

THE CHARGER



The Cleveland Civil War Roundtable

November 2023

Vol. 48, No. 4

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MEETING – November 8, 2023

PROGRAM – “Sherman—Man or Monster”

SPEAKER – Dereck Maxfield, an Associate Professor of History at Genesee Community College, Batavia, New York, based upon his recent book on Sherman, *Man of Fire*



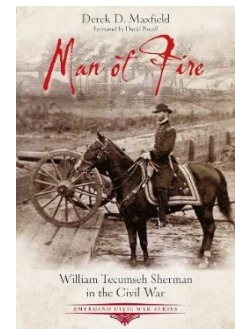
LOCATION: The
Holiday Inn
Independence at 6001
Rockside Road,
Independence, Ohio
44131, off US
Interstate 77

TIME: Social Hour at 6:00 PM and
Presentation at 7:00 PM

For reservations email:

ccwrtreserve@gmail.com.

To ensure a dinner is
reserved for you, the
reservation must be made
by Tuesday, October 31,
2023



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President's Message

Fellow Roundtable Members:

Continuing with this year's theme of "Union Leaders and Ohio in the War", this month's presentation checks both of those boxes. "Sherman: Man or Monster" will be presented by Derek Maxfield, an associate professor of history at Genesee Community College in Batavia, New York and is based on his recent book *Man of Fire: William Tecumseh Sherman in the Civil War*. Derek is also the co-author of *Hellmira: The Union's Most Infamous Civil War Prison Camp - Elmira, NY*. Both books are part of the Emerging Civil War Series and will be available for purchase at the meeting.

I hope you have enjoyed the articles from our archives on the upcoming topic for the month. I know that I have enjoyed tracking them down and exploring the vast treasure of information that our website provides. The organization of these files on our website is largely due to the efforts of Dave Carrino. Thank you, Dave, for all of your efforts on the website. In fact, I just received an email this week from an amateur American civil war historian in *Italy* who was interested in an article written by Mel Maurer about the Battle of Nashville that he found on our website. It is great to see the international reach of our group.

Our website includes copies of *The Charger* going back to the year 2000 as well as history briefs and other articles. The Roundtable goes back to 1956... I just picked up the club's historical records from Mel Maurer in six banker boxes. I would like to see if we can scan these documents onto the club's computer to eliminate the paper and maybe add articles to the website going even further back. If there is anyone

interested in helping with this endeavor, please contact me.

As I mentioned in an email I sent to the group, we are planning to have a Prime Rib Buffet, (with vegetarian options), for our December 13th meeting to celebrate the holidays. Please consider bringing your spouse or significant other to the meeting to enjoy some "Holiday Cheer", good company, and Judge Vodrey's presentation on Salmon P. Chase, (a union leader from Ohio).

I look forward to seeing all of you at the meeting on November 8th.

Thanks,

Bob Pence

The Editor's Desk



ASSASSINATION—from a French word for "murder," the concept has been seared into the historical consciousness of Americans since at least the summer of 1754 when a young Lieutenant Colonel George Washington unwittingly signed surrender terms at Fort Mifflin in the Laurel Highlands of what is now southwestern Pennsylvania whereby he admitted responsibility for the "assassination" of Sieur de Jumonville, a French officer claimed by the Governor of Quebec to be on a diplomatic

mission. Washington could not

read French, and his interpreter told him the word simply referred to the “death” of Jumonville.

The young French Lieutenant had been killed in battle when Washington’s force of Virginia militia and Indians attacked a small French cadre in the woods near Fort Necessity. Washington believed that Jumonville was leading a scouting party of spies. When the surrender terms were published, Washington was condemned by the French as a murderer.

The sixtieth anniversary of the assassination of President John F. Kennedy is this month, November 22, 2023. President Kennedy, of course, was the fourth and, so far, the last American President

assassinated while in office. President Abraham Lincoln, unfortunately, has the dubious distinction of being the first assassinated American President. Historians of both

Kennedy’s and Lincoln’s presidencies continue to face myriad questions and mysteries surrounding their deaths. Among the issues to be

addressed in the Lincoln assassination is the question of whether John Wilkes Booth acted as a secret agent for the government of the so-called Confederate States of America or was he acting in his own behalf when he pulled the trigger on his derringer in Ford’s Theater that night.

A member of the CCWRT, John Fazio, has recently published his second book on the Lincoln assassination.

Among other matters, Fazio addresses the question regarding Booth’s affiliation as a secret agent for the CSA. Dennis Keating has an excellent review of Fazio’s work in this issue of “The Charger.” Take time and read it. The author gives us much to think

about and discuss regarding the tragedy of Lincoln’s assassination in 1865.

—Kent Fonner

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|---------------------------------------|---------------------|-------------|--------------------|
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| 1959 | John Cullen, Jr. | 1993 | Kevin Callahan |
| 1960 | Howard Preston | 1994 | Robert E. Battisti |
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Union Irish Heroes at the Battle of Gettysburg

By Dennis Keating

Many Irish Americans in the Army of the Potomac fought Lee's invading Army of Northern Virginia at Gettysburg July 1-3, 1863. While the Irish Brigade is best known, there were others who are also worthy of recognition for their heroism. Three of the individuals died on the field. This is a day-by-day account of both individuals and units.

Day One

Tom Devin and William Gamble

As A. P. Hill's corps of Lee's army approached Gettysburg from Cashtown in the West, John Buford's Union First Cavalry Division (two brigades) awaited them. Buford was sent to Gettysburg on June 30 to scout for Confederates. He learned of Lee's approach and so informed John Reynolds, commander of both the left wing of the army and of the First Corps, and the closest of the now army commander George Meade's forces to Gettysburg.

The next morning, Harry Heth's Division led a reconnaissance toward Gettysburg. Expecting only to encounter local militia, instead it came up against Buford's dismounted cavalry and horse artillery defending McPherson's Ridge with a skirmish line on Herr's Ridge. Ignoring Lee's order not to bring on a general engagement until his scattered army was concentrated, Heth attacked Buford's division of about 3,000. Buford's brigade commanders were two Irish – Tom Devin, who was known as "Buford's Hard Hitter", and William Gamble.

Devin was the child of Irish immigrants and was born in 1822 in New York City. He became the Colonel of the 6th New York Volunteer Cavalry and saw action at Antietam, Chancellorsville, and

Brandy Station. Gamble was born in Duross, Lisnarick, County Fermagh, Ireland in 1818. He served in the British army before emigrating to the United States in 1838. He joined the Federal army and served in the Seminole Wars before working as a civil engineer in Chicago. Gamble was wounded in McClellan's Peninsula campaign.

These two brigade commanders and John Buford were Gettysburg heroes, holding off Heth's attack until Reynolds (killed soon after his arrival) and his First Corps arrived to confront the attacking Confederates. Buford's cavalry were withdrawn on July 2 and did not participate in the July 3 cavalry battle against Jeb Stuart's cavalry.

Devin served in Phil Sheridan's 1864 Shenandoah Valley campaign, where he was wounded. He served in the postwar cavalry on the Western frontier and was the Colonel of the 3rd U.S. Cavalry when he died in 1878. After Gettysburg, Gamble was involved in the defense of Washington City. As again commander of the 8th Illinois Cavalry, it was a unit of his regiment that captured Thomas Harney of the Confederate Torpedo Bureau on April 10, 1865, enroute to Washington City to try to kill President Lincoln and other high ranking federal officials with bombs. Serving postwar with the 8th U.S. Cavalry, he died of cholera in 1866 in Nicaragua enroute to the command of the Presidio in San Francisco.

Day Two

The Irish Brigade

The best-known Irish unit in the Army of the Potomac was the Irish Brigade, originally from New York (69th, 63rd, 88th) and later joined by the 28th Massachusetts and the 116th Pennsylvania. Originally led by Michael Corcoran and then by Thomas Meagher, at Gettysburg it was commanded by Patrick Kelly, Colonel of the 88th New York. He was born in Castle Hackett, County Galway, Ireland in 1821 and emigrated to New York City in 1850. At Gettysburg, the 88th was commanded by twenty-two-year-old Captain Denis Burke from County Cork, Ireland, who had been wounded at the battles of Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville.

Much depleted by its heavy casualties at the battles of Antietam and Fredericksburg, as the Second Brigade of John Caldwell's 1st Division of Hancock's Second Corps, the Irish Brigade went into battle at Gettysburg with 530 men. Just before the brigade was ordered forward as Daniel Sickles's Third Corps was retreating, its chaplain Father William Corby memorably mounted a rock and gave mass absolution to its kneeling members.

The Irish Brigade deployed into the Wheatfield and advanced on its Stony Hill, where it was met by the South Carolinians of Joseph Kershaw's brigade. With the addition of two other Confederate brigades, Caldwell's troops were driven back. The Irish Brigade suffered 202 casualties. The commanders of the 63rd (Lieutenant Colonel Richard Bentley from County Cavan, Ireland) and the 69th New York (Captain Richard Moroney) were both wounded. Kelly would be killed on June 16, 1864 in the Union assault on Petersburg. Moroney was wounded again in Virginia in October, 1864. Colonel Richard Byrnes, commander of the 28th Massachusetts from County Cavan, Ireland, would be killed at the battle of Cold Harbor on June 3, 1864. Colonel St. Clair Mulholland, commander of the 116th Pennsylvania, was born in

Kisburn, County Antrim, Ireland. He won the Medal of Honor for his action at the battle of Chancellorsville. He was previously wounded in the assault on Marye's Heights at the battle of Fredericksburg. Mulholland led his small unit in Grant's 1864 Overland campaign, where he was wounded three more times (at the battles of Wilderness, Spotsylvania Court House, and Cold Harbor).

126 survivors of the Irish Brigade returned to the Gettysburg battlefield on July 2, 1888 to celebrate the dedication of the New York Irish Brigade Monument (ironically sculpted by a Confederate veteran who fought at Gettysburg with the artillery of Early's division of Ewell's Corps). The side of the monument has a plaque honoring James McKay Rorty's New York Battery (see below). They were addressed by Father Corby. He died in 1897 and his monument was dedicated on October 29, 1910. The monument was placed where he gave absolution to the Irish Brigade. In 1890, a Notre Dame University student immortalized Corby in his famous painting "Absolution Under Fire", which hangs in the Art Museum at Notre Dame University.

The 28th Massachusetts Monument was given to the Gettysburg Battlefield Association on "Massachusetts Day", July 2, 1886. The 116th Pennsylvania Monument was dedicated on September 11, 1889.

Paddy O'Rorke

Patrick (Paddy) O'Rorke was born in County Cavan, Ireland in March, 1837. When he was one year old, his family emigrated to Rochester, New York. After his father's death, he became a marble cutter to support his family. He enrolled at West Point and graduated first in his class in 1861.

He participated in the battle of First Bull Run and then in battles along the Southern Atlantic coast. In September, 1862, O'Rorke became commander of the 140th New York. He led his regiment at the battle of Fredericksburg but at the battle of Chancellorsville he temporarily commanded a brigade (which included the 140th New York).

At Gettysburg, the 140th New York was in the brigade commanded by Strong Vincent (killed in the defense of Little Round Top). A crisis developed when Gouverneur Warren realized that Union troops defending Little Round Top were undermanned as Longstreet's Confederates were mounting their attack. He saw O'Rorke's regiment and ordered it to immediately go to the Union defense. O'Rorke led his regiment in their Zouave uniforms into a vacant space in the line, only to be instantly killed. His enraged soldiers killed his killer with 17 shots as they successfully helped to repel the assault of Confederates from Alabama and Texas regiments. The monument to O'Rorke (and the 140th New York) stands where he fell.

John Lonergan

John Lonergan was born in 1837 in Carrick-On Suir, County Tipperary, Ireland. His family emigrated to the United States in 1848 and settled in Vermont. He enlisted along with an Irish militia called the Emmet Guards in the 13th Vermont and became a Captain of its Company A. Part of George Stannard's Brigade of Abner Doubleday's 3rd Division of the First Corps, they

successfully battled Confederates in William Scott Hancock's section on Day 2 and Lonergan received the Medal of Honor for he and his company's recapture of four Union guns, the capture of two Confederate guns, and also a company of Confederate prisoners. On Day 3, Stannard's Vermont Brigade (including Lonergan's 13th Vermont) faced Pickett's right flank and delivered devastating fire into James Kemper's Virginia Brigade. A dedicated Fenian, Lonergan participated in the postwar Fenian raids into Canada aimed at liberating Canada from England. He died in 1902.

Buster Kilrain

He is the only fictional character in Michael Shaara's novel *The Killer Angels*. According to his son Jeff Shaara's novel *Gods and Generals*, Kilrain was born in Belfast in 1812, enlisted in the federal army and was a sergeant before being demoted for assaulting an officer but was restored to his rank after being mortally wounded during the 20th Maine's defense of Little Round Top. He was portrayed by Kevin Conway as close to Joshua Chamberlain, the commander of the 20th Maine, in the 1993 film *Gettysburg*. This fictional Irish hero was said to be based on the 20th Maine's Sergeant George Buck. Kilrain is the subject of the song *Dixieland* written by Steve Earle.

Day Three

Among the Irish Heroes of the Union defense against Pickett's Charge were: Colonel Dennis O'Kane, commander of the 69th Pennsylvania, and Captain James McKay Rorty of the 1st New York Light Artillery.

Dennis O'Kane

O'Kane was born in Coleraine, County Londonderry, Ireland . He emigrated to Philadelphia and became a saloon keeper. He became the Lieutenant Colonel and then Colonel of the largely Irish Pennsylvania 69th of the Philadelphia Brigade.

On July 3, the much-reduced number of 258 soldiers of the 69th were stationed on Cemetery Ridge behind a stone wall near a clump of trees. Pickett's Charge targeted this position in its attack. As the thousands of Confederates approached, O'Kane mounted the stone wall and addressed the regiment:

"Men, the enemy is coming but hold your fire until you see the whites of their eye. I know that you are as brave as any troops that you will face, but today you are fighting on the soil of your own state, so I expect you to do your duty to the utmost. If any man among you flinches from that duty, I would ask the man next to him to kill him on the spot."

While nearby New Yorkers fell back as Lewis Armistead's Virginians came over the stone wall, O'Kane's Irish held fast and stopped this final Confederate advance. The cost of their defense was 45 killed (including O'Kane, Lieutenant Colonel Martin Tschudy, and four other officers) and 80 wounded. O'Kane died the next morning from his wound. The monument of the 69th Pennsylvania stands at the Angle where O'Kane fell.

Thomas Horan

Thomas Horan was born in Ireland in 1839. His family emigrated to New York state in the late 1840s. Horan enlisted in Company E of the 72nd New York. At Gettysburg, he won the Medal of Honor by capturing the flag of the Confederate 8th Florida Infantry as it attempted to join the Pickett Charge. Horan was later wounded at the Battle of the Wilderness. He died in 1902.

James McKay Rorty

James McKay Rorty emigrated from County Donegal, Ireland to the United States in 1857. He enlisted in Company G of the Irish 69th New York and was captured in its retreat at First Bull Run in 1861. He was imprisoned in a Richmond warehouse but he and two other prisoners escaped and were rescued on September 28 by a Union gunboat on the Potomac River. A devoted Fenian, Rorty was wounded at the battle of Fredericksburg. At Gettysburg, Captain Rorty commanded Battery B of the 1st New York Artillery. He died as his battery at the Angle engaged Pickett's Charge, among the nine of his battery killed and another eight wounded.

8th Ohio (Company B: Cleveland's Hibernian Guards)

On July 3, the 216 men of the 8th Ohio, including those of Company B (Cleveland's Hibernian Guard), were stationed on the far-right flank in front of the Union defense. Faced with the attack of Johnson Pettigrew's left-wing force, this small regiment poured heavy fire into Rebel brigades commanded by John Brockenbrough and Joe Davis, capturing many prisoners and some regimental colors. Almost half of the 8th Ohio were casualties. Thomas Francis Galwey recounted:

"I myself was hit three times between the opening of the cannonade and the rout of the enemy. The First and Second Sergeants of my company [B] each lost a leg. Old John Burke, who had served twenty-one years in the 18th Royal Irish, of the British Army, before entering ours, also lost the use of a leg. Lelievre, who was an old French sailor, was also crippled in the leg. Wilson was killed outright, as was Corporal Barney McGuire, a brave, humorous fellow;' and Private William Brown died before dark".

Young Irish immigrant Clevelander Galwey's wartime experience from his diary can be found in my book *Cleveland and the Civil War*.

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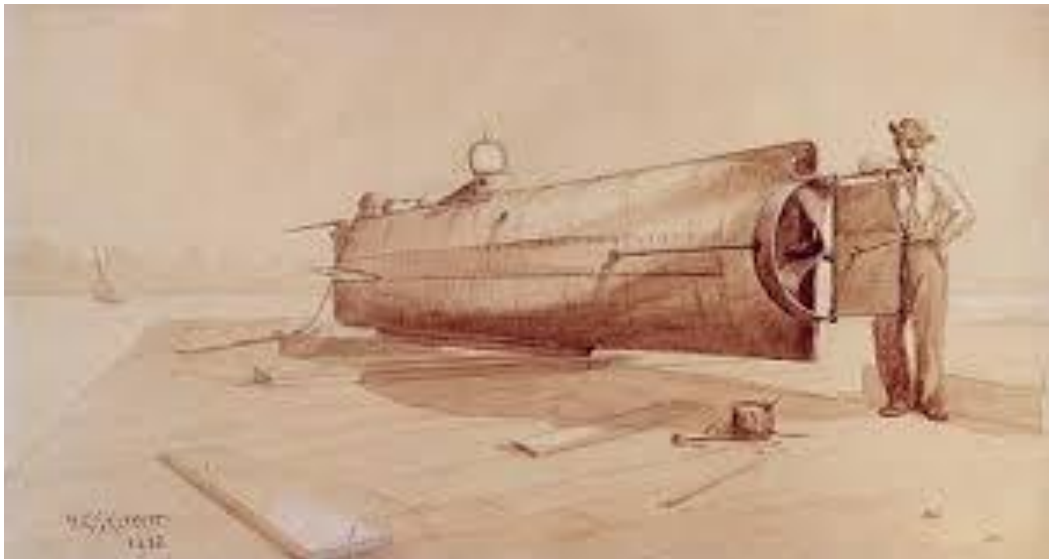
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CSS Hunley

Civil War Submarines: An Overview

By Al Fonner

February 17, 1864. On board the *USS Housatonic*, Acting Master John Crosby was standing the evening eight to twelve Officer of the Deck (OD) watch. It was about 8:45 PM when Crosby spotted something in the moonlight that he thought resembled a porpoise surfacing to blow. Noticing that the object was now travelling very fast toward the *Housatonic*, Crosby ordered that the crew be called to quarters, the anchor chained slipped, and the engine backed. The object was

moving at three to four knots, coming close to the *Housatonic* a little forward of the mizzen mast on the starboard side. Captain Charles W. Pickering, the *Housatonic*'s Commanding Officer (CO) joining the OD, repeated the orders to slip the anchor and go astern. The *Housatonic*'s crew peppered the object with musket fire, while Pickering let go with his double-barreled shotgun. Meanwhile, in the *Housatonic*'s engine room, Assistant Engineer Mayer immediately backed the engine. After the engine made two or three revolutions, an explosion was heard, followed immediately by the sound of rushing water and crashing timbers and metal. Seeing the ship was sinking, Mayer ordered all hands to go topside. The *Housatonic* sank within three minutes, taking five crewmembers with her. The *Housatonic*'s attacker, the Confederate submarine *CSS Hunley*, along with its crew, never returned to port. While the *Hunley* would be remembered as the first submarine to sink an enemy ship, it and its crew's fate remained a mystery until its wreck was discovered in 1995.

The idea of using a submersible vessel to attack an enemy ship was not a new idea. During the American Revolution, David Bushnell's submersible *Turtle* was the first submersible to attempt sinking an enemy ship. American Robert Fulton would later produce the *Nautilus* in 1800 for the French. The *Nautilus*, though, proved too slow; nonetheless, Fulton's work did demonstrate that a stable, submersible, and navigable vessel could be constructed. During the intervening years leading up to the Civil War, improvements on Fulton's work were made, including supply and storage of air while submerged, ballast control, configuration of control surfaces (e.g., rudder and planes), and instrumentation for navigation and depth control. During the Civil War, both the Union and the Confederacy attempted to develop the submarine as a viable weapon to combat ocean-going vessels.

Conventional naval thinking and government bureaucracy hampered the Union's efforts to develop the submarine as a viable weapon. The North's efforts, therefore, lagged the Confederacy's. The Union obtained one workable submarine during the war, the *Alligator*. The *Alligator* was built by 67-year-old Frenchman and submarine pioneer Brutus de Villeroi for shipbuilders Neafie, Levy & Co who were under contract with the U.S. Navy. The *Alligator* was specifically built in response to news that the South was converting the captured frigate *USS Merrimack* into an iron-clad vessel. The *Alligator* was launched in June 1862, too late to face off against the much-feared Southern iron-clad *CSS Virginia*. The *Alligator* foundered in a storm off North Carolina in March 1863, having never proved its worth as a weapon of war. During the Civil War, construction on another U.S. Navy submarine, the *Intelligent Whale*, was begun; however, the *Intelligent Whale* was not completed and launched until 1866, too late to participate in the Civil War. The *Intelligent Whale* is currently on display at the National Guard Militia Museum of New Jersey in Sea Girt, New Jersey.



USS Alligator

The Confederacy's efforts to develop submarines largely stemmed from the need to break the North's blockade of Southern ports. With the North's overwhelming naval strength, the Confederate Secretary of the Navy Stephen Mallory intended to employ new technologies such as iron-clad vessels and submersibles. As noted earlier, the South's development of the first iron-clad warship by converting the captured U.S. Navy Frigate Merrimack into the *CSS Virginia* resulted in the Union's developing the Civil War's first operational submarine, the *Alligator*. Development of the submarine by the Confederacy relied mainly on private initiative with government backing, although the Confederate Navy did undertake its own submarine development program primarily at the Tredegar Iron Works in Richmond, VA. The Confederate Navy's effort, however, proved not as fruitful as private endeavors.

Profit, as much as patriotism, drove development of the submarine for the Southern cause. Machinists Baxter Watson and James McClintock, along with lawyer Horace Hunley, diver John Scott, Hunley's wealthy brother-in-law Robert Barrow, and prominent lawyer and newspaper editor Henry Leovy, were likely the most successful at this endeavor. Their efforts would result in the first privately owned submarine privateer authorized by the Confederate government, the *Pioneer*. As time passed, members of this core group would change, but McClintock and Hunley, until his untimely death, remained.

The *Pioneer*, first floated in February 1862, was made of a boiler tank with ¼-inch thick iron, approximately 30 feet long and four feet in diameter. To this tank were added 10-foot cone ends. A propeller at one end turned by two men inside the vessel via a crank provided forward and reverse motion. During testing of the boat, the *Pioneer* sank a schooner and two target barges by use of a towed torpedo. Although promising, the *Pioneer* never demonstrated its capabilities in combat. It was abandoned in the vicinity of the New Basin near New Orleans as Union forces approached the city. McClintock, Watson, and Hunley fled to Mobile, Alabama, where they intended to build an improved version of the *Pioneer*.

McClintock's and his partners' next boat, *American Diver*, was constructed with square sides to correct faults with the first boat and obtain more room. The vessel was 36 feet long, four feet high, and three feet across, with tapered ends to facilitate moving through water. A 30-inch propeller was located at one end. McClintock originally intended to power this second boat with an electromagnetic engine, which proved to have too little power. A small custom-built steam plant was tried in place of the electromagnetic engine; but this turned out to be unusable. *American Diver* was subsequently fitted with internal cranks operated by four men to turn the propeller. *American Diver* was floated in Mobile Bay in February 1863 and towed to Ft. Morgan with the intent of attacking the Union fleet. However, the boat foundered in heavy seas brought about by worsening weather. While no lives were lost, *American Diver* was never recovered. The Confederacy was deprived of another costly investment.

Even the loss of two boats did not dissuade McClintock *et al.* Short of funds, they sold shares for the Singer Submarine Corps. The Confederate Army also took an interest in this latest venture and assigned Lieutenants Alexander and Dixon of the 21st Alabama to assist. The group constructed the vessel from a long, cylindrical, steam boiler made of 3/8-inch iron plate that was modified to accommodate a crew of nine. The yet-unnamed craft was launched in July 1863 in Mobile, AL. The vessel was 40 feet long, 42 inches wide in the middle, and 48 inches high. It

was fitted with cranks geared to the propeller to be turned by eight men. A copper cylinder holding 90 pounds of explosives (i.e., the torpedo) was attached to a 22-foot beam, which would be detonated by use of a percussion and friction primer mechanism set off by flaring triggers.

This third boat was shipped via flatcar to Charleston, SC, where it was eventually seized by the Army who was unhappy with McClintock's management of the boat. The civilian crew was replaced with C.S. Navy personnel. After this transition the boat was twice inadvertently lost in Charleston Harbor and subsequently salvaged. The first time, five members of the nine-man crew perished. In the second incident, all hands were lost, including Hunley. In honor of Hunley's efforts, this third boat was at last named *H. L. Hunley*. As related at the beginning of this article, the Hunley would go on to be the first submarine to sink a vessel in combat, although never to return, taking all hands with her.

All things considered, the submarine in the Civil War had no material effect on the war's outcome; and submarines would not really come into their own as an offensive weapon until the German Empire turned loose their fleet of submarines in the Atlantic Ocean during the First World War. However, the Confederacy's looming threat of deploying a fleet of these fledgling submersible boats caused much angst within the U.S. Navy's hierarchy. As a result, the U.S. Navy would implement logistically demanding modifications to their blockading strategies. Initiatives to heighten security onboard ships were executed, and blockading ships were stationed farther out to sea at night, allowing blockade runners to easily slip through the net. Beyond the Civil War, the submarine development and exploits witnessed there surely sparked the imagination of men such as American John Holland who would go on to develop the submarine as the viable offensive sea-going weapon of the first half of the 20th century.

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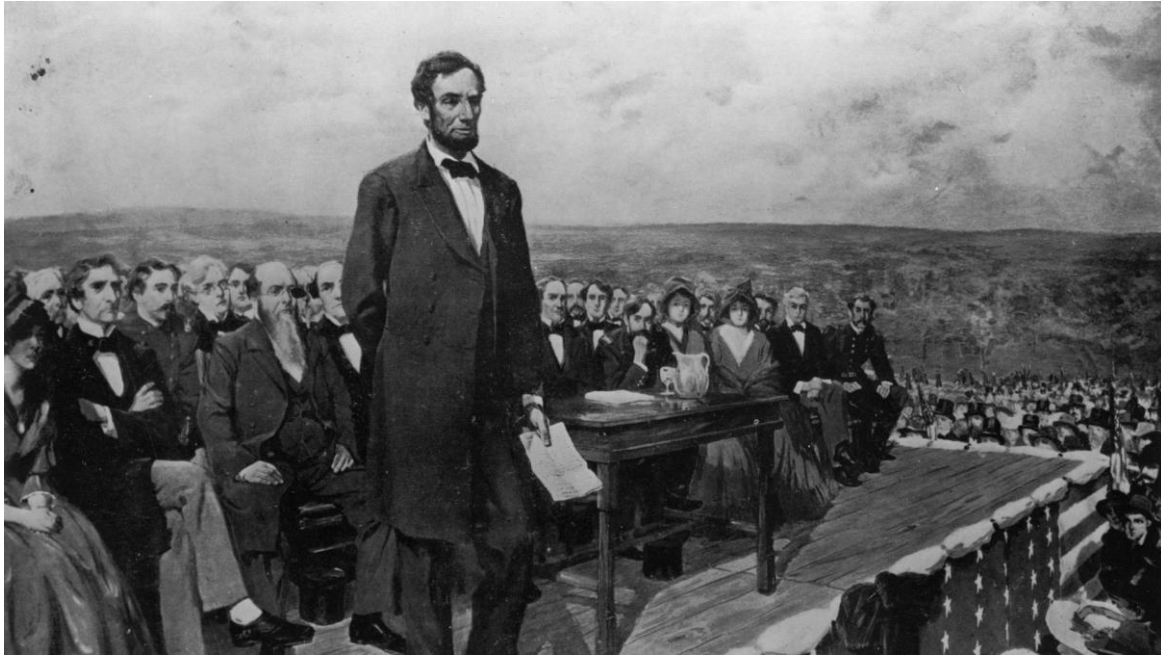
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Lincoln delivering his “Gettysburg Address” on November 19, 1863. At the time, the President was suffering from early symptoms of an illness that lasted until January 1864.

Abraham Lincoln's Post-Gettysburg Address Illness: How 'Small' Was It?

by David A. Carrino

Because *Homo sapiens* occupies such a highly advanced position on the evolutionary scale, people too often lose sight of the fact that humans are biological units that are subject to the processes, limitations, and vagaries of biology. This reality about humans is perhaps no more evident than when mankind is helpless before a pathogenic disease. In such situations, humans, despite their lofty phylogenetic perch, become virtually powerless, at least for a time, against infectious agents that are far less complex biologically than *Homo sapiens* and far lower phylogenetically. Throughout history there have been diseases which, because of their severity and magnitude, had an enormous and alarming impact on society and caused fear among people as these diseases spread. Arguably the most notorious of these diseases was the bubonic plague during the Middle Ages. Another such disease was the flu pandemic of 1918-1919. More recently there was acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS) and still more recently COVID-19. One of the most dreaded diseases during the 19th century, as well as in earlier times, was smallpox.

Smallpox is a serious, very contagious disease that is caused by the variola virus. The disease is characterized by lesions on most areas of the body. Two forms of smallpox are recognized: variola major, which is a more severe form having a fatality rate around 30%, and variola minor, which is less severe and has a fatality rate of 1%. The two forms of the disease are caused by different variola viruses. Both forms of the disease are accompanied by fever, malaise, muscle aches, headache, and lethargy, all of which begin prior to the appearance of the lesions. The lesions first emerge as a rash, which progresses to blisters, then pustules, and then scabs, which eventually fall off and can leave pitted scars. Smallpox has been afflicting humans for many centuries, and there is evidence that the disease has existed since before 1,000 B.C.E. (which, to dispel any conspiracy theory notions, makes it unlikely that the variola virus

found its way into nature due to an accidental leak from a research laboratory or that the virus was specifically manufactured for use as a bioweapon).

The only known medical treatment for smallpox is immunization, and a smallpox immunization procedure was in use in various places around the world for quite some time prior to the Civil War. However, in 1796 English physician Edward Jenner made an important modification to this procedure that substantially improved the safety of smallpox immunization. Prior to 1796, smallpox immunization had been in use in Europe for decades and had been in practice in Asia even longer. But these immunizations involved deliberate exposure to the actual smallpox virus by inoculating recipients with material from smallpox lesions. For one such immunization procedure, fluid from pustules was applied into scratches that were made in the skin of a recipient. These immunization procedures obviously entailed serious associated risks, and Jenner developed an alternative to this risky procedure.

Jenner was aware of the folklore that milkmaids displayed immunity toward smallpox, and he insightfully reasoned that this was due to their exposure to cowpox, a viral disease in cows that can affect humans, but which is much milder than smallpox. In May 1796, a milkmaid named Sarah Nelmes came to Jenner for an examination of a rash on her hands, which Jenner diagnosed as cowpox, not smallpox. Jenner used this opportunity to test his hypothesis about the purported smallpox immunity of milkmaids. Using the skin-scratch inoculation procedure for smallpox immunization, Jenner took material from the lesions on Nelmes' hand and exposed James Phipps, the eight-year-old son of Jenner's gardener, to cowpox. Phipps developed the mild illness associated with a human case of cowpox, but then recovered after a few days.

The truly perilous and also probative part of Jenner's experiment came a couple of months later when Jenner exposed Phipps to smallpox via the skin-scratch procedure. When Phipps did not develop smallpox, Jenner was no doubt quite relieved, if only because he did not afflict Phipps with a dreadful disease, but also because Phipps' immunity was consistent with Jenner's hypothesis and provided evidence in support of it. In all likelihood, Phipps' parents were also quite relieved as was, probably most of all, James Phipps, himself. Many similar tests on other people proved that exposure to cowpox protects humans from smallpox. Jenner's ingenious reasoning and subsequent detailed if risky experimentation laid the groundwork for the principle that exposure of humans to a similar but less dangerous immunogen can confer immunity to a more virulent pathogen, and this forms the basis for later forms of vaccination. In fact, the word "vaccine" is derived from the Latin word for cow ("vacca").

News of Jenner's vaccination procedure reached the U.S. late in the 18th century, and smallpox vaccination in the U.S. began early in the 19th century. Most of this vaccination occurred along the east coast, and the vast majority of people in rural areas were unvaccinated. Despite Jenner's improved procedure, smallpox remained a serious problem, and severe outbreaks continued to happen worldwide. For example, at the time of Abraham Lincoln's Gettysburg Address, the city of Washington was in the midst of a serious outbreak. It was well-known that Washington was not the healthiest place in which to live, as noted by William Stoddard, who has been called "Lincoln's forgotten secretary." Stoddard, who was an assistant to John Hay and John Nicolay, wrote that the city of Washington was "unhealthy to a degree positively alarming" and further wrote with regard to conditions in Washington, "The number of kinds of fevers, colds, sore throats, rheumatics, small pox, gun-shot wounds, and delirium tremens...is enough to convince any man that 'there is something wrong about the air of the place.'"

When Lincoln delivered his Gettysburg Address on November 19, 1863 and for some time thereafter, he was suffering with an illness that most accounts state was a mild case of smallpox. One of the doctors who examined Lincoln called the illness "a touch of the varioloid" (varioloid being a word to indicate a mild form of smallpox). But is that really what Lincoln's illness was? On the train ride to Gettysburg, Lincoln began to feel ill. Lincoln's son Tad had taken ill prior to Lincoln's departure. Tad was febrile and weak, but no other details of his illness were recorded. On the trip to Gettysburg, Lincoln said that he felt

weak. The next day, the day when Lincoln delivered the Gettysburg Address, he said that he felt dizzy, and Hay observed that as Lincoln was delivering the address, his face was "a ghastly color." On the return trip to Washington, Lincoln took very ill. He was weak and feverish and complained of a severe headache. William Johnson, Lincoln's African American valet, put a wet towel to Lincoln's head to relieve the pain, and Lincoln spent much of the train ride lying down. In light of Lincoln's illness, it is remarkable that he was able to summon the strength to deliver his address and perhaps even more remarkable that he was able to endure Edward Everett's two-hour oration.

After returning to the White House, Lincoln's illness worsened. His fever intensified, and he began to suffer with malaise, exhaustion, and backache. Two days after his return, a rash appeared on Lincoln's body, and on the next day blisters appeared. It was at this time that Lincoln was told of the diagnosis of varioloid. In spite of the dreadful news that he had contracted this dangerous and highly contagious disease, Lincoln still maintained his renowned humor, which he displayed when he replied to the diagnosis by asking the doctor if he had noticed all of the people who were waiting to see Lincoln. When the doctor replied that he had seen the crowd, Lincoln, referring to his contagious disease, quipped, "They are there, every mother's son of them, for one purpose only; namely, to get something from me. For once in my life as President, I find myself in a position to give everybody something."

During the next few days, Lincoln was confined to a sickroom, and his doctor did not allow Lincoln to receive visitors. Five days after the appearance of the blisters, there was peeling and itching of Lincoln's skin. William Stoddard recorded that smallpox vaccinations were administered to the White House staff. Lincoln remained confined until early December, and even John Hay was not allowed to see him at this time. There is no account of whether the lesions on Lincoln's skin became pustules, but when Lincoln was permitted to meet with a reporter on December 6 after the illness had subsided, the reporter noted, "His face is slightly marked." Lincoln was still weak at this time and lacked his usual stamina. He had lost weight, and it was not until the middle of December that he was able to fully conduct the duties of his office. Lincoln's health did not return to normal until the middle of January 1864.

One possible consequence of Lincoln's illness was the death of his valet, William Johnson. Johnson had ministered to Lincoln on the train trip from Gettysburg to Washington and reportedly also for a time after the return to the White House. Sadly, Johnson contracted smallpox and died of the disease in January 1864. Lincoln had met Johnson in Illinois and brought Johnson to Washington with him. Because the permanent servants in the White House refused to accept Johnson into the staff, Lincoln helped Johnson find a job with the treasury department, although Johnson was allowed to accompany Lincoln on certain trips. After Johnson's death, Lincoln paid Johnson's debts, sent money to Johnson's family, and arranged and paid for Johnson's burial in Arlington Cemetery. Lincoln did not believe that he was the source of Johnson's smallpox, as evidenced when Lincoln told a reporter, "He did not catch it from me, however; at least I think not." Perhaps this was wishful thinking on Lincoln's part, since Lincoln was extremely fond of Johnson. It will never be known with certainty where Johnson contracted smallpox, but smallpox was quite prevalent in Washington at that time, so it is not unlikely that Johnson caught the disease from someone other than Lincoln.

In contrast to Johnson, Lincoln, after a few frightful weeks, survived his illness, and this is one of those historical outcomes that had a profound effect on the course of the United States. But how close did Lincoln really come to dying? There is evidence that those near Lincoln, such as Hay, Nicolay, and Stoddard, feared that he would die. Hay recorded in his diary on November 26, "The President quite unwell." Stoddard wrote that he, Hay, and Nicolay engaged in "mournful consultations over the idea that all the country would go to ruin if Abraham Lincoln should die." On the other hand, the doctors who examined Lincoln gave a diagnosis of varioloid, and this led afterward to the generally accepted thinking that Lincoln had a mild case of smallpox. But is this correct? Just how severe was Lincoln's smallpox? Or phrased in a different and catchy way, how 'small' was Lincoln's smallpox? Was his smallpox not

very 'small,' that is, was it a mild case of smallpox? Or was Lincoln's smallpox extremely 'small,' in other words, full-blown smallpox? In considering this issue, it is important to understand that the word "varioid" is used to indicate a mild case of smallpox, such as smallpox that is made less severe by a person's acquired immunity to the disease due to either prior infection or vaccination. But if Lincoln had varioid, as the doctors who examined Lincoln diagnosed, then presumably Lincoln had either smallpox or smallpox vaccination at some earlier time in his life.

Because this month marks 160 years since Lincoln delivered his brief yet incredibly famous and incomparable speech, this is an appropriate time to reflect on the illness that afflicted Lincoln shortly after he delivered the Gettysburg Address. In this regard, an article appeared in 2007 in the *Journal of Medical Biography* in which the authors, Armond Goldman and Frank Schmalstieg Jr., did a retrospective analysis of Lincoln's post-Gettysburg Address illness and concluded that Lincoln had full-fledged smallpox. Goldman and Schmalstieg were faculty members in the pediatrics department at the University of Texas Medical Branch in Galveston, Texas and had expertise in and did research in immunology.

For their analysis, Goldman and Schmalstieg used published works of Lincoln contemporaries such as John Hay and John Nicolay, some biographies of Lincoln, a summary of Lincoln's illness in a book about the history of smallpox, an account (as recalled by another doctor who heard this account) of the consulting visit by the doctor who pronounced the diagnosis as "a touch of the varioid," and a day-by-day brief listing of Lincoln's life published by the Lincoln Sesquicentennial Commission. (Goldman and Schmalstieg's article is available online at the website of the *Journal of Medical Biography*. However, in order to view the article, it has to either be purchased or accessed through a university, library, or employer subscription (<https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/abs/10.1258/j.jmb.2007.06-14>). I was able to obtain a PDF of the article for free from the Kelvin Smith Library at Case Western Reserve University.)

Goldman and Schmalstieg indicated that one difficulty in their retrospective analysis of Lincoln's post-Gettysburg Address illness is that Lincoln's personal physician, Robert Stone, who ministered to Lincoln at this time, recorded nothing about Lincoln's illness in his extensive case notes. Some have suggested that perhaps Stone was being secretive about Lincoln's illness for fear of alarming the public. Lacking potentially valuable information from Stone, Goldman and Schmalstieg made their conclusion about Lincoln's illness based on what has been recorded about it.

Goldman and Schmalstieg state that the known clinical features and etiology for Lincoln's illness are consistent with smallpox as opposed to some similar diseases, such as varicella (chickenpox), monkeypox, and rickettsialpox. Hence, these other diseases were ruled out as the illness that afflicted Lincoln. Goldman and Schmalstieg then considered whether Lincoln had full-fledged smallpox as opposed to a mild case of smallpox (that is, varioid). One possible reason for a mild case of smallpox is that Lincoln had variola minor (the less severe form of smallpox) rather than variola major (the more severe form of smallpox). However, variola minor did not appear in the U.S. until late in the 19th century, so this could not have been the disease that Lincoln had. Another reason for a mild case of smallpox is immunity to the smallpox virus due to either prior infection or vaccination, that is, immune-modified smallpox as opposed to immune-unmodified smallpox. It is not known if Lincoln had ever been immunized against smallpox, but Goldman and Schmalstieg assert that Lincoln's recorded symptoms as well as the duration of the disease "more closely approximated immune-unmodified variola major than immune-modified variola major." Thus, based on the available information, Goldman and Schmalstieg concluded that Abraham Lincoln's post-Gettysburg Address illness was full-fledged smallpox.

Retrospective analyses of illnesses are not easy, and Goldman and Schmalstieg are careful in their article to point out that their retrospective analysis of Lincoln's post-Gettysburg Address illness was difficult to do because of the paucity of available information. For example, Goldman and Schmalstieg admit in their article that it would have been helpful to know if Lincoln had been vaccinated against smallpox. No

evidence exists that Lincoln was ever vaccinated, but absence of evidence is not evidence of absence, and this is one complication in the analysis by Goldman and Schmalstieg. As a result of the difficulties with their retrospective analysis, Goldman and Schmalstieg's conclusion about Lincoln's post-Gettysburg Address illness cannot be considered ironclad. But if Goldman and Schmalstieg's conclusion is correct, it is extremely fortunate for the U.S. that Lincoln survived the disease. Moreover, whenever those who agree with this conclusion hear in a lecture or in a conversation that in the weeks following the Gettysburg Address Lincoln suffered from varioloid, they can respond by saying that Lincoln's illness may have been much 'smaller' than that.

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Horseshoes Win the Civil War

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“For want of a nail, the shoe was lost.
For want of a shoe, the horse was lost.
For want of a horse, the rider was lost.
For want of a rider, the battle was lost.
For want of a battle, the kingdom was lost.
All for the want of a horseshoe nail.”

Benjamin Franklin quoting an old proverb in

Poor Richard's Almanac

Before 1835 all horseshoes were made by hand by blacksmiths. It was a labor- intensive process. A blacksmith could make four horseshoes in about an hour. That all changed because of one man, Scotsman Henry Burden. “It is astonishing [Henry] Burden was one of the most inventive men of the 19th Century [and] now no one knows him,” said one historian. The fact is, Henry

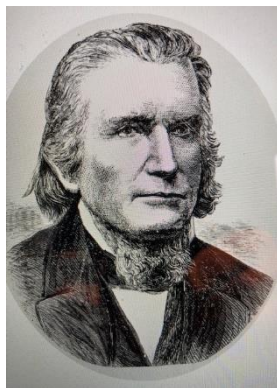
Burden would greatly aid the North in winning the American Civil War with his invention of a machine that mass-produced horseshoes.

Born in Dunblane, Perthshire, Scotland in 1791, Henry Burden was the son of Peter Burden and Elizabeth Abercrombie. He grew up on his father's sheep farm. Henry was a bright boy and when of age went off to the University of Edinburgh to study engineering. He returned to the family farm after graduation and began making farm implements and constructed a water wheel for a power source.ⁱ

Having loftier ambitions, Burden sailed to America to seek his fortune. He secured from the American minister in London a letter of introduction to Stephen Van Rensselaer, a wealthy landowner, businessman, militia officer, and politician from New York State. He began working for him at one of his factories, and his inventions, which automated the work previously done by hand, made the factory extremely profitable. Burden married Helen McQuat in 1821 and moved to Troy, New York in 1822. There he became the superintendent of the Troy Iron and Nail Factory.ⁱⁱ

Henry and Helen had eight children. To support his growing family Henry went on his own and developed the Burden Ironworks. It was there in 1835 that he applied for a patent for a machine of his invention that included three separate machines that could manufacture horseshoes. The machines could make 60 shoes an hour. By 1857, through modifications, he had one machine that could do the work of the three. It could cut, bend, and forge a shoe into a perfect shape. The nail holes were marked by the machine and hand-punched by workers. By 1860 his machines could produce one horseshoe per second. The company was worth \$500,000.ⁱⁱⁱ

With the outbreak of the Civil War the demand for horseshoes dramatically rose. At its peak, Henry Burden and Sons had nine machines in two factories that produced 3,600 horseshoes per hour in various sizes for riding horses, mules, and draft horses. At the peak of the war effort, the company employed 1,400 men.^{iv}



Henry Burden and Burden's machine for manufacturing horseshoes.

The company produced over 50 million horseshoes during the Civil War. A semi-circular building at Burden and Sons could hold 7,000 tons of horseshoes in 16 large bins for the many different patterns and sizes. The different patterns were light, medium, and heavy, and the sizes measured from 0 to 7 for the fore feet and hind feet for horses, and 1 through 5 for mules. By 1864 the company was worth \$2.3 million.^v

All of Henry Burden's horseshoes went to the forces of the North. This gave the North a powerful advantage over the South. Ironically, Henry's third child, Helen McQuat Burden, had married a Union officer on November 13, 1844, whom she had met when he was an instructor at the United States Military Academy at West Point. His name was Irvin McDowell, and he became a Union general.^{vi}

The Confederacy realized the value of Burden's work and hired spies in an unsuccessful effort to replicate his horseshoe-making machines. The best the rebels could do was to send raiding parties to try to capture horseshoe shipments from the Yankee railroads and wagon trains or pry the shoes off the feet of dead Union animals after a battle.^{vii}

Henry Burden lived the rest of his life in luxury. In 1869, as a memorial to his wife, who died in 1860, he paid \$75,000 and had built the Woodside Presbyterian Church in Troy, New York. On January 19, 1871, at the age of 80, Henry Burden died of heart disease. His funeral service was held at Woodside Presbyterian Church, and he was laid to rest next to his wife at Albany Rural Cemetery.^{viii}

For want of Henry Burden, enough horseshoes would be lost. For want of enough horseshoes, the Union would be lost. Henry Burden's horseshoes helped win the Civil War.

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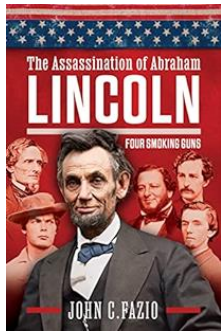
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BOOK REVIEWS

**John C. Fazio. *The Assassination of Abraham Lincoln: Four Smoking Guns* (Pen and Sword History, October 31, 2023)**

Last month, our fellow Roundtable member John Fazio published his second book on the Lincoln assassination conspiracy. He previously published *Decapitating the Union: Jefferson Davis, Judah Benjamin and the Plot to Assassinate Lincoln* (2016). He also previously published a four-part series in *The Charger* (see the Archives of past articles) which makes similar arguments as those in these books.

60 years ago, in November (1963), another U.S. President was assassinated – John F. Kennedy. It has been noted that there have been some eerie similarities in these two assassinations – for example, both were killed on a Friday, both were fatally shot in the head, both assassins (John Wilkes Booth and Lee Harvey Oswald) were known by three names (both names with 15 letters) and both were born in '08. They were both killed before being brought to trial. And both assassinated presidents were succeeded by their Southern Vice-Presidents named Johnson (Andrew and Lyndon).

Since JFK's death, his assassination has been the subject of numerous theories about his assassin and whether Lee Harvey Oswald acted alone or was the part of a wider conspiracy with various conspirators claimed. Earlier this year, retired Cleveland judge Burt Griffin, a member of the staff of the Warren Commission, published a book once again defending the Commission's finding that Oswald acted alone. Last month retired Secret Service agent Paul Landis, a resident of Shaker Heights, published a memoir including his experience as an agent guarding the Kennedy's in Dallas. His version of the aftermath of the assassination has been seen as possibly undercutting the so-called "magic bullet" theory defended by Griffin that was a key to the Warren Commission finding that Oswald was the lone assassin.

Like this historical continuing controversy, a similar controversy still surrounds Booth's killing of Lincoln, as well as the actions of some of his co-conspirators such as Lewis Powell, who failed in his attempt also to kill Secretary of State William Seward on the night of April 14, 1865. John Fazio's purpose in writing his book is to debunk the myth that Booth and his band first intended to kidnap Lincoln and then suddenly instead turned to killing Lincoln, Seward, and Vice-President Johnson (and probably also Secretary of War Edwin Stanton and Union Army commander Ulysses Grant [who chose not to accept Lincoln's invitation to join him at Ford's Theater to watch *Our American Cousin*]). Rather, Fazio argues that Booth was an agent of the Confederate Secret Service and that it was always its intent to assassinate Lincoln and decapitate the leadership of the federal government in retaliation for its war against the Confederacy and its 1864 attempts to kill Confederate President Jefferson Davis and his Cabinet.

Fazio presents 18 facts to support his extensively detailed thesis that Booth was a paid Confederate agent. Fazio lists seven possible conspiracy theories for the assassination and

eliminates all but one: “The Confederate government and its Secret Service were complicit.” In particular, Fazio focuses on Confederate Secretary of State Judah Benjamin and his trusted agent John Surratt, Confederate courier and close friend of John Wilkes Booth. In listing 26 publications about the assassination that he consulted, Fazio in particular points to *Come Retribution* (1989) by William A. Tidwell, James O. Hall and David Winfrey Gaddy and *April’65: Confederate Covert Action in the American Civil War* (1995) by Tidwell as important in his research and conclusion.

As a lawyer, Fazio begins by establishing the basis for proving his wider conspiracy case. He argues that the standard should be “proof beyond a reasonable doubt.” In making his case, Fazio details four major “smoking guns” to support his conclusion. They are:

1. The Wistar and Dahlgren-Kilpatrick Raids

Fazio recounts the two failed Union raids on Richmond that first aimed at capturing Davis and his cabinet, liberating Union prisoners, and burning the city. The first raid was led by Isaac J. Wistar but failed during February 6-7, 1864. The second during March 2-3, 1864 was conceived by Judson Kilpatrick and led by a young Colonel Ulric Dahlgren (son of a Union Admiral). Dahlgren’s force was ambushed and he was killed. The Confederate government reinforced its belief that Lincoln was behind both raids, releasing papers it said were found on Dahlgren’s body stating that he was ordered to kill Davis and members of his Cabinet. Fazio concludes:

“It is clear enough from what followed the high level meetings that Confederate leaders saw in the raids, especially the orders to the leaders of the raids to either capture or assassinate Davis and his cabinet, licence to respond in kind.”

Fazio then points to the creation of a Canadian Cabinet of Secret Service operations against Lincoln and his government with ten examples of the work of their operatives, including failed attempts to kill Lincoln.

2. Lewis Powell (and Booth)

Fazio argues that Lewis Powell was not a deserter from John Mosby’s Rangers but instead was assigned to join Booth’s conspiracy to kill – not kidnap – Lincoln. He cites three times that Booth asked Powell to shoot Lincoln. Fazio says that statements by Powell before his execution show that there was a larger conspiracy beyond Booth’s “action team” with as many as 18-35 unidentified persons involved. Throughout the book, Fazio argues that there was never a real Lincoln kidnapping plot, which would have been impractical, but rather that Booth used it to recruit members of his team who otherwise would not have agreed to be part of a plot to kill Lincoln.

3. Harney Mission and Plan B

Fazio identifies Thomas Harney, a munitions expert at the Confederate Torpedo Bureau, as another key would be Lincoln assassin chosen to act by the Confederate government. He was to go to Washington City aided by Mosby’s Rangers to meet with others to carry out a bombing of

Lincoln and other high level federal officials. His mission was aborted when he was intercepted and captured by Union cavalry south of Washington City several days before Lincoln was killed by Booth. Fazio claims that Booth knew of the failure of Harney's mission and was therefore alerted to have his group carry out the assassination attack on Lincoln and his governmental leaders.

4. Surratt, Benjamin, Saint-Marie

Fazio's fourth smoking gun is to examine the relationship between Confederate Secretary of War Judah Benjamin and his most trusted agent John Surratt (Mary's son) and a Confederate courier to the Canadian Cabinet. Fazio connects Surratt to Booth and the Surratt boarding house as a safe house for Confederate agents. He traces the tracking by a Henri Beaumont de Ste Marie of the postwar Surratt from Canada where he was protected by the Catholic clergy to Rome, Italy where he joined the Papal Zouaves. Ste Marie sought the reward posted by the federal government for Surratt's capture. Surratt was arrested by the Vatican, escaped, was recaptured, stood trial in 1867 in the United States where he was not convicted by a hung jury and then had the charges dropped on a legal technicality.

To prove his case Fazio relies extensively on what material is available, including statements made by key actors including Powell and Surratt. However, there is not any documentation of the relationship between Booth, the Canadian Cabinet, Judah Benjamin and Jefferson Davis that would be a truly conclusive smoking gun. In the case of Benjamin, who fled to England and never returned after the war, he deliberately destroyed any documents related to his (and Davis') control of the Confederate Secret Service, its funding, and its "Black Flag" operations.

Fazio admits at several places that he has no written evidence or proof of some meetings of the alleged broader number of conspirators to support his thesis. Instead, based on his legal reasoning, he uses analysis of such materials as statements by Powell, Ste Marie and Surratt to make his case. He is quite emphatic about his conclusions. For example, he dismisses the idea that Booth really planned to kidnap Lincoln or that he only decided to kill Lincoln after hearing him speak at the White House on April 11, 1865 as "absurd". As to Surratt's denial of a role of the Confederate government in Lincoln's assassination, Fazio calls this "utterly feeble, disingenuous, and ridiculous."

If you are a fan of historical mysteries, then you should definitely read John Fazio's intriguing book and then judge for yourself whether or not he has convinced you of the true extent of the conspiracy to murder Abraham Lincoln.

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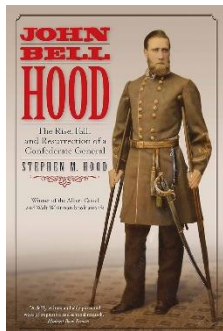
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--Dennis Keating



Hood, Stephen M. *John Bell Hood: The Rise, Fall and Resurrection of a Confederate General*, Savas Beatie, LLC: El Dorado Hills, California, 2016

ISBN # 978-1-61121-140-5

It was while going through the bookstore at the visitors center in Franklin, Tennessee that I ran across another biography of John Bell Hood. I was just about ready to pass it up when I looked at who the author was, and it immediately caught my attention. The author was Stephen M. Hood, a direct descendent of the general. It was a great biography although one must keep in mind that it was written by a direct descendent and one committed to rebuilding the general's reputation. According to the author John Bell Hood did the best he could with the resources available. The Hood critics usually form their opinion around the final two campaigns in Georgia and Tennessee and in the words of the author and an opinion in which I agree he states that "... The Confederacy (in the latter part of 1864) was experiencing an "avalanche of misfortune." Whoever had command in the West would wind up as a scapegoat, regardless of their previous accomplishments." Much of the criticism of Hood was leveled by The Southern Historical Society after it relocated to Richmond in 1873. Chief among the critics was Jubal Early and his Lost Cause interpretation of Civil War History. According to the author "Lost Cause writers transformed Robert E. Lee from a dependable and inspirational military leader into a Confederate deity symbolic of Southern virtue" and anyone, including Hood, who stood in the way of this interpretation were cast as enemies of the "moonlight and magnolias" interpretation of History. Another one of Hood's chief critics was Joseph E. Johnston. Johnston was critical of Hood because of Hoods critical opinion of Johnston's withdrawal from Dalton to Atlanta and his failing to fight a major engagement at that time. Hood contends that he took command of an army that had been worn down by withdrawal and had suffered greatly in terms of morale. The general overview is that because the Confederacy was drastically short of men Sherman was able to outflank him time after time in what has been described a 'deadly dance' down through Georgia. Opinions vary, Historian Brian Miller in his book "John Bell Hood and the Fight for

Civil War Memory” was critical of Johnston when he wrote that although Hood “was not perfect, he certainly was no Joe Johnston” According to author Stephan Hood General Hood while writing his memoirs became distracted by Johnston’s ravings which caused Hood to meander away from his main purpose and instead write a chapter titled “Reply to General Johnston,” which takes up 80 pages of his memoir “Advance and Retreat. “

This discussion could go on and on, however, after the defeat at Nashville, Hood moved with his army to Tupelo, Mississippi where he asked to be removed from command. He was in Flat Rock North Carolina with Mary Boykin Chestnut when he heard of the surrender of Lee’s Army. In Chestnut’s words “he just stood and stared into the fireplace saying nothing.” Hood fled southwest hoping to reach Kirby-Smith in the Trans Mississippi Department, however when he heard of that General’s surrender, he turned himself in at Natchez, Mississippi on May 30, 1865. After surrendering himself, he moved to New Orleans and became involved in several successful occupations, such as cotton broker and insurance agent, while continuing to fight for his reputation and war record. Hood’s case was hurt by his untimely death from yellow fever in 1879 along with his wife and oldest daughter. General P.G.T. Beauregard took on the responsibility of publishing his memoirs as part of an effort to raise money for the Hood orphan fund. Hood and his wife had ten surviving children at the time of their deaths and his last wish had been that the Texas brigade veterans take care of his ten orphaned children which led to the establishment of The Texas Brigade Association, established in 1872 which, after his death, raised a fund to see that his children were cared for. According to the author, Hood’s memoirs, “Advance and Retreat,” published a year after his untimely death in 1879, directly contradicted the creators of the Lost Cause myth, which sought to glorify certain ex-Confederates (mostly Virginians like Generals Lee and Johnston) and vilify men like Generals Longstreet and Hood.”

After reading several biographies of General Hood it is still my opinion that taking into consideration the limited resources with which he had to work almost no one could have succeeded in that situation, and, although he was a decent and God-fearing man, in the end he was promoted far beyond his capabilities.

I found my copy at the Bookstore in Franklin, Tennessee although I imagine one could order it from any online book vendor.

--Paul Siedel

NOTICES

- Speakers Bureau

The Cleveland Civil War Roundtable maintains a speakers bureau as a resource for groups that are interested in the Civil War. The speakers bureau consists of Roundtable members who are available to give presentations on various topics related to the Civil War and to that era in history. Members of the speakers bureau choose the topics for their presentations and then can

give these presentations to groups such as other Civil War roundtables or any group interested in hearing a presentation about the Civil War. Such groups contact the members of the speakers bureau through the speakers bureau web page on the Roundtable's website (<https://www.clevelandcivilwarroundtable.com/speakers-bureau/>). Currently there are seven members in the speakers bureau, and the Roundtable is looking to increase that number. Anyone who is interested in joining the speakers bureau should contact Dave Carrino via email (davecarrino@gmail.com). For those who enjoy giving presentations about the Civil War, the speakers bureau is a great way to receive requests to do so.

- *New Book on Governor David Todd*

On October 31, the Kent State University Press will publish a new book about Ohio's Civil War Governor, David Todd. The author, Professor Joseph Lambert, teaches at Youngstown State University. The title of the book is *The Political Transformation of David Todd: Governing Ohio during the Height of the Civil War*. This should be an important new resource on Ohio's Civil War history, and "The Charger" is asking someone from our membership to submit a review of the book. Please contact the editor, Kent Fonner, if you are interested.

- *"Save the Date"*

We are planning to do the prime rib buffet for our December 13th meeting to celebrate the holidays. Please consider bringing your spouse or significant other to the meeting to enjoy some "Holiday Cheer", good company, and Judge Vodrey's presentation on Salmon P. Chase.

- *The Annual Dick Crews Memorial Debate*

Topic: "Was Meade aggressive enough in chasing Lee after Gettysburg?"
January 10, 2024

George Gordon Meade was criticized, including by President Abraham Lincoln, for not being sufficiently aggressive in pursuing Robert E. Lee's defeated Army of Northern Virginia after the Battle of Gettysburg. The 2024 Dick Crews Memorial Debate will examine this question.

As in past debates, William Vodrey will serve as moderator. All CCWRT members are encouraged to participate in the debate. Anyone interested in being a debater, please contact William Vodrey.

FINIS!