



# Lincoln Lore

Bulletin of the Louis A. Warren Lincoln Library and Museum. Mark E. Neely, Jr., Editor.  
Mary Jane Hubler, Editorial Assistant. Published each month by the  
Lincoln National Life Insurance Company, Fort Wayne, Indiana 46801.

April, 1979

Number 1694

## The Confederacy As A Revolutionary Experience

by John David Smith

Lincoln doubtless faced overwhelming trials as President, but these pale in contrast to those confronted by his Southern rival, Jefferson Davis. Not only did Davis lead a revolution and establish a new nation, but he was called upon to fight a modern, total war, direct foreign policy, and maintain the spirit of Southerners for their cause. Regardless of whatever "natural" advantages the Confederates may have had — the revolutionary zeal of patriots for a new republic, the benefit of fighting a defensive war on native soil, the ability to draw on short interior lines of communication and supply — their opponents held the upper hand in those areas which really counted: men, materiel, industrial capacity, and organization.

What's more, Davis forged the Confederate nation from scratch. After secession he molded eleven sovereign state-republics, preindustrial in outlook and ever sensitive to their individual states' rights, into a confederacy, a federation with a surprisingly strong central government. Lincoln, on the other hand, inherited the reins of a country with years of experience in being a nation, and with all the administrative and industrial machinery to wage war. The early successes of the infant Confederacy were not lost on England's Chancellor of the Exchequer, William Gladstone. Speaking on the Confederacy at Newcastle in October, 1862, Gladstone's remarks were music to Davis's ears. In slightly more than a year and one-half, explained the Englishman, "Jefferson Davis and other leaders of the South have made an army; they are making, it appears, a navy; and they have made what is more than either, they have made a nation."

Although few historians have articulated it in these terms, the central theme of Confederate historiography is, and always has been, Confederate nationalism. Soon after Appomattox, architects of the myth of the "Lost Cause," men like Edward Pollard, Alexander Stephens, and Davis

himself, offered explanations, denunciations, and rationalizations for Confederate defeat. Despite their self-serving chauvinism and partisanship, these early writers raised salient questions about the nature of the Confederate experiment. States' rights, centralization, faulty leadership, economic backwardness, state socialism, foreign recognition, disaffection on the homefront — these and innumerable other elements of Confederate strength and weakness have attracted later generations of trained historians. Writing in 1925, for example, historian Frank Lawrence Owsley charged that the Confederacy died from an overdose of states' rights theory. In reality, though, Owsley and numerous other students of the subject have all along been probing the Confederacy as a national experience.

In his new volume on the Confederacy, *The Confederate Nation, 1861-1865* (New York: Harper & Row, 1979 [*The New American Nation Series*]), Emory M. Thomas focuses squarely on Confederate nationhood. Thomas, a historian at the University of Georgia, is no neophyte to Confederate historiography. His first book, *The Confederate State of Richmond* (1971), is a pioneer work in Confederate urban history, a biography of the South's capital as an embattled city-state. In addition to numerous articles and a textbook on the Civil War, Thomas established his credentials as a historian of the Confederacy in 1971 with the publication of *The Confederacy as a Revolutionary Experience*. This provocative speculative essay argues that the Southland underwent a dual revolution in its transformation from the Old South to the Confederate South. On one level the Confederacy symbolized an external "revolt against Yankee ways and a Yankee Union." But the revolution got out of hand and surpassed the goals of even the most rabid Southern revolutionaries. It ushered in an internal revolution, one which altered substantially the warp and woof of Southern life.



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**FIGURE 1.** The Great Seal of the Confederate States of America. In their political rhetoric Confederate Southerners honored the Founding Fathers. They perceived themselves as heirs to the revolutionary tradition of Washington and Jefferson. Confederates stressed their devotion to the true principles of American democracy, principles, they argued, which had been distorted under Northern misrule. The Confederate seal was designed by Secretary of State Judah P. Benjamin and was adopted by the Confederate Congress in May, 1863. Significantly, it showed an equestrian portrait of George Washington (after the statue of Washington which surmounts the Capitol Square at Richmond), surrounded by a wreath of the South's agricultural staples — cotton, tobacco, sugar cane, corn, and wheat.

Thomas's latest book draws upon the concept of a dual revolution to explain Confederate nationalism from secession in 1860 and 1861 to submission in 1865. Like many historians of the South before him, Thomas emphasizes Southern distinctiveness, individualism, localism, and conservatism. He interprets secession as a means for Southerners "to define themselves as a people and to act out a national identity." "The essential fact of the Confederate experience," writes Thomas, "was that a sufficient number of white Southern Americans felt more Southern than American or, perhaps more accurately, that they were orthodox Americans and Northerners were apostates. Southern sectionalism became Southern nationalism and underwent trial by war."

One of the great ironies of Southern history is that secession — the region's external revolution — was essentially a conservative act. Southerners severed the Union and precipitated civil war in order to preserve and protect unique Southern institutions from encroachment. Although such root-and-branch radicals as Edmund Ruffin, Robert Barnwell Rhett, and William Lowndes Yancey had fueled the impulse for secession, the fire-eaters lost control of the Montgomery Convention and became mere "ornaments in the Confederate body politic." In their stead emerged moderate tacticians, men like Jefferson Davis and Alexander Stephens. These "sensible secessionists" envisioned themselves as nineteenth-century heirs to the revolutionary tradition of America's Founding Fathers.

The Confederacy's first heroes were George Washington and Thomas Jefferson. Both men were good Southerners, but better yet, great Americans. Confederate Southerners wished not to repudiate their historic ties with the American experience. Rather, they celebrated the American past and decided only reluctantly to leave the Union. Dragging forth Washington and Jefferson as models, Confederate leaders believed that they too were justified in dissolving a Lockean compact by force.

Implicit in Thomas's analysis of the Confederate revolution are themes examined first by historian Bernard Bailyn in his authoritative research into the ideological origins of the American Revolution. Just as the revolutionaries of 1776 claimed that George III's colonial policies had perverted the spirit of the English constitution, the Confederate revolutionaries of 1861 charged that Northerners were destroying the principles of American representative government. The Confederates revolted *not* because of any dislike for the American Constitution, but because they held it so dear and detested the manner in which it was being distorted under Northern leadership. Significantly, in spite of their numerous allusions to the Founding Fathers, the Confederates never proposed America's only real precedent for confederation, the Articles of Confederation.

The Confederate Constitution illustrates well the essential conservatism of the South's external revolution. Whereas radical states' rightists favored a constitution designed to extend and intensify the slaveholders' ideology, "safe," moderate voices prevailed. The resulting document, the Confederate Constitution, was less Southern than American in origin. In most respects it resembled the very Federal Constitution which the secessionists had allegedly repudiated. Curiously, for example, the founding fathers of the new planters' republic refused to provide for the re-opening of the African slave trade. Thomas sees their conservatism as the Confederates' foremost characteristic. After secession, he writes, the "Confederates did not believe they needed to make new worlds; they were more than content with the world they already had." Their fundamental goal was not a break with the past, but rather the preservation of the Southern status quo.

War, however, altered drastically the entire nature of the Confederate experiment. After the attack upon Fort Sumter, Southern leaders no longer could speak in idealistic terms of a peaceful separation from the Union or of the Confederacy as simply an alternative nationality. War placed such strains on the fabric of the Confederacy that it occasioned the radical, internal revolt which ultimately rocked the Southern ship of state from its moorings.

The seeds of the internal Confederate revolution lay first in the outbreak of war, and second in the Confederate Constitution itself. The preamble to that document spoke both of the Confederate States acting in their "sovereign and independent character," and of a "permanent federal government." Delegates to the Confederate Constitutional Convention in Montgomery were not unaware of the potential dilemma

posed by a clash of state and Confederate rights. But rather than confront the problem, they "were satisfied to affirm state sovereignty in general terms and trust future generations to understand the meaning of the phrase." War, however, made the future the present. Designed to function during peacetime, the loose confederation of Southern states faltered terribly after the Confederacy's initial victory at Manassas.

Better than any previous historian, Thomas places the string of Confederate military setbacks and bungled campaigns, July, 1861-April, 1862, into the context of Confederate nationalism. During the early months of 1862 the Confederacy was clearly foundering as a result of its commitment to states' rights. "Southerners," writes Thomas, "had tried to act like a nation and had failed." During the first year of its existence as a nation, the Confederacy "had been an incarnation of the Old South, and as such the Old South had been tried and found wanting. Southerners found that Confederate national survival and rigid adherence to ante-bellum Southern ideology were mutually exclusive. The ante-bellum South could not metamorphose into the 'bellum' South without some fundamental alterations in its cherished way of life."

Thomas credits Jefferson Davis's positive and creative leadership with holding the key to Confederate survival for three additional years. With the support of the Confederate Congress, the President initiated a series of novel steps which transformed Davis's nation from a land steeped in the traditions of the Old South, to a revolutionary Confederate South, "distinct from the Souths that came before and after." During this second phase of the Southern revolt, the locus of Confederate power was in Richmond, no longer in eleven provincial state houses. The war against the Yankee invaders was conducted on a national level with strong centralized leadership provided by the President. Centralization, a sharp move away from states' rights and the ethos of the individual, became the Confederate way of life after 1862. Not only did the Davis regime come to control the South's military-agricultural-industrial complex, but it taxed, impressed supplies and laborers, and regulated foreign trade. Davis and the Confederate government even resorted to such infringements of personal liberties as the suspension of the writ of *habeas corpus*, the power to declare martial law, and conscription. In 1865, as a last ditch effort to provide men for the South's decimated armies, Congress authorized the arming of blacks as soldiers. Their willingness to sacrifice slavery — the South's sacred cow and cornerstone of the region's socio-economic system — revealed just how far Confederate nationalism had changed in the course of the war. Davis's all-consuming quest for Southern independence, Confederate self-determination, led the President to repudiate many of the principles upon which his new nation had been founded. Equally important, the Confederacy's internal revolt forced changes in almost every aspect of Southern national life.

One of the most dramatic areas of social change within the Confederacy was the impact of the war on the master-slave relationship. Thomas draws heavily on Eugene D. Genovese's view of slavery as a seigniorial institution. It was a system of interdependency whereby the slaveholder depended upon the bondsman for labor and deference, and the slave upon his owner for paternal mastery and support. This reciprocal relationship may or may not have been stable during peacetime, but it unquestionably experienced severe strains during the Confederate war. Several forces worked to weaken the bonds between master and slave and, in turn, undermined the peculiar institution.

First, many masters served in the Confederate Army and their absence led to an overall decrease in white hegemony on the South's farms and plantations. "Substitute masters" — planters' wives, the elderly, overseers, and children — failed to provide the slaves with paternal control and, consequently, commanded less obedience from the slaves. Wartime shortages, the impressment of slaves, the presence of Union armies in rural districts, and the dramatic increase in the number of slaves in Southern cities also upset the traditional role of the master.

The exceptional circumstances of war prevented the planter from assuming the role of provider and master of all situations. As masters acted less like masters, slaves acted less like slaves. Thomas presents excellent case studies of the subtle and complex ways in which slavery changed under the pressures of war. Throughout the South, bondsmen began to break their chains either by running away or by less overt

means such as disrespectful or impudent behavior. Incredible planters suffered considerable pain as they watched helplessly their social system, and their world, crumble about them. On the question of slave resistance, Thomas is extremely careful not to distort his evidence. Slaves, in fact *did* fight against the Confederacy by assisting runaways and Union troops. In doing so they were working out their own liberation. On the other hand, though, the slaves never rose *en masse* against their captors. Some even exhibited paternalism, guarded their masters, and thus reversed the master-slave roles.

Thomas's analysis of black Confederates is but one of numerous strengths in his excellent book. The volume is exhaustively researched and gracefully written. Its conclusions are in the main carefully reasoned. The footnotes bristle with references to the latest Confederate scholarship and the book's fifty-page bibliography is the most comprehensive enumeration of Confederate historiography in print. Only one recent major work, James L. Roark's *Masters Without Slaves* (New York, 1977), is omitted.

Thomas surveys all phases of the Confederate experience — administrative, cultural, diplomatic, and military — in such a judicious manner that none seems disproportionate in emphasis. This is especially true of his superb military accounts which are analytical and insightful, not mere rehashes of well-known Civil War engagements.

Perhaps Thomas's greatest strength as a historian is his uncanny ability to penetrate below the surface of complex issues and render balanced judgments. When analyzing the Confederacy's offensive-defensive strategy, for example, he makes the important point that the measure of Confederate nationhood was not achieving military victory, but rather avoiding defeat. Endurance was the key to Confederate nationalism. Every day the Confederate government survived offered undeniable proof of Southern independence and the success of Davis's conservative revolt.

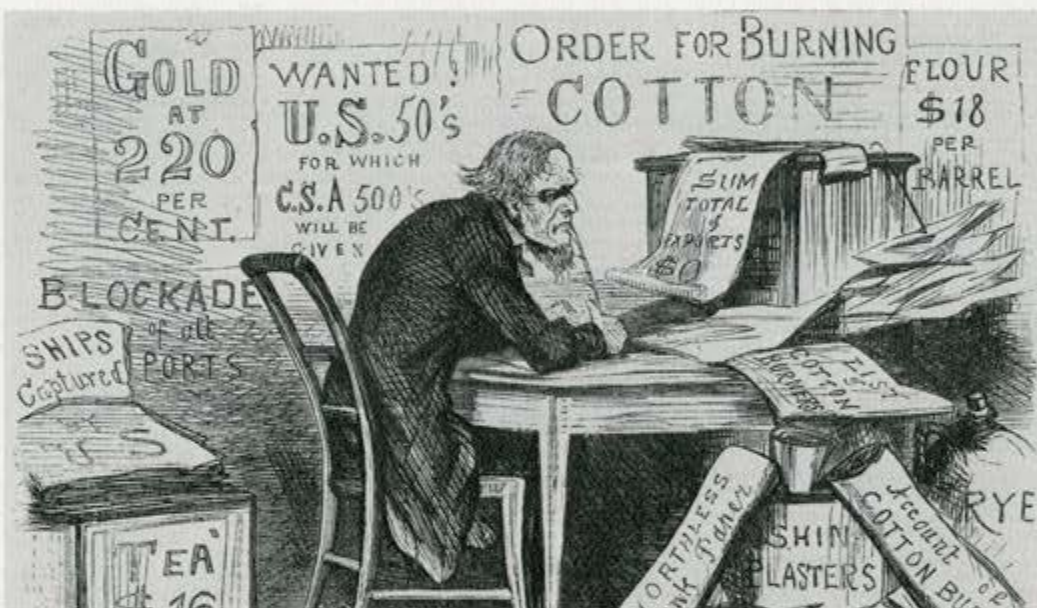
He also offers just appraisals of two of the Confederacy's most maligned figures: Treasury Secretary Christopher G. Memminger and Davis himself. Both men were criticized in their day by disgruntled Confederate editors and politicians. Through the years historians have heaped much of the blame for Southern defeat on their shoulders. Thomas, however, is sympathetic in his treatment of them. Memminger, he argues, was a victim of Confederate circumstance. Although the South Carolinian favored a system of direct taxation from the start, his wishes were stymied by the overwhelming financial needs of the new nation and the innate conservatism of states' rights ideology. Cognizant of "the folly of unsupported paper money," Memminger tried repeatedly to retire large quantities of Southern paper currency and thereby arrest inflation. The task, concludes Thomas, simply was too great.

His positive assessment of Davis is in line with the recent biography of the man by Clement Eaton and with Paul D. Escott's important new book, *After Secession: Jefferson Davis and the Failure of Confederate Nationalism* (Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1978). The new scholarship on Davis, while not eulogizing him as Hudson Strode did in his multi-volume biography, emphasizes the President's dedication, intelligence, and considerable flexibility. Although in many ways Davis remains a sphinx, historians no longer view him totally as an icy, snappish, doctrinaire constitutionalist.

What impresses Thomas most about Davis was the Mississippian's unflagging commitment to Confederate self-determination. Yet by February, 1865, when the Confederate Congress expressed its lack of confidence in his leadership,

the cause was already lost. "Davis," explains Thomas, "had tried to unify military command in himself, and although he had done so to a greater degree than his enemies, the Southern President had failed as a war leader, if only because he was losing the war." Even after Richmond had fallen, however, Davis refused to succumb to defeat and was ready to take to the hills to lead a guerilla war. The author notes that Davis's plan to fight till the end "reversed the normal pattern of guerilla operations and envisioned a transition from regular forces to partisans instead of the other way around." But an unconventional, irregular war proved unacceptable to a people who had already given so much of themselves in four years of strife. Southerners, concludes Thomas, were unprepared to offer "the ultimate sacrifice: that of themselves and their fundamental attachment to people and place."

Thomas undoubtedly is correct. There were limits to the lengths Southerners would go to win independence. But he merely speculates when he argues that the Confederates held a greater attachment to hearth and kin than did the Yankees. There simply is no way to prove or disprove an assertion such as this: "Confederates were conditioned to look upon land as the basis of wealth and social status. The culture of the Southern folk required a stable community of landholders." Could not the same sentences be applied to Northerners? Antebellum Northerners and Southerners worshiped land. In



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FIGURE 2. In his new book Emory M. Thomas sympathizes with the impossible fiscal problems faced by Confederate Treasury Secretaries Christopher G. Memminger and George Trenholm. This anti-Confederate cartoon appeared in *Harper's Weekly*, September 6, 1862, p. 576. It is clearly unsympathetic to Jefferson Davis's economic woes.

this respect, at least, the Southerner was an American, not a Southerner *sui generis*.

Thomas's thesis stems from David M. Potter's interpretation of Southern distinctiveness which appeared in the *Yale Review* almost twenty years ago. In "The Enigma of the South," Potter wrote that the South's "culture of the folk" was the region's most identifiable trait. According to Potter, historically "the relation between the land and the people remained more direct and more primal in the South than in other parts of the country." Potter, one of the most careful and distinguished historians of the South, advanced this thesis as one possible answer to a vexing enigma, not as dogma. Thomas, however, applies Potter's tentative explanation of Southernism uncritically and weds it to his own interpretation of Southern individualism.

Thomas's emphasis upon the individualism of Southerners and their unique characteristics leads him to make some provocative, though not completely defensible, arguments. Not only is this true of his treatment of the Confederacy's cultural and intellectual history, but of its military and economic history as well. The author's description of Pickett's assault on the Union center at Gettysburg is a good case in point. According to Thomas, the charge was "a gallant disaster. In a way it was the entire Confederate war in microcosm — a

gathering of clans instead of military organizations[,] led by an officer corps distinguished by its eccentricities, marching forth with bands playing and flags flying to take a gamble justified largely by the size of the stakes." Aside from the fact that Thomas fails to develop the ideas implicit in the terms "clans" and "eccentricities," might not similar words be used to describe the actions of Burnside and his Union troops at the Battle of Fredericksburg?

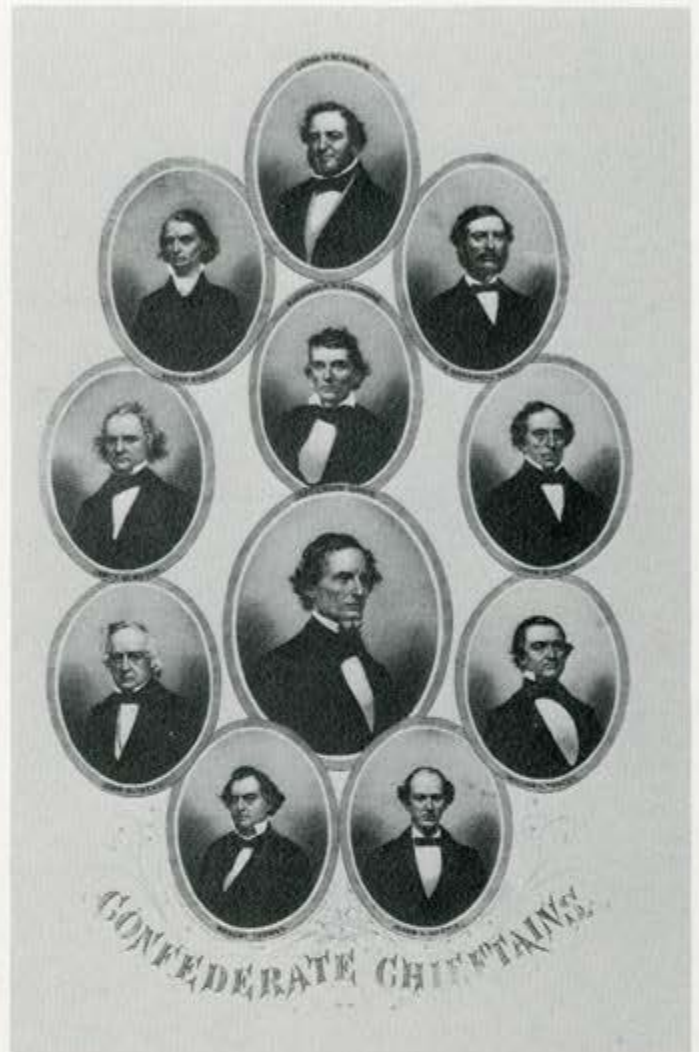
In another instance, an interesting analysis of the Confederacy's industrialists, Thomas espouses the distinctiveness of the South's captains of industry. Employing Antonio Gramsci's distinctions between types of intellectuals, Thomas argues that the leaders of the South's war industries "were hardly entrepreneurs whose acquisitive instincts fit the Yankee stereotype. On the contrary, the South's war industrialists tended to be 'traditional intellectuals' — school teachers, natural philosophers, and military scientists — as opposed to 'organic intellectuals' — industrial managers, mechanical engineers, and the like." His point would be far more convincing had Thomas examined the antebellum backgrounds of a large number of Confederate industrialists. Instead, he analyzed the postbellum careers of but five figures, too small a sample from which to draw overall conclusions. A real test of Thomas's hypothesis would have been the sort of collective biographical research conducted recently by Maury Klein into Northern Civil War industrialists.

Thomas's treatment of Confederate economic history raises additional questions as well. First, throughout his volume the author equates "preindustrial" with "precapitalist." Eugene



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**FIGURE 3.** In the waning days of the Civil War some Confederates proposed granting dictatorial powers to General Robert E. Lee. One of the South's most beloved figures, Lee joined the Confederate Army reluctantly, only after his native state, Virginia, had seceded.



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**FIGURE 4.** A Mississippi planter, Jefferson Davis surrounded himself with fellow members of the Southern elite. In the process he alienated the South's plain folk.

D. Genovese's important scholarship notwithstanding, cannot a region such as the Old South be simultaneously agricultural and still capitalist? Given Thomas's use of these terms, the Old North — largely agricultural but more industrialized than the Old South — would be precapitalist too. Part of Thomas's problem is that Confederate agriculture (the same may be said for Confederate religion) has not received the careful attention from scholars which it deserves. Students, for example, must test his conclusion that "The Confederates sustained themselves industrially better than they did agriculturally and far better than they had any reason to expect in 1861." Much more also needs to be learned about the economic condition of the Southern masses during the war. Although Thomas does not neglect consideration of the ordinary Confederates, the nonslaveholding yeomen and urban dwellers, our knowledge of this majority of Southerners is thin. Paul D. Escott's new book is a major step in the right direction. According to Escott, President Davis's greatest blunder was his insensitivity to the economic problems of the South's plain folk. Limited by his states' rights critics and his upper class perspective, the Confederate chief executive proved unable "to create the internal unity and spirit essential for the growth of Confederate nationalism."

Despite these strictures, Thomas has produced the best book on the Confederacy to appear in years. This is no mean feat because such outstanding Southern historians as E. Merton Coulter, Clement Eaton, Charles P. Roland, and Frank E. Vandiver have contributed valuable monographs on the subject. Thomas brings a mastery of the sources and a keen analytical mind to the task. He has established himself as the foremost interpreter of the Confederacy, the South's national experience.