



# ***THE CHARGER***

**THE CLEVELAND CIVIL WAR ROUNDTABLE**

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**March 2026**

**CCWRT Founded 1956**

**Vol. 50, No. 7**

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**SPEAKER**—Molly W. Sampson, Executive Director of the Sandusky Area Maritime Association, is a passionate World War II historian and museum leader whose research explores the

intersections of gender, social, and military history, with a particular focus on the Women’s Army Corps and its contributions to World War II.

**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 7:30 PM

**For reservations email:**

[ccwrtreserve@gmail.com](mailto:ccwrtreserve@gmail.com). To ensure dinner is reserved for you, the reservation must be made by Tuesday, March 3, 2026.

**Website:**

<http://www.clevelandcivilwarroundtable.com>

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**MEETING – March 11, 2026**

**PROGRAM – “From Battlefield to WAC Training Center: Chickamauga Beyond the Civil War”**

**CCWRT DISPATCHES**



**\*THE CCWRT 2026 FIELD TRIP**

The CCWRT 2026 Field Trip will be September 17-20, 2026. We will be traveling to the Shenandoah Valley to study the 1862 Valley Campaign. Check the CCWRT website and your CCWRT emails for details and registration information.

*\*National History Day is approaching fast!*

NHD will be on Saturday, March 7, 2026, at the Western Reserve Cleveland History Center. Steve Pettyjohn is again coordinating CCWRT’s participation. Some of our members will serve as judges for student exhibits dealing with American Civil War topics. CCWRT then makes an award to the students with the best exhibits. This award comes from CCWRT and is separate from the NHD awards. We generally start around 8:15 or 8:30 with breakfast and training followed by judging for the rest of the morning. During the last two years, we have completed judging by noon and were able to have lunch and make decisions about awards. Steve is hoping to have three-person teams organized to tackle the appropriate categories with at least one experienced judge along with a rookie to show them the ropes. While we follow the overall judging process from NHD to help make our decisions, we do not go through their rather laborious documentation process. If anyone

is interested in assisting with this worthwhile project, please contact Steve.



Some of Our CCWRT Members Serving as Past Years’ NHD Judges

**\*EMERGING CIVIL WAR SEEKING NOMINATIONS FOR BEST CIVIL WAR ROUNDTABLE**

We have been informed that Emerging Civil War is asking for nominations for the 2026 CWRT of the year. Accordingly, officers and directors of the CCWRT have started to collect information and records to complete a nomination application. The deadline for the application to the Emerging Civil War Symposium is May 1, 2026. Any CCWRT member who has any suggestions regarding the nomination application should contact

any officer or director to see that his/her idea is passed on to the nomination application committee. We are all proud of our roundtable here in Cleveland, so we should make our best effort on the application.

*\*JOHNSON'S ISLAND PARK DAY*

This year's Park Day event at the Johnson's Island Civil War Prison site will be **Saturday, April 11 from 9:00am-3:00pm**. Please note that this Park Day is not in line with the American Battlefield Trust's national day of observation.



Park Day Volunteers Gathering and Burning Brush At Johnson's Island Two Years Ago

The Friends and Descendants of Johnson's Island hope you can join them this year and spread the word to get others involved!

[Click here to register by April 5](#)

**Please make sure to register if you plan to attend.** Having the number of attendees allows the FDJI to better plan for volunteer tasks and lunch.

The FDJI will send out additional information closer to the event to all who register. If you are unable to register using the link, you can also email them at [jicwmp@gmail.com](mailto:jicwmp@gmail.com). For any questions, please feel free to contact them through this email or call Amanda at 260-494-7468 or Brandi at 734-347-8783.

*The Editor's Desk*



The Pennsylvania Reserves Volunteer Corps (PRVC) was established when the Pennsylvania Legislature passed "An Act to...Provide for Arming the State" on 15 May 1861, heeding Governor Andrew Curtin's warning that the Commonwealth had a long southern border (the Mason-Dixon Line) touching on the "seriously disaffected" states of the South. Governor Curtin posed the need for Pennsylvania to raise its own military force to protect the border from possible incursions by rebellious forces. The PRVC was to be the state's own army in addition to the troops

supplied to the U.S. government under President Lincoln's call for the states to provide 75,000 men for service to suppress the growing civil unrest in the South.

Curtin signed the Act into law the same day it was passed and appointed George Archibald McCall of Philadelphia, a West Point graduate and hero of the Seminole and Mexican- American Wars, as Major General of Pennsylvania Volunteers and commander of the newly created PRVC. This all-Pennsylvania army would eventually consist of fifteen regiments: thirteen regiments of infantry, including a regiment of riflemen that would eventually win fame as the Pennsylvania "Bucktails;" one regiment of cavalry (The 1<sup>st</sup> Pennsylvania Cavalry Regiment); and one regiment of artillery. When the corps was fully recruited, by the summer of 1861, it contained a disciplined force of 15,000 men. In addition to General McCall, other commanders who rose through the ranks of the PRVC included George G. Meade and John F. Reynolds. McCall was eventually promoted to the rank of Brigadier General in the U.S. Army. Reynolds and Meade would both take command of the PVRC division in the Army of the Potomac before advancing to U.S. Army Corps command as Major Generals.

The PRVC was mustered into Federal service after the disastrous defeat at Bull Run on 21 July 1861. Organized as a division in the Army of the Potomac, the Reserves were center stage at nearly all the army's battles from the Seven Days through South Mountain and Antietam to Fredericksburg. The Pennsylvanians missed Chancellorsville, but two of their three brigades saw action at Gettysburg. In 1864, they served during Grant's Overland Campaign through the battles of

Spotsylvania and Bethesda Church. Three-year enlistments ran out right before Cold Harbor, but enough men remained in the ranks to form two veteran volunteer regiments, the 190<sup>th</sup> and 191<sup>st</sup> Pennsylvania Infantry.

Some of you may remember that my great-great grandfather, William Silveus, served with Company I, 8<sup>th</sup> Pennsylvania Reserves Infantry Regiment, until he was captured at Fredericksburg and subsequently died of typhoid fever at Camp Parole, MD, in January 1863. A group known as the Pennsylvania Reserves Volunteer Corps Historical Society has been formed with the mission of preserving the history of the corps and educating the public about the service of these volunteer regiments in the Civil War. They have a website at [www.prvchs.org](http://www.prvchs.org). The Society has already started building a collection of digitized records for research on the PRVC and are working on discovering and rededicating forgotten gravesites of soldiers from the Corps. The Society's president, August Marchetti, Burke, VA, has plans for expanding the group to include various levels of membership, community outreach, and the publication of an historical journal.

I recently joined the PRVCHS as a "Descendant Member." I look forward to future events with the group, and I am working on transcribing William Silveus' military records and letters for inclusion in their archive. I encourage any of you who have ancestors who served with the PRVC to check out the historical society. Even if you do not have an ancestor, you still might enjoy perusing the information on the PRVCHS website or Facebook page.

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## *The Monroe Doctrine and the American Civil War: Principle, Prudence, and Power*

By Don Iannone

### **Introduction**

This article discusses the use of the Monroe Doctrine by the U.S. Government during the Civil War in response to France's territorialization of Mexico during the Civil War, a subject of interest to me over the years. The idea for this article was sparked by President Donald Trump's invocation of the Monroe Doctrine as partial justification for the recent U.S. military intervention in Venezuela. My earlier study of the Monroe Doctrine provided the footing for me to write this piece.

Few foreign policy statements in American history have enjoyed a longer or more elastic life than the Monroe Doctrine. Announced in 1823 as a warning to European empires, it evolved over the nineteenth century into a symbol of American hemispheric authority. The U.S. Civil War (1861–1865) marked the doctrine's most serious test prior to the twentieth century,

revealing both its limits and its latent strength. Examining the Monroe Doctrine in the context of the Civil War clarifies what the doctrine originally meant, how it was understood by mid-century policymakers, and how it emerged from the war transformed from aspiration into enforceable policy.

### **Origins of the Monroe Doctrine (1823)**

The Monroe Doctrine arose from a convergence of international anxieties in the early 1820s. Most of Spanish America had won independence after long revolutionary wars, while Europe, fresh from defeating Napoleon, was dominated by conservative monarchies committed to restoring old regimes. The Holy Alliance (Russia, Austria, and Prussia) raised fears that Europe might assist Spain in reclaiming its former colonies (Perkins, 1963).

At the same time, Russia asserted expansive territorial claims along the Pacific Northwest, alarming American leaders (Sexton, 2011). Britain, though a monarchy, opposed renewed Spanish control and favored open markets in Latin America. British Foreign Secretary George Canning proposed a joint Anglo-American declaration opposing European recolonization. The United States declined formal partnership but adopted the underlying idea.

In his Seventh Annual Message to Congress on December 2, 1823, President James Monroe articulated what later became known as the Monroe Doctrine. Its core principles were straightforward: (1) no new European colonization in the Western Hemisphere; (2) nonintervention by European powers in the affairs of independent American states; (3) U.S. noninterference in European wars and internal European affairs; and (4) recognition of existing European colonies, but opposition to their expansion. Although force was never explicitly promised, the message asserted that European interference would be viewed as “dangerous to our peace and safety” (Monroe, 1823/1965).

At the time, the doctrine relied less on American power than on British naval dominance, which effectively discouraged recolonization for decades (Perkins, 1963). Still, it established a conceptual boundary: the Western Hemisphere was politically distinct from Europe.

### **The Doctrine Between 1823 and the Civil War**

For much of the antebellum period, the Monroe Doctrine remained more rhetorical than operational. American leaders cited it selectively, often to oppose European ambitions without committing to military confrontation. During the 1840s, it surfaced in debates over Texas, Oregon, and Central America, especially in response to British activity, though not always by name (Sexton, 2011).

The era also saw U.S. expansion that reshaped the hemisphere and sharpened foreign-policy anxieties. The Mexican–American War (1846–1848) began after the U.S. annexation of Texas and a dispute over the Texas–Mexico border. U.S. forces won major campaigns culminating in the fall of Mexico City in September 1847, and the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo (February 1848) transferred vast territories to the United States. The war did not “apply” the Monroe Doctrine in a formal sense, but it intensified U.S. claims to continental power and heightened

European attention to American ambitions, an important backdrop for how the doctrine was read on both sides of the Atlantic by mid-century (Sexton, 2011).

Crucially, the doctrine did not authorize American intervention in the internal affairs of neighboring republics. Its primary target was Europe: limiting European colonization and political control, rather than granting the United States an open-ended mandate to manage the domestic politics of independent American states (Perkins, 1963). This distinction would matter greatly during the Civil War.

By 1860, the United States had grown substantially in territory and population but remained diplomatically vulnerable. European powers still commanded larger armies and navies. When civil war erupted in 1861, the Monroe Doctrine faced its gravest challenge: could a divided republic defend a hemispheric principle?

### **The Civil War Crisis: Europe Watches, France Acts**

The Lincoln administration's greatest diplomatic fear was foreign recognition of the Confederacy, particularly by Britain or France. Such recognition could have legitimized Southern independence and possibly triggered intervention (Jones, 1960). The Monroe Doctrine lurked behind these concerns, shaping how Union officials framed European actions in the hemisphere.

France posed the most direct challenge. Under Napoleon III, France pursued an ambitious foreign policy designed to restore French prestige and influence. The American Civil War presented an opportunity. With the United States distracted, France intervened in Mexico in 1861, initially citing unpaid debts as justification (Sexton, 2011).

The deeper rationale was strategic. Napoleon III envisioned a Catholic, monarchical Mexico aligned with French interests and serving as a counterweight to the growing power of the United States. Installing Archduke Maximilian of Austria as emperor in 1864 marked a bold assertion of European political influence in the Western Hemisphere (McPherson, 2008). This action directly contradicted the spirit, if not yet the enforceability, of the Monroe Doctrine.

### **Union Diplomacy and the Doctrine During the War**

Despite the provocation, the Lincoln administration responded with restraint. Secretary of State William H. Seward protested diplomatically but avoided confrontation. The Union could not afford a war with France while fighting for survival at home (Jones, 1960).

Instead, Seward emphasized continuity: the United States continued to recognize the Mexican Republic under Benito Juárez as the legitimate government, refused to acknowledge Maximilian's regime, and repeatedly affirmed opposition to European-imposed monarchy in the Americas (Sexton, 2011).

In this period, the Monroe Doctrine functioned as a long-term warning, not an immediate weapon. Its force depended on the assumption that once the Civil War ended, the United States would again be capable of backing its principles with power.

### **After Appomattox: Enforcement at Last**

Union victory in 1865 transformed the situation. With the Confederate threat eliminated, the United States possessed a massive veteran army and renewed diplomatic confidence. Washington made clear to France that its presence in Mexico violated American policy (McPherson, 2008).

The pressure was indirect but unmistakable. The United States stationed troops along the Rio Grande, supplied arms to Mexican republican forces, and reminded France that continued occupation would be unacceptable (Sexton, 2011). Facing growing threats in Europe, particularly from Prussia, Napoleon III withdrew French troops in 1866–1867.

Maximilian was captured and executed by Mexican forces in 1867. The Monroe Doctrine did not topple the empire singlehandedly, but it framed the outcome: for the first time, the United States had successfully opposed a European-installed regime in the Americas, reinforcing the doctrine with power rather than rhetoric (Perkins, 1963).

### **The Monroe Doctrine After the Civil War**

In the decades following the Civil War, the Monroe Doctrine gained new prominence. American leaders increasingly treated it as a unilateral claim of hemispheric priority. Later interpretations and expansions, especially in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, would move far beyond the 1823 statement's original purpose, culminating in the Roosevelt Corollary (1904), which asserted a U.S. policing role in the hemisphere (Sexton, 2011).

Civil War experience shaped this evolution. The French intervention in Mexico demonstrated that the doctrine could survive American weakness but required unity and capacity to prevail. The war thus marked a turning point: the Monroe Doctrine emerged as a credible assertion of hemispheric authority, no longer dependent on British enforcement (Perkins, 1963).

### **Conclusion**

The Monroe Doctrine's role in the Civil War reveals its true character. It was not a standing authorization for war, nor an empty slogan. It was a principle deferred and tested by crisis and validated by recovery. During the Civil War, the doctrine constrained European ambition through diplomacy and patience. After the war, it gained teeth.

Understanding this history reminds us that doctrines endure not because they are proclaimed, but because states possess the unity, legitimacy, and power to sustain them. In the crucible of civil war, the Monroe Doctrine survived, and emerged fundamentally changed.

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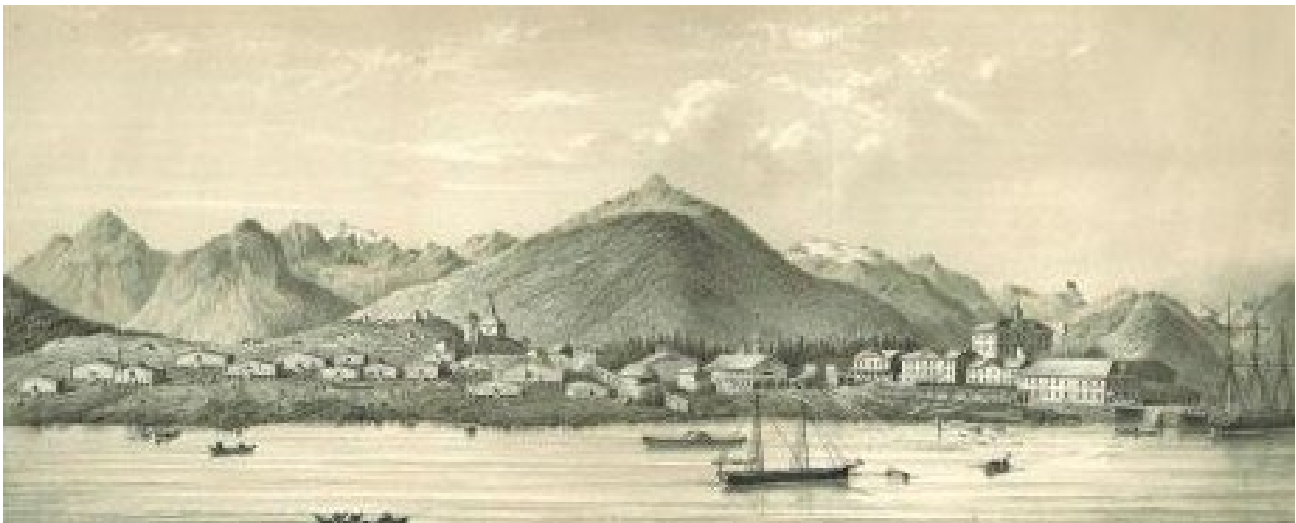
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*~Don Iannone, Ph.D., is a writer in Chagrin Falls, Ohio. Don and his wife Mary are members of the Cleveland Civil War Roundtable. He is the author of books, articles and essays on Civil War history, American politics, economic development, and religion and spirituality. In 2024, he published *The Civil War Yesterday and Today*, a book telling the story of the Civil War through historical narrative and poetry, and cautioning that the potential for a modern civil war could grow if Americans fail to overcome their differences and work together to preserve democracy.*

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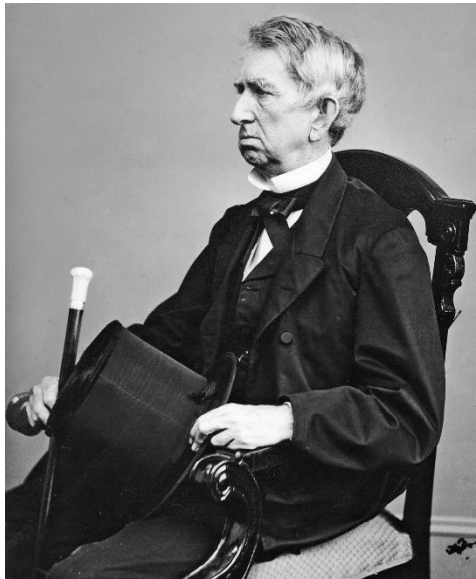
Sitka, Alaska, a Drawing Completed in 1867

## ***Seward's Icebox and the First Civil Rights Law in America***

By David Carrino

Civil War enthusiasts are familiar with the fact that William H. Seward, the man who was the secretary of state throughout the entire Civil War, was also the person who, after the Civil War, orchestrated the purchase of Alaska for the United States. This purchase was in keeping with Seward's stance as a staunch

proponent of Manifest Destiny. By negotiating the purchase of Alaska, Seward redirected Manifest Destiny from its westward advance to a northern leapfrog over Canada (which was known as British North America at that time) and into a territory that Seward had long believed would become part of the U.S. Seward had set his sights on Alaska well before he entered into purchase negotiations in 1867, as indicated by his 1846 assertion that "our population is destined to roll its resistless waves to the icy barriers of the north." Seward was such an ardent advocate of Manifest Destiny that he even had designs on absorbing both Mexico and British North America into the U.S. (It is not known if Seward, in a presaging of a 2026 presidential craving, wanted to also assimilate Greenland.) While Seward was never able to acquire Mexico and British North America, he did oversee, in addition to the acquisition of Alaska, the annexation of Midway Island by directing the U.S. Navy to occupy it and claim it for the U.S., which thereby pushed Manifest Destiny far westward into the Pacific Ocean.



Secretary of State William Seward

Russia had approached the U.S. about the purchase of Alaska during James Buchanan's presidency, but the Civil War interrupted any possibility of a deal being completed. After the end of the Civil War, Russia renewed its effort to sell Alaska to the U.S., and Seward, who was then the secretary of state for Andrew Johnson, negotiated the purchase with Eduard de Stoeckl, Russia's minister in Washington. Russia had lost interest in Alaska for a number of reasons including the difficulty of defending it and the impracticability of supporting large settlements there. A significant reason that Russia wanted to sell Alaska is that the supply of one of its major products had greatly decreased in amount. This is because the Russian settlers in Alaska were among the many members of the human race who engage in the practice of depleting living natural resources to the highest degree attainable with the technology that is available. A major product that Russia had obtained from Alaska was furs, particularly furs from sea otters, but overhunting had diminished the sea otter population so disastrously that Alaska was no longer a viable source.

After Seward and Stoeckl negotiated a deal for the sale, they signed the agreement (the Treaty of Cession) on March 30, 1867. The purchase price of \$7.2 million translates to about two cents per acre (about 50 cents per acre in 2026 dollars). Despite the bargain price, not everyone in the U.S. was pleased with the

purchase. Newspapers denounced the enterprise as "Seward's Folly" and labeled the territory that the U.S. bought "Seward's Icebox." Horace Greeley was especially critical and asked why the U.S. should even want a "territory of ice, snow, and rock." Maine Senator William Fessenden insisted that he would vote for the purchase only if "the secretary of state be compelled to live there and the Russian government be required to keep him there." Fessenden's scathing comment was ominous, since the Senate had to approve the Treaty of Cession before the sale became final.

Interestingly, Charles Sumner, who was the unfortunate target of Preston Brooks' cane prior to the Civil War, was instrumental in the approval of the purchase by the Senate. Sumner was initially skeptical, but he spent a great deal of time and effort learning about Alaska, which convinced him that the territory was valuable. After educating himself about the derided "territory of ice, snow, and rock," Sumner addressed the Senate for three hours about the merits of purchasing that territory, and the Senate overwhelmingly ratified the Treaty of Cession by a vote of 37 to 2. For Seward, this was a magnificent personal triumph. In fact, even though Seward helped to navigate the nation through its greatest crisis during his tenure as secretary of state under Abraham Lincoln, when Seward was asked what he considered his greatest accomplishment as secretary of state, he replied that it was the purchase of Alaska, and then he added "but it will take the people a generation to find it out."

In 1869, after the election of Ulysses Grant displaced Seward from the Cabinet, the former secretary of state visited the territory whose purchase he had negotiated. One of the places in Alaska that Seward visited is Tongass Island, which is near the southern end of the Alaska panhandle. At that time, Tongass Island was home to a group of the Tlingit Indigenous people. During Seward's visit, Chief Ebbits, the leader of the Tlingit clan that lived on Tongass Island, held a potlatch for Seward. A potlatch is a combination festival and ceremony intended to honor someone, at which the honoree is presented with a number of gifts. Tlingit custom holds that the honoree is expected to show his gratitude by reciprocating with a potlatch for the person who honored him, but Seward, perhaps because of ignorance about this custom or because of a conscious decision, never reciprocated the potlatch. When Seward did not do this and when it became clear years later that he would not, the Tlingits erected a totem pole to mark Seward's breach of protocol.

This totem pole, which was erected in the 1880s, is of a particular type known as a shame pole, because it is meant to disparage the pole's subject. Seward's shame pole portrayed him with a white face, wearing a potlatch hat, and with red ears and nostrils to indicate his shame. Decades later, after most of the inhabitants of Tongass Island had moved to Ketchikan and nearby areas, a replica shame pole was erected in the 1930s in Saxman, a town near Ketchikan. When this shame pole deteriorated, as typically happens with totem poles, another Seward shame pole was erected in Saxman in 2017. The most recent iteration of the shame pole depicts Seward more realistically but shows him with a bloated face, bulging eyes, a scornful facial expression, and the red ears and nostrils indicative of shame. Some of the Tlingits in Saxman stated that the shame pole is not meant so much to chastise Seward for his slight in not reciprocating the potlatch, but more to signify Seward's failure to recognize and respect the Indigenous people of Alaska as equals.



The failure of Seward to respect the Indigenous people is abundantly clear in the terms of the Treaty of Cession. Much of the treaty deals with the specifics of the purchase and the transfer of the land. But Article III is a provision that lays out what is to happen with the people living in Alaska. This provision stipulates that the "inhabitants of the ceded territory" have the option to "return to Russia" or "remain in the ceded territory" (i.e., Alaska), whichever they prefer, and if they choose to remain in Alaska, they will receive all the rights accorded to U.S. citizens, including "the free enjoyment of their liberty, property, and religion." The option to "return to Russia" intimates that "the inhabitants" of Alaska to whom this provision applies are the settlers from Russia who were living in Alaska at that time. But if there is any uncertainty about this, Article III states unambiguously that the rights of U.S. citizens are extended to all inhabitants of Alaska "with the exception of uncivilized native tribes." In other words, the Indigenous people, who are labeled as "uncivilized," are not granted the same rights as U.S. citizens. As if this provision in the treaty were not sufficiently insulting and disrespectful, when Seward, later in his Alaska trip, gave a speech about the recently acquired territory, he spoke about the "savage communities" and the "insignificant nations" of Indigenous people. He further stated that these nations are "jealous, ambitious, and violent," as if the nation that Seward represented is not.

The failure of the Treaty of Cession to extend rights, such as liberty, to the Indigenous people of Alaska is ironic, since a recently concluded civil war in which Seward was a prominent figure resulted in the right of liberty being extended to enslaved African Americans, so it seems that Seward's recent experiences should have taught him an important lesson about civil rights. Future events showed that the extension of rights to African Americans was implemented far more poorly than should have occurred, and a century passed before a civil rights law was enacted in the U.S. to, at least by law, ensure rights to all Americans including African Americans. But well before this civil rights law was enacted, in fact, nearly two decades earlier, a civil rights law was enacted in Alaska to ensure rights for that territory's Indigenous people, and the leading figure in that movement was a Tlingit woman named Elizabeth Peratrovich.

Elizabeth Peratrovich was born in 1911 in Petersburg, Alaska, a town in the Alaska panhandle that is about equidistant between Juneau and Ketchikan. Fittingly, given her future indispensable role in

bringing rights to so many people, she was born on July 4. Elizabeth's Tlingit birth name was *Ƙaaxgal.aat*. Because Elizabeth's Tlingit mother lacked the means to support her, her mother gave Elizabeth up for adoption at a very early age. She was adopted by Andrew and Jean Wanamaker, who named her Elizabeth, and she grew up primarily in Juneau and Ketchikan. Elizabeth grew up poor, but she was raised by her parents in a traditional Tlingit lifestyle. During her youth and beyond, Elizabeth experienced the rampant discrimination in Alaska directed toward Indigenous people. Wherever she went, she saw signs that read "No Natives Allowed" or "No Dogs, No Natives" or "We cater to white trade only." Throughout Alaska, Indigenous people were barred from restaurants, theaters, schools, hospitals, and from living in certain neighborhoods.

After Elizabeth graduated from high school in the same class as her future husband, Roy Peratrovich, both she and Roy attended college in Bellingham, Washington. Elizabeth and Roy, who also was a Tlingit, were married in Bellingham and then returned to Alaska in 1941. Roy and Elizabeth had three children: Roy Jr., Frank, and Loretta. While living in Juneau, the Peratroviches were looking for a house to rent, but they were repeatedly denied because they were Indigenous. After enduring so much discrimination during their lives, the breaking point came when they saw a "No Natives" sign on the Douglas Inn, a popular place in Juneau, and they decided that the time had come to end these discriminatory practices. The Peratroviches sent a letter to Territorial Governor Ernest Gruening to protest the discrimination and ask that these practices be ended. As support for their proposition, they indicated that Indigenous men had joined the military to fight in World War II, the war that the U.S. had recently entered, and they wrote, "The proprietor of Douglas Inn does not seem to realize that our Native boys are just as willing as the White boys to lay down their lives to protect the freedom that he enjoys." This letter began their quest to end discrimination against Indigenous people in Alaska.



Gruening agreed with the Peratroviches and worked with them to craft an anti-discrimination bill and then try to push that bill through the Territorial Legislature. However, when the bill came up for a vote in 1943, it failed to pass. Undeterred by this disheartening setback, Elizabeth and Roy continued their efforts. Elizabeth traveled throughout Alaska and visited numerous towns and villages to build support among Indigenous people for a new bill. She also was able to convince some Indigenous men to run for the Territorial Legislature. When these men won their elections, it increased support for an anti-discrimination bill where that support mattered most: among those who would be deciding the fate of the bill.

In February 1945 a new civil rights bill was before the Territorial Legislature. On the day that the bill was taken up, people filled the gallery beyond its capacity and spilled into the hallway. Among those in the gallery were Roy and Elizabeth Peratrovich. There was little debate when the bill came before the House, which passed the bill by a comfortable margin of 19 to 5. But the bill's chances for Senate passage were far less certain, because some of the senators were passionately opposed to it. Among those opposing the bill was Senator Frank Whaley. During the two-hour debate over the bill, Whaley asserted that the bill is "a natural in creating hard feelings between whites and natives." Senator Tolbert Scott, another opponent, claimed that the issue of discrimination against Indigenous people was merely "an

effort to create political capital for some legislators," and he maintained that rather than allowing whites and Indigenous people to associate with each other, it would be better if Indigenous people "put up signs 'No whites allowed.'" Most emphatic of all was Senator Allen Shattuck, a very staunch opponent who insisted, "Far from being brought closer together, which will result from this bill, the races should be kept further apart. Who are these people, barely out of savagery, who want to associate with us whites with 5,000 years of recorded civilization behind us?"

Some senators who supported the bill also spoke, and then, as was customary, people in the gallery were given an opportunity to make comments. Elizabeth rose from her seat in the gallery, asked to be allowed to speak, walked to the floor of the chamber, and stood before the all-male Territorial Senate. Then, calmly but forcefully and, most important, compellingly, she stated, "I would not have expected that I, who am barely out of savagery, would have to remind gentlemen with 5,000 years of recorded civilization behind them of our Bill of Rights." She continued by describing some of the episodes of discrimination that she and Roy had experienced. After Elizabeth concluded her remarks, Senator Shattuck, in a pointed question meant to impugn the effectiveness of an anti-discrimination law, asked Elizabeth if she thought the proposed law would end discrimination. Elizabeth adroitly countered, "Do your laws against larceny and even murder prevent those crimes? No law will eliminate crimes, but at least you as legislators can assert to the world that you recognize the evil of the present situation and speak your intent to help us overcome discrimination." As soon as Elizabeth's final word had left her mouth, the gallery erupted in thunderous applause. The Senate passed the bill by a vote of 11 to 5, and Governor Gruening signed it into law on February 16, 1945, coincidentally in the middle of what became Black History Month.



Territorial Governor Ernest Gruening Signing Alaska Territory's Civil Rights Act

After the passage of this law, Elizabeth continued to work for equality for all people in Alaska. Sadly, she died at the young age of 47 of breast cancer on December 1, 1958, which was about one month before Alaska was admitted to the U.S. as a state. Elizabeth's husband Roy died at the age of 78 on February 7, 1989. Elizabeth's and Roy's graves are next to each other in Evergreen Cemetery in Juneau.

The Alaska Anti-Discrimination Law of 1945 is recognized by some as the first viable civil rights law in America. This groundbreaking law was enacted 19 years before the landmark 1964 Civil Rights Act. Ernest Gruening, Alaska's governor in 1945, stated that the Alaska Anti-Discrimination Law would never have passed if not for Elizabeth Peratrovich. Because of Elizabeth's pivotal role in the quest for Indigenous civil rights, she is eminently deserving of inclusion in history's pantheon of civil rights leaders alongside the leaders of the post-World War II African American civil rights movement. Moreover, the story of Alaska's Anti-Discrimination Law is relevant to the Civil War, because that war was about more than preserving the Union. The Civil War was also about extending rights to a group of people who had for too long been denied those rights.

In 2020, the 75th anniversary of the passage of the Alaska Anti-Discrimination Law, the U.S. issued a one-dollar coin honoring Elizabeth. The coin bears her name and image as well as the name of the law that she championed. The coin also has the symbol of the Tlingit Raven moiety (or group) of which Elizabeth was a member. In 1992 Alaska State Representative Fran Ulmer sponsored a bill to name one of the House galleries in honor of Elizabeth. In Ulmer's speech before the House, she pointed out that during the 1945 debate in the Alaska Senate about the civil rights law, the opponents assailed it with the same tired rationalizations that are typically used in such situations: that the law is unnecessary, that the law will intensify the bad feelings between the races, that separation of the races is a preferable state. Ulmer characterized those rationalizations as "the public face of private injustice" and then affirmed, "Those voices of prejudice were reduced to a whisper, 47 years ago, by a woman who spoke from the heart."



Coin Celebrating Elizabeth Peratrovich

In a 2025 case before the Supreme Court involving the Voting Rights Act, one of the justices posited that there is an expiration date for anti-discrimination laws. This justice claimed that "race-based remedies are

permissible for a period of time, decades in some cases, but that they should not be indefinite and should have an end point." Perhaps that contention is something best debated and resolved by legal scholars and sociologists, but that opinion is not something that is universally accepted. Ideally, there should come a time (and, in fact, should now exist) when all people recognize and respect the civil rights of all people. Such a societal state would make "race-based remedies" unnecessary. However, since even just a glance at history and at current events is sufficient to discern that we do not live in an ideal world, there is some validity to the point of view that "race-based remedies" will always be necessary, in the same way that Elizabeth Peratrovich correctly alluded to the fact that laws against larceny and murder will be necessary as long as there are thieves and murderers among us. Nevertheless, despite any difference of opinion regarding the need for an end point for anti-discrimination laws, there is never a time when America should be without civil rights for all.

Elizabeth Peratrovich's valiant efforts to bring civil rights to a group that was deprived of these showed that she was a true American patriot and that she was as much a freedom fighter as the colonists who rebelled against England. Even though her fight for freedom occurred not in what became the first 13 states, but in what became the 49th state, the principle of liberty that guided Elizabeth's quest was the same as that of the American colonists at the time of the Revolutionary War and of the abolitionists at the time of the Civil War: that no person is excluded from equality. In his Gettysburg Address, Abraham Lincoln stated that the U.S. is "dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal." By calling the principle of universal equality a "proposition," Lincoln reduced the self-evident truth on which the U.S. is founded to a mere suggestion. Elizabeth Peratrovich turned that suggestion into a reality.

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Barclay Coppoc and Bushrod Johnson

## ***Two Quaker Ohioans Who Joined the Military during the Civil War***

By Dennis Keating

Few Quakers fought in the Civil War. As Pacifists, if they went into either army, they would be exiled from their Quaker Meetings. Quakers were generally Abolitionists.

**Barclay Coppoc**

Barclay Coppoc was born on January 4, 1839, in Winona, Ohio, near Salem. Salem was an Abolitionist town, which had a significant Quaker population. Barclay and his older brother Edwin were Quakers. After their father died, they were raised by a Quaker until they were reunited with their mother in Springdale, Iowa. In 1859, the brothers met John Brown, who was transporting freed slaves from Missouri. That summer, the brothers joined Brown in Chambersburg, Pennsylvania, in preparation for his raid on Harpers Ferry. Edwin went on the raid while Barclay remained at the farm hideout. Edwin was captured and hung on December 16, 1859. His body was recovered and returned to Salem. At his burial, several thousand attended.

Barclay and two others left the farm and went to Ashtabula, Ohio and the house of John Brown, Jr. From there, he went to Canada, before returning to Springdale and his mother. When the Governor of Virginia tried to force Barclay to face “justice” in Virginia, the Abolitionist Governor of Iowa rejected his extradition request.

Barclay joined the federal army at the outbreak of the war and served as a recruitment officer. When Confederates sabotaged his train over the Platte River on September 3, 1861, Barclay was among those killed.

**Bushrod Johnson**

Bushrod Johnson was born on October 7, 1817, on his family’s farm in Belmont County, Ohio. His Quaker parents had emigrated to Ohio. Living with his brother and teaching school, at age 17 Johnson made the unlikely choice of applying for an appointment to the U. S. Military Academy over his brother’s objection, received it, and entered the army in the class of 1840 (which included William Tecumseh Sherman and George Thomas). So ended Johnson’s connection to the Quakers. He served in the 3<sup>rd</sup> Infantry before the Mexican War. In that war, he participated in Winfield Scott’s campaign as a commissary officer and suffered a near fatal attack of the yellow fever. In an ill-considered postwar attempt to profit from supplies for the residents of Mexico City, his plan was discovered and he faced a military court. But, instead of a trial, he was allowed to resign. He became an instructor at the Western Military Institute in Georgetown, Kentucky. He became its Superintendent. The school moved to Nashville, Tennessee, where Johnson joined the state’s militia as a major with the outbreak of the war. Precluded from any attempt to rejoin the Union army, he quickly became a Brigadier General in the Confederate army and joined its garrison at Ft. Donelson. When under attack by Ulysses’ Grant army, Johnson led a counterattack, only to be halted by the fort’s commanders – John B. Floyd and Gideon Pillow. Like them, he managed to escape capture.

Johnson’s career in the Confederate army continued with more ups and downs until he became part of Lee’s failed attempt in 1865 to evade Grant’s army. At the battle of Shiloh, he was nearly killed while leading a brigade. At the battle of Perrysville, he led his brigade while having several horses shot from under him until his troops ran out of ammunition. At the ensuing battle of Stones River, Johnson’s brigade fought well. But he became embroiled in a dispute over

whose troops kill Ohioan Union general Joshua Sill. His commander General Patrick Cleburne resolved the dispute by deciding that both Johnson and General St. John R. Lidell would get credit for that action. Then, on the second day of the battle of Chickamauga, Johnson became a hero. He led the attack of James Longstreet's force that exploited the gap in fellow West Point classmate William Rosecrans' right wing that routed most of his Army of the Cumberland. As with some others, Johnson joined in the criticism of Braxton Bragg, commander of the Army of Tennessee, for failing to immediately pursue the defeated Union Army. After Grant arrived in Chattanooga to replace Rosecrans and the rout of Bragg's army at the battle of Missionary Ridge, Johnson was part of Longstreet's failed attempt to defeat Burnside at Knoxville,

Joining the Army of Northern Virginia with Longstreet's return there, Johnson was finally promoted to Major General. However, the rest of his career was marred by two major incidents. At the siege of Petersburg, when the Confederate defense was blown open at the battle of the Crater in July, 1864, Johnson hesitated to counterattack, allowing General William Mahone to be credited with preventing a Union breakthrough. Then, as Lee's retreat from the defense of Richmond was finally crushed at the battle of Saylor's Creek on April 6, 1865, Johnson and Generals Richard Anderson and George Pickett fled the field as their forces were overwhelmed. The next day, before he surrendered his army to Grant, Lee dismissed all three generals. Thus ended Johnson's military career in disgrace.

After the war and several unsuccessful business ventures, Johnson and his handicapped son went to a farm he owned in Illinois. Otherwise, isolated, he was befriended by a former Union colonel whose command was routed by Johnson's charge at Chickamauga. He died in September 1880. Dave Carrino wrote an article about Johnson being re-interred in 1975 from his obscure burial site to be re-united with his wife Mary, who had died in 1858 in Nashville and was buried there.

## **Conclusion**

Both Ohioans had dramatic lives contrary to their Quaker upbringing of pacifism.

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Union Soldiers of the USCT Relax Near a Purple Martin Box Erected on the Grounds of the Aiken House  
On the North Bank of the James River in Virginia in November 1864.

### *The 43<sup>rd</sup> OVI, the “Martin Box Regiment”*

By Kent Fonner

Purple Martins, the adult males at least, are a deep purple swallow that winter in South America and migrate to North America each spring to nest, lay eggs, and raise their young. Hundreds of years ago, Native Americans became familiar with these birds and erected hollowed gourds on poles around their villages to attract them to nest near their settlements. The purple martins, cavity-nesting birds, would build their nests in these gourds, and the native tribesmen were entertained by the ariel acrobatic antics of these swallows as they soared through the air collecting flying insects to feed themselves and their young. Martins became used to familiar people being near them, but the colony of birds would raise an alarm if they were approached by strangers. In addition, since they eat only flying insects, the Martins provided an early form of insect control near the Native villages. French trappers reported that the tribes they traded with often wrapped dead martins or powder made from their skins in with their fur packs, perhaps in the belief that, even in death, the Martins had power to control insect infestations in the furs during transport. Be that as it may, European settlers in North America soon noticed the tradition of putting up gourds for martin housing each spring, and colonial settlers’ farm steads were soon dotted with housing for purple martins each spring and summer including gourds, old pottery, and wooden boxes. The song of the martin is quite musical, and in addition to the other advantages of having them around, both Natives and Europeans appreciated their music and their company.



Ohio settlers were especially attracted to the Martin housing habit, and during the Civil War, one Ohio infantry regiment carried with them this well-established farm tradition. When the 43<sup>rd</sup> Ohio Volunteer Infantry camped near New Madrid, Missouri, in March 1862, the unit quickly became famous as the “Martin Box” Regiment. Some of the men nailed old cracker boxes to the cottonwood trees around camp where the purple martins flocked, took refuge, and nested. It has been suggested that the men of the 43<sup>rd</sup> OVI took time to erect these birdhouses because they thought the presence of the Martins would help keep down the mosquito population. Being on the Mississippi River, mosquitoes must have been quite a problem for the regiment. It is just as possible, however, that these Ohio farm boys were a little homesick, and the presence of the purple martins with their airborne antics and cheerful music provided them with a springtime reminder of home and more peaceful times. Whatever the motive, other soldiers in the brigade found that “Martin Box” was always a password for a warm greeting in the camp of the 43<sup>rd</sup> OVI.

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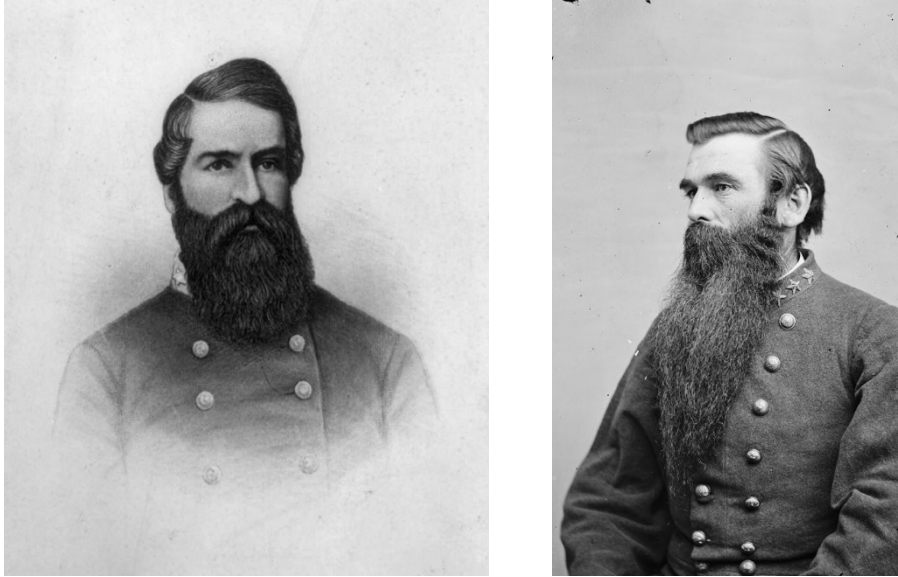
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Matthew Brady Photograph of Bridge Over the East Branch, Wasington, DC, 1862.  
Note the purple martin box in the yard to the right of the house.



CSA Cousins Turner Ashby and John Shackelford Green

### *A Case of Mistaken Identity: Look-alike Confederate Cousins*

By Brian D. Kowell © June 2025

Last March, Emerging Civil War ran a March Madness bracket to choose the Civil War officer who had the best beard. The winner was Lt. Col. John Shackelford Green. “Shack” Green was a farmer from Rappahannock County, Virginia before he joined the ranks of the 6th Virginia Cavalry as captain of Company B. During the reorganization of the regiment on April 20, 1862, Green was elected major. The 6th and 2nd Virginia Cavalry formed a mounted force under Thomas T. Munford and went with Gen. Richard Ewell to reinforce Gen. Thomas J. (Stonewall) Jackson in the Valley. Stonewall put Turner Ashby in command of all his cavalry and promoted Ashby to general.<sup>1</sup>

John Shackelford Green had a cousin who also served in Jackson’s army. That cousin was Gen. Turner Ashby. Ashby’s mother’s maiden name was Dorothea F. Green. Born in Rappahannock County, she was a direct descendant of Col. Green who served in the Revolutionary War. Col. Green was the grandfather of John Shackelford Green. Ashby and Green had another blood connection when Turner Ashby’s older sister Elizabeth married James Green.<sup>2</sup>

The two cousins even resembled one another. McHenry Howard, in his recollections described Ashby:

“I would describe him as of slender build and somewhat under medium height. His beard, thick and of a very dark brown color, covered the entire lower half of his face, from above the line of the moustache, and was so long as to come to his breast.”<sup>3</sup>

“Shack” Green was also of slender build, medium height, and had a long dark, brown beard that covered most of his lower face and reached his breast.

Neither was a professionally trained soldier. They both were lax in disciplining their troops and as a result were popular with them. Both Ashby and his cousin had instances where they lost control of their men in battle. They were also known to take off on individual scouts. Both were personally brave but were not disciplinarians.

Both cousins were almost captured. When Gen. Nathaniel Bank’s cavalry pursued Jackson’s army after the Confederate repulse at Kernstown, Ashby, astride his white horse and riding to the crest of a hill, taunted the Federals. When the enemy approached to capture him, he retreated to the next hill and continued the taunting. Sergeant Pierson of the 1st Michigan Cavalry took a crossroads by himself and cut Ashby off. Being larger than the Confederate, Pierson dragged Ashby from his horse and took him prisoner. When Pierson’s comrades caught up, they disarmed Ashby but made the mistake of allowing him to ride his white horse. The bluecoats had not proceeded far when Ashby’s white horse wheeled, jumped over a high fence, and galloped away. Not long afterward Ashby was seen once again on a high hill defiantly taunting them.<sup>4</sup>

Ashby’s cousin was captured once and almost captured a second time. The first was when Green was promoted to Lt. Col. Taking charge of the regiment in Col. Thomas Stanhope Flournoy’s absence, Green rode with 130 men to Paris, Virginia on September 22, 1862. There, he was attacked by Yankee cavalry. Green ordered his men to hold their fire until the Yankees were 50 feet away. Unfortunately, he had waited too long, and with the Yankees almost upon them, his men shot once before breaking to escape. Left alone, Green received three severe saber wounds to the head and was captured. He was immediately paroled and went home to recover.<sup>5</sup>

The second time he was almost captured was on February 9, 1863. Recovered from the wound he received at Paris, Green and Col. Asher W. Harman of the 12th Virginia Cavalry were alone in Martinsburg when a large Yankee force entered the town. Practically surrounded but undetected, the two stealthily wound their way through the city blocks, successfully avoiding capture, and escaped.<sup>6</sup>

During Jackson’s retreat up the Valley toward Harrisonburg in early June 1862, Ashby and his horsemen, acting as the rearguard of the army, successfully parried all Union attacks. Afterwards, as he rode along the columns of Confederate infantry, the foot soldiers, cheered Ashby in admiration to his prowess and daring.

Ashby’s biographer wrote of another account of his troopers cheering Ashby. It was shared by Maj. William Goldsborough of the Maryland Line and this encounter turned out to be one of mistaken identity:

“The column was moving along the turnpike, when a swarthy Confederate officer with [a] long, black beard, approached [on horseback]. ‘Come boys,’ said I. ‘yonder comes Ashby; let’s give him a welcome;’ and hearty cheers for Ashby ran along the line. As the officer passed me, he drew rein and remarked, ‘Major, you have made a mistake; I am Major John Shack Green, of the 6th Virginia Cavalry, - a cousin of

Gen. Ashby.’ We both laughed, and the Major rode on. The next day I saw Ashby, and laughingly told him of the mistake. He jocularly remarked, ‘Never mind, Major, the cheers were given a very gallant officer.’”<sup>7</sup>

On June 6, the look-alike cousins almost suffered the same fate. Ashby and the cavalry were at Harrisonburg protecting the Valley Army from Gen. Fremont’s advancing army. Discerning the approach of Yankee cavalry, the Confederate cavalry commander ordered his men to mount and charge the onrushing Union column. Ashby’s head-on onslaught, combined with a double envelopment, proved too much for the horsemen in blue who, after some vicious hand-to-hand fighting, broke and beat a hasty retreat. During this melee, “Shack” Green suffered a serious wound that kept him out of action for some time. His cousin, after capturing the Yankee cavalry leader, Colonel Sir Percy Wyndham, pursued and found the enemy posted in a position inaccessible to mounted men. Ashby, along with Major Goldsborough’s 1st Maryland Infantry, charged the position only to be unhorsed and mortally wounded while on foot. Ashby’s body was placed in an ambulance and removed to Port Republic that evening. When Stonewall Jackson learned of Ashby’s death, he “walked the floor of his room, for some time, in deep sorrow, greatly moved by the sad news.”<sup>8</sup>

Green’s actions at Paris were later examined in a court of inquiry. One witness remarked that Lt. Col. Green “is without tactical knowledge, or ability to keep up the discipline of the regt.” When Jeb Stuart heard of the fiasco, he said that the saber wounds to Green’s head were well deserved.

Col. Green led his regiment during the Jones-Imboden raid where his performance was less than what Brig. Gen. William E. “Grumble” Jones expected. When Flournoy returned to the regiment in April, the two found themselves in trouble. Stuart wanted to get rid of both, commenting on their lack of fitness for command. Green would not be a good choice, he opined, “though no doubt a gallant man.”<sup>9</sup>

On May 24, 1863, Jones had a board convened to examine the officers of the 6th Virginia Cavalry. Col. Flournoy’s, courage and administrative skill were questioned. As for Green, everyone liked him personally, but they found him wanting in energy and firmness to command. The board recommended that Flournoy be relieved and Col. Julien Harrison replace him over Green. Outranking Harrison but lacking confidence, Green agreed to step aside. However, Brandy Station and the Gettysburg Campaign postponed any actions on these recommendations.<sup>10</sup>

Once back at Culpepper, the court-martial was reconvened. The board acquitted Green of Jones’ charges of disobedience of orders and breach of arrest. Nonetheless, Stuart decided to make some changes. Jones was transferred; Harrison took over the 6th Virginia Cavalry, and Flournoy obligingly resigned. Green could feel the pressure and on April 24, 1864, he resigned for the good of the service. Stuart wrote that Green “deserves credit for his patriotism. The service will benefit beyond a doubt by its acceptance.”<sup>11</sup>

John S. Green lived out his days in Norfolk, Virginia and died there in 1891 at the age of 74 years.

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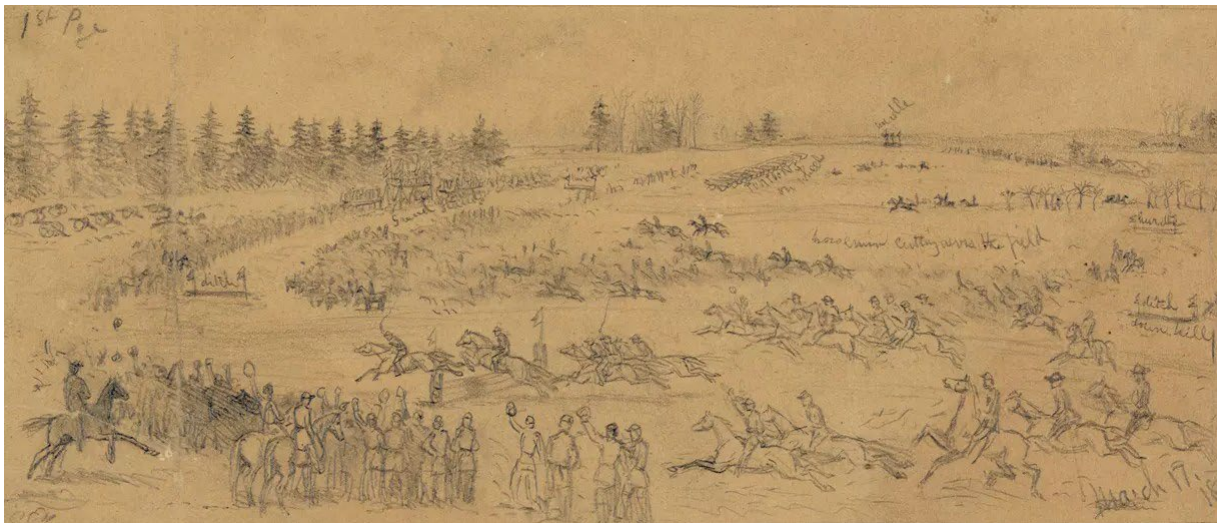
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**A SAINT PATRICK'S DAY IN CAMP**—March 17, 1863, the Irish Brigade of the Army of the Potomac sponsored a St. Patrick's Day Celebration, including religious ceremonies in the morning, a "Greased Pig Chase," various other raucous games, strong punch to drink, and horse racing. The highlight of the Day was a steeplechase on a mile-long elliptical track complete with jumps over ditches, hedges, and two man-made fifteen foot wide, six foot deep, "rivers." Commissioned officers in the brigade were permitted to enter the race with their own horses. Among the 20,000 men who witnessed the race, including General Joe Hooker on the Reviewing Stand, was Edwin Forbes, special artist for "Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper." Brigade Commander Thomas Meagher handed out the prizes.