

Reconstruction

Backwards Planning Curriculum Units

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How to Use This Unit

Backwards planning offers an innovative yet simple approach to meeting curriculum goals; it also provides a way to keep students engaged and focused throughout the learning process. Many teachers approach history instruction in the following manner: they identify a topic required by state and/or national standards, they find materials on that topic, they use those materials with their students, and then they administer some sort of standard test at the end of the unit. Backwards planning, rather than just starting with a required instructional topic, goes a step further by identifying exactly what students need to know by the end of the unit—the so-called “enduring understandings.” The next step involves assessment: devising ways to determine whether students have learned what they need to know. The final step involves planning the teaching/learning process so that students can acquire the knowledge needed.

This product uses backwards planning to combine a PowerPoint presentation, activities that involve authentic assessment, and traditional tests (multiple-choice and essay) into a complete curriculum unit. Although the materials have enough built-in flexibility that you can use them in a number of ways, we suggest the following procedure:

1. Start with the “essential questions” listed on slide 2 of the PowerPoint presentation (these also appear in the teacher support materials). Briefly go over them with students before getting into the topic material. These questions will help students focus their learning and note taking during the course of the unit. You can also choose to use the essential questions as essay questions at the end of the unit; one way to do this is to let students know at the outset that one of the essential questions will be on the test—they just won’t know which one.
2. Next, discuss the activities students will complete during the unit. This will also help focus their learning and note taking, and it will lead them to view the PowerPoint presentation in a different light, considering it a source of ideas for authentic-assessment projects.
3. Present the PowerPoint to the class. Most slides have an image and bullet points summarizing the slide’s topic. The Notes page for each slide contains a paragraph or two of information that you can use as a presentation script, or just as background information for your own reference. You don’t need to present the entire PowerPoint at once: it’s broken up into several sections, each of which concludes with some discussion questions that echo parts of the essential questions and also help students to get closer to the “enduring understandings.” Spend some time with the class going over and debating these questions—this will not only help students think critically about the material, but it will also allow you to incorporate different modes of instruction during a single class period, offering a better chance to engage students.
4. Have students complete one or more of the authentic-assessment activities. These activities are flexible: most can be completed either individually or in groups, and either as homework or as in-class assignments. Each activity includes a rubric; many also have graphic organizers. You can choose to have students complete the activities after you have shown them the entire PowerPoint presentation, or you can show them one section of the PowerPoint, go over the discussion questions, and then have students complete an activity.

5. End the unit with traditional assessment. The support materials include a 20-question multiple-choice quiz; you can combine this with an essay question (you can use one of the essential questions or come up with one of your own) to create a full-period test.

6. If desired, debrief with students by going over the essential questions with them again and remind them what the enduring understandings are.

We are dedicated to continually improving our products and working with teachers to develop exciting and effective tools for the classroom. We can offer advice on how to maximize the use of the product and share others' experiences. We would also be happy to work with you on ideas for customizing the presentation.

We value your feedback, so please let us know more about the ways in which you use this product to supplement your lessons; we're also eager to hear any recommendations you might have for ways in which we can expand the functionality of this product in future editions. You can e-mail us at access@socialstudies.com. We look forward to hearing from you.

Dr. Aaron Willis
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Reconstruction



As the Civil War drew to a close in late 1864 into early 1865, debate began to rage regarding how to best return the Southern states to the Union. This process, known as Reconstruction, dominated politics for over a decade following the war's end. President Abraham Lincoln wished to make Reconstruction as painless as possible, suggesting lenient terms for ex-Confederates and for reforming their state governments. Thus began a clash between the president and Republicans in Congress who wanted to punish the South for the war and treat the states as "conquered provinces"—so-called Radical Republicans. With Lincoln's assassination, Vice President Andrew Johnson became president and looked to largely continue Lincoln's Reconstruction plans. The Radicals sought to wrest control of Reconstruction from the executive to the legislative branch and garnered enough support in Congress to override Johnson's vetoes of key legislation. To get rid of Johnson, the Radicals in the House impeached him, but could not muster the votes to remove him from office. Defeated, the Radicals' influence waned in Congress until the highly contested election of 1876, whose brokered outcome resulted in the effective end of Reconstruction. Democratic political influence in the South saw a resurgence that lasted until the later 20th century.

Following the abolition of slavery with the 13th Amendment, the 14th and 15th Amendments were designed to help African Americans achieve equal legal and political rights as whites, especially in the face of Southerners wanting badly to restore the antebellum social order. Congress established new federal agencies to provide education and assistance to newly freed slaves, and often passed legislation directed against those who would abridge freedmen's rights. African Americans became members of state and even federal governments for the first time. However, with the decline of the Radicals and the power Democrats regained in Congress and in former Confederate state governments, many of the gains won by African Americans fell by the wayside, regardless of constitutional protections.

Essential Questions

- How did “executive Reconstruction” differ from “legislative Reconstruction”?
- Why did the Supreme Court interpret pivotal Reconstruction legislation and constitutional amendments in a narrow fashion?
- How did Reconstruction change life for African Americans?
- What lasting social and economic changes occurred in the South during and as a result of Reconstruction?
- How did Reconstruction alter the U.S. Constitution and its interpretation?
- How did the Reconstruction era change land ownership and use?
- What results of the Reconstruction era are evident in later U.S. history and in modern-day America?

Lincoln's Second Inaugural Address



President Abraham Lincoln delivers his address before the Capitol building

- Given as the North approached victory in the Civil War
- Summed up Lincoln's beliefs about how to reunite the country
- Did not claim victory or lay blame

For the first time in American history, a presidential election was held during a major war. Abraham Lincoln secured the nomination for another term as president against Democratic challenger George McClellan. Boosted by victories in the South by General William Tecumseh Sherman, Lincoln won handily.

Standing in front of the U.S. Capitol, Lincoln used his speech to give an outline of his plan to reconstruct the Union. Lincoln noted that neither the North nor the South realized the hardships that they would face in four grueling years of war. As the North neared victory, Lincoln chose not to reflect on its success, but rather to point out the evils of slavery. Furthermore, he closed the speech without laying blame on the South or claiming victory for the North in the famous phrase, "with malice toward none, with charity for all."

While Lincoln might have been looking ahead to a lenient policy of returning the former Confederate states to the Union, others were plotting his assassination. Some historians believe that in the above photograph John Wilkes Booth, who would assassinate Lincoln only weeks later, is standing on the balcony directly above Lincoln, and that several of those later convicted of conspiring to kill Lincoln appear below the platform on which Lincoln stands.

From Lincoln's Second Inaugural

On the occasion corresponding to this four years ago all thoughts were anxiously directed to an impending civil war. All dreaded it, all sought to avert it. While the inaugural address was being delivered from this place, devoted altogether to saving the Union without war, urgent agents were in the city seeking to destroy it without war—seeking to dissolve the Union and divide effects by negotiation. Both parties deprecated war, but one of them would make war rather than let the nation survive, and the other would accept war rather than let it perish, and the war came...

With malice toward none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right as God gives us to see the right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in, to bind up the nation's wounds, to care for him who shall have borne the battle and for his widow and his orphan, to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and lasting peace among ourselves and with all nations.

Discussion questions:

Give students sufficient time to read the excerpt from Lincoln's speech, then ask them the following:

- Why might Lincoln have thought it necessary to set forth lenient terms for the South to rejoin the Union? (Many students may suggest that leniency would make the North look generous and forgiving. Some may also say that Lincoln realized that the country required a unified effort to become vibrant and prosperous after the war.)
- Ask students to speculate whether Jefferson Davis or other Southern leaders would have been as open and conciliatory if the Confederacy had been on the verge of winning the war, and why. (Many students may feel that since the Confederacy would have been a new nation, gaining diplomatic recognition from the Union would have been an important step toward legitimacy; therefore, the Confederacy might have actively sought to improve relations between the two nations.)

Lincoln's Final Public Speech

- At the White House on April 11, 1865
- Lincoln suggested that some blacks be given the right to vote
- John Wilkes Booth was present
- Booth shot Lincoln three days later



A later photograph of Abraham Lincoln

Two days after the surrender of General Robert E. Lee and his Army of Northern Virginia to General U.S. Grant's Army of the Potomac, President Lincoln made what would be his final public address to a crowd gathered outside the White House. Speaking from the second-floor balcony, Lincoln alluded to elements of his plan for Reconstruction by explaining the progress in the state of Louisiana, much of which had already been restored to the Union.

While Lincoln did not necessarily agree with allowing all blacks to have both citizenship and the right to vote, he did mention that he at least supported suffrage for some, specifically the "very intelligent," as well as "those who serve our cause as soldiers." John Wilkes Booth—actor, Confederate sympathizer, and white supremacist—stood in the crowd listening to the speech. For some time, he'd been active in a conspiracy to kidnap Lincoln in order to ransom him for Confederate prisoners of war.

As Booth listened to Lincoln's suggestion that some blacks deserved the right to vote, he supposedly remarked, "By God, that means [Negro] suffrage. That is the last speech he will make. I will run him through." Three days later, Lincoln and his wife attended a play at Ford's Theater, in Washington, where Booth was waiting for him.

From Lincoln's Final Speech

It is also unsatisfactory to some that the elective franchise is not given to the colored man. I would myself prefer that it were now conferred on the very intelligent, and on those who serve our cause as soldiers.

Some twelve thousand voters in the heretofore slave-state of Louisiana have sworn allegiance to the Union, assumed to be the rightful political power of the State, held elections, organized a State government, adopted a free-state constitution, giving the benefit of public schools equally to black and white, and empowering the Legislature to confer the elective franchise upon the colored man. Their Legislature has already voted to ratify the constitutional amendment recently passed by Congress, abolishing slavery throughout the nation...

We encourage the hearts, and nerve the arms of the twelve thousand to adhere to their work, and argue for it, and proselyte for it, and fight for it, and feed it, and grow it, and ripen it to a complete success. The colored man too, in seeing all united for him, is inspired with vigilance, and energy, and daring, to the same end. Grant that he desires the elective franchise, will he not attain it sooner by saving the already advanced steps toward it, than by running backward over them?

Discussion questions:

Give students time to read the quote from Lincoln's speech, then ask the following:

- Why might Lincoln have used Louisiana as an example in this speech? (In stating "the heretofore slave-state of Louisiana," Lincoln implies that Louisiana had already abolished slavery—or more likely never fell subject to the terms of the Emancipation Proclamation, since the Union had already retaken Louisiana when the proclamation took effect—and therefore recognized the U.S. Constitution and ratified the 13th Amendment. Lincoln might also have wanted to impress upon his audience that a state that had seceded could return to the Union through this relatively painless process.)
- Why might Lincoln have suggested giving some blacks elective franchise (the right to vote), but not others? (Lincoln might have worried that giving all blacks the right to vote would alienate Northerners, whose support he needed in order to effectively implement Reconstruction. Some students may note that Lincoln himself might not have been ready to accept all blacks as equal to whites.)

Lincoln's Assassination



Lincoln's preserved box in Ford's Theater, including the flag bunting Booth pulled down as he leapt to the stage

- April 14, 1865, in Washington, DC
- Assassin John Wilkes Booth
- Other government officials targeted by conspiracy
- Many believe Lincoln's death led to harsher terms for the South

Three days after Lincoln gave his speech at the White House, he and his wife attended a showing of *Our American Cousin* at Ford's Theater, without his bodyguard, whom Lincoln had sent on assignment out of town. During the play, John Wilkes Booth entered Lincoln's theater box and shot him in the head.

Booth and his co-conspirators had originally plotted to kidnap Lincoln and ransom him for Confederate prisoners of war, after Grant refused to allow any further prisoner exchanges. However, as Booth understood that the Confederacy would lose the war, he changed his plan to an assassination in hopes that Lincoln's death would rally the Confederates to continue the war. The group also planned to kill several other high-level officials in the U.S. government, including Vice President Andrew Johnson. Only Booth achieved his goal, though one of his co-conspirators seriously wounded Secretary of State William Seward.

Historians have debated the impact of Lincoln's death on Reconstruction. Lincoln had stated publicly that, regarding bringing the Southern states back to the Union, he'd "let 'em up easy." However, other historians argue that the Republican leaders in Congress had always had little inclination to show the Confederate states any leniency at all, and would have likely forced much harsher terms on those states anyway. It's possible that Lincoln's violent death might have further angered these Republicans, while at the same time turning public support away from a lenient Reconstruction.

Discussion Questions

1. What themes did Lincoln touch on in his Second Inaugural Address? How did the time at which he delivered it affect its message?
2. What about Lincoln's April 11th speech motivated John Wilkes Booth to assassinate him? Why might this have angered Booth?

1. Lincoln's Second Inaugural concerned not assessing blame for the Civil War, taking care of disabled war veterans, and how the Confederate states might be brought back into the Union. Lincoln gave the speech at the start of his second term, when the Union appeared close to victory; with both as signs of support for his authority over the fate of the Confederacy, the conciliatory and charitable tone of his speech made it seem all the more powerful.
2. Lincoln's last public speech, given at the White House on April 11, 1865, included a reference to giving African Americans the right to vote (including more educated blacks, as well as those who fought for the Union). Booth, as a Confederate sympathizer, likely believed that giving ex-slaves the vote would greatly change the political leadership of the South, possibly putting people hostile to slavery in power and disrupting the South's social and economic order.

Lincoln's "Ten-Percent Plan"

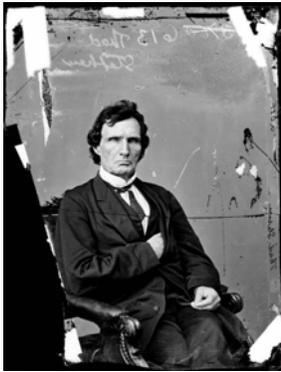
- Released in December 1863
- "Executive Reconstruction"
- Would pardon most former Confederates
- When 10% of the number of voters in 1860 signed loyalty oaths, the state could form a new government
- Used to return areas such as Louisiana back to the Union



In December 1863, President Lincoln issued the Proclamation of Amnesty and Reconstruction, which set out his model for returning defeated Confederate states to the Union. Lincoln based his approach on his view that the Civil War was not a rebellion of states, but of individuals. Therefore, he as president could use his constitutional power to pardon those individuals and reinstate them into the Union. Under this plan for Reconstruction, Lincoln hoped to exchange Confederate governments for Union ones, draw the support of those Southerners who had opposed secession, and help develop a stronger Republican base in those states. Reconstruction as envisioned and carried out by the president has been called "executive Reconstruction," after the government branch in charge.

Lincoln's plan was relatively simple: Former Confederates would receive a pardon, provided they signed a loyalty oath and affirmed support for emancipation. The plan excluded Confederate government officials, as well as any Confederate who had resigned his U.S. military or congressional post in 1861. Once the number of a state's loyalty-oath takers equaled ten percent of the number of residents who had voted in the 1860 presidential election, the state could form a new government. Areas of some Confederate states—including Arkansas, Louisiana, Tennessee, and Virginia—had already applied for readmission under Lincoln's plan (or some variation of it) by the time of Lee's surrender to Grant.

“Radical Republicans”



Rep. Thaddeus Stevens

- Faction from 1854 to end of Reconstruction
- Wanted tougher policies for former Confederate states
- Believed in equal rights for freed slaves, other blacks
- Led by Sen. Sumner and Rep. Stevens



Sen. Charles Sumner

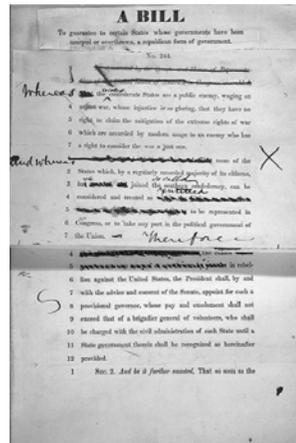
The “Radical Republicans” comprised a group of senators and congressmen who wanted stricter measures for returning the former Confederate states to the Union. The Radicals held that the Southern institutions which condoned slavery, including the attitudes which had led to secession, had to be reformed.

The Radicals believed that the Union should treat former Confederate states as conquered provinces, including military occupation by Union forces, and above all that Reconstruction could only succeed if Congress controlled it. The Radicals also advocated that African Americans be granted the same suffrage and civil rights as white Americans.

At first, the Radicals made up a small minority in Congress. However, with the war’s end and the move toward developing Reconstruction policy, the Radicals—owing especially their plank of civil rights and suffrage for ex-slaves—gained more and more political support. Charles Sumner of Massachusetts led the Radicals in the U.S. Senate, already well-known for injuries sustained in a vicious caning by South Carolina Rep. Preston Brooks prior to the Civil War. Pennsylvania Representative Thaddeus Stevens led in the House.

The Wade-Davis Bill

- Passed Congress in 1864
- Required more than half of voters to sign loyalty oath
- Required second oath for voting eligibility
- New constitution had to repeal secession and abolish slavery
- Bill pocket-vetoed by Lincoln



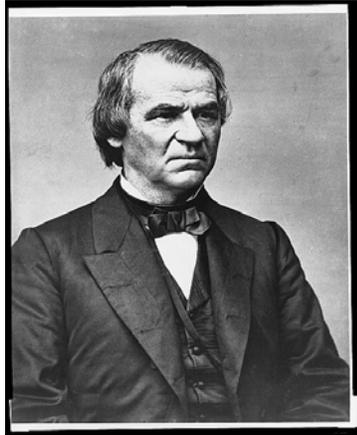
A draft of the Wade-Davis Bill, with handwritten corrections by Thaddeus Stevens

The Radicals answered Lincoln’s “Ten-Percent Plan” with the Wade-Davis bill, which set much higher requirements for returning Southern states to the Union. Passed by Congress in July 1864, the legislation required that a majority of the number of eligible voters in a state sign loyalty oaths in order to hold a constitutional convention. Former Confederates would then have to sign an additional oath stating that they had never voluntarily supported the Confederacy, in order to vote or participate in the constitutional convention. Finally, any new state constitution would have to renounce secession and prohibit slavery. This approach—one overseen by Congress—has been called “legislative Reconstruction,” or more specifically, “Radical Reconstruction,” after its sponsors in Congress.

Lincoln decided to “pocket veto” the bill, rather than apply a standard veto, return the bill to Congress, and face the possibility of a congressional override. A pocket veto allows the president to let a bill die for lack of a signature if he does not act on that bill within ten days, if Congress has adjourned.

Lincoln managed to avoid an immediate confrontation with Congress, but Sen. Benjamin Wade, Rep. Henry Winter Davis, and other Radicals had begun to show resistance to any policy that they considered too lenient. Lincoln’s assassination left unknown whether he might have changed his views on readmitting the former Confederate states, or perhaps might have found a middle ground with the Radicals.

President Andrew Johnson



Andrew Johnson

- Remained in Senate even after Tennessee seceded
- Appointed military governor of TN in 1862
- Lincoln's vice president
- Became 17th president upon Lincoln's death

Lincoln's death put Vice President Andrew Johnson in the White House as the 17th President of the United States. Johnson, a staunch Unionist, had remained a member of the U.S. Senate even after his home state of Tennessee seceded. His refusal to join the Confederacy made him a popular figure in the North, and despised in the South.

Johnson's early life was one of hardship and poverty. His mother bound him as an apprentice to a tailor, and without any formal schooling, he taught himself to read and write as an adult. However, he became a rising star in Tennessee state politics, first serving as an alderman, then as mayor of Greeneville, and later in the U.S. House of Representatives and Senate. In 1862, Lincoln appointed him military governor of Tennessee, a post which he filled highly effectively. In 1864, wanting to prove that the Republicans' "National Union Party" stood for reconciliation, party leaders selected Johnson—a Southerner and a Democrat—as Lincoln's running mate.

John Wilkes Booth killed Lincoln only weeks after his second term began. Booth's conspiracy had also marked Johnson for assassination, but the man assigned to murder him could not bring himself to follow through with Booth's orders. President by little fault of his own, Johnson now faced the enormous uncompleted task of returning the Confederate states to the Union.

Johnson's Plan for Reconstruction

- Announced while Congress was out of session
- Most Southerners received pardons
- Oath-takers could select convention delegates
- Delegates would have to renounce secession, Confederate state debts, and ratify 13th Amendment
- Did not pardon ex-officials or wealthy Confederates

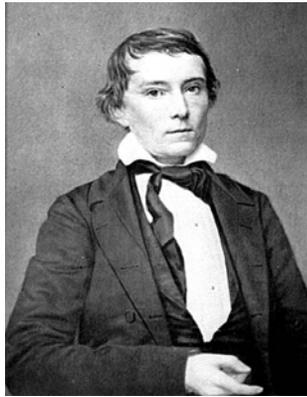


Published after Lincoln's assassination, this illustration shows reconciliation being offered to the South in Lincoln's memory

Johnson began to implement his own Reconstruction program within weeks of taking office. With Congress out of session, he essentially followed Lincoln's framework. He granted pardons for most Southerners who applied, and dropped plans to punish Southerners on charges of treason. In addition, once a former Confederate had taken the loyalty oath, they would receive their confiscated property (with the exception of slaves) and could vote to select delegates to the state constitutional convention. These conventions would have to renounce secession, repudiate debts incurred while in the Confederacy, and also ratify the 13th Amendment, which became part of the U.S. Constitution in December 1865.

While Lincoln's plan refused pardons to former Confederate officials, Johnson's additionally disqualified wealthy ex-Confederates, defined as those with property worth more than \$20,000. Johnson's reasoned that purging the Southern aristocracy would allow for more humble men to take control of Southern governments.

Johnson's Plan: Results



Former CSA vice-president Alexander Stephens, who won a seat in Congress after the war

- Large number of pardons
- New governments in seven former Confederate states
- Former secessionists awarded state offices
- Former CSA officeholders and military officers elected to Congress
- “Black Codes” enacted
- Radicals enraged

By the end of summer 1865, Johnson's plan had helped set up new governments in seven former Confederate states. Many former Confederates who failed to qualify for the loyalty oath on the basis of wealth or previous office found it relatively easy to secure a pardon from the Johnson Administration. As a result, former Confederate army officers and government officials received appointments or were elected to offices in the new governments. Many also won seats in Congress, most notably Georgia's Alexander Stephens, former CSA vice president. Many of the new state governments never wrote off their state debts, nor did they ratify the 13th Amendment. In addition, the new state governments passed “Black Codes” regulating the conduct of freed slaves, to replace earlier slave codes. When Congress reconvened in the fall of 1865, the Radicals were enraged at the lenient treatment given the former Confederate states.

Discussion Questions

1. Which branch of government did Lincoln believe should be in charge of Reconstruction? What logic did he give for this?
2. Who were the Radical Republicans? How did they believe the defeated Confederate states should be treated?
3. How did Johnson's Reconstruction plan differ from Lincoln's?

1. Lincoln believed that the executive branch should run Reconstruction. He saw the Confederacy not as states having left the Union, only as groups of individuals in rebellion against the federal government; since the Constitution gives the president the power to pardon individuals, he could readmit the Confederacy as persons. That way, he could enlist the help of Southerners who had opposed secession, repopulate the state governments, and grow the Republican base in the South.
2. The Radical Republicans were a group of Republican senators and congressmen who believed in stricter measures for readmitting the former Confederate states to the Union. They saw the Confederacy as "conquered provinces" whose people had to be punished for starting a war and whose institutions needed to be reformed to prevent any further disagreements (i.e., slavery and its means of support).
3. After Lincoln's assassination, Johnson announced that he planned to follow the majority of Lincoln's Ten-Percent Plan, but with the following changes: Oath takers received their confiscated property (except for slaves); a state convention wanting recognition would have to ratify the 13th Amendment abolishing slavery, as well as renounce secession and repudiate Confederate state debts; and wealthier Confederates would not receive pardons.

“Black Codes”

- Laws that replaced slave codes in Southern states
- Restricted freedoms of ex-slaves
- Method of getting around 13th Amendment
- Radicals saw passage of codes as a threat



Although the 13th Amendment abolished slavery and gave African Americans some basic rights (including their freedom and ability to marry and own property), Southern whites worked to ensure the continued subservience of former slaves by passing laws called “Black Codes” to replace the slave codes which had restricted basic freedoms of the former slaves.

Each state’s codes sought to restrict black freedoms as much as possible. For example, many states forbade interracial marriage; most prohibited African Americans from serving on juries or from testifying against whites. South Carolina’s codes forced blacks to get special licenses in order to take jobs not related to agriculture. Mississippi’s codes prohibited blacks from buying or selling farmland. Vagrancy laws allowed blacks without “lawful employment” to be arrested and their labor auctioned to employers who paid their fines.

The Radicals saw these laws not only as threats to the ex-slaves, but as demonstrating a lack of remorse on the part of former Confederates.

The Radicals' Response

- Saw Southern moves against Reconstruction as defiance
- Congress refused to seat delegates from former CSA
- Established Joint Committee on Reconstruction to oversee process and keep ex-Confederates out of power

Moves by Southern state governments to restrict the rights of blacks and return ex-Confederates to power enraged the Radicals, who saw these as acts of defiance against the victorious North. When Congress reconvened in late 1865, it refused to seat senators and representatives selected by former Confederate states. In addition, Congress created the Radical-controlled Joint Committee on Reconstruction, by which House and Senate members could oversee the process of Reconstruction and keep ex-Confederates out of power. The committee also sought to repeal the Black Codes.

The Freedmen's Bureau

- Created to help assimilate newly freed slaves into society
- Helped freedmen solve everyday problems
- Divided into several sub-agencies
- Noted for its work in providing education
- Radicals passed legislation extending its term



A Freedmen's Bureau office

The federal government had to address how to assimilate newly freed slaves (usually called “freedmen,” regardless of gender) into society and give them the opportunity to develop new skills. In 1865, Lincoln signed legislation creating the Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands—more commonly known as the “Freedmen’s Bureau.”

The legislation intended for the Freedmen’s Bureau to operate for one year. Headed by Union General Oliver Otis Howard, the bureau assisted freedmen with everyday problems such as getting clothing and medical care and provided confiscated land to farm. The bureau itself had several sub-agencies, including Government-Controlled Lands, Records, Financial Affairs, and Medical Affairs. However, the bureau did its most effective work probably in the area of education: it spent over \$5 million providing access to schools or establishing them on confiscated land and paying teachers.

As the Radical Republicans gained strength in Congress, they passed legislation over Johnson’s veto extending the bureau’s scope and term of operation. The expanded bureau increased its educational activities and its involvement in labor disputes by setting up military courts to settle them and voiding labor contracts forced on freedmen by the Black Codes.

What “Freedom” Meant to Blacks



As this cartoon shows, emancipation for blacks above all meant family

- Could travel without restriction
- Could look for lost or sold family members
- “Legalized” marriage ceremonies
- Many women took jobs as servants; others worked alongside their husbands in the fields

The end of slavery radically changed the lives of most African Americans in the South. No longer physically or legally bound by slavery, many sought to make new lives for themselves and their families.

One major change involved unrestricted travel. Blacks could now move to other plantations, other states, or even out of the South altogether. Many left rural areas and resettled in urban settings. Some ex-slaves went to the Deep South (states such as Mississippi and Texas) because of its greater need for labor and therefore the tendency for plantation owners to pay higher wages.

In many instances, slaves went looking for “lost” family members—those either sold off or who had escaped rather than stay with their families in bondage. The Freedmen’s Bureau assisted in some cases, but often it was simply impossible to determine what had happened to lost family members. Freed couples often sought to be officially married to legalize the slave ceremonies which had originally bound their union; in certain instances, officials performed mass weddings to save time.

Many women worked as laundresses, cooks, and domestic servants as their main source of income. Wives of freedmen might leave the labor force in order to become full-time housewives. However, black women commonly labored alongside their husbands as they tried to make a living as sharecroppers or tenant farmers.

Civil Rights Act of 1866

- Proposed by Sen. Trumbull of Illinois
- Gave blacks citizenship, equal rights
- Authorized federal government to guarantee freedmen's rights in court and to own property
- Made law over Johnson's veto



April 1866: blacks gather in Washington, D.C. to celebrate the end of slavery

The Radicals wanted to ensure their authority over Reconstruction as well as counteract the Black Codes that abridged freedmen's rights in the Southern states. Illinois Senator Lyman Trumbull introduced the Civil Rights Act of 1866, which made all persons born or naturalized in the United States citizens entitled to the same rights, privileges, and immunities as all other U.S. citizens. In addition to mandating equal rights, the act empowered the federal government to guarantee the rights of freedmen in legal proceedings and real estate transactions. Johnson vetoed the act; Congress overrode his veto.

Congress vs. the President



A cartoon criticizing Johnson and his use of the veto

- Johnson vetoed Civil Rights Act of 1866 as well as bill extending the term of the Freedmen's Bureau
- Neither bill affected his Reconstruction plans
- Johnson lost support of moderate Republicans
- Stage set for confrontation with the Radicals

President Andrew Johnson vetoed both the Civil Rights Act of 1866 as well as the bill extending the term of the Freedmen's Bureau. Both acts angered the Radicals, setting the stage for a major confrontation between them and the president.

Some saw Johnson's actions as puzzling and inexplicable, since neither bill directly affected his plans for Reconstruction. However, Johnson believed both bills to be illegal because Congress had refused to seat Southern delegates, shutting them out of the process. While Southerners and Northern Democrats applauded Johnson's actions, the Radicals and moderate Republicans responded with far less approval.

Discussion Questions

1. What were the Black Codes? What rights did they restrict?
2. What did the Freedmen's Bureau provide for? What happened when Congress voted to extend its term?
3. How did the Radicals react to the Black Codes? How did this affect the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1866?

1. The Black Codes were laws limiting the basic rights that blacks had won with the end of slavery, as a means of getting around the 13th Amendment. Various states would not allow African Americans to serve on juries, give testimony in court against whites, marry interracially, or work in non-agricultural jobs; some arrested blacks for "vagrancy" and sold them into servitude. They were a way for Southern states to ensure the continued underclass status of African Americans, even after the passage of the 13th Amendment.
2. The Freedmen's Bureau (or officially the "Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands") assisted freedmen in assimilating into society by helping them not only with everyday problems (such as acquiring clothing and medical care) but by furnishing them with confiscated land and getting the education and skills needed to make a living. Johnson vetoed a bill that would have extended the term of the Freedmen's Bureau, but Congress overrode Johnson's veto with a two-thirds vote.
3. The Radicals saw the Black Codes as acts of defiance by Southern states against the federal government. As a result, they refused to seat senators and congressmen from former Confederate states. The Republican-controlled Congress passed the Civil Rights Act of 1866, but Johnson vetoed it, saying that the lack of participation in writing the bill by Southern members of Congress made it illegal. Congress overrode his veto.

The 14th Amendment

- Proposed by Joint Committee on Reconstruction; ratified in 1868
- Made the Civil Rights Act of 1866 the law of the land
- Overturned 1857 *Dred Scott* decision
- Would reduce congressional representation of any state denying suffrage to male citizens



The 14th Amendment, ratified in 1868, sought to ensure the freedoms and rights the Radicals wanted for African Americans. The Joint Committee on Reconstruction, made up of members from both houses of Congress, recommended a constitutional amendment to guarantee the rights of freedmen. The amendment went to the states that year after its passage by the required two-thirds of both houses.

The 14th Amendment reaffirmed the declaration of the Civil Rights Act of 1866 that made all persons born or naturalized in the U.S. citizens, entitled to the same rights and privileges as other citizens. The amendment's authors included this clause so that under no circumstances could the provisions of the Civil Rights Act be declared unconstitutional. As such, the term "citizen" receives its only explanation in the Constitution here. The amendment continued by expanding and further defining citizens' rights to include due process. While the Fifth Amendment stipulates that the federal government guarantee citizens due process of law, the 14th Amendment requires that the states do so as well, though later-19th-century Supreme Court decisions chipped away at this to a great extent.

The first article of the 14th Amendment had the added effect of overturning the 1857 Supreme Court decision in *Dred Scott v. Sandford* that said the slave Dred Scott could not sue for his freedom because slaves could not be citizens and therefore could not sue in U.S. courts. Another article safeguarded suffrage for African American males: If a state denied the right to vote to any of its male citizens, its congressional representation would be proportionally reduced. As another first, the word "male" appeared in the Constitution, dealing a serious blow to women's rights advocates who had hoped that persons of both genders would have the right to vote.

The 14th Amendment (cont.)



Anti-Johnson cartoon supporting
the 14th Amendment

- Barred from office anyone who had sworn to uphold the Constitution and then supported the Confederacy
- Cancelled Confederate war debt, but maintained federal debt

While the 14th Amendment addressed the issue of equal rights for freedmen, its provisions also barred former Confederates from holding office. The amendment disqualified any supporter of secession who before the Civil War had sworn to uphold the U.S. Constitution as part of taking office. This provision specifically nullified Johnson's handing out pardons and amnesty to former Confederates.

In an effort to kill the remnants of the Confederacy, the amendment also cancelled the Confederate war debt, while maintaining Union debt and allowing for its payment.

The 14th Amendment: Criticisms

- Did not specifically say blacks had the right to vote
- Guaranteed the vote only to males
- Democrats decried the prohibition on former Confederates from holding office
- Johnson had urged states not to ratify the amendment

The 14th Amendment had its share of vocal critics: many who had opposed slavery since before the Civil War disliked that the amendment didn't specifically protect black suffrage, only that states who denied the right to vote to males would proportionately lose representation in Congress. In addition, proponents of women's suffrage called the amendment unfair for providing only males the right to vote. Democrats in both the North and South decried the article banning former Confederates from holding office as vindictive.

Johnson had urged the states not to ratify the amendment, which helped solidify the support of moderate Republicans as well as the Radicals for ratifying the amendment.

Johnson's "Swing Around the Circle"



This Thomas Nast cartoon parodied Johnson's "Swing"

- Johnson campaigned for Democratic congressional candidates and against the 14th Amendment
- A fiasco
- Most of the candidates he supported lost

As Congress continued to assert its authority over Reconstruction, President Johnson actively campaigned on behalf of Democratic congressional candidates likely to support his Reconstruction program. He also planned his "Swing Around the Circle"—a trip from Washington D.C. to New York, to Chicago, then along the Ohio River, and back again to Washington—to campaign against ratification of the 14th Amendment.

Johnson's campaigning was a first: Earlier presidents had not actively campaigned for congressional candidates, and many saw his trip as beneath the dignity of the office. In addition, as Johnson spoke at more and more stops, it became evident that his speeches were little more than a rehash of his earlier remarks, which spurred audiences to jeer at him.

Johnson's plan failed miserably: His coarse speech appalled audiences, and rather than solidify support for Democratic congressional candidates, his "Swing" divided the Democratic Party further. Few candidates he supported won their races, while the Radicals easily racked up more than two-thirds of the seats in both houses, ensuring an override of any veto that Johnson cast and further helping the ratification of the 14th Amendment.

Reconstruction Act of 1867

- Divided former Confederate states into five military districts
- Congressional approval required for Southern state constitutions
- All males given right to vote
- States required to ratify 14th Amendment



The Reconstruction Act of 1867 divided the former Confederacy into five separate military districts, each headed by a military governor

With Republican power solidified in Congress as a result of the 1866 elections, the Radicals sought to extend their control over Reconstruction. In 1867, Congress passed the Reconstruction Act, which superseded Johnson's previous Reconstruction efforts and put the Radicals in charge of returning the former Confederate states to the Union. As with many other Reconstruction bills, Congress overrode Johnson's veto to make the act law.

The act specified divided the ten former Confederate states that had refused to ratify the 14th Amendment (Tennessee had ratified and was therefore exempt) into five military districts, putting each under the supervision of a Union general. The act also allowed for voters, including African American males and white males still eligible to vote under the terms of the 14th Amendment, to elect delegates to state constitutional conventions. Congress would then have to approve each constitution before it could be ratified. In addition, the states would have to ratify the 14th Amendment for federal recognition of its new government.

Though harsher than Johnson's plan, the Radicals' Reconstruction program did not establish permanent military rule and did not prosecute former Confederate leaders for waging war against the federal government. However, while the Radicals intended to place control of Reconstruction in their own hands, Johnson could (as commander-in-chief of the armed forces) impede implementation of congressional Reconstruction by appointing more-conservative military commanders in the districts. Radicals became even angrier at Johnson for blocking their program.

Discussion Questions

1. What does the 14th Amendment provide for? What were some criticisms of it?
2. What was the purpose of Johnson's "Swing Around the Circle"? Why were many critical of it? Was it at all successful?
3. What did the Reconstruction Act of 1867 provide for? How did Johnson still manage to exert his influence over it?

1. The 14th Amendment incorporated much of the Civil Rights Act of 1866: It made anyone born in the U.S. a citizen, put all citizens under the equal protection of the law, and guaranteed voting rights for all adult males (under penalty of diminished congressional representation). Other sections barred certain ex-Confederates from holding office in postwar governments and cancelled all Confederate war debts. Various critics decried the amendment for not specifically mentioning African Americans and for the perceived unfairness of the restrictions on Confederate officeholders.
2. In an effort to increase Democratic representation on Congress, Johnson campaigned throughout most of the central U.S. Since no president had ever overtly campaigned on behalf of congressional candidates, many saw Johnson's tour as beneath the dignity of the office. His lackluster speaking ability and rehashed speeches resulted in jeers and insults by audience members. In the end, most of the candidates Johnson supported lost their elections, and the Radicals established a veto-proof majority in Congress.
3. The terms of the act placed the remaining Confederate states (other than Tennessee, which had already ratified the 14th Amendment) into five military districts, each with a separate commander. Congress would have to approve any new state constitution before its ratification, and each state would have to ratify the 14th Amendment. While the Radicals sought to control the Reconstruction process and further punish the South for the war, Johnson used his power as commander-in-chief to place conservative military commanders into positions of authority in the districts, which undermined the goals of the Radicals.

The Impeachment Process

- Article II, Section 4, of the U.S. Constitution
- Applies to president, vice president, and other “civil officers” of the federal govt.
- Charges of treason, “high crimes and misdemeanors”
- House of Representatives has impeachment power
- Senate tries impeachment cases, with Chief Justice as presiding judge

The Framers of the U.S. Constitution established in Article II, Section 4, a means for the legislative branch to remove corrupt officials from office. The Constitution specifically lists the president, vice president, and other “civil officers” of the federal government, such as federal judges (including Supreme Court justices). It states that a federal official can be removed for treason and “high crimes and misdemeanors,” but does not define these offenses. Congress has used the impeachment process against various federal judges, but only once against a Supreme Court justice, with the trial ending in acquittal. Only one U.S. senator has been impeached, again ending in acquittal. Two U.S. presidents, Andrew Johnson and Bill Clinton, have been impeached; both were acquitted. A third, Richard Nixon, resigned from office after the House Judiciary Committee recommended articles of impeachment but before the full House could vote to approve them.

The impeachment process has two stages: The House of Representatives first acts as a grand jury, handing down articles of impeachment similar to an indictment in a criminal trial. The U.S. Senate then serves as a trial jury, hearing evidence for and against the official, then voting to either approve or reject the articles; the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court presides over the proceedings. A conviction requires a two-thirds majority vote and immediately removes the guilty party from office.

Tenure of Office Act

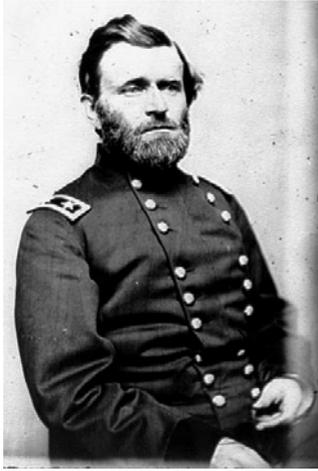
- Passed in 1867
- Limited presidential power
- Cabinet members could only be fired with Senate approval
- Law designed to protect Stanton



Secretary of War Edwin Stanton

With Reconstruction now under their control, the Radicals looked to eliminate their main adversary, President Johnson. Over Johnson's veto, Congress passed the Tenure of Office Act, a law designed to limit Johnson's power to fire Cabinet officials without Senate approval. The Radicals specifically wished to protect the job of Secretary of War Edwin Stanton, who supported the Radicals' cause and was needed to help enforce Radical Reconstruction legislation.

Command of the Army Act



General Ulysses S. Grant

- Passed in 1867
- Sought to further limit Johnson's power as commander-in-chief
- President could only issue military orders through Grant
- Grant could not be removed from office without Senate approval

After weakening Johnson's authority by passing the Tenure of Office Act, the Radicals sought to limit Johnson's power as commander-in-chief of the armed forces through the Command of the Army Act. The act, yet another passed over Johnson's veto, required that the president issue military orders only through the Commander of the Army, at the time General Ulysses S. Grant. The president could not fire Grant or replace him without Senate approval, even though the Constitution gives the chief executive control of the armed forces. The Radicals intended that only military commanders supporting their Reconstruction program could hold positions of authority in the Reconstruction military districts.

Impeachment: The Articles

- House Judiciary Committee unable to impeach Johnson in early 1867
- Johnson fired Stanton that summer
- Moderate Republicans joined with the Radicals
- Trial began in March 1868; lasted 11 weeks
- Seven “managers” presented the House’s case



A painting of the trial

With complete control of the legislative branch, Radicals now looked to find a way to remove President Johnson from office. The House Judiciary Committee began investigating possible offenses for which it could recommend articles of impeachment. The committee searched for anything to hold against the president, but was unable to dig up sufficient evidence even through the use of private investigators.

However, Johnson’s firing of Secretary of War Edwin Stanton gave the Radicals the excuse they needed to formally charge Johnson. With Congress adjourned in August 1867, Johnson replaced Stanton with General Ulysses S. Grant. Congress refused to approve Stanton’s firing when it reconvened. Grant resigned, and Johnson replaced him with former general Lorenzo Thomas.

Johnson refused to back down from his firing of Stanton. Moderate House Republicans joined with Radicals to hand down 11 articles of impeachment against Johnson—eight for violating the Tenure of Office Act, one for contravening the Command of the Army Act, and two for neglecting the duties of the office of president (i.e., essentially for criticizing Congress and for not enforcing its Reconstruction program).

The trial in the Senate trial began in March 1868, and continued for 11 weeks. Seven representatives, including leading Radicals such as Thaddeus Stevens of Pennsylvania, served as prosecution “managers” on behalf of the House and delivered the case against Johnson.

Impeachment: Johnson's Defense



In this engraving, President Andrew Johnson consults with his attorneys

- Johnson only sought a court test of Tenure of Office Act
- Stanton's firing was legal because Lincoln had appointed him, not Johnson
- Johnson had committed no crime for which he could be tried in court

While the congressional managers advanced their case, the president's handlers established their own. First, they stated that Johnson actually fired Stanton in order to force a court case testing the validity of the Tenure of Office Act, nothing more. They also contended that Stanton's firing was legal inasmuch as President Lincoln had appointed him and Johnson had only inherited Stanton upon Lincoln's assassination. Finally, Johnson's lawyers asserted that he had committed no crime by which he could be tried in a criminal court, and therefore Congress had no basis to impeach and remove him from office.

Impeachment: The Prosecution's Case

- Impeachment not a criminal trial
- Johnson had abused his presidential power
- Republicans generally supportive, but some wavered:
 - If the charges stuck, Congress might impeach any president it clashed with
 - Moderates disliked Johnson's likely successor



As the impeachment trial progressed, the House managers developed their case against Johnson. In their view, impeachment was a political process, and did not necessarily infer that a criminal act had occurred. They also believed that what they saw as Johnson's abuse of presidential power constituted an impeachable offense.

While many Republicans had no qualms about voting to convict, others weren't as convinced. Some saw impeachment as a threat to the constitutional provisions ensuring a balance of power between the branches of government—if Congress could remove a president for the reasons stated by the managers, no future president could stand up to Congress for fear of his own impeachment. In addition, some Republicans had concerns about who might replace Johnson if removed. Since he had no vice president, President pro tempore of the Senate Benjamin Wade would have likely stepped up, and many moderate Republicans would not support him.

Impeachment: The Verdict



ELEVATION—At the White House.
EFFECT OF THE VOTE ON THE ELEVENTH ARTICLE OF IMPEACHMENT.

DEPRESSION—At the Treasury Office.
EFFECT OF THE VOTE ON THE ELEVENTH ARTICLE OF IMPEACHMENT.

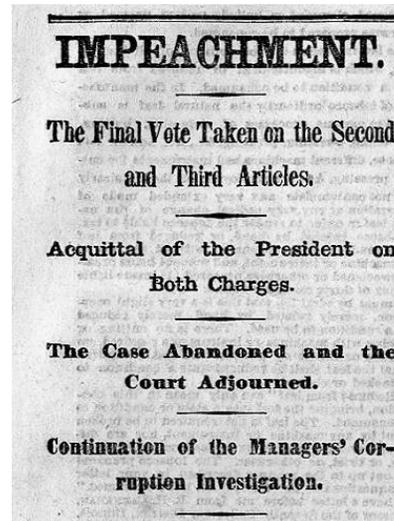
A Thomas Nast cartoon parodies how Johnson and *New York Tribune* publisher Horace Greeley each reacted to the verdict

- Senate voted 35–19 against Johnson
- One vote short of two-thirds needed to convict
- Seven Republicans voted with Democrats to acquit

The 11-week trial against Johnson dominated national attention. The congressional managers and Johnson's attorneys rested their cases, and in May 1868, the Senate voted on the articles of impeachment. The final tally came to 35–19 that Johnson was guilty. Though more senators voted to convict than acquit, the Radicals failed by a single vote to reach the needed two-thirds majority. Seven Republicans voted with the Democratic minority to retain Johnson in office.

Impeachment: Impact

- Impeachment on political grounds discouraged
- Johnson's credibility as a national leader significantly diminished
- Johnson served out his term, but ran for Senate in 1874
- Died soon after taking office



The Senate's inability to remove Johnson from office had far-reaching effects. While other presidents would quarrel with Congress to the point of jeopardizing legislative programs, no president faced impeachment again until Richard Nixon in 1974; he resigned before the House could hand down articles of impeachment. The House did impeach President Bill Clinton in 1998 (with the trial the next year) for perjury and obstruction of justice stemming from a scandal involving a White House intern; the Senate voted to acquit Clinton on all charges.

Though he remained in office, Johnson's credibility as a national leader had ended. The Democrats did not consider him for the 1868 nomination, selecting New York Governor Horatio Seymour instead. The Republicans nominated Ulysses S. Grant, who won the presidency in November. Johnson, his presidency a failure, returned to Tennessee in March 1869. Five years later, he sought to return to politics and ran for another term as senator from Tennessee. The Tennessee state legislature selected him, but Johnson died within six months after taking office.

Discussion Questions

1. For what action did the Radicals hand down articles of impeachment against Johnson? What other charges appeared in the articles?
2. What defense did Johnson's attorneys give in response to the impeachment articles?
3. What were some long-term effects of Johnson's impeachment?

1. The Radicals filed articles of impeachment against Johnson for his having fired Secretary of War Edwin Stanton (a Radical ally), in violation of the Tenure of Office Act. The House handed down 11 articles of impeachment: eight for violating the Tenure of Office Act, one in connection with the Command of the Army Act, and two for neglecting his duties as president for criticizing Congress and not enforcing the Reconstruction Acts.
2. Johnson's attorneys countered the Radicals' charges as follows: (1) impeachment was unwarranted because Johnson had committed no crime for which he could be tried in a criminal court, (2) protections of the Tenure of Office Act did not apply to Stanton because Lincoln had appointed him, (3) and at any rate, Johnson fired Stanton to spur a legal test case of the act's constitutionality.
3. The attempt to remove Johnson from office appeared to many to be a politically motivated misuse of impeachment power; until the trial of Bill Clinton in the 1990s, no political party used impeachment power to try to remove a president on political grounds. Though acquitted, Johnson lost all influence as a national leader and returned home to Tennessee once his term ended. He won a Senate seat in 1874, but died a few months after taking office.

The 15th Amendment

- Proposed in 1869
- Ratified in 1870
- Prohibited denying suffrage on the basis of “race, color, or previous condition of servitude”
- Several “loopholes” in the amendment



An illustration commemorating the ratification of the 15th Amendment

With the Johnson impeachment fight concluded and a new president elected, Congress now turned its attention to another Reconstruction goal: African American suffrage. While the Reconstruction Act of 1867 and 14th Amendment had prescribed punishments for former Confederate states refusing blacks the right to vote, the 15th Amendment ensured that former slaves would be given the franchise.

The amendment focused on prohibiting the denial of the right to vote on grounds of “race, color, or previous condition of servitude.” Democrats opposed the amendment, contending that it abridged the right of the states to determine voter eligibility; however, they lacked the votes to defeat the amendment. In addition, four former Confederate states (Mississippi, Virginia, Georgia, and Texas) had not been readmitted into the Union when Congress voted on the amendment; Congress added the ratification of the 15th Amendment as a requirement for completing the Reconstruction process.

While many applauded the amendment, several had concerns about significant loopholes that some could still use to keep African Americans out of the political process. The text included nothing guaranteeing that blacks elected to public office could serve, or prohibiting restrictions on voters such as poll taxes and literacy tests, both of which were used to legally keep blacks from voting. In addition, many complained that the 15th Amendment guaranteed suffrage for blacks, but did nothing for women.

“Carpetbaggers”



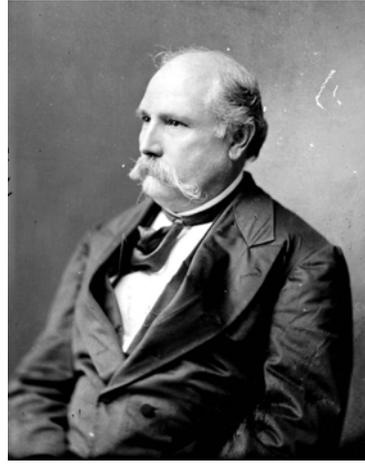
- Northerners who moved South
- Participated in Reconstruction governments
- Many Southerners saw them as “invaders” ready to loot the former Confederacy

As Southern states sought to reestablish themselves after the Civil War, some Northerners traveled south to participate in the new Reconstruction governments. Southerners gave these persons the name “carpetbaggers,” from the containers of carpet-like material in which they frequently carried their belongings.

While Southerners tended to deride these Northern “invaders” as opportunists looking to loot the former Confederate states, some had good intentions and did help establish effective state governments. However, many stayed for several years during the Reconstruction era, holding a great share of political power in the South.

“Scalawags”

- Southerners who supported the Republican Party
- Usually poor and uneducated whites, but some prominent Southerners also
- Some accused of governmental corruption, though little evidence supports the claim



James L. Alcorn

White Southern Democrats especially distrusted and despised Southerners who joined the Republican Party and supported Reconstruction governments, calling these persons “scalawags” (a popular term meaning “worthless fellow”).

Generally, scalawags tended to be poor and less-educated whites. However, some prominent Southerners supported the Reconstruction governments as well, most notably ex-Confederate General James Longstreet and Mississippi Governor and Senator James L. Alcorn.

Some Southern whites accused the scalawags of collaborating with the carpetbaggers in governmental corruption, including voter fraud and embezzling public funds. However, little evidence exists to support a higher level of corruption under the so-called carpetbaggers and scalawags than any other Southern groups, including Southern Democrats.

Southern Governmental Projects



Richmond, Virginia in 1865

- Republican governments embarked on rebuilding programs
- Major public works programs
- Public schools established
- State bureaucracies expanded
- Taxes increased
- Charges of corruption

As federal Reconstruction began to decline, Southern state governments began ambitious public-works projects to rebuild their states' infrastructure. New governments built roads, bridges, and public buildings, as well as rebuilding and improving railroad lines throughout the South. Reconstruction governments also established social-welfare programs, including funding orphanages, asylums for the mentally ill, and homes for the disabled. Public school systems also flourished for the first time in many states.

Since these programs required a substantial amount of supervision as well as funding, the size of these states' bureaucracies increased dramatically, as did tax rates. In some instances, states increased poll taxes, as well as sales and property taxes.

Many Southern opponents of Reconstruction alleged high instances of corruption in these new state governments. While such charges usually had no basis, noted cases did occur in states such as Louisiana and South Carolina. However, corruption in Northern governments during the same period was just as common (or more so) as in the South.

African Americans in Government

- Freedmen controlled large number of votes
- Sought land, education, equal rights
- Blacks served in several Southern legislatures
- Several blacks served in the House; only two in Senate



An illustration of the first African American members of Congress, including Sen. Hiram Revels (far left)

Gaining the right to vote gave African Americans significant political power in certain areas. In some states, former slaves made up nearly 80% of the electorate. Goals of these new voters included access to land, better education, civil rights, and political equality. However, while blacks served in new state legislatures in all the former Confederate states, they did not hold a majority of seats in any legislature except South Carolina's. During the Reconstruction era, no blacks were elected governor of any former Confederate state.

African American officeholders frequently differed from their constituencies: generally, they were better educated, wealthier, and came from urban backgrounds. In many instances, new officeholders were of mixed race as well.

Few blacks gained seats in the U.S. Congress. Most African American members of the House of Representatives hailed from South Carolina. Only two African Americans served in the U.S. Senate during the Reconstruction era: Hiram Revels of Mississippi, who had won former CSA President Jefferson Davis's old seat, and Blanche K. Bruce, also of Mississippi.

Sharecroppers and Tenant Farmers



- Sharecropping:
 - Effectively a return to slavery
 - Landowners broke up land into small plots, provided seed, farm supplies, livestock
 - Part of the crop used to pay back landowner
 - Debt kept freedmen tied to the land
- Crop-lien system and tenant farming

After the Civil War, many freedmen found it difficult to impossible to purchase their own plot of land to farm. On the other hand, many plantation owners needed labor to successfully farm their own land. Sharecropping, the system that emerged in response, tended to effectively enslave both Southern blacks and whites during the Reconstruction years.

In sharecropping, a landowner would divide his plantation into small plots. He then allocated the plots to freedmen and their families to farm. Since freedmen often lacked sufficient funds to purchase the land (let alone seed, farm implements, or livestock), the landowner provided these. The sharecropper then had to give the landowner a percentage of his crop, which the landowner would then sell in order to recoup his loss. However, these sales generally did not cover the cost of the supplies, so the sharecropper found himself increasingly tied to the land to continually pay the landowner, who often found himself in greater debt to banks, storekeepers, and merchants to supply the sharecropper.

This situation led to the development of what became known as the “crop-lien” system, in which both sharecropper and landowner relied on credit from local banks and merchants to stay supplied. Costs were high, and merchants themselves often had to buy their wares on credit, paying high interest rates.

A tenant-farmer class also came out of the Reconstruction era. Tenant farmers differed from sharecroppers in that they did not rely on landowners to provide the seeds, farm implements, and livestock; they simply rented the land they farmed. Therefore, they did not have the financial problems common to sharecroppers.

Discussion Questions

1. What did the 15th Amendment guarantee? What concerns did some have about its effectiveness?
2. What were “carpetbaggers” and “scalawags”? Why did pro-secession Southerners dislike both?
3. In what sense was sharecropping a “return to slavery” for blacks? How did sharecropping hurt white landowners as well?

1. The 15th Amendment guaranteed the vote for males, regardless of “race, color, or previous condition of servitude.” Some were concerned about loopholes that might be used to restrict political rights: there was no guarantee that blacks elected to public office would actually be able to serve, poll taxes and literacy tests for voting were still legal, and no provision existed to extend suffrage to women.
2. “Carpetbaggers” were white Northerners who migrated to the South to participate in Reconstruction governments. “Scalawags” were white Southerners who supported the Republicans and the Reconstruction governments. Southern whites supportive of secession likely believed that both groups took advantage of the South’s weakened position to better their own interests ahead of Southerners’; these Southerners also often accused scalawags of furthering government corruption.
3. Sharecropping represented a “return to slavery” for many blacks because they lacked the money to purchase their own seed, farm implements, and livestock, and therefore depended heavily on white landowners for these supplies. The sharecropper would try to pay the landowner from his meager harvest, but could rarely raise enough to ever pay off the landowner completely, tying him to the land in a cycle of debt. White landowners, meanwhile, received payment in crops and not cash, falling increasingly into debt with merchants and banks for the supplies they provided their sharecroppers.

Southern Whites Respond

- Republicans sought the black vote to maintain control of government
- Union League of America
- Terrorist groups formed to intimidate blacks and white Republicans:
 - Knights of the White Camellia
 - Order of Pale Faces
 - Ku Klux Klan



Several organizations looked to cement Republican control of government in the Southern states by garnering the votes of freedmen. For instance, the Union League of America sprung up across the South, using secret rituals, exotic symbols, and other methods common to fraternal organizations to mobilize large numbers of freedmen to vote Republican.

Other Southerners formed terrorist groups to intimidate and control freedmen and their sympathizers. The Knights of the White Camellia wanted to restore white supremacy to the Southern states. The Knights differed from similar groups in that it tended to attract more-affluent whites: professionals such as newspaper editors and physicians joined its ranks. However, it declined when a Republican newspaper published secret information about its symbols and rituals. The Order of Pale Faces also harassed freedmen and white supporters of civil rights for blacks in an attempt to end Republican rule. However, no group became as well known or feared as the Ku Klux Klan.

The Ku Klux Klan



Three Mississippi Klan members in full regalia

- Founded in Pulaski, TN, in late 1865
- Started as a social club, then evolved to white-supremacy group
- Forrest named “Grand Wizard”
- Klan used terrorist tactics against blacks and sympathetic whites

Perhaps the best known and most effective of all the white-supremacist groups in the postwar South was the Ku Klux Klan. Founded in late 1865 as a social club in Pulaski, Tennessee, it soon evolved into a terrorist group that attacked both blacks and whites. Former Confederate General Nathan Bedford Forrest became the Klan’s “Grand Wizard” in 1867. Forrest publicly claimed that the Klan existed to oppose Republican governments, as well as “carpetbaggers,” “scalawags,” and freedmen who exercised their newly granted rights or who actively sought to help other blacks. While Forrest clearly expressed his support for the Klan, he always denied his leadership or direct involvement.

To heighten the fear that the Klan inspired, members donned masks and hoods to hide their identities. Klan “night riders” often told superstitious blacks that they were the ghosts of dead Confederate soldiers. Tactics ranged from beatings of blacks and whites considered enemies, to lynching blacks. They also burned homes, frequently with the occupants still inside.

The Klan’s activities had demonstrable success: for example, one Louisiana parish contained more than 1000 registered Republicans, but yielded not a single Republican vote in the election of 1868.

Federal Responses to the Klan

- Ku Klux Klan Act of 1871
- Force Acts of 1870–1871
- Federal troops sent to South to stop Klan
- Klan broken up by 1872



Early Klan costumes

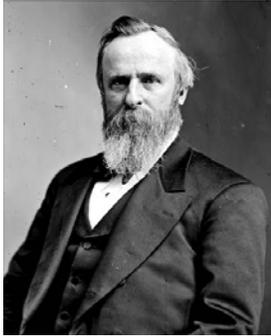
As the Klan gained more and more power in the South, federal authorities worked to limit the secret society's influence. In 1871, Congress passed the Ku Klux Klan Act, giving the president authority to intervene with federal troops in areas where the Klan operated, and to also suspend the writ of habeas corpus in locales with high incidences of violence. In addition, Congress passed three Force Acts during 1870 and 1871. These placed elections under federal jurisdiction and imposed fines and prison sentences for those convicted of interfering with anyone's right to vote. In areas with the strongest Klan activity, the federal government dispatched troops to maintain order, and due to such efforts the Klan essentially ceased to exist by 1872.

The Amnesty Act

- Passed in 1872
- Provided pardons for most Confederates
- Allowed them to vote and hold office
- Affected over 150,000 former Confederates
- Only 500 “leading Confederates” could not exercise political rights

As the memory of the Civil War became more and more distant, and as the Radicals lost their political clout, many became more willing to forgive their former enemies and grant them equal citizenship. The 1872 Amnesty Act provided for a blanket pardon for most former Confederates. The act pardoned nearly 150,000 Southerners, though it didn't apply to approximately 500 “leading Confederates” of the Civil War era.

The Election of 1876



Hayes

- Republican
Rutherford B. Hayes
- Democrat
Samuel J. Tilden
- Tilden won 184 electoral votes to Hayes's 165
- 20 electoral votes disputed



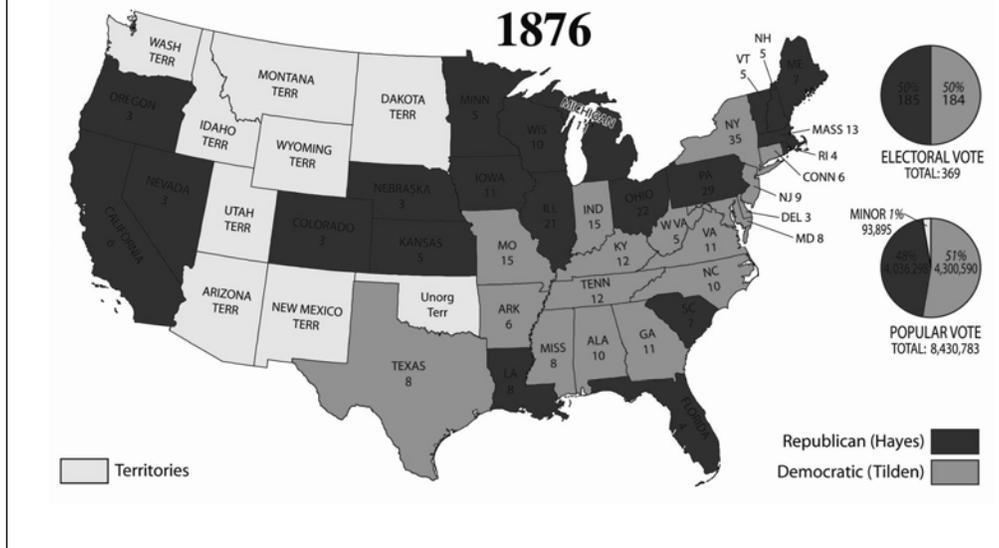
Tilden

The presidential election of 1876 was probably the most bitterly contested in American history to that time. The campaign had Republican Rutherford B. Hayes of Ohio squaring off against Democrat Samuel J. Tilden of New York.

The election results showed that Tilden won the popular vote by nearly 800,000 votes. He also outpolled Hayes in the Electoral College, 184–165. However, Tilden fell one electoral vote short of a majority. The controversy centered around 20 disputed electoral votes. In three states (Florida, Louisiana, and South Carolina), both Hayes and Tilden claimed victory. Democrats also disputed one electoral vote from Oregon. After significant wrangling by both parties to try to declare their candidate the winner, Congress established an Electoral Commission to determine how to award the 20 disputed votes.

Congress set the commission's membership at 15: five members from each house of Congress, plus five members of the U.S. Supreme Court. Since the two parties each controlled one house, the Republicans named three members from the Senate and the Democrats, two; members from the Democratic-controlled House reversed these proportions. From the Supreme Court, Congress sought a balance between Democratic- and Republican-appointed members and named Democrat-leaning Justice David Davis the fifth member. Davis, however, resigned from the Supreme Court to take a Senate seat from Illinois. Since Republicans made up the remainder of the Supreme Court, Congress had no choice but to appoint Justice Joseph P. Bradley the commission's eighth Republican.

The Election of 1876: Electoral Votes



Discussion questions:

Give students sufficient time to study the electoral map, and then ask the following questions:

- What trends does the map show regarding Republican strength in the election of 1876? (Republican support lay primarily in the Midwest and West, although the ticket carried the three former Confederate states of Louisiana, Florida, and South Carolina. The Republicans' strength in the Midwest might have come from the fact that the presidential and vice-presidential candidates hailed from Ohio and New York, respectively.)
- What trends does the map show regarding Democratic strength? (Democratic support was concentrated in the former Confederate states. However, the Democrats did carry two states in New England, as well as New York and Indiana, probably because the Democratic presidential and vice-presidential candidates came from New York and Indiana, respectively.)
- Based on this map and your knowledge of the election, what can be inferred regarding the strength of the two political parties nationwide? Explain. (Based on the map—and the fact that the disputed election came down to one electoral vote—students may say that the two parties had relatively equal support nationwide. However, some may note that since Tilden originally won both the popular and electoral vote, the election indicated greater Democratic support.)

The Compromise of 1877

- Knowing Hayes would win, Democrats agreed to:
 - Accept Hayes as president
 - Adhere to the 13th–15th Amendments
 - Not retaliate politically against Republicans
- In return, Hayes would pull the last troops from the South and hire a Southern postmaster general
- Troop withdrawal effectively ended Reconstruction

With Inauguration Day approaching, the Electoral Commission needed to quickly resolve the controversy and elect a president. The brokered outcome became known as the “Compromise of 1877.”

The Electoral Commission decided along party lines to award all 20 electoral votes to Hayes, giving him a one-vote victory in the Electoral College. A few days earlier, however, Southern Democrats expecting this outcome had met with high-level Republican Party officials to strike a deal: Democrats agreed to accept the commission’s presumed decision in favor of Hayes, adhere to the 13th, 14th, and 15th Amendments concerning civil rights for African Americans, and not retaliate politically against Republicans. The Republicans promised in turn to withdraw the last federal troops from the South, and to appoint a white Southerner as postmaster general (whose office included the most patronage jobs for supporters). Hayes pulled troops from South Carolina and Louisiana about a month into his term, effectively ending Reconstruction.

Supreme Court Cases on Reconstruction-Era Laws

- Slaughterhouse Cases (1873)
- *U.S. v. Cruikshank* (1875)
- Civil Rights Cases (1883)
- *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896)



The Supreme Court applied a narrow interpretation of the U.S. Constitution in the years following Reconstruction, limiting and restricting the rights gained by freedmen in the years following the Civil War. The most notable of these cases were:

- The Slaughterhouse Cases (1873), which declared that the Constitution conferred “dual citizenship” on Americans (i.e., state and federal) and that the 14th Amendment only protected “privileges and immunities” conferred by the federal government, and not the states. Therefore, state laws could legally abridge blacks’ rights.
- U.S. v. Cruikshank* (1875) overturned convictions of some members of the Ku Klux Klan for violating the Force Act, because the Fifth Amendment’s due-process clause and the 14th Amendment’s equal-protection clause protected persons from acts of state governments, not of individual citizens.
- The Civil Rights Cases (1883), which stated that the 14th Amendment protected African Americans from discrimination only by government entities, and not by private individuals, allowing individual citizens to discriminate against blacks without penalty.
- Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896) instituted the “separate but equal” doctrine, which permitted segregation as long as separate facilities for blacks and whites were “equal.” The ruling gave legal force to Jim Crow laws, which perpetuated segregation until the *Brown* decision in 1954.

“Southern Redemption”



- Return of Democratic rule to Southern states at the end of Reconstruction
- Decline in black voter registration diminished their political rights and representation
- Rise of Jim Crow laws

“Southern Redemption” refers to the reestablishment of conservative Democratic state governments in former Confederate states as federal Reconstruction declined in the mid 1870s.

Various signs accompanied the return of Democratic rule: As the 19th century wound down, fewer and fewer African Americans registered to vote, due to disenfranchisement strategies by whites, such as poll taxes and literacy tests. With black voter registration declining, blacks lost most of their political rights as well, such as the right to serve on juries; this resulted in more and more cases involving discrimination decided against blacks. Also, fewer black voters meant that the number of African Americans elected to government positions in former Confederate states soon fell to zero.

In addition, many Southern states enacted Jim Crow laws, designed to segregate blacks from whites. Soon, blacks could not enter many public buildings (or had to use different entrances) and could only access separate facilities, such as restrooms and water fountains. Jim Crow remained the law of the land in the South until the mid-1950s.

Discussion Questions

1. What tactics did the federal government use in fighting the Ku Klux Klan? Were they effective?
2. What caused the dispute in the election of 1876? How did the Compromise of 1877 settle the dispute, as well as help to end Reconstruction?
3. What were some Supreme Court cases of the late 1800s that diminished blacks' 14th Amendment rights? What did their decisions allow for?

1. The federal government passed the Ku Klux Klan Act of 1871, which allowed the president to intervene with federal troops in areas where the Klan operated. The Force Acts of 1870–1871 allowed for using federal troops to protect voting rights. The legislation was effective, in that the Klan essentially ceased to exist by 1872.
2. In the election of 1876, Democrat Samuel Tilden led Republican Rutherford B. Hayes in both the popular vote and the electoral vote, but did not win the required majority of electoral votes. Congress established an Electoral Commission to settle the question of 20 disputed votes in Florida, Louisiana, South Carolina, and Oregon. Once Democratic Party leaders realized that the commission would vote along party lines and give Hayes enough votes to beat Tilden, they met with Republican leaders to work out a deal: the Democrats agreed to accept Hayes as president, respect the 13th–15th Amendments, and not retaliate against Republican politicians, in return for a Southern postmaster general and the withdrawal of the last federal troops from the South, effectively ending Reconstruction.
3. Supreme Court cases include the Slaughterhouse Cases (1873), which allowed state laws to legally abridge blacks' rights; *U.S. v. Cruikshank* (1875), which said that the Fifth and 14th Amendments protected persons against acts by state governments, not individuals; the Civil Rights Cases (1883), which said that the 14th Amendment only protected African Americans from discrimination by government entities, not private individuals; and *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896), which instituted the “separate but equal” doctrine of legal segregation.

Reconstruction



RECONSTRUCTION OF THE SOUTH.

Essential Questions

- How did “executive Reconstruction” differ from “legislative Reconstruction”?
- Why did the Supreme Court interpret pivotal Reconstruction legislation and constitutional amendments in a narrow fashion?
- How did Reconstruction change life for African Americans?
- What lasting social and economic changes occurred in the South during and as a result of Reconstruction?
- How did Reconstruction alter the U.S. Constitution and its interpretation?
- How did the Reconstruction era change land ownership and use?
- What results of the Reconstruction era are evident in later U.S. history and in modern-day America?

Lincoln’s Second Inaugural Address



President Abraham Lincoln delivers his address before the Capitol building

- Given as the North approached victory in the Civil War
- Summed up Lincoln’s beliefs about how to reunite the country
- Did not claim victory or lay blame

From Lincoln's Second Inaugural

On the occasion corresponding to this four years ago all thoughts were anxiously directed to an impending civil war. All dreaded it, all sought to avert it. While the inaugural address was being delivered from this place, devoted altogether to saving the Union without war, urgent agents were in the city seeking to destroy it without war—seeking to dissolve the Union and divide effects by negotiation. Both parties deprecated war, but one of them would make war rather than let the nation survive, and the other would accept war rather than let it perish, and the war came...

With malice toward none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right as God gives us to see the right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in, to bind up the nation's wounds, to care for him who shall have borne the battle and for his widow and his orphan, to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and lasting peace among ourselves and with all nations.

Lincoln's Final Public Speech

- At the White House on April 11, 1865
- Lincoln suggested that some blacks be given the right to vote
- John Wilkes Booth was present
- Booth shot Lincoln three days later



A later photograph of Abraham Lincoln

From Lincoln's Final Speech

It is also unsatisfactory to some that the elective franchise is not given to the colored man. I would myself prefer that it were now conferred on the very intelligent, and on those who serve our cause as soldiers.

Some twelve thousand voters in the heretofore slave-state of Louisiana have sworn allegiance to the Union, assumed to be the rightful political power of the State, held elections, organized a State government, adopted a free-state constitution, giving the benefit of public schools equally to black and white, and empowering the Legislature to confer the elective franchise upon the colored man. Their Legislature has already voted to ratify the constitutional amendment recently passed by Congress, abolishing slavery throughout the nation...

We encourage the hearts, and nerve the arms of the twelve thousand to adhere to their work, and argue for it, and proselyte for it, and fight for it, and feed it, and grow it, and ripen it to a complete success. The colored man too, in seeing all united for him, is inspired with vigilance, and energy, and daring, to the same end. Grant that he desires the elective franchise, will he not attain it sooner by saving the already advanced steps toward it, than by running backward over them?

Lincoln's Assassination



Lincoln's preserved box in Ford's Theater, including the flag bunting Booth pulled down as he leapt to the stage

- April 14, 1865, in Washington, DC
- Assassin John Wilkes Booth
- Other government officials targeted by conspiracy
- Many believe Lincoln's death led to harsher terms for the South

Discussion Questions

1. What themes did Lincoln touch on in his Second Inaugural Address? How did the time at which he delivered it affect its message?
2. What about Lincoln's April 11th speech motivated John Wilkes Booth to assassinate him? Why might this have angered Booth?

Lincoln's "Ten-Percent Plan"

- Released in December 1863
- "Executive Reconstruction"
- Would pardon most former Confederates
- When 10% of the number of voters in 1860 signed loyalty oaths, the state could form a new government
- Used to return areas such as Louisiana back to the Union



“Radical Republicans”



Rep. Thaddeus Stevens

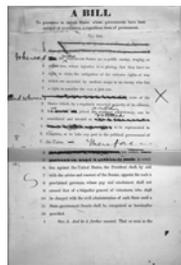
- Faction from 1854 to end of Reconstruction
- Wanted tougher policies for former Confederate states
- Believed in equal rights for freed slaves, other blacks
- Led by Sen. Sumner and Rep. Stevens



Sen. Charles Sumner

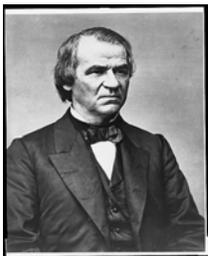
The Wade-Davis Bill

- Passed Congress in 1864
- Required more than half of voters to sign loyalty oath
- Required second oath for voting eligibility
- New constitution had to repeal secession and abolish slavery
- Bill pocket-vetoed by Lincoln



A draft of the Wade-Davis Bill, with handwritten corrections by Thaddeus Stevens

President Andrew Johnson



Andrew Johnson

- Remained in Senate even after Tennessee seceded
- Appointed military governor of TN in 1862
- Lincoln's vice president
- Became 17th president upon Lincoln's death

Johnson's Plan for Reconstruction

- Announced while Congress was out of session
- Most Southerners received pardons
- Oath-takers could select convention delegates
- Delegates would have to renounce secession, Confederate state debts, and ratify 13th Amendment
- Did not pardon ex-officials or wealthy Confederates



Published after Lincoln's assassination, this illustration shows reconciliation being offered to the South in Lincoln's memory

Johnson's Plan: Results



Former CSA vice-president Alexander Stephens, who won a seat in Congress after the war

- Large number of pardons
- New governments in seven former Confederate states
- Former secessionists awarded state offices
- Former CSA officeholders and military officers elected to Congress
- "Black Codes" enacted
- Radicals enraged

Discussion Questions

1. Which branch of government did Lincoln believe should be in charge of Reconstruction? What logic did he give for this?
2. Who were the Radical Republicans? How did they believe the defeated Confederate states should be treated?
3. How did Johnson's Reconstruction plan differ from Lincoln's?

“Black Codes”

- Laws that replaced slave codes in Southern states
- Restricted freedoms of ex-slaves
- Method of getting around 13th Amendment
- Radicals saw passage of codes as a threat



The Radicals' Response

- Saw Southern moves against Reconstruction as defiance
- Congress refused to seat delegates from former CSA
- Established Joint Committee on Reconstruction to oversee process and keep ex-Confederates out of power

The Freedmen's Bureau

- Created to help assimilate newly freed slaves into society
- Helped freedmen solve everyday problems
- Divided into several sub-agencies
- Noted for its work in providing education
- Radicals passed legislation extending its term



A Freedmen's Bureau office

What “Freedom” Meant to Blacks



As this cartoon shows, emancipation for blacks above all meant family

- Could travel without restriction
- Could look for lost or sold family members
- “Legalized” marriage ceremonies
- Many women took jobs as servants; others worked alongside their husbands in the fields

Civil Rights Act of 1866

- Proposed by Sen. Trumbull of Illinois
- Gave blacks citizenship, equal rights
- Authorized federal government to guarantee freedmen’s rights in court and to own property
- Made law over Johnson’s veto



April 1866: blacks gather in Washington, D.C. to celebrate the end of slavery

Congress vs. the President



A cartoon criticizing Johnson and his use of the veto

- Johnson vetoed Civil Rights Act of 1866 as well as bill extending the term of the Freedmen’s Bureau
- Neither bill affected his Reconstruction plans
- Johnson lost support of moderate Republicans
- Stage set for confrontation with the Radicals

Discussion Questions

1. What were the Black Codes? What rights did they restrict?
2. What did the Freedmen's Bureau provide for? What happened when Congress voted to extend its term?
3. How did the Radicals react to the Black Codes? How did this affect the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1866?

The 14th Amendment

- Proposed by Joint Committee on Reconstruction; ratified in 1868
- Made the Civil Rights Act of 1866 the law of the land
- Overturned 1857 *Dred Scott* decision
- Would reduce congressional representation of any state denying suffrage to male citizens



The 14th Amendment (cont.)



Anti-Johnson cartoon supporting the 14th Amendment

- Barred from office anyone who had sworn to uphold the Constitution and then supported the Confederacy
- Cancelled Confederate war debt, but maintained federal debt

The 14th Amendment: Criticisms

- Did not specifically say blacks had the right to vote
- Guaranteed the vote only to males
- Democrats decried the prohibition on former Confederates from holding office
- Johnson had urged states not to ratify the amendment

Johnson's "Swing Around the Circle"



This Thomas Nast cartoon parodied Johnson's "Swing"

- Johnson campaigned for Democratic congressional candidates and against the 14th Amendment
- A fiasco
- Most of the candidates he supported lost

Reconstruction Act of 1867

- Divided former Confederate states into five military districts
- Congressional approval required for Southern state constitutions
- All males given right to vote
- States required to ratify 14th Amendment



The Reconstruction Act of 1867 divided the former Confederacy into five separate military districts, each headed by a military governor

Discussion Questions

1. What does the 14th Amendment provide for? What were some criticisms of it?
2. What was the purpose of Johnson's "Swing Around the Circle"? Why were many critical of it? Was it at all successful?
3. What did the Reconstruction Act of 1867 provide for? How did Johnson still manage to exert his influence over it?

The Impeachment Process

- Article II, Section 4, of the U.S. Constitution
- Applies to president, vice president, and other "civil officers" of the federal govt.
- Charges of treason, "high crimes and misdemeanors"
- House of Representatives has impeachment power
- Senate tries impeachment cases, with Chief Justice as presiding judge

Tenure of Office Act

- Passed in 1867
- Limited presidential power
- Cabinet members could only be fired with Senate approval
- Law designed to protect Stanton



Secretary of War Edwin Stanton

Command of the Army Act



General Ulysses S. Grant

- Passed in 1867
- Sought to further limit Johnson's power as commander-in-chief
- President could only issue military orders through Grant
- Grant could not be removed from office without Senate approval

Impeachment: The Articles

- House Judiciary Committee unable to impeach Johnson in early 1867
- Johnson fired Stanton that summer
- Moderate Republicans joined with the Radicals
- Trial began in March 1868; lasted 11 weeks
- Seven "managers" presented the House's case



A painting of the trial

Impeachment: Johnson's Defense



In this engraving, President Andrew Johnson consults with his attorneys

- Johnson only sought a court test of Tenure of Office Act
- Stanton's firing was legal because Lincoln had appointed him, not Johnson
- Johnson had committed no crime for which he could be tried in court

Impeachment: The Prosecution's Case

- Impeachment not a criminal trial
- Johnson had abused his presidential power
- Republicans generally supportive, but some wavered:
 - If the charges stuck, Congress might impeach any president it clashed with
 - Moderates disliked Johnson's likely successor



Impeachment: The Verdict

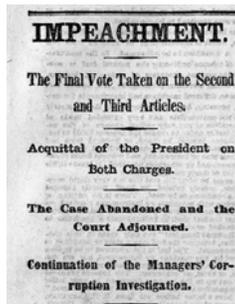


A Thomas Nast cartoon parodies how Johnson and *New York Tribune* publisher Horace Greeley each reacted to the verdict

- Senate voted 35–19 against Johnson
- One vote short of two-thirds needed to convict
- Seven Republicans voted with Democrats to acquit

Impeachment: Impact

- Impeachment on political grounds discouraged
- Johnson's credibility as a national leader significantly diminished
- Johnson served out his term, but ran for Senate in 1874
- Died soon after taking office



Discussion Questions

1. For what action did the Radicals hand down articles of impeachment against Johnson? What other charges appeared in the articles?
2. What defense did Johnson's attorneys give in response to the impeachment articles?
3. What were some long-term effects of Johnson's impeachment?

The 15th Amendment

- Proposed in 1869
- Ratified in 1870
- Prohibited denying suffrage on the basis of "race, color, or previous condition of servitude"
- Several "loopholes" in the amendment



An illustration commemorating the ratification of the 15th Amendment

"Carpetbaggers"



- Northerners who moved South
- Participated in Reconstruction governments
- Many Southerners saw them as "invaders" ready to loot the former Confederacy

“Scalawags”

- Southerners who supported the Republican Party
- Usually poor and uneducated whites, but some prominent Southerners also
- Some accused of governmental corruption, though little evidence supports the claim



James L. Alcorn

Southern Governmental Projects



Richmond, Virginia in 1865

- Republican governments embarked on rebuilding programs
- Major public works programs
- Public schools established
- State bureaucracies expanded
- Taxes increased
- Charges of corruption

African Americans in Government

- Freedmen controlled large number of votes
- Sought land, education, equal rights
- Blacks served in several Southern legislatures
- Several blacks served in the House; only two in Senate



THE FIRST COLORED SENATOR AND REPRESENTATIVES.
In the 41st and 42nd Congresses of the United States.
An illustration of the first African American members of Congress, including Sen. Hiram Revels (far left)

Sharecroppers and Tenant Farmers



- Sharecropping:
 - Effectively a return to slavery
 - Landowners broke up land into small plots, provided seed, farm supplies, livestock
 - Part of the crop used to pay back landowner
 - Debt kept freedmen tied to the land
- Crop-lien system and tenant farming

Discussion Questions

1. What did the 15th Amendment guarantee? What concerns did some have about its effectiveness?
2. What were “carpetbaggers” and “scalawags”? Why did pro-secession Southerners dislike both?
3. In what sense was sharecropping a “return to slavery” for blacks? How did sharecropping hurt white landowners as well?

Southern Whites Respond

- Republicans sought the black vote to maintain control of government
- Union League of America
- Terrorist groups formed to intimidate blacks and white Republicans:
 - Knights of the White Camellia
 - Order of Pale Faces
 - Ku Klux Klan



The Ku Klux Klan



Three Mississippi Klan members in full regalia

- Founded in Pulaski, TN, in late 1865
- Started as a social club, then evolved to white-supremacy group
- Forrest named “Grand Wizard”
- Klan used terrorist tactics against blacks and sympathetic whites

Federal Responses to the Klan

- Ku Klux Klan Act of 1871
- Force Acts of 1870–1871
- Federal troops sent to South to stop Klan
- Klan broken up by 1872

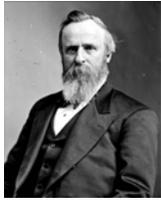


Early Klan costumes

The Amnesty Act

- Passed in 1872
- Provided pardons for most Confederates
- Allowed them to vote and hold office
- Affected over 150,000 former Confederates
- Only 500 “leading Confederates” could not exercise political rights

The Election of 1876



Hayes

- Republican Rutherford B. Hayes
- Democrat Samuel J. Tilden
- Tilden won 184 electoral votes to Hayes's 165
- 20 electoral votes disputed



Tilden

The Election of 1876: Electoral Votes



The Compromise of 1877

- Knowing Hayes would win, Democrats agreed to:
 - Accept Hayes as president
 - Adhere to the 13th–15th Amendments
 - Not retaliate politically against Republicans
- In return, Hayes would pull the last troops from the South and hire a Southern postmaster general
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Supreme Court Cases on Reconstruction-Era Laws

- Slaughterhouse Cases (1873)
- *U.S. v. Cruikshank* (1875)
- Civil Rights Cases (1883)
- *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896)



“Southern Redemption”



- Return of Democratic rule to Southern states at the end of Reconstruction
- Decline in black voter registration diminished their political rights and representation
- Rise of Jim Crow laws

The Legacy of Reconstruction

- The Democratic “Solid South” voting bloc
- Northerners dominated presidential politics
- Jim Crow laws spread as the Supreme Court chipped away at blacks’ constitutional rights
- Blacks essentially abandoned by Northern reformers after Reconstruction



Discussion Questions

1. What tactics did the federal government use in fighting the Ku Klux Klan? Were they effective?
2. What caused the dispute in the election of 1876? How did the Compromise of 1877 settle the dispute, as well as help to end Reconstruction?
3. What were some Supreme Court cases of the late 1800s that diminished blacks' 14th Amendment rights? What did their decisions allow for?

Reconstruction: Backwards Planning Activities

Enduring understandings:

- The Reconstruction era was a period of struggle between the executive and legislative branches of the U.S. government
- The Reconstruction era revealed deep divisions in the nation regarding the return of the former Confederate states to the Union
- Reconstruction greatly redefined the place of African Americans in American society
- African Americans made limited political gains throughout the era of Reconstruction
- Reconstruction led to the emergence of the “Solid South,” in which the Democratic Party dominated Southern politics into the later 20th century
- Reconstruction led to a period of Republican dominance in national politics, which continued until the early 20th century
- Changes brought about by Reconstruction led to formation of several Southern white-supremacist groups, most notably the Ku Klux Klan
- The Reconstruction Era saw a period of reform in the new Southern state governments

Essential questions:

- How did “executive Reconstruction” differ from “legislative Reconstruction”?
- Why did the Supreme Court interpret pivotal Reconstruction legislation and constitutional amendments in a narrow fashion?
- How did Reconstruction change life for African Americans?
- What lasting social and economic changes occurred in the South during and as a result of Reconstruction?
- How did Reconstruction alter the U.S. Constitution and its interpretation?
- How did the Reconstruction era change land ownership and use?
- What results of the Reconstruction era are evident in later U.S. history and in modern-day America?

Learning Experiences and Instruction

Students will need to know...	Students will need to be able to...
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. How Lincoln’s Reconstruction plan differed from those of Andrew Johnson and the Radical Republicans 2. How Radical Republicans came to prominence in the U.S. Congress 3. Why the Radicals attempted to impeach President Andrew Johnson in 1868 4. How African Americans sought to increase their social and political influence during the period 5. How the federal government sought to assist freedmen in their quest to become successful in their new lives 6. How the 14th and 15th Amendments were intended to provide civil rights for freedmen 7. How sharecropping ensured a “return to slavery” for most blacks 8. How groups such as the Ku Klux Klan came to prominence in the period, and their tactics 9. The long-term legacy of Reconstruction 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Read and interpret primary source documents from the Reconstruction era 2. Make conclusions about various views on how former Confederate states should reenter the Union 3. Identify important figures, both political and social, from the Reconstruction era 4. Determine how the U.S. Supreme Court and Southern governments interpreted changes in the Constitution made during the period 5. Analyze how the Reconstruction period affected both Southern whites and blacks 6. Determine the long-term effects of the period on American society and politics

Teaching and learning activities that will equip students to demonstrate targeted understandings:

- Overview of essential questions and basic understandings
- Questions for class discussion of subject matter in the PowerPoint presentation
- Teacher introduction of common terms and ideas in the essential questions and related projects
- Provide students with primary source materials from which they will complete related projects in the unit
- Students conduct research in groups to be used later in individual and group projects
- Informal observation and coaching of students as they work in groups
- Evaluation and delivered feedback on projects and research reports
- Having students create and present their unit projects
- A posttest made up of multiple-choice questions covering the presentation, with one or more essential questions as essay questions.

Project #1: Sharecropper's Letter

Overview:

In this lesson, students research daily life and problems facing Reconstruction-era sharecroppers. Based on their research, they assume the roles of sharecroppers or white landowners writing letters to a fictitious congressman or senator, asking for assistance with improving their economic condition and life, and describing the positive aspects and problems both whites and blacks faced with this system.

Objectives:

After completing this lesson, students will:

- Collect information about the process of sharecropping, as well as the positive and negative effects for freedmen
- Develop conclusions about the impact of sharecropping
- Express conclusions regarding sharecropping and its impact via expository writing

Time required:

One to three 50-minute class periods

Materials:

Computer(s) with Internet access; paper, writing utensils, word processor, and printer, if desired

Methodology:

Begin the lesson by asking the class to discuss the concept of sharecropping. You or a student volunteer can write terms about sharecropping on a chalkboard or overhead projector. If needed, have the class review the presentation slide dealing with sharecropping (slide #43).

After the class has reviewed the material, read the included script to students to introduce the assignment.

Once students have completed research, allow adequate time for them to fill out the "Sharecropping Comparison Chart" and write their letters based on the information they collected.

Evaluation:

Once students have completed their letters, evaluate them using the included rubric or a rubric you have personally designed.

Suggested Web Resources:

Note: The following list includes several resources that students may use to gather evidence for their letters. However, you may also wish to have students do supplemental Web-based research using a search engine such as Google.

American Experience. Reconstruction: The Second Civil War. “Slave to Sharecropper.” (<http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/amex/reconstruction/sharecrop/index.html>)

Digital History. Reconstruction. “Sharecropping.” (http://www.digitalhistory.uh.edu/database/article_display.cfm?HHID=130)

History Matters. “A Georgia Sharecropper’s Story of Forced Labor ca. 1900.” (<http://historymatters.gmu.edu/d/28/>)

New Georgia Encyclopedia. “Sharecropping.” (<http://www.georgiaencyclopedia.org/nge/Article.jsp?id=h-3590>)

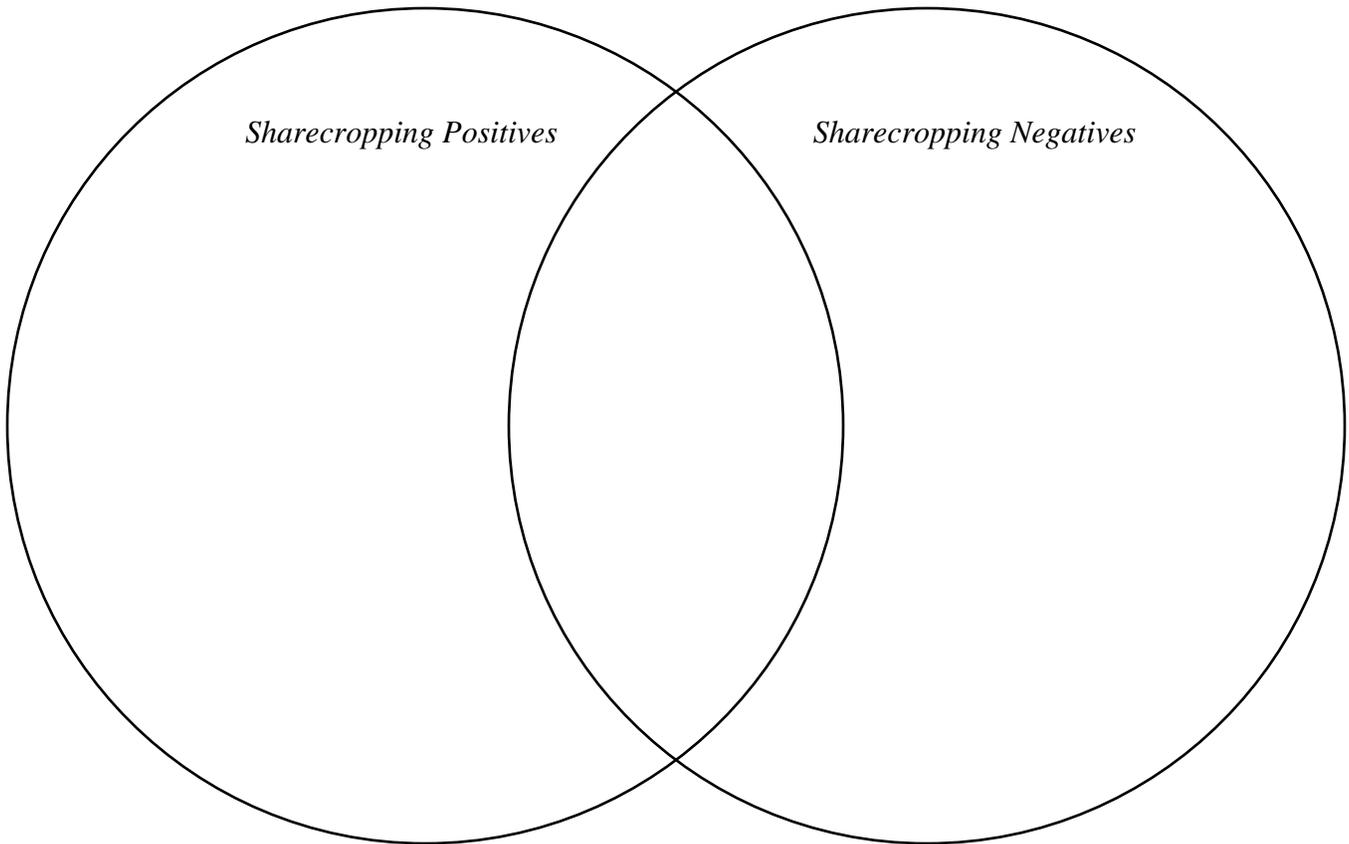
Oklahoma Historical Society. Encyclopedia of Oklahoma History and Culture. “Tenant Farming and Sharecropping.” (<http://digital.library.okstate.edu/encyclopedia/entries/T/TE009.html>)

Reconstruction: Sharecropping Comparison Chart

Many freedmen found sharecropping to be their only option for making a living in the years after the Civil War. Many found this process essentially a “return to slavery.”

In this assignment, you’ll assume the role of a sharecropper or white landowner. You’ll find out what it was like to be a sharecropper or a landholder who used sharecropper labor, and use that information to write a letter to a congressman or senator explaining the sharecropping system and asking for federal legislation to provide reforms for the system that most benefit you directly.

As you do your research, complete the Venn diagram below with information that will assist you in writing your letter.



Sharecropping Letter Rubric

<p>Research and historical accuracy:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relevant supporting evidence • Sufficient quantity of facts used 	<p>Level 1 (0–2): Limited support of points in letter; evidence mostly irrelevant; facts limited or unrelated</p> <p>Level 2 (3–5): Some points supported; some facts not relevant; some facts insufficient or missing</p> <p>Level 3 (6–8): Most points supported with relevant evidence</p> <p>Level 4 (9–10): Each point supported by relevant evidence; substantial facts used</p>	<p>Score:</p>
<p>Supportive reasons or arguments: Supportive details are related to the main idea or topic</p>	<p>Level 1 (0–2): Unsupported details unrelated</p> <p>Level 2 (3–5): Supportive details unclear, not logically related to main idea</p> <p>Level 3 (6–8): Supportive details usually clear and logically related to the main idea</p> <p>Level 4 (9–10): Supportive details very clear and logically related to the main idea</p>	<p>Score:</p>
<p>Mechanics of writing: Correct grammar and spelling used</p>	<p>Level 1 (0–2): Grammar and spelling used with limited accuracy and effectiveness</p> <p>Level 2 (3–5): Grammar and spelling used with some accuracy and effectiveness</p> <p>Level 3 (6–8): Grammar and spelling used with considerable accuracy</p> <p>Level 4 (9–10): Correct grammar and spelling used with accuracy and effectiveness almost all the time</p>	<p>Score:</p>
<p>Structure—conclusion: Summarizes main ideas and main points</p>	<p>Level 1 (0–2): Abrupt ending; limited summary of main points</p> <p>Level 2 (3–5): Main points summarized, but mostly unclear</p> <p>Level 3 (6–8): Main points summarized, but somewhat unclear</p> <p>Level 4 (9–10): Main points clearly summarized</p>	<p>Score:</p>

Additional criteria as set by the teacher:		Score:
		Total score:

Project #2: Editorializing Johnson's Impeachment Trial

Overview:

In this lesson, students collect information about President Andrew Johnson's 1868 impeachment trial and write editorials or draw editorial cartoons from the perspective of newspapers supporting either the Radicals or the president.

Objectives:

As a result of completing the lesson, students will

- Understand the power struggle between Johnson and the Radical Republicans
- Research aspects of the impeachment trial of President Andrew Johnson
- Make conclusions about the trial and write persuasive arguments to support one side or the other

Time required:

One to two 50-minute class periods

Materials:

Computer(s) with Internet access, printer, word-processing software (if desired)

Methodology:

Prior to beginning the lesson, the class should have studied the issues leading to Johnson's impeachment, as well as events that led to the House of Representatives handing down articles of impeachment and the resulting impeachment trial. (You may wish to have the class review slides #29–36, which discuss these points.)

Next, introduce the lesson by telling the students that they will be analyzing events regarding the Johnson's impeachment, and will write a persuasive editorial either recommending Johnson's conviction and removal from office, or urging Johnson's acquittal of all charges. Suggest that students analyze the trial from the point of view of one of the following:

- A newspaper supporting Radical Reconstruction
- A newspaper supporting a more moderate Reconstruction
- A newspaper supporting increased rights for freedmen
- A newspaper supporting restoring rights to white Southerners

You may assign roles to students in the class, or allow students to select which view they want to promote.

Explain to the students that an editorial is the opinion of the newspaper as a whole and would mirror the newspaper's philosophy. As a result, students should look for information supporting their view, but should also look for opinions representing other viewpoints in an effort to discredit them. In addition, the editorial should be persuasive and attempt to sway the reader toward the point of view of the publication, or should encourage the reader to take some sort of action.

Allow students sufficient time to research views on Johnson's impeachment, either using the included list of suggested Web sites or by conducting independent research on the case. As they find information, they should complete the "Editorial Opinion Chart" to help them develop their editorials. Explain that they should identify each source they use and explain that source's position. Based on the role they are playing, they should then state whether they agree or disagree with the view and explain their rationale. Finally, they should explain how they would support that view if they agree, or criticize it if they disagree. (Depending on the number of sources students locate, you may wish to print out several extra copies of the "Editorial Opinion Chart" in case students fill more than one chart.)

As an alternative assignment, students with artistic abilities may wish to draw editorial cartoons regarding the trial.

Evaluation:

Allow sufficient time for students to write their editorials. When completed, evaluate student work using the rubric included with this lesson or a rubric of your own design.

Related Web Resources:

Note: The following list includes several resources that students may use to gather evidence for their letters. However, you may also wish to have students do supplemental Web-based research using a search engine such as Google.

AmericanHeritage.com. "Why They Impeached Andrew Johnson" (December 1956)
(http://www.americanheritage.com/articles/magazine/ah/1956/1/1956_1_20.shtml)

The Avalon Project. "History of the Impeachment of Andrew Johnson."
(http://avalon.law.yale.edu/19th_century/johnson.asp)

Famous American Trials. "The Andrew Johnson Impeachment Trial."
(<http://www.law.umkc.edu/faculty/projects/ftrials/impeach/impeachmt.htm>)

Harper's Weekly. "Finding Precedent: The Impeachment of Andrew Johnson."
(<http://www.impeach-andrewjohnson.com/>)

History Matters. “The Impeachment of Andrew Johnson.”
(<http://historymatters.gmu.edu/impeach3.html>)

Library of Congress. The Impeachment Trial of President Andrew Johnson. “Supplement to the Congressional Globe.” (<http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/amlaw/lwgc-imp.html>)

Library of Congress. Research Guide on Impeachment. “Historic Background on the Impeachment and Trial of President Andrew Johnson.”
(<http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/amlaw/Impeachment-Guide.html#background>)

Miller Center of Public Affairs. American President. “Andrew Johnson (1808–1875).”
(<http://millercenter.org/academic/americanpresident/johnson>)

Editorial Opinion Chart

Source:	What did you read?	Do you agree?	Why or why not?	How might you support/criticize this view?

Impeachment Trial Editorial Rubric

<p>Structure— introduction:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Includes thesis statement • Introduces main points 	<p>Level 1 (0–5): Simple opening statement; limited identification of main points</p> <p>Level 2 (6–10): Thesis stated but unclear; main points unclear</p> <p>Level 3 (11–15): Thesis stated but somewhat unclear; main points introduced with moderate clarity</p> <p>Level 4 (16–20): Thesis precisely stated; main points clearly introduced</p>	<p>Score:</p>
<p>Structure— conclusion:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Summarizes thesis/main idea • Summarizes main points 	<p>Level 1 (0–5): Abrupt ending; limited summary of main points</p> <p>Level 2 (6–10): Thesis summarized but unclear; main point summarized but unclear</p> <p>Level 3 (11–15): Thesis summarized but somewhat unclear; main points summarized but unclear</p> <p>Level 4 (16–20): Thesis clearly summarized; main points clearly summarized</p>	<p>Score:</p>
<p>Supporting evidence or arguments: Arguments relate logically to main idea</p>	<p>Level 1 (0–5): Arguments unrelated to main idea</p> <p>Level 2 (6–10): Arguments unclear and not logically related to main idea</p> <p>Level 3 (11–15): Arguments usually clear and logically related to main idea</p> <p>Level 4 (16–20): Arguments very clear and logically related to main idea</p>	<p>Score:</p>
<p>Evidence and examples:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relevant supporting evidence • Sufficient number of facts used 	<p>Level 1 (0–5): Limited support of points; evidence mostly irrelevant; unrelated or limited facts used</p> <p>Level 2 (6–10): Some points supported; some evidence irrelevant; insufficient use of facts</p> <p>Level 3 (11–15): Most points supported with relevant evidence; sufficient use of facts</p> <p>Level 4 (16–20): Each point supported with relevant evidence; substantial use of facts</p>	<p>Score:</p>

Writing mechanics: Correct grammar and spelling used	Level 1 (0–5): Limited accuracy with grammar and spelling Level 2(6–10): Some accuracy with grammar and spelling Level 3 (11–15): Considerable accuracy with grammar and spelling Level 4 (16–20): Correct grammar and spelling used almost always	Score:
Additional criteria as set by the teacher:		Score:
		Total score:

Project #3: Debating the Impact of Reconstruction

Overview:

In this lesson, students take an “affirmative” or “negative” view on a topic related to Reconstruction, research their view, and attempt to convince an audience of “judges” that they have best presented their view.

Objectives:

As a result of completing this lesson, students will:

- Review various views regarding Reconstruction
- Make conclusions about the era
- Organize those conclusions into logical positions backed by evidence
- Explain those positions in an effective, persuasive manner

Methodology:

Before beginning the lesson, students should know the background of Reconstruction law, policy, and history, based on their textbook as well as the presentation. If needed, you may wish to review any or all aspects of Reconstruction.

Once students are acquainted with Reconstruction, introduce the lesson. Start by explaining that a debate is an organized (and respectful) argument between two different viewpoints: those who agree with a particular statement (a resolution), and those who disagree with that statement. Explain to the students that they’ll be researching and debating either side in class debates.

You may choose to use a catch-all resolution, such as, “Reconstruction effectively reunited the North and South after the Civil War.” However, you may elect to pick a subtopic and divide the class into various groups to conduct multiple debates.

Subtopic resolutions might include:

- Freedmen made substantial gains toward racial equality during the Reconstruction era
- Southern governments created significant infrastructure improvements during the Reconstruction years
- The Reconstruction years spurred much positive political change throughout the late 19th and early 20th centuries

You may also wish to create your own resolutions for the debate.

Once you've selected a resolution for the debate, decide on the debate format. (See "Suggested Web resources" for debate information sites.) Generally, debate formats sanctioned by the National Forensics League include a two-person team representing the affirmative and another two-person team supporting the negative view. Each speaker gets an equal opportunity to speak. All speakers give an eight-minute "constructive" speech in which they create a case, as well as a four-minute rebuttal, summing up their point of view, at the end. In addition, after each constructive speech, a three-minute cross-examination period is scheduled, in which a debater from the opposing side is allowed to ask questions of the speaker who has just completed their constructive speech.

Traditionally, the debate follows this format:

1. First affirmative constructive
2. Cross-examination period
3. First negative constructive
4. Cross-examination period
5. Second affirmative constructive
6. Cross-examination period
7. Second negative constructive
8. Cross-examination period
9. First negative rebuttal
10. First affirmative rebuttal
11. Second negative rebuttal
12. Second affirmative rebuttal

You may wish to assign students to various teams and topics, or allow the class to select them on their own. Be sure that two students have selected the affirmative (or positive) point of view, while the opposing team has selected the negative (or opposing) point of view.

Once teams are selected, have students begin research by reviewing the selected Web resources provided or by doing their own research. Instruct them to use the "Reconstruction Evidence Collection Sheet" to collect and organize their evidence. Remind students that they should cite any evidence they use during their speech or rebuttal. (Note: Depending on the amount of evidence the groups collect, you may wish to duplicate several extra collection sheets for student use.)

Time required:

After students have completed their debate, assess student work using the provided rubric or one you create. (Note: some schools with competitive debate teams may have sample debate "ballots" which you may use in lieu of a traditional rubric.)

Related Web Resources:

Note: This is only a partial listing of Reconstruction resources that may be used for the debate. It is recommended that you encourage students to conduct their own online research or use traditional sources to supplement the suggested resources.

American Experience. Reconstruction: The Second Civil War.
(<http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/amex/reconstruction/>)

Debate Central. “Guide to Debate Formats.” (<http://debate.uvm.edu/learndebate.html>)

Digital History. America’s Reconstruction: People and Politics After the Civil War.
(<http://www.digitalhistory.uh.edu/reconstruction/index.html>)

Douglass, Frederick. At Electronic Text Center. “Reconstruction.”
(<http://etext.lib.virginia.edu/etcbin/browse-mixed-new?id=DouReco&tag=public&images=images/modeng&data=/texts/english/modeng/parsed>)

Foner, Eric. The Nation. “Rooted in Reconstruction: The First Wave of Black Congressmen.”
Nov. 2008. (<http://www.thenation.com/doc/20081103/foner>)

Freedmen’s Bureau Online. (<http://www.freedmensbureau.com/>)

The Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History. “Module: Reconstruction.”
(<http://www.gilderlehrman.org/teachers/module11/index.html>)

Harper’s Weekly. “Toward Racial Equality: *Harper’s Weekly* Reports on Black America, 1857–1874.” (<http://blackhistory.harpweek.com/>)

Library of Congress. African American Odyssey. “Reconstruction and Its Aftermath.”
(<http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/aahtml/exhibit/aopart5.html>)

Library of Congress. The Learning Page. “Civil War and Reconstruction, 1861–1877.”
(<http://www.memory.loc.gov/learn/features/timeline/civilwar/civilwar.html>)

Teacher Oz’s Kingdom of History. “Civil War Reconstruction, Racism, the KKK and the Confederate ‘Lost Cause’.” (<http://www.teacheroz.com/reconstruction.htm>)

Whitman, Glen. “Debate Formats.” (<http://www.csun.edu/~dgdw61315/debformats.html>)

Reconstruction Evidence Collection Sheet

Source information (author, publication, etc.)	Summary of the evidence collected in the source	How this information affects our argument

Reconstruction Debate Rubric

Clear articulation of position:	<p>Level 1 (0–5): Position not clearly stated</p> <p>Level 2 (6–10): Position recognized, but only clarified through prompting</p> <p>Level 3(11–15): Position clearly stated</p> <p>Level 4 (16–20): Position clearly stated and fully articulated</p>	Score:
Provides support for position:	<p>Level 1 (0–5): Limited support for initial position</p> <p>Level 2 (6–10): Support for initial position present but lacks clarity of presentation</p> <p>Level 3 (11–15): Support for initial position clearly presented and reasoned based on evidence</p> <p>Level 4 (16–20): Supporting arguments for position both reasoned and persuasively presented</p>	Score:
Considers other positions:	<p>Level 1 (0–5): Limited sensitivity to other positions</p> <p>Level 2 (6–10): Other positions acknowledged but not considered</p> <p>Level 3 (11–15): Other positions acknowledged and considered</p> <p>Level 4 (16–20): Other positions considered and effectively incorporated or countered</p>	Score:

Effectively critiques positions:	<p>Level 1 (0–5): Limited sensitivity to other positions</p> <p>Level 2 (6–10): Other positions acknowledged but not considered</p> <p>Level 3 (11–15): Other positions acknowledged and considered</p> <p>Level 4 (16–20): Other positions considered and effectively incorporated or countered</p>	Score:
Other criteria as established by the teacher:		Score:
		Total score:

Reconstruction: Multiple-Choice Quiz

1. Lincoln first previewed the structure of his Reconstruction program in his:
 - a. Second Inaugural Address
 - b. Speech of April 11, 1865
 - c. Gettysburg Address
 - d. Speech vetoing the Wade-Davis Bill

2. Which of the following is true about Lincoln's last public speech, given on April 11, 1865?
 - a. He delivered it at the White House
 - b. Lincoln suggested that some blacks should be given the right to vote
 - c. John Wilkes Booth was in the crowd that heard Lincoln speak
 - d. All the above

3. Which of the following is NOT true about the assassination of President Abraham Lincoln?
 - a. He was shot while at Ford's Theater in Washington
 - b. He was shot by John Wilkes Booth
 - c. Booth later testified he had no choice but to kill the president, who resisted when Booth tried to kidnap him
 - d. Lincoln's death left many questions regarding what he would have done with Reconstruction

4. Which of the following was considered a "Radical Republican"?
 - a. Thaddeus Stevens
 - b. Preston Brooks
 - c. Andrew Johnson
 - d. John Wilkes Booth

5. The Wade-Davis Bill called for what percentage to sign a loyalty oath before the federal government would recognize a new state government of a former Confederate state?
 - a. 10% of the number in that state who voted in 1860
 - b. 25% of the number in that state who voted in 1860
 - c. A majority of the number in that state who voted in 1860
 - d. 75% of the number in that state who voted in 1860

6. Which organization helped ex-slaves solve “everyday problems” and acquire skills and education?
- The NAACP
 - The Freedmen’s Bureau
 - Knights of the White Camellia
 - Black Codes
7. What guaranteed that all persons born in the U.S. were citizens and entitled to the rights and privileges of citizenship?
- 13th Amendment
 - Civil Rights Act of 1866
 - Reconstruction Act of 1867
 - 15th Amendment
8. The 14th Amendment did all the following except:
- Give black males the right to vote
 - Make the Civil Rights Act of 1866 the law of the land
 - Forbid former Confederate officers from holding federal office
 - Repudiate the Confederate war debt
9. The 14th Amendment overturned which Supreme Court decision?
- Marbury v. Madison*
 - Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas*
 - The Dred Scott decision
 - Plessy v. Ferguson*
10. Which of the following best explains Andrew Johnson’s opinion on the 14th Amendment?
- He urged states not to ratify it
 - He enthusiastically supported it
 - He called on the Radical Republicans to rewrite it
 - He did not state an opinion one way or another about the amendment
11. What was Johnson’s “Swing Around the Circle”?
- A game that young children played during Johnson’s term of office
 - A dance that the Radicals did when Johnson was impeached
 - The term given to Johnson’s election to the U.S. Senate five years after he left office
 - A campaign trip that Johnson took in 1866

- 12.** According to the Reconstruction Act of 1867, why was Tennessee not included in a military district?
- It was Johnson's home state
 - It was one of the border states that had remained loyal to the Union during the war
 - Tennessee had ratified the 14th Amendment
 - Tennessee paid a fine to avoid being included in a district
- 13.** According to the Constitution's impeachment procedure, which body acts as a trial jury and determines whether to remove an official from office?
- House of Representatives
 - Senate
 - U.S. Supreme Court
 - Cabinet
- 14.** According to the articles of impeachment handed down, Johnson violated the Tenure of Office Act when he fired whom?
- Ulysses S. Grant
 - William Seward
 - Edwin Stanton
 - Thaddeus Stevens
- 15.** Which of the following about the impeachment vote against Andrew Johnson is true?
- The Senate could not muster a majority against him
 - Johnson resigned before the Senate could vote
 - The Supreme Court declared the Tenure of Office Act unconstitutional
 - The Senate voted against Johnson, but missed a two-thirds majority by one vote
- 16.** The 15th Amendment prohibited what?
- Denying the right to vote to anyone on the basis of race, color, or having been a slave
 - Denying the right to vote to anyone on the basis of gender
 - Denying the right to vote to anyone who had been a Confederate soldier
 - Denying the right to vote to anyone who had voted for Lincoln in the 1860 election
- 17.** What did Southerners call Northerners who went South to take part in Reconstruction governments?
- "Scalawags"
 - "Radicals"
 - "Carpetbaggers"
 - "Klansmen"

- 18.** Which of the following would be known as a “scalawag”?
- a. Thaddeus Stevens
 - b. Andrew Johnson
 - c. Nathan Bedford Forrest
 - d. James Longstreet
- 19.** Who took Jefferson Davis’s old Senate seat during Reconstruction?
- a. Blanche K. Bruce
 - b. Hiram Revels
 - c. Thaddeus Stevens
 - d. Rutherford B. Hayes
- 20.** Which organization was Nathan Bedford Forrest most associated with?
- a. The Ku Klux Klan
 - b. The Freedmen’s Bureau
 - c. The NAACP
 - d. The Order of the Pale Faces
- 21.** Which federal law helped break up the Ku Klux Klan?
- a. Amnesty Act
 - b. Reconstruction Act
 - c. Force Act
 - d. Civil Rights Act
- 22.** Which federal law provided pardons for most Confederates?
- a. Amnesty Act
 - b. Reconstruction Act
 - c. Force Act
 - d. Civil Rights Act
- 23.** Who was the Democratic candidate for president in the election of 1876?
- a. Rutherford B. Hayes
 - b. Samuel J. Tilden
 - c. Ulysses S. Grant
 - d. Horatio Seymour

24. How was the 1876 presidential election decided?

- a. A recount gave the popular vote to Hayes
- b. The election was decided by the House of Representatives
- c. The election was decided by a special Electoral Commission
- d. The election was decided by a runoff election

25. When did Reconstruction effectively end?

- a. In 1900, with the election of William McKinley
- b. In 1877, when Hayes removed the last federal troops from the South
- c. In 1896, when the Supreme Court made its decision in *Plessy v. Ferguson*
- d. In 1868, with the election of Ulysses S. Grant.

Reconstruction: Multiple-Choice Quiz Answer Key

1. A
2. D
3. C
4. A
5. C
6. B
7. B
8. A
9. C
10. A
11. D
12. C
13. B
14. C
15. D
16. A
17. C
18. D
19. B
20. A
21. C
22. A
23. B
24. C
25. B