market and the open door immigration pledge of the Burlingame Treaty was replaced by anti-Chinese agitation and the passage of the Chinese Exclusion Act in 1882. Railroad corporations became America’s first big business, but other industries boomed in this period as well. Railroad growth stimulated expansion in the production of coal, iron, stone, and lumber, but led to widespread corruption as politicians accepted kickbacks in reward for their support of the industry, reaching as high as Grant’s vice president, implicated in the Crédit Mobilier scandal. Other industries grew along with the railroads, including mining and, by the 1870s, the oil business which made John D. Rockefeller’s Standard Oil a new model of business concentration.

b. Liberal Republicans and the Election of 1872

With the rapid growth of large-scale, capital-intensive enterprises, Republicans increasingly identified with the interests of business rather than the rights of freedmen and the ideology of “free labor.” Routine corruption such as the notorious Tweed Ring in New York City plagued American political life leading a large number of disaffected Republicans to seek an alternative to Grant. The Liberal Republicans, calling for a return to limited government and stressed the principles of supply and demand, free trade, and individualism, nominated the idealistic but inexperienced Horace Greeley for president in 1872. Grant easily defeated Greeley but the election accelerated the trend toward federal abandonment of African American citizenship rights as individualism and pro-business policies trumped reform.

c. The Depression of 1873

The postwar boom came to an abrupt halt when a severe financial panic in 1873 triggered by commercial overexpansion led to a deep economic depression. The depression lasted 65 months, making it the nation’s longest economic depression up to that time. Unemployment soared to 15 percent or higher as banks and businesses failed and farmers sank deeper into debt. Mass meetings of workers issued calls to government officials to create jobs through public works. These appeals were rejected because political leaders saw the depression as a natural part of the business cycle, but many people questioned free labor ideology and the resultant power of the great corporations.
d. The Electoral Crisis of 1876

The depression and new scandals in the Grant administration weakened the Republican Party. Democrats nominated the man who had jailed Boss Tweed, New York Governor Samuel J. Tilden in 1876, attacking Reconstruction policies and blaming the Republicans for institutionalizing a “corrupt centralism.” Republicans nominated Rutherford B. Hayes, an outsider to Grantism as governor of Ohio. Amidst widespread fraud and violence, Tilden received more popular votes than Hayes. Republicans refused to concede victory and challenged the vote in the electoral college. In 1877, Congress moved to settle the electoral deadlock. Democrats and Republicans struck a compromise in February. Shortly after assuming office, Hayes ordered the removal of the remaining federal troops in Louisiana and South Carolina. “Home rule” in the South meant Republican abandonment of freed people, Radicals, carpetbaggers, and scalawags and the idealism of Reconstruction and effectively nullified the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments and the Civil Rights Act of 1866.

VI. CONCLUSION

Although Reconstruction reunited the states after the Civil War, the Radicals’ idealist program of freedom and equality, never enthusiastically supported by whites in either the North or the South, collapsed by 1877. The Reconstruction amendments remained on the books but unenforced until a “second Reconstruction” in the Civil Rights movement of the 1950s and 1960s. The fitful efforts of the Grant years to support freedmen’s rights and opportunities gave way to indifference under Hayes as Americans shifted their focus to economic development and the growing tensions between capitalists and workers and the “southern question” receded from the national community’s attention.

Learning Objectives

Students should be able to answer the following questions after studying Chapter 17:

1. What were the competing political plans for reconstructing the defeated Confederacy?
2. How did African Americans negotiate the difficult transition from slavery to freedom?
3. What were the most important political and social legacies of Reconstruction in the southern states?
4. How did economic and political transformations in the North reflect another side of Reconstruction?

Discussion Suggestions and Possible Answers

1. How did various visions of a “reconstructed” South differ? How did these visions reflect the old political and social divisions that had led to the Civil War?
Answer: President Lincoln hoped to bring the defeated South back into the Union as quickly as possible. He offered amnesty to all those willing to take an oath of allegiance and proclaimed that state governments should be reestablished when 10 percent of the population had taken the oath. Radical Republicans demanded black equality, not just the end of slavery, and that a majority of the population take the oath of allegiance before state governments were restored. President Johnson focused his blame on the planter elite, excluding them from the new governments, but otherwise taking a mild stance on reconstruction. Congressional opposition led to his impeachment, which failed by one vote. But the Radical Republicans secured a veto-proof majority in the 1866 elections and imposed much stricter conditions for Reconstructions, including guarantees of black equality in the South.

2. What key changes did emancipation make in the political and economic status of African Americans? Discuss the expansion of citizenship rights in the post–Civil War years. To what extent did women share in the gains made by African Americans?

Answer: African Americans struggled to create a new economic and political environment for themselves during Reconstruction. This period represented a brief opportunity. Blacks served in local, state, and national politics, and formed the core of the Republican Party in the South. Economically, blacks struggled to provide for their own families. They resisted gang labor, desired by white landowners, preferring to be sharecroppers or tenants if they could not own land outright. However, the failure of the government to distribute land to the former slaves limited their economic opportunities. Women, who had been active in the abolitionist movement, grew frustrated that they were not given voting rights along with African Americans.

3. What role did such institutions as the family, church, schools, and political parties play in the African American transition to freedom?

Answer: Emancipation allowed black families to be reunited and thousands of couples demanded to be legally married. However, now that black men enjoyed the rights of citizenship, the gender equality that had existed under slavery gave way to a more traditional patriarchy. The black church was the most important social organization for African Americans. People gathered money to buy land and construct churches throughout the South, and they became the center of the community, housing schools and hosting political meetings, picnics and many other activities. Access to education in newly opened schools became a primary means of opportunity and improvement. The Republican Party secured basic civil rights for blacks as well as funding for schools, but failed to bring about greater economic opportunity.

4. How did white Southerners attempt to limit the freedom of former slaves? How did these efforts succeed, and how did they fail?

Answer: Whites resisted black independence at every opportunity. Initially many states passed black codes that sought to restrict the civil and political rights of the freedmen. Groups like the Ku Klux Klan used violence and intimidation to prevent blacks from exercising their newly won rights. Although the federal government initially passed laws to
fight domestic terrorism, they soon grew tired of the constant need for direct intervention in the South and white Southerners were able to limit the political power of blacks.

5. Evaluate the achievements and failures of Reconstruction governments in the southern states.

**Answer:** Reconstruction secured the freedom of former slaves and prevented a return to slavery. Black families were reunited, social institutions like the church and fraternal societies, as well as schools, were started. These would form the nucleus of the black community. For a brief time, African Americans participated in the political process through the Republican Party, but over time they were disenfranchised as the South became a one-party state. Economically, Reconstruction failed to secure independence for blacks who could not afford land, but they did manage to engage in sharecropping or tenant farming rather than gang labor.

6. What were the crucial economic changes occurring in the North and South during the Reconstruction era?

**Answer:** The South had been devastated by the war and lacked access to capital and credit. Moreover, its chief crop, cotton, faced competition from new regions like Egypt and India. During this period, the South was transformed into a market-oriented agrarian economy. The South would be the nation’s poorest region well into the twentieth century. The North, meanwhile, continued the boom begun by the war as industrialization continued at a rapid pace. Railroads are an especially good example of the growth of new industries and the centralization of business in the post-war period.

**Lecture Outline**

American Communities: Hale County, Alabama: From Slavery to Freedom in a Black Belt County

The Politics of Reconstruction
- The Defeated South
- Abraham Lincoln’s Plan
- Andrew Johnson and Presidential Reconstruction
- Free Labor and the Radical Republican Vision
- Congressional Reconstruction and the Impeachment Crisis
- The Election of 1868
- Woman Suffrage and Reconstruction

The Meaning of Freedom
- Moving About
- The African American Family, Churches, and Schools
- Land and Labor After Slavery
- The Origins of African American Politics

Southern Politics and Society
Southern Republicans
Reconstructing the States: A Mixed Record
White Resistance and “Redemption”
King Cotton: Sharecroppers, Tenants, and the Southern Environment

Reconstructing the North
The Age of Capital
Liberal Republicans and the Election of 1872
The Depression of 1873
The Electoral Crisis of 1876

Resources (Web, Films/Video)

Web
*America’s Reconstruction: People and Politics After the Civil War*: [www.digitalhistory.uh.edu/reconstruction/index.html](http://www.digitalhistory.uh.edu/reconstruction/index.html), written by Eric Foner, this site examines the six major phases of Reconstruction through images, primary sources, and a historical essay.

*Freedmen and Southern Society Project*: [http://www.history.umd.edu/Freedmen](http://www.history.umd.edu/Freedmen) examines the history of emancipation and its impact on the African American population as well as the transformation it produced in the structures of Southern society.

*Johnson Impeachment Trial (1868)*: [www.law.umkc.edu/faculty/projects/FTrials/ftrials.htm](http://www.law.umkc.edu/faculty/projects/FTrials/ftrials.htm) covers the background and hearings that led to the impeachment of the president over the issue of Congressional authority and the fate of Reconstruction.


Films/Video
*Cold Mountain* (154 minutes). Miramax, 2003. As the Civil War comes to an end, a wounded Confederate soldier makes his way home through the perils of a region that is suffering from defeat.

*Reconstruction: The Second Civil War* (175 minutes). PBS, 2004. This documentary examines the turbulence in the political and social realms as the nation struggled to adjust to the end of slavery and the consequences of disunion.
My History Lab Connections

Reinforce what you learned in this chapter by studying the many documents, images, maps, review tools, and videos available at www.myhistorylab.com.

Read and Review

Read the Documents
Confederate Song, “I’m a Good Old Rebel” (1866)
Carl Schurz, Report on the Condition of the South (1865)
Mississippi Black Code (1865)
Jourdon Anderson to His Former Master (1865)
A Sharecrop Contract (1882)
Address from the Colored Citizens of Norfolk, VA (1865)
James T. Rapier, Testimony Before U.S. Senate (1880)

See the Maps
Reconstruction

Research and Explore

Read the Documents
Exploring America: Did Reconstruction Work for the Freed People?

Read the Biographies
Tunis Campbell
Nathan Bedford Forrest
History Bookshelf: Ulysses S. Grant, Memoirs (1886)
Whose History Is It? Flying the Stars and Bars: The Contested History of the Confederate Flag

See the Videos
Reconstruction in Texas
The Promise and Failure of Reconstruction
Trials of Racial Identity in Nineteenth-Century America

Critical Thinking Exercises

A role-playing exercise can help students understand the efforts to impeach Andrew Johnson. Michael Les Benedict, The Impeachment and Trial of Andrew Johnson (Norton, 1973), provides ample background. Assign students to portray individual members of Congress, Johnson, Stanton, etc.