The Postmaster and the General

The OSS in Catoctin Mountain Park

Special Orders 191

Plus

We Say Our Good-bye
Farewell from *Catoctin History*

Dear Readers,

With this 12th issue, *Catoctin History* reaches its final hour. In June, the Catoctin Center for Regional Studies will close its doors permanently, and *Catoctin History* will cease publication.

Publishing these twelve issues has taken us on an exciting and enlightening journey through our region’s history. From 2002 to 2014, we have worked with professional scholars, budding historians, a hard-working team of interns, and an incredible designer. Our reward was that we were always learning, and our special thrill was to share it with our readers. To all of you, then, we say a special thank you for your interest in history, for your support of the magazine, and, at times, for your patience over the years.

We wish to thank our authors, all of whom allowed us to publish their work free of charge; the individuals and institutions who gave us permission to use photographs and images; our many talented student interns who worked on all aspects of the magazine; and Perk Hull, our amazing designer. Special thanks go to the organizations, institutions, and individuals that provided financial support for the publication of *Catoctin History*. We are particularly grateful to our two sponsoring organizations, Frederick Community College and the National Park Service.

While the end of *Catoctin History* is indeed the end of a chapter, it is not the end of the story, for much of the history of the Catoctin region remains to be discovered. As we turn the final page on *Catoctin History*, we do it in the hope you will continue to pursue those stories still waiting to be told.

*Catoctin History* will live on in a fashion, thanks to Frederick Community College, as digital copies of all twelve issues will be available at [http://catoctinhistory.frederick.edu](http://catoctinhistory.frederick.edu).

Our award-winning new website about the Civil War era, “Crossroads of War: Maryland and the Border in the Civil War,” will also continue to be available at [www.crossroadsofwar.org](http://www.crossroadsofwar.org).

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Edward Braddock. (COURTESY OF LIBRARY OF CONGRESS)
A WORLD WAR II SECRET:
The OSS in Catoctin Mountain Park

John Whiteclay Chambers II

The OSS of WWII was the direct predecessor of the Central Intelligence Agency.

The OSS in Catoctin Mountain Park

The first commander at Area B was Major Ainsworth Blogg, a reserve Army officer in the Military Police recruited by OSS in the spring of 1942. Special Operations trainees arrived at Catoctin in late April 1942. This group, known as Detachment 101, consisted of officers and enlisted men destined for India and the mountainous jungles of northern Burma. Their purpose was to organize guerrilla units of native Kachin tribesmen to harass Japanese lines of communication and supply. By the end of the war, Detachment 101 was one of the most successful of Donovan’s guerrilla organizations. It was credited with mobilizing 11,000 Kachins and providing strategic support for regular combat operations that helped defeat the Japanese in Burma.11

To prepare these men, the OSS built obstacle courses and physical training areas, target ranges for various types of small arms—American, British, German and Japanese pistols, carbines, rifles, submachine guns—as well as grenade, mort
Nearby, a small darkened building known as the “House of Horrors” was specially constructed without windows and filled with wobbly walkways, moving objects, sound effects, flashing lights, and other surprises. Instructors took individual students there at night, gave them a loaded pistol, and sent them inside. It provided a stressful, quasi-realistic combat environment that tested their reactions, increased their focus and self-control, and boosted their self-confidence. Years later Edgar A. Prichard, who in 1942 was first to go in Area B, recalled the experience:

Each of us over a period of a couple of days would be awakened in the middle of the night and hauled off to carry out a special mission. When it came my time, I was told that there was a Nazi soldier holed up in a building and that it was my job to go in and kill him. I was given a 45 and two clips of ammunition. The house I was sent into was a log house with long corridors and stairways. I wasn’t sure whether there really

was a Nazi soldier there or not. I kicked a door open with my gun at the ready. Paper targets with photographs of uniformed German soldiers jumped out at me from every corner and every window and doorway. We had been taught to always fire two shots at the target. There might be more than one target because I got two bullets in each one. The last one was a dummy sitting in a chair with a lighted cigarette in his hand. If you didn’t shoot him you failed the test.11

Instructors taught students the arts of spycraft, raiding, and sabotage. Espionage training included knowledge of enemy armies, policies, and procedures, plus instruction in how to create disguises, recruit indigenous agents, use miniature cameras, and conceal microfilm. For self-defense, students practiced Ju-Jitsu and also “instinctive fire,” getting off two quick shots at a time with a pistol from a crouched position. For attack missions, they learned hit-and-run raiding techniques as well as how to use explosive devices and timed fuses for sabotage.14 Students tested different explosives and fuses on pieces of iron, steel, and wood as practice for blowing up bridges, dams, railroad radio towers or power plants. One innovation of the OSS Research and Development Branch was a concoction nick-named “Aunt Jemima,” which looked like flour packed in sacks. With a fuse attached, however, “Aunt Jemima” became an explosive that could sever steel pillars in a bridge.23

As the month-long training at Area B progressed, the intensity increased. “By the end of November [1943], our training at Area B was about to become a grueling marathon,” Lieutenant John K. (“Jack”) Singlaub later wrote.

We fired American, British and German weapons almost every day. We crawled through rain-soaked oak forests at night to plant live demolition charges on floodlit sheds. We were introduced to clandestine radio plants, photographed out code and encrypting messages in our few spare moments. Many mornings began with a run, followed by a passage on an increasingly sophisticated and dangerous obstacle course. The explosive charges under rope bridges and wire catwalks no longer exploded on one side as exciting stage effects. Now they blasted directly below a moment or two after we had passed.15

Paramilitary training could be dangerous. In 1942, a Secret Intelligence trainee triggered a trip wire on a demolition trail at Area B. The wire set off a block of TNT that sent a thick chunk of tree branch hurtling through the air, hitting him in the face and breaking his jaw. The trainee was thirty-year-old William J. Casey, who subsequently went on to run OSS espionage networks in Nazi Germany in 1945 and who, nearly forty years later, would be named Director of the Central Intelligence Agency by President Ronald Reagan.20

In 1943 and 1944, Catocin Mountain Park became the site of an advanced training facility for OSS’s new Operational Groups (OGs). These were guerrilla-style commando units composed mainly of ethnic Americans already familiar with the language and customs of the country into which they would parachute. OSS had French, Italian, Greek, Yugoslavian, Norwegian, and German Operational Groups, mostly drawn from men who had already had basic training in the wartime U.S. Army. Each country-specific OG consisted usually of one hundred to two hundred men, although the French and Italian OGs numbered several hundred. Teams of fifteen to thirty-four, composed of commissioned officers and non-commissioned officers, one or two radio operators, and medical teams, were dropped deep behind enemy lines. There, operating from woods, mountains, or jungles, they would organize, supply, and lead indigenous guerrilla bands in hit and run missions to harass or sever communication and supply lines and divert substantial numbers of enemy troops.21

While these Operational Groups trained as units, the Special Operations or Secret Intelligence forces learned to work as individual agents or in two- or three-man teams. Special Operations and Secret Intelligence trainees concluded their training with a practice under cover oper-
The following year, several Eastern-European Americans who trained at Area B were sent to support an anti-Nazi uprising in Czechoslovakia. They were caught, tortured, and executed at the Mauthausen concentration camp in Austria after the German Army had brutally crushed the Slovakian uprising. OSS teams from Area B carried out missions in the Pacific theater as well. Major Frank Gleason, an Army engineer and former demolitions instructor at Area B, arrived in China in 1943 and, along with fellow instructors from Area B instructors Arden Dow and Charles Parkin, began training Chinese commandos. When the Japanese Army marched toward Allied headquarters at Chinese, Arden Dow and Charles Parkin were transferred to China, where he led a Chinese team in destroying a heavily guarded Japanese railroad bridge across the Yellow River. Cyr’s team destroyed the mile-long bridge at night just as a Japanese troop train was crossing it, and the locomotive and twenty cars with some two thousand enemy soldiers aboard plunged into the waters below. With the sudden end of the war on the Far East, small, daring OSS training camps at Area B led rescue missions, parachuting into Japanese-run POW camps to prevent atrocities from being committed on the Allied prisoners. 

The level of secrecy attached to the OSS training camp on Catoctin Mountain required that instructors, staffers, and trainees maintain their secrecy while on leave. “When we would go downtown, people would ask us where we were stationed. We would tell them Camp Ritchie [at Cascade, Maryland] or Fort Detrick [at Frederick, Maryland],” recalled Al Gooy, assistant company clerk. Lieutenant Paul Cyr trained at Areas B and F, and won a Distinguished Service Cross for heroism as a staff member of the United States Service Organization (USO). “We had a hell of a time” at the dance halls, recalled Seaman Spiro Cappony, 19, an OSS radio operator. When staff members from Area B got a pass for an entire weekend, they often headed for Washington, D.C. Arriving in Frederick in a covered army truck, the enlisted men would take a commercial bus or hitchhike to Washington and back. Following the D-Day invasion in France, with Operational Groups already trained and deployed in Europe, the OSS shifted its main effort to the Far East and established new training camps on the West Coast. In June 1944 Donovan’s organization terminated its use of Area B in Catoctin Mountain Training School, and the buildings and the trainin ground that had been used for military exercises were turned over to the Army’s Intelligence School at nearby Camp Ritchie, which had periodically held field exercises there since 1942. The purely military training camp at Area B-2 was used by the Marine Corps for the rehabilitation of returning veterans from January 1946 until March 1947. When the Marines departed in the spring of 1947, the park returned to civilian control for the first time in five years. During World War II, OSS operations overseas had impressed a number of American officials. These included General Dwight D. Eisenhower, who wrote in May 1945 that the value of the OSS “has been so great that there should be no thought of its elimination.” Despite Eisenhower’s concerns, however, the OSS was disbanded in September 1945 by President Truman.

The process of returning Catoctin Mountain Park to civilian use took months. In November 1945, the War Department declared that the park was no longer needed for defense purposes. The park needed to be restored to its prewar condition, however.

Under Superintendent Mike Williams’ supervision, the Army Engineers from Camp Ritchie eliminated the military OSS facilities: the munitions storage, the firing ranges, the demolition and obstacle courses, the “trainazium,” and the “House of Horror.” They also relocated and removed unexploded mortar shells, grenades, and booby-traps remaining from military exercises, although occasionally a fragment would resurface long after the war in the undeveloped northwest area of the park.

The military’s heavy trucks had caused considerable damage to the mountain roads. Construction on a new road from Thurmont to Hagerstown, eventually designated Route 77, began in the spring of 1944. The main entrance to the park, which had been the entrance to the OSS camp, was transferred from Deerfield, near the old railroad station at Lantz on the north side, to the current entrance on Route 77 on the south slope of the mountain.

Catoctin Mountain Park reopened to the public eighteen months after the end of World War II. The decision to retain Catoctin Mountain Park in the federal system was made by President Truman because of the wishes of the late President Roosevelt and because of “the historical events of national and international interest” associated with it. In 1954, in response to Maryland officials and local hunters, fishermen, and other sports enthusiasts, the National Park Service eventually re-opened the park, approximately 4,450 acres south of Route 77, to the State of Maryland. This area became Cunningham Falls State Park.

Although the purely military structures built by the OSS in Catoctin Mountain Park are gone, most of the original structures built at Greentop by the New Deal agencies in the 1930s, which were part of the OSS’s Training Area B-2, continue today in civilian use. Greentop is used by the League for the Disabled, formerly the Maryland League for Crippled Children, as well as by some local schools and scout groups. Misty Mount, site of the Marine garrison for most of the war, hosted local Girl Scouts and public school programs for years; more recently it has been used by the city’s Job Corps. Round Meadow, the former CCC work camp which became OSS Area B-5, now includes one of the park’s maintenance facilities. Round Meadow became the first Job Corps Camp in the nation in 1965 and served as a residential camp for the Youth Conservation Corps during most of the 1970s. A secured area of the park contains Camp David. 

The military training camp at Catoctin Mountain Park was closed, but its memory lives on. It has only been in recent years that people have begun to learn the full story of the OSS and the secret training camp at Catoctin Mountain Park. It is a story of spies, sabotage, and guerrilla leaders who began their training in the peaceful campgrounds of Catoctin Mountain Park and who went forth, often deep behind enemy lines, to a covert war to defeat the Axis Powers, a war from which some of them would never return. It is a story worth remembering and commemo- rating.

John Whiteclay Chambers II is Professor of History at Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey, and author most recently of OSS Training in the National Parks and Service Abroad in World War II (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, 2008), readable at [http://www.nps.gov/history/online_books/oss/index.htm](http://www.nps.gov/history/online_books/oss/index.htm)
The park was then known as Catoctin Recreational Demonstration Area (now Catoctin Mountain Park). It was established by an act of Congress on March 3, 1916, as part of the National Park Service.

Local residents had recognized the presidential motorcade arriving on some summer weekends, and even before World War II, local residents, such as D. Roosevelt had established a secure retreat in one of the areas of the park, which was just a short distance from Thurmont, Maryland. Telephone interview with the author, June 13, 2006.

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On the morning of September 13, 1862, Union soldiers on a skirmish line near Frederick, Maryland, found what appeared to be an official Confederate document and immediately took it to their commander, who sent it up the Union chain of command. This document, known to history as Special Orders 191, gave the Union commander General George B. McClellan crucial information about the location and future movement of Confederate commander General Robert E. Lee’s army. Armed with the information in Orders 191, McClellan set his own army in motion and precipitated the Battles of South Mountain and Antietam.

LEE MOVES INTO MARYLAND

Taking advantage of the Confederate victory at Second Manassas in Virginia in late August 1862, General Robert E. Lee led his army across the Potomac River into Maryland, intent on drawing the Union army away from Washington and into a battle he believed he could win. By taking the war into the North and winning a battle there, Lee hoped to damage Union morale and encourage antiwar sentiment in the North. With a victory on Union soil, he also hoped to encourage the European powers, particularly Great Britain, to recognize the Confederacy as a separate nation and intervene in the conflict. Thus, in early September Lee’s army entered Maryland east of the Blue Ridge Mountains to threaten Washington and Baltimore and force the evacuation of the stranded garrisons at Martinsburg and Harpers Ferry. This would allow Lee to shift his communications to routes through the Shenandoah Valley. Lee also planned to destroy area railroads to cut Washington off from the rest of the country. The Confederate army began crossing the Potomac on September 4, 1862.1

By September 7, the Confederate Army was camped on the Best Farm, approximately three miles south of Frederick City, and now part of Monocacy National Battlefield. It was obvious the Confederate army had been in a hard campaign. General John Robert Jones, a division commander in Jackson’s command, said, “Never has the army been so dirty, ragged, and ill-provided for as on this march.” Regardless, they were victorious at Second Manassas and came into Maryland with high spirits, many believing Marylanders would rally to their flag. In this they would be disappointed for they met with a cool reception; only 130 men from Frederick and 40 from Middletown joined the Confederate army. This can be attributed to the part of Maryland they entered, which was largely Unionist. Had they been in counties further east and south, they would have enjoyed a warmer reception.2

While camped at the Best Farm, Lee learned that Harpers Ferry and Martinsburg had not evacuated as he had hoped, so he formulated a plan which would force them to surrender. His plan was to divide his army to take the garrisons, then reconsolidate and march north into Pennsylvania, where he could bring McClellan to battle on a field of his choosing. Brigadier General John G. Walker wrote after the war about a conversation with Lee concerning his plan to split the army, during which Lee replied, “Are you acquainted with General McClellan? He is an able general but a very cautious one. His army is in a very demoralized and chaotic condition, and will not be prepared for offensive operation – or he will not think it so – for three or four weeks. Before that time I hope to be on the Susquehanna.”3

SPECIAL ORDERS 191 AND HARPERS FERRY

On September 9, after meeting with Major General Thomas “Stonewall” Jackson, Lee ordered Robert Hall Chilton, his assistant adjutant general, to write and distribute his orders regarding the army’s movements over the next several days. That document is Special Orders 191.

Confederate cavalry cross the Georgetown Pike Bridge over the Monocacy River in September 1862. (Francis H. Schell, artist)
Another member of Lee’s staff, Walter Taylor, wrote in his memoirs that he was not present to “supervise the promulgation” of the orders, suggesting that he was normally responsible for the administrative duties attendant upon the issuance of orders, i.e., making copies, overseeing delivery, and verifying receipt of orders. This may explain some of the confusion surrounding the delivery and absence of a paper trail that would normally follow the issuance of orders.4

The orders specified the planned movements of Lee’s army for the following three days (September 10–12), splitting Lee’s army, and explaining each assignment.

- Major General Jackson, with three divisions, was to lead the advance through Middletown, Maryland, on to Sharpsburg, Maryland, and across the Potomac. There he was to take control of the B&O Railroad, capture the Federal garrison at Martinsburg, Virginia, then move toward Harpers Ferry, Virginia.
- Major General Lafayette McLaws, with two divisions, was to take Maryland Heights, a promontory which dominates Harpers Ferry from the north, and attempt to capture the garrison.
- Brigadier General John G. Walker, with another division, was to take Loudoun Heights, south of Harpers Ferry, then assist McLaws and Jackson in capturing the garrison.
- Major General James Ewell Brown “Jeb” Stuart, Lee’s cavalry commander, was to detach a squadron of cavalry to accompany Longstreet, Jackson, and McLaws. The main body of the cavalry was to cover the rear of the army, bring up stragglers, and watch for the advancing enemy.
- Major General Daniel Harvey Hill, with his division, was to be the rear guard of the army.
- Major General James Longstreet, with the remainder of the army and the supply and baggage trains, was to march west to Boonsboro, Maryland, across South Mountain. Lee would move with Longstreet.

Chilton initially made seven copies of the orders for Jackson, Longstreet, Walker, Stuart, McLaws, Taylor, and a file copy for Confederate President Jefferson Davis. When the copies of Orders 191 were initially written, D.H. Hill fell under the command of Jackson. As such, he received a copy directly from Jackson. Special Orders 191, however, defined Hill’s new role as an independent commander and Chilton took it upon himself to pencil Hill a copy as well. The confusion surrounding the loss of the orders began when Chilton sent the additional copy. Hill was sent orders from Jackson, which he kept, and from Chilton, which he said he never received. That copy is the “Lost Orders.”6

UNION ARMY ON THE MOVE

The Union military in the East was in disarray after the Battle of Second Manassas. After an overwhelming defeat, General McClellan had the task of combining two armies, the Army of the Potomac, which he commanded and had just returned from an unsuccessful siege of Richmond, and that of General John Pope, who had been defeated at Second Manassas. Then, he had to move the reorganized army out of Washington and find Lee. In addition, General Henry Halleck, the Union General-in-Chief, feared Lee might draw McClellan and the army away from Washington, then turn and attack the city. Thus, McClellan had to move somewhat carefully, making sure to cover Washington.7

On September 12, the day before Special Orders 191 was found, McClellan was still unsure of the Confederate movements after their occupation of Frederick. Union General Ambrose Burnside, on the right wing of the Union army, entered Frederick from the National Road and skirmished with the Confederate rear guard on the outskirts of Frederick while Union General Jacob Cox’s Kanawha Division fought with the rear guard of the Confederates in downtown Frederick. On September 13, as the remainder of the Union army entered Frederick, McClellan’s luck changed when soldiers of the 27th Indiana Volunteer Infantry found the lost orders.8

SPECIAL ORDERS 191 IS FOUND

Soldiers on a skirmish line from Company F, 27th Indiana Volunteer Infantry, found Special Orders 191 as they were resting from their early morning march. Tracking the movements of the 27th is the most likely way to locate where they found the orders. Ezra Carman’s manuscript and his annotated maps of “The Maryland Campaign of 1862,” Edmond Brown’s, The Twenty-Seventh Confederate General Robert E. Lee

Union General George B. McClellan

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Indian Volunteer Infantry In The War of the Rebellion 1861-1865, and soldiers’ interviews and letters are the most valuable sources to use in reconstructing where the orders were found. Ezra Carman was a Colonel in the 13th New Jersey Volunteer Infantry, attached to the XII Corps during the 1862 Maryland Campaign. In the 1890s, as part of the Antietam Battlefield Board, he was tasked with creating a map to show terrain and troop positions during the battle, and create a report on the Battle of Antietam. Carman had been collecting research on the Antietam Campaign since the battle, even returning to the battlefield in November 1862 to interview soldiers and civilians. Edmond Brown was a corporal in Company C, 27th Indiana Volunteer Infantry, and a participant in the Antietam campaign. Brown’s work has been the most quoted source of documentation and interpretation related to the finding of the lost orders. However, while it gives a detailed description of the regiment’s movements prior to crossing the Monocacy River, Orders 191 was found after they crossed the river, which is where Brown’s story becomes vague and Carman’s annotated maps were used to provide additional details.

On the 13th September we moved by the direct road to Frederick, this took us immediately past Mr. Clay’s house, in whose orchard we had camped the previous December. Looking northward, we could plainly see our deserted cabins of the previous winter. The bulk of Lee’s army had been at Frederick up to a very recent period. We were likely at the time to encounter rebel scouts or outposts. The 27th led the column, expecting at any moment to sight an enemy. There being no bridge over the Monocacy on this road, we fured that stream. The water was only knee deep and warm, so it was no hardship. When we emerged from the timber east of the Monocacy, we saw smoke rising from several pieces of artillery engaged in the open country west of Frederick.

The 27th Indiana’s movements can be found on the Carman’s maps, from their camp at Ijamsville Crossroads on the night of September 12 through their march on the 13th on the Ijamsville Road. South of that road, not far from Ijamsville, was the Clay Farm where they had camped the previous December, and north of the road was the Hoffman Farm where they had wintered. There was no bridge at Crum’s Ford at the time, and given the detailed description that Brown gave about their movements prior to crossing the river, he would have likely mentioned that the bridge had been destroyed had they crossed at Monocacy Junction. Confederate General D. H. Hill destroyed both the B&O Railroad Bridge and the covered wooden bridge over the Monocacy on September 8-9.

Once the 27th crossed the river, however, Brown’s description fades. An assumption has been made that the regiment, along with the rest of the XII Corps, continued on this road and into Frederick; this would indeed have put the finding of the orders on the east side of Frederick. However, according to the movements of the XII Corps on Carman’s maps, on September 13 the corps had moved to the Georgetown Pike, just south of the city, which aligns with the soldier’s descriptions of converging lines on the outskirts of the city. During the Civil War a secondary road stretched from Crum’s Ford across farm fields to the Georgetown Pike, it is conceivable that the soldiers used this secondary road to cut south toward the Georgetown Pike.

In the post-war years soldiers of the 27th Indiana were called upon to provide affidavits about the circumstances surrounding the finding of the orders. The differences in their accounts are understandable considering many were conducted around turn of the century, forty years after the event. A few letters about the march that day still exist as well. According to interviews and letters, on the morning of September 13, 1862, the 27th Indiana was up for reveille around 3:00 a.m. and began their march at approximately 6:00 a.m. In a war-time letter home, Major Charles J. Mill wrote, “… came on to where I am now writing, a field about half a mile from Frederick, which the rebs have evacuated.” He said they heard firing all morning. General Burnside was believed to be driving back the enemy. Sergeant John M. Bloss said they were expecting an engagement with the enemy and his Company F was on the skirmish line and said the company “Moved forward out to discover no enemy and halted near the city limits in a meadow; it was a warm morning and when we halted we threw ourselves on the ground to rest.” George W. Welch, Company E, remembered camping in an old meadow that had been occupied the day before by D.H. Hill. A few other soldiers noted that they were in Hill’s camp; however, an assumption could have been made that since Hill’s name was on the orders, it must have been his camp. Bloss, who was wounded at Antietam, wrote a letter from a field hospital thirteen days after Orders 191 was found. Bloss’ letter and description is the primary source written closest to the time of the event, making it the most reliable information yet. In this unpublished letter, Bloss gives a few details about the finding of the orders. He said that the orders were found in a wheat field, under a locust tree, with two cigars.

Once discovered, Orders 191 was sent up the 27th Indiana’s chain of command to Captain Peter Kop, Colonel Silas Colgrove, then to General Alpheus Starkey Williams, commander of the XII Corps. In an interesting twist of fate, Williams’ acting adjutant general, Samuel E. Pittman, authenticated the orders by identifying Chilton’s signature. Prior to the war Pittman had been a teller at Michigan State Bank in Detroit at the same time Chilton was paymaster for the artillery. As paymaster, Chilton kept an account at the bank and Pittman was familiar with his signature from checks and account records.
McCLLELLAN MOVES BASED ON ORDERS 191

McCllellan received the orders by mid-day on September 13. At 8:00 p.m. he sent the orders to his cavalry chief, General Alfred Pleasonton, and told him to find out if the Confederate movements in the orders had been followed. In a 6:20 p.m. message to VI Corps commander General William Buel Franklin, McCllellan informed him about the orders and what he was able to discern about how closely they had been followed. McCllellan also let Franklin know that Pleasonton had skirmered in Middletown and occupied the town. Also, Burnside’s command, including Hooker’s corps, was marching that evening and early in the morning toward Boonsboro, followed by Sumner, Banks, and Sykes’ division. He wanted Franklin to move at daybreak by way of Jefferson and Burkittsville toward Rohnersville. His intention was to cut the Confederate Army in two.10

McCllellan undoubtedly was pleased to inform Lincoln, “I have the whole rebel force in front of me, but am confident, and no time shall be lost…. I think Lee has made a gross mistake of me, but am confident, and no time shall be lost…. I have all the plans of the Rebels and will cancel them as soon as poss…[illegible] my men are equal to the emergency.…”14

Lee was surprised that the Union army was moving quicker than anticipated, and by McCllellan’s sudden change in tactics after the Union army arrived in Frederick. When Lee learned sometime after the Maryland Campaign about the lost orders he understood what happened, laying it allowed McCllellan “to discover my whereabouts and cause him to act as to force a battle on me before I was ready for it…. I would have had all my troops reconcentrated…stragglers up, men rested and intended then to attack.” The importance of finding Orders 191 was increased by the delay in the fall of Harpers Ferry. Jackson’s operation in Harpers Ferry was three days behind schedule. If Jackson had been on schedule, the finding of the orders would have had an even greater impact on McCllellan. The fact that Jackson was behind schedule and the operation still active made the orders invaluable information. McCllellan moved his army quicker than the Confederates anticipated, forcing Lee into battles at South Mountain and Antietam instead of allowing him the opportunity to choose his own location and time.15

The lost orders captured the attention of veterans after the Civil War and the circumstances surrounding the finding of the orders continue to be of interest to Civil War historians and enthusiasts today. Historians have been left with the task of deciphering fact from fiction in what has been written about the orders, particularly with primary sources that in many cases were written twenty to forty years after the actual event. How well McCllellan used this important information continues to be debated among historians; however, it is clear that McCllellan sent orders to his commanders and moved his army quicker and with much more confidence about the Confederate army’s location than he had up to that point in the campaign, surprising Lee with the swiftness of his movements, and thus halting Lee’s plan. One can only imagine the excitement the soldiers of the 27th Indiana felt when they realized what they had found in that field. That discovery, combined with the delay at Harpers Ferry, changed the direction of the campaign and the war.

Tracy Evans came to Monocacy National Battlefield during her undergraduate studies as an intern, and returned as a seasonal park ranger. She is currently part of the permanent staff, serving as an interpreter and curator.

7 Carman, The Maryland Campaign of September 1862, 181, 190.
8 OR 19, pt. 2, 42; 270; Stephen W. Sears, Landscape Turned Red, the Battle of Antietam (New York: Ticknor and Fields, 1988), 110-111.
9 Carman, The Maryland Campaign of September 1862, loc. cit.; R.L. Brown, The Twenty-Seventh Indiana Volunteer Infantry in the War of the Rebellion 1861-1865, First Division 12th and 20th Corps (Gathebridge, MD, 1899), 228, 580.
11 John McKnight Bliss, Letter written from the barn hospital at Antietam, September 25, 1862, Bliss Family Papers, Pennsylvania Historical and Museum Commission, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.
13 OR 19, pt. 2, 45-46; Sears, Landscape Turned Red, 118.
14 OR 19, pt. 2, 389.
The Postmaster and the General: Benjamin Franklin and Edward Braddock in Frederick

Stephen Powell

In the third week of April in 1755 the paths of two men with careers seemingly on the ascendency crossed in the relatively new colonial settlement of Frederick Town in Maryland. It was wagons and horses, or more accurately, the lack of them that brought General Edward Braddock and Benjamin Franklin together in Frederick. Braddock had been sent by British King George II to restore British authority west of the Appalachian Mountains, authority that had been lost the year before when the French and Indians soundly crushed George Washington at Fort Necessity. Braddock’s objective was to capture Fort Duquesne, the staging ground for many French attacks on the British colonial frontier. Franklin’s role was to procure the necessary wagons, horses, and supplies. Only one of these men would be successful.

General Braddock arrived in Alexandria, Virginia in early February 1755. He met with Governor Robert Dinwiddie of Virginia and Governor Horatio Sharpe of Maryland, who together promised that 250 wagons and 2,500 horses for the expedition would be waiting for Braddock in Winchester, Virginia. Braddock began his march west in April, reaching Frederick, Maryland around April 20. As he prepared to march south-west towards Winchester, Braddock learned that he was to be presented with twenty wagons and two hundred horses, a fraction of what he had been promised. Outraged over the unwillingness of the colonists to support his expedition, Braddock halted in Frederick for several days to fume about colonial ingratitude and obstinacy – at one point he raged that he had “met with very few instances of ability or honesty in the [colonial] persons” he had to deal with – and to address his transportation problems.1

Although Braddock blamed colonial “lies and villainy”2 for his troubles, Governor Sharpe offered another reason for the refusal of at least the Maryland colonists to provide the wagons and horses. Braddock expected the colonists to provide not only supplies but also men to support his British soldiers during the Duquesne expedition.3 What he found, however, was that very few freedmen were interested. So Braddock turned to another source of labor: indentured servants. Governor Sharpe tried to dissuade him from pursuing this option, but was unsuccessful: “The General, still finding the Regiments incomplete, gave orders for recruiting Servants. This I

...
Franklin took liberties with this advertisement, claiming that “Service will be light and easy, for the army will scarce march above 12 Miles per Day.”


2 Braddock to Morris, May 24, 1755, ibid.

3 Edward Braddock to Robert Morris, Williamsburg, VA, March 10, 1755, ibid.

4 Horatio Sharpe to John Sharpe, May 24, 1755, in Correspondence of Governor Abercrombie (1739–1777) (Baltimore: Maryland Historical Society, 1888), 211.


7 Franklin to Deborah Franklin, April 26, 1755, in Houston, 259.

8 Today a plaque marks the site, which is east of South Market Street and South Court Street near Mullick Park.


10 Franklin, In Boston, 236.

11 Franklin, Autobiography, 114.


14 Franklin, Autobiography, 117; Franklin to Braddock, May 18, 1755, in Houston, 256.

15 William Franklin to Benjamin Franklin, Mound of the Conomoche, May 15, 1755, in Houston, 271-272.


20 Although Braddock’s story ended, what became known as the “Wagon Affair” was not yet over. Franklin had invested his own money as a guarantee of the return of the wagons and horses, all of which were destroyed or killed. Franklin could have faced bankruptcy, but was rescued by the governor of Massachusetts, William Shirley, who was appointed to succeed General Braddock. Shirley ordered that the debt for the wagons be paid back with funds from the Army, and thus bailed him out of financial ruin. Franklin, Autobiography, 131-132.


22 Franklin, Autobiography, 119.

23 Braddock quoted in Houston, 282; Franklin, Autobiography, 119.

24 Older, 46, 110; George Washington to William Fairfam, Winchester, May 9, 1755, in Older, 71.

25 In these interactions with the farmers of Frederick County, the imperial army left its wake great resentment among the people. Horatio Sharpe would note this three years later when another British expedition in need of forage moved through the area. He advised Sir John St. Clair that “it will be impossible to get any thing in those Fatts without money being there more than £2000 still due to the People of Frederick County on Account of General Braddock’s Expedition.”

26 Braddock need not have alienated the Frederick farmers, for Franklin delivered the wagons and horses, and Braddock set out to defeat the French and Indians. Franklin had warned him that the Indian way of fighting might pose problems:

“This only danger apprehended of obstruction to your march, is from ambuscades of Indians, who by constant practice are dexterous in laying and executing them. And the slender line which was near four miles long, which your army must make, may expose it to be attacked by surprise in its flanks, to be like a thread into several pieces, from which their distance cannot come up in time to support each other.”

27 Braddock was supremely confident, however, that the French and Indians were no match for the King’s soldiers. “These savages may indeed be formidable enemy to your raw American militia, but, upon the King’s regular and disciplined troops, I think, it is impossible they should make any impression.” This would prove to be a catastrophically incorrect assessment.

On May 2, 1755, Braddock and George Washington, who “overtook the General at Frederick Town,” left Frederick in a horse-drawn coach and forded the Potomac at Swearengen’s Ferry, heading southwest toward Winchester. From there, they proceeded west. The general would have been wise to have heeded Franklin’s advice. On July 9, ten miles east of Fort Duquesne, the British soldiers were soundly defeated at the Battle of the Monongahela. Braddock himself was mortally wounded, and died several days later as what was left of the army retreated. All of Franklin’s wagons were burned.

General Braddock had deployed the “want of a proper union among the colonies,” which, he believed, had allowed “the French … to make so great encouragements upon the King’s territories in America …” Ironically, the “proper union” found lacking in 1755 would develop over the next twenty years, fueled by increasing colonial resentment toward the British. In 1775, other British generals would be sent to America, this time not to put down the French but instead to suppress an American independence movement. Benjamin Franklin would again be called upon to work for reconciliation and a peaceful resolution of the tension, just as he had been sent to Frederick to resolve the problem plaguing General Braddock. When reconciliation with Britain was no longer viable, Franklin lent his considerable talents to the effort against British authority and to the creation of a new nation, one that neither he nor Braddock could have envisioned when, in April of 1755, they discussed wagons and horses in Frederick.

Stephen Powell teaches history at Saint James School in Haggestown, Maryland. He worked as an intern for the Catoctin Center for Regional Studies while completing his degree in history at Davidson College.
The Battle Against Boredom: Game Playing by Civil War Soldiers

Calvin Fisher

American Civil War soldiers were beset by a variety of woes, which ran the gamut from obvious perils, such as an incoming volley of musket balls, to the more insidious menace of disease. A less dangerous but persistent problem was boredom, which reigned between battles, in winter encampments, in military hospitals, and in military prisons. Soldiers attempting to conquer boredom wrote letters home, whistled, played music, gambled, read whatever they could find, played pranks on each other, and engaged in baseball tournaments and snowball fights. They also played games – checkers, chess, backgammon, dominos, and cards. These activities filled the time and provided entertainment, and thus served to alleviate the boredom intrinsic to the life of both Union and Confederate soldiers during the Civil War.

When encamped for long periods of time, the tension of imminent combat was replaced by boredom, which had a negative influence on morale. One soldier described the challenge boredom posed this way: “None can imagine... the languor of mind – tediousness of time, as we resume – day after day the monotonous duties devolved upon.” For soldiers not actively campaigning, the tedium of daily chores and drilling was numbing. They also were presented with the task of filling enormous quantities of the enemy: Union and Confederate soldiers on picket lines were known to play cards together during quiet times.

Sporting events also arose out of the desire to alleviate boredom and expend energy in a positive way. The U.S. Sanitary Commission advised that sports be implemented by the officers to keep the troops entertained. Dr. Julian Chisolm, the author of a surgery manual used in the Confederate Army, recommended a daily exercise routine which included “mainly play of ball.” Baseball games proved to be popular with the troops, as Private Alpheris B. Parker of the 10th Massachusetts confirmed when he wrote on April 21, 1863: “The parade ground has been a busy place for a week or so past, ball-playing having become a mania in camp. Officer and men forget, for a time, the differences in rank and indulge in the invigorating sport with a schoolboy’s ardor.”

When a game of baseball was not possible, soldiers were creative in adapting athletic games to their surroundings. They staged foot races with tracks formed by a living wall of men, boxing and wrestling tournaments, and had pitched battles with snowballs. Irish troops improvised with cannon balls to introduce a version of Irish road bowling, while Confederate cavalrymen participated in a game called “gander-pulling,” in which the equestrian attempted to “catch the head of a live gander that hung by its feet.”

Officers concerned with soldier health and morale realized the importance of athletic recreation to unoccupied soldiers, and sometimes arranged athletic events for the troops. Large sports festivals were a popular form of diversion; these were often held during winter encampments. Some involved thousands of soldiers, such as the St. Patrick’s Day celebration of 1863 in Falmouth, Virginia, organized by Thomas Francis Meagher for his Irish Brigade. There was a steeplechase for the officers, while the rank and file actively participated in “foot racing, sack racing, picking up stones, [and] climbing the greased pole, which had a thirty-day furlough and thirty dollars in money attached to it. The man that climbed the pole received it.” One soldier who participated in this celebration, remembered: “There were many other sports too numerous to mention, which the enlisted men and officers enjoyed very much.”

For soldiers who were imprisoned, boredom became an even more intrinsic part of their lives than it had been while they were with...
Traditions

**War soldiers, found on Union prisoners of war at the military prison in Danville, Virginia, reveal that Union prisoners played poker so often that the cards became worn down into “ovals.”**

**Soldiers confined to military hospitals were also more susceptible to the mind-numbing dullness of inaction than their active duty brethren. This fact was recognized by the U.S. Sanitary Commission, which was “deeply concerned with soldiers mental health,” and recommended game play for hospitalized servicemen. This sentiment gained strength among some Union surgeons, one of whom noticed that recovering soldiers who had access to games like whist, checkers, chess, or dominos were “laughing and merry.”**

Possibly the most common recreational activity in the army was gambling, despite the best efforts of officers concerned with its negative effects. Pious officers anoreux about the souls of their men, as well as those concerned about order in their regiments, worked to stand them off. It was great sport for the army’s path to the battlefield suggested a habit. Discarded cards and dice littered along the march, and every day there would be accounts of men scouring the battlefield for cards indicated two circumstances: that many of these repentant gamblers were ready to once again embrace their gambling ways, and that the increasing scarcity of cards during the later years of the war, accounts of men throwing away their cards to ensure that their relatives would not discover their wrongdoings if they were to perish in the approaching battle. Yet after the lighting had ceased, accounts of men scooping up the battlefield for cards indicated two circumstances: that many of these repentant gamblers were ready to once again embrace their gambling ways, and that the increasing scarcity of cards during the later years of the war. 

Many of those soldiers who had been conscientiously opposed to gambling prior to their enlistment found themselves laying wagers. As one concerned soldier recorded in his diary, men who had eschewed checkerboards before the war now “play[ed] cards for profit.” Another confessed to his sister that, while he had remained a teetotaller, he did “take a little game of draw poker just to pass the time.” A devout Christian soldier bemoaned that even on the Sabbath he was confronted by “cursing and card playing Sonday” and every day. Even the clergy accompanying the troops were not immune to gambling’s allure, as some ministers “betrayed alarming proficiency in handling cards at a social game of poker.”

**Uprompted by war from their homes, some soldiers abandoned temporarily the moral code that had previously made them regard gambling as a sin. As one put it, while they may have been good boys when they left, and they would be good boys after they returned.**

**On the march to battle, however, confronted once again with the evanescent nature of human life, some soldiers reconsidered their gambling habit. Discarded cards and dice littered along the army’s path to the battlefield suggested a reassessment of morality. These soldiers threw away their cards to ensure that their relatives would not discover their wrongdoings if they were to perish in the approaching battle. Yet after the lighting had ceased, accounts of men scooping up the battlefield for cards indicated two circumstances: that many of these repentant gamblers were ready to once again embrace their gambling ways, and that the increasing scarcity of cards during the later years of the war.**

In camps, in cornfields, in prisons, and in hospitals, Union and Confederate soldiers played games. While they waited for action and looked for anything that would fill their time, game playing quickly became part of the culture of Civil War soldiers, amusing them and relieving the ever-present specters of boredom and anxiety.

**Calvin Fisher is a graduate of the University of Maryland with a degree in history. He is currently attending the University of Maryland School of Law.**

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**Note:**

2. Ibid., 163-4.
3. Hunt E. Wolff, ed., *Campaigning with the First Minnesota: A Civil War Diary,* Minneapolis History 25, no. 1 (March 1944): 24-5. Ibid., no. 2 (June 1944), 124, 130. Ibid., no. 3 (September 1944): 24-5. Ibid., no. 4 (December 1944), 348.
12. Ibid.
15. Woolard, 10.
16. Ibid., 39.
22. Ibid., 176.
23. Woolard, 10.
What do a recipe for mountain cake and the C. Burr Artz Library have in common? Both are the legacies of a Frederick County woman born in the early nineteenth century. More than a century after her death in 1887, very few people are aware that this woman ever lived. But every day at the library, she impacts the lives of over a thousand individuals in Frederick. And she liked cake.

The C. Burr Artz Library, the central branch of Frederick County Public Libraries, was founded by this woman with a sweet tooth, Margaret Catherine Thomas Artz (1815-1887). Margaret married Christian Burr Artz (1801-1878), originally of Maryland’s Washington County, in June 1845. The couple spent a short time in Chicago before returning to Frederick County in 1850. Then, in the late 1860s, Margaret, C. Burr, and their daughter, Victorine Thomas Artz (1846-1931), relocated permanently to Chicago, living there the remainder of their lives. All are buried in that city’s Oak Woods Cemetery.

After Margaret’s death, her will revealed that in the event that Victorine had no children, her estate would return to Frederick. Victorine, in fact, never married and never had any children. Following Victorine’s death, Margaret’s money was, according to her intentions, used to establish a public library in honor of her husband. The C. Burr Artz Library opened in 1938. Besides the $125,000 used for the library, Margaret left us little else. But, fittingly for a woman who, from a distance of almost seven hundred miles, was concerned that her hometown establish a public library, the most important artifact we have of Margaret’s is a book she compiled. And in that book is a recipe for mountain cake.

Margaret’s book is a small, rectangular ledger. It is thirteen inches tall, four inches wide, and one inch deep. The covers are heavily worn and plain. The ledger was obviously “repurposed,” not an unusual practice for the time, even among the well-to-do. Many pages, for example, bear the marks of having had their previous contents erased. The volume is not dated or signed, but on the reverse of the front cover, in the bottom left corner, a handwritten note states: “1867, 25 July left Frederick for Chicago – May 1868.”

Three years after their arrival in Illinois, the Artz’s new home was reportedly lost in a fire. An article appeared in the December 23, 1871 issue of the Catoctin Clarion, stating that the Chicago home of the Artz Family was destroyed by fire and “that everything in it was burnt.” Not everything was destroyed, however. Margaret’s book survived, and somehow it made its way back to Frederick. The ledger now belongs to the C. Burr Artz Library. It resides in the Maryland Room, the local history and genealogy center of Frederick County Public Libraries.

For years the ledger has been lovingly referred to as Margaret Artz’s Daybook. But the term “daybook” is actually a misnomer. A daybook is, according to the Oxford English Dictionary: “A book in which the occurrences or transactions for the day are entered; a diary, journal.” In her ledger, Margaret documented nothing about her life, her activities, or her thoughts. What she did record were recipes. In fact, Margaret Artz’s Daybook is actually an example of a manuscript cookbook.

The Artz family household had a number of potential cooks. In the 1850 census, Margaret (age thirty-five), Burr, and Victorine lived with her mother, Margaret Thomas (age seventy-three). Thomas is identified as the head of the household. There were no servants living in the house. Margaret Thomas did, however, own two slaves, a girl of seventeen and a boy of twelve. In 1860, two servants lived in the Artz house, an eleven-year-old boy and a ten-year-old girl, and C. Burr Artz owned a sixteen-year-old female slave. By 1870, the Artz family was in Chicago and the only servant they had living with them was a male day laborer. The 1880 census shows that a fifteen-year-old female servant from England lived with Margaret and Victorine.

In these various household arrangements, who did the cooking? There were always other people living with Margaret who could have been responsible for the labor that produced the family’s meals. Margaret left no diary, we do not...
puddings, custards, and preserves, and all kinds of cakes, from the imperial plum to plain cake: Adapted to this country, and all grades of life featured. There are five recipes for cookies, and fourteen for custards and puddings. Carbohydrates continue to be well represented with buns and popovers.

There are recipes to preserve and pickle, but the recipe for “catsup tomato” stands out as a healthy alternative. Apparently it was much with age. Most of the recipes would be of little use to many of today’s cooks. They are simply a list of ingredients; there are few step-by-step instructions for what to do with them. The sources of thirty-eight recipes are given. Re- searching these women could provide information about Margaret Artz’s social world. A “cake cup” recipe is attributed to Margaret E. Scholl, later Margaret Hood. Hood was Margaret’s niece and the benefactor of Hood College. Margaret Hood, in her own will, would provide funds for the purchase of land for the C. Burr Artz Library.

It was also during the nineteenth century that cookbooks began to include more than recipes in their contents. Household tips and health advice were introduced. Martha Stewart’s work of “Good Things” traces its origins back to the developing science of home economics. Margaret’s lumber book mirrors these growing diversifications of nineteenth-century cookbooks. There are directions to dye in several colors, to bleach, and to restore velvet and silk. A cure for St. Vitus Dance (a movement disorder) is included, as are several tonics for diarrhea. In a very practical vein, there are directions “To make Butter sweet that is rancid and ‘How to kill Potato-Bugs.’”

Margaret Artz’s Daybook was generously digitized in 2014 for the Maryland Room by the Crowley Company of Frederick to celebrate Preservation Week. It can be downloaded by anyone with a Maryland Library card at http://maryland.lib.overdrive.com, the gateway to the Maryland Digital Library Consortium. Try out the mountain cake recipe, or perhaps whip up some ambrosia. The cream of tartar in the ginger beer should create great foam.

When Margaret Artz wrote her will and specified that her funds would be used “...to erect thereon a building suitable to be occupied and used as a public library for the inhabitants of Frederick...to supply the same with books of science, history and general literature, newspapers, periodicals, charts, maps, and other works suitable for a public library at that place...” it never would have occurred to her that the recipes she copied would one day be accessible to anyone, anywhere in the world, with a Maryland library card.

Food

Mary K. Mannix is the manager of the Maryland Room of the C. Burr Artz Library, Frederick County Public Libraries. She also oversees FCPL’s Thurmont Center for Agricultural History of the Upper Shenandoah Region and the History Room of the Brunswick Branch. She has been active in the Maryland local history community since 1985.

1 Maryland, Journal of the Proceedings of the House of Delegates of the State of Maryland (Annapolis: Published by authority, 1850), accessed November 22, 2013. Google Books, http://tinyurl.com/modelg. In 1834, Christian Artz successfully petitioned to have the middle name Burr legally added to his name. It is not yet known why “Burr” was significant to him.

2 For a more detailed account of the funding of the C. Burr Artz Library see Mary Mannix, “A History of the C. Burr Artz Library.” The Journal of the Historical Society of Frederick County, Maryland (Fall 2012): 34-41.

3 The Maryland Room of Frederick County Public Libraries has ten titles identified on a small slip of paper as “Books from the personal library of C. Burr Artz.” McHaffey’s Newly Revised Edictic Third Reader contains Victorine’s signature. Archdiocesan Patria “The View of the Elders of Christianity’s second “Presented to M.C. Thomas by her particular friend, Jane 28th 1844.” The frontispiece of another contains signatures for both by C. Burr Artz and Margaret C. Artz. These are the only other Artz possessions held by the Library.

4 The 1850 Social Statistics census schedule identifies five libraries in the city of Frederick—a law library, a private library, two college libraries, and a seminary. Mary Fitzhugh Hiteberger and John Philip Stern, Bridge in Time: The Complete 1850 Census of Frederick County, Maryland (Redwood City, Calif: Monocacy Book Co. 1978), 600.

5 Catoctin Clarion, December 23, 1871.


8 Hittsberg and Dern, 300-7.


Community Cookbooks in the Catoctin Region

Maryland’s cookbook fame continued with the work of Beatrice Toms, Frederick County’s most well-known twentieth-century cook. Bea Toms arrived in Frederick County at a very young age to work on a Middletown Valley farm with duties that included cooking. In 1966 Toms added catering to her significant farm wife responsibilities. In 2002 she published Recipes from a County Cook to answer the demands of a community who ate her food at local events, then clamored for her recipes. Four years later, More Recipes from A County Cook came forth. Her works include recipes dating back to the 1930s and before.1

Another published cookbook that tells the story of the Catoctin region and its agricultural heritage is the 1999 publication This Old Cookbook: Recipes from the Kitchen of 99-Year Old Letha Grossnickel Wiles. Wiles (1899-2001) became a farm wife while still in her teens. In her long life as part of the agricultural community, “she would cook for as many as 14 men or more, besides her family.”2 This Old Cookbook also demonstrates the role that cookery can play in genealogy, as Wiles mentions numerous people in her book that can help flesh out the family tree.3

Finally, cookbooks can also document community groups through the genre of charity or fundraising cookbooks.4 These works have their origins in the Civil War as women raised money for the war effort, and continue to be frequent fundraising tools. They serve as rich sources of information about the organizations that produce them, but can also be victims of their own success. Community cookbooks are produced cheaply to ensure a profit, and, more significantly, they get used. Often food-splattered, these documents are typically not in good enough shape to be welcomed into the rare book repositories and archival collections that would guarantee their availability to future scholars. Very few libraries have them cataloged.5 The Maryland Room of the Frederick County Public Libraries has been involved in a long-range plan to increase access to Frederick’s community cookbooks, which now number nearly two hundred, continuing the interest of the library’s founder in cooking.

A recent addition to the Maryland Room community cookbook collection is Angel Food, which was produced to raise money for Frederick Memorial Hospital’s Special Care Nursery. The recipes found in this 2002 work, such as ‘Mom’s Famous Jell-O Cake,’ “Porcupine Meatballs,” and “Mexican Layered Dip” may not have strong cultural ties to the historic cuisine of the Catoctin region, but the book definitely documents an aspect of the community. Besides the names of the locals who provided recipes, information is included about the facility, its staff, and founding in 1998. As of 2002, over one thousand babies had been treated at the Special Care Nursery; this also makes it a potential genealogical source as ancestors of these babies may one day come looking for information about the facility.

Unique among Frederick County’s community cookbooks is The Living Treasures’ Cookbook, a product of African American resources, Cultural Heritage Society of Frederick County. This publication was more than a fundraising effort; it was also the means to document the lives of twenty-eight elders of Frederick’s African American community.6 Their biographies, with photos, also supply regional cuisine such as country puddin’, red velvet cake, and mixed greens.

In 1964, Avalyne Tawes, wife of Maryland governor J. Millard Tawes and compiler of My Favorite Maryland Recipes, wrote: “The glory of Maryland food is that it contains an extraordinary number of flavors that are exquisite and individual – oysters, crabs, terrapin, clams, poultry, hot breads, game and fish.”7 This glory can be experienced, at least intellectually, in libraries throughout the Catoctin region through commercially published cookbooks and community cookbooks.

While locating unpublished manuscript cookbooks in Maryland repositories may be difficult, finding cookbooks published by Marylanders is a piece of cake. Besides bringing the world crab cakes, beaten biscuits, and terrapin soup, Maryland also contributed a number of noteworthy cookery publications. The first of these was A Quaker Woman’s Cookbook, The Domestic Cookery of Elizabeth Ellicott Lea (1793-1835). First published in 1845, by the third edition in 1851 it had increased from 180 to 310 pages.1 An Ellicott City native, Elizabeth Ellicott Lea, who was slightly older than Margaret Artz, lived a significant portion of her adult life in Sandy Spring, a Quaker community in Montgomery County. Elizabeth published her work in order to supply new brides with the knowledge needed to set up housekeeping. While her intention was not to document the culinary heritage of the Mid-Atlantic, A Quaker Woman’s Cookbook is a primary source of folk culture, useful to a variety of scholars in the same way that a manuscript cookbook would be.2 By 1897 the book was in its ninetehths printing, successfully spreading Maryland regional cuisine.3

2 This point is argued at great length by Weaver in his foreword to the 1982 edition.
3 Lea and Weaver, xiii.
4 Beatrice Toms, Recipes from a County Cook (Frederick, MD: Diversions Publishers, 2002), 5. Toms, More Recipes from a County Cook (Frederick, MD: Diversions Publishers, 2005). Bea Toms and Catoctin regional cuisine achieved national fame in 2005 when her cookbook sold out in three minutes on the cable television shopping network QVC.
5 Yvonne Fay Wiles Georg, ed. This Old Cookbook: Recipes from the Kitchen of 99-Year Old Letha Grossnickel Wiles (Silver Spring, MD: DYG Inc, 1999), 8. Georg, preface.
8 The publication directly ties in to AARD’s mission “to identify, collect, preserve, exhibit and disseminate the history and culture of African Americans in Frederick County.”
Catoctin History Tour #12

FREEDMEN’S BUREAU SCHOOLS
Dean Herrin and Edie Wallace

The Freedmen’s Bureau, officially called the Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands, was created by Congress in 1865 to provide assistance to newly-freed African Americans in the former Confederate states. The Bureau helped with such necessities as housing, clothing, and food, but also with providing African Americans educational opportunities. Working with numerous religious and philanthropic aid societies, the Bureau helped build schools across the south in the years immediately following the Civil War. Finding the need nearly as great in the border states – those slave-holding states on both sides of the Potomac. The Bureau worked with local African American communities to build support for a school, and then either provided the materials to build a school, or worked with churches to host a school. Former government buildings were also sometimes used for schools. Members of the local community built the school, and once the Bureau supplied a teacher, they also paid the teacher’s salary, and room and board.

This Freedmen’s Bureau School Tour will highlight three of these schools, one each in Maryland, Virginia, and West Virginia. For more information on area Freedmen’s Bureau schools, go to the Catoctin Center’s new website, “Crossroadsofwar.org) and select the Freedmen’s Bureau Schools tab under “Research.”

Second Street School, Waterford, Virginia

Although the location is not known, a school for African Americans in Waterford was established as early as September 1865, only five months after the end of the Civil War. By June 1866, a young local Quaker, Sarah Ann Steer, was teaching local African Americans apparently in her family’s home on Second Street. Steer had recently been educated in Philadelphia, and her teachers there kept in touch with Steer and maintained an interest in her school. The school was sponsored by the Philadelphia Friends’ Association for the Aid and Education of the Freedmen. By August, Steer reported that she had forty-two students. Whatever building was being used for the school was evidently too small, as Steer reported the following March that “My room is so small I had to send ten of my little ones home yesterday.” But she was proud of the progress of her students:

I am quite proud of my classes in grammar and philosophy, and think they understand these branches right well, as far as they have gone. I have one afternoon in the week devoted to sewing, and notice considerable improvement from time to time in this useful branch of learning.1

Not all of Steer’s pupils were children. Some of them are grown men, and I am surprised at the ease and rapidity with which they get along, particularly with Arithmetic. The Multiplication Table, which is a great bugbear to most, has been perfectly learned in a few weeks by some who did not know one figure from another.

In April 1867, a visiting committee from the Friends’ Association reported that they were very pleased with Steer’s school, and also reported that a “new building is in process of erection by the colored people, which will be used for religious and educational purposes.” The new building served as both a church and a school. It was located on Second Street in Waterford, on property sold by Quaker Reuben Schooler to the “colored people of Waterford and vicinity.”2 With financial help from Quakers and under the auspices of the Freedmen’s Bureau, the new school opened on October 9, 1867, with over sixty students in attendance. Twenty-eight of the students were older than sixteen.

By the early 1870s the school became part of Loudoun County’s new public school system. Schools for white children in Waterford remained private for another decade. The local African American population built a separate church in 1891, and the school continued in operation until 1957 when a new regional school for African Americans opened in Leesburg.3 Recognizing the historical significance of the Second Street school, the Waterford Foundation acquired the building in 1977. Since 1984, the Waterford Foundation has sponsored a living history program at the Second Street School for third and fourth graders. [See the Waterford Foundation’s website http://www.waterfordfoundation.org/explore/waterford-schools]

“Curtis School,” Lockwood House, Harpers Ferry, West Virginia

A school for African Americans in Harpers Ferry, West Virginia, started even before the Civil War was over. From April to July 1864, Willard W. Wheeler and his wife Ellen P. T. Wheeler operated a school sponsored by the American Missionary Association and aided by agents of the U.S. Christian Commission already stationed in Harpers Ferry.4 After the war, the Freewill Baptist Home Missionary Society, in conjunction with the American Missionary Association and the Freedmen’s Bureau, established the Shenandoah Mission in 1865 with the purpose of opening schools for African American children in Harpers Ferry, Charles Town, Shepherdstown, and Martinsburg, West Virginia.5

Cook Brackett, from Maine, became the superintendent of all of the Society’s schools for African Americans in the region. During the Civil War, Brackett had been stationed in Winchester, Virginia, and in Harpers Ferry, with the U.S. Christian Commission, so he was familiar with the people and the territory. Brackett established the Mission’s first residence and school in the Lockwood House on Fillmore Street. The Lockwood House had been the former office and home of the paymaster of the U.S. Armory that had existed in Harpers Ferry until the Armory’s buildings were destroyed during the war.6 In addition to his monthly reports to the Freedmen’s Bureau in Washington,
A. Wright, and Sarah Jane Foster arrived to the Freewill Baptist Mission Society. On November 27, 1865, teachers Louis Brackett, wife of Nathan Brackett, recalled that the first school room was the southwest room on the first floor of the building. Within the first month of opening the Harpers Ferry mission school in November 1865, the day school numbered “about eighty, and is necessarily divided into two parts,” while the night school attracted nearly forty-five students. The Superintendent’s reports for 1866 indicate the Harpers Ferry school ranged between 78 and 128 students, although daily attendance could be much lower. Louise Dudley later wrote of her students: “The colored people,” she wrote, “are taller and stronger than when I first met them; they are more industrious, more sober and more pious.” Miss Dudley later wrote of her students: “The colored people,” he wrote, “are more industrious, more sober and more pious.” Miss Dudley returned to the Freewill Baptists $10,000 for a school if it would admit students without regard to race, sex, or religion; it would eventually become a degree-granting institution, and if it would match the grant within a year. After the money was raised on October 2, 1867, Storer Normal School opened its doors. In December 1869 the U.S. government formally conveyed the Lockwood House and three other buildings on Camp Hill to the school. The school became Storer College and served thousands of African American students until it closed in 1965. In 1969 the Lockwood House, along with the rest of Storer College campus, was incorporated in the Harpers Ferry National Historical Monument (later Park). The house has been restored to its Civil War-era appearance, with two rooms furnished from the early period when the building was used as a school. [See Harpers Ferry National Historical Park’s website, http://www.rnp.gov/bde/]

Drive to Sharpsburg, MD. From Main Street, turn onto S. Mechanic Street, and then left at E. High Street. Tolson’s Chapel is on the left.

The “American Union” School, Tolson’s Chapel, Sharpsburg, Maryland

In January and March of 1868, a local official of the Freedmen’s Bureau, Capt. J.C. Brubaker, visited Sharpsburg, Maryland, to hold meetings and gauge interest in the possibility of opening a school in the town for the African American community. The Boonsboro Odd Fellow reported in early April of 1868 that Brubaker had been in Boonsboro recently, investigating whether to set up a school there, and had mentioned that the Sharpsburg school would open in April in the African American church. In a letter dated March 28, 1869, from Brubaker to John Kimball, Superintendent of Education for the Freedmen’s Bureau in Washington, D.C. and Maryland, Brubaker reported that he had made arrangements for the teacher for the school in Sharpsburg. The “colored people,” he wrote, “are very anxious to have the school opened, and from the spirit manifest I am assured that they will fulfill their part of the contract. I did not have time to arrange for his board but do not think there will be any difficulty.”

The Sharpsburg Freedmen’s school opened on April 6, 1869, in Tolson’s Chapel. Johnson wrote Kimball that day that he had opened a day school, a night school, a Sabbath school, and that he was going to organize in the coming week “the Vanguard of Freedom,” a temperance organization. He christened the school, “American Union,” and in his first monthly report, stated that he had eighteen students enrolled, evenly divided between male and female. All but three were under the age of sixteen, and only six of the eighteen had been free before the war. On the chalkboard wall they painted a blackboard of “slating” or “liquid slate” (made with lamp black and shellac) on which to write their lessons. Brubaker’s compensation was $6.50 a month. In May, Johnson had twenty-one students in attendance, only three of whom had been free before the war, and his Sabbath school continued to be popular, with forty enrollees. Public sentiment was “generally indifferent,” according to Johnson, which was a slight improvement from April’s “unfavorable.”

Johnson may have been accustomed to a cold shoulder, but by August of 1869, another teacher had taken over the Sharpsburg school—John J. Carter. Carter was a Lincoln University graduate and was supplied by the Presbyterian Committee of Home Missions (CHM). Johnson reported in July 1869 that his summer session had fifteen students, and that, “Order is good, moral prospects is somewhat encouraging.” In August, Carter had twenty-five students present, and was full of praise: “I found a colored population poor and helpless, surrounded by white people desperately hostile to their improvement. The task of securing school rooms and boarding places for the teachers was by no means a light one. The very few who would have been willing to furnish us were frequently prevented by the fear of their neighbors. Through the kindness of Capt. Young, we were allowed to occupy no means a light one. The very few who would have been willing to furnish us were frequently prevented by the fear of their neighbors. Through the kindness of Capt. Young, we were allowed to occupy

The reactions of area residents to the Freedmen’s schools varied, and the teacher at another Washington County school, in Clear Spring, for example, reported that sentiment usually followed political party lines. The reception was different, of course, among the African American community, and Johnson reported to Kimball that his school was entirely funded by the freedmen of Sharpsburg. Johnson’s compensation was $6.50 a month. In May, Johnson had twenty-one students in attendance, only three of whom had been free before the war, and his Sabbath school continued to be popular, with forty enrollees. Public sentiment was “generally indifferent,” according to Johnson, which was a slight improvement from April’s “unfavorable.”

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students, and predicted he would have thirty-five to forty in the fall and winter. “They learn very fast,” wrote Carter in his report. The FCHM paid the Tolson’s Chapel trustees ten dollars per month for the use of the church building as a school.22

The “American Union” school continued until 1870, when Congress began dismantling the Freedmen’s Bureau. By 1871, the state of Maryland began oversight of African American education, and Tolson’s Chapel continued to serve double duty as a school until 1899, when Sharpsburg’s first African American schoolhouse was built nearby at the end of High Street. The last member of Tolson’s Chapel passed away in the 1990s, and the building and cemetery are now under the care of Friends of Tolson’s Chapel. See the website of the Friends of Tolson’s Chapel, [http://www.tolsonschapel.org/]

Dean Herrin is Chief Historian of the National Capital Region, National Park Service, in Washington, DC.

Edie Wallace is a historian with the cultural resource consulting firm of Paula S. Reed & Associates in Hagerstown, Maryland. She received her Master of Arts in Historic Preservation from Goucher College in 2003.

2 Ibid.
5 Friends’ Intelligencer, September 29, 1866:471.
6 Friends’ Intelligencer, March 2, 1867:925.
7 Friends’ Intelligencer, May 4, 1867:139.
10 Souders, 45.
11 Souders, 45-46, and “Waterford’s Second Street School.”
14 Lockwood House. 66.
15 Ibid., 70.
16 Ibid., 73.
17 Ibid.
18 Ibid., 74.
19 Ibid., 75-79.
20 J.D. Brubaker, Monthly Report of Sub-Assistant Commissioner, January and March 1866; Biographical Odd Fellow, April 12, 1868, Letter, Capt. J.D. Brubaker to Kimball, Supt. of Education, March 28, 1868, microfilm M1056, roll 1, National Archives.
21 Letter, John Kimball to [Unkown], March 31, 1868, microfilm M1056, roll 4, National Archives.
25 Teacher’s Monthly School Report, May 1866, microfilm M1056, roll 7, National Archives.
26 Teacher’s Monthly School Report, July and August 1869, microfilm M1056, roll 17, National Archives.

THE CHILDREN OF THE BATTLEFIELD

Andrew Borsa

THE body of a Union soldier was found in a brick-yard in the town of Gettysburg on July 1, 1863. There was no identification on the soldier, but in his hands he clutched an image of three children, his final gaze likely fixed upon them. At the moment of death, his pose was one of devotion—to his country and to his family. This story captured hearts throughout the war-weary North that summer. It also created an opportunity for profit.

Gettysburg’s unknown soldier would be identified as Sergeant Amos Humiston, born in Owego, New York, in 1830. Humiston had led a mostly quiet life, but twice adventure and duty took him far beyond the ordinariness of life in rural New York. In 1850, twenty-year old Amos Humiston had just finished an apprenticeship in harness-making and was ready to open his own shop. It was to the sea, however, not to the harness business, that Humiston was drawn. In November 1850, Humiston signed onto a whaling ship in New Bedford, Massachusetts, committing himself to four years of hunting on the high seas. Despite the adventure, those arduous, and not very profitable, years on the whaling ship made harness making look attractive once again. In 1854 he returned from the sea, declined to sign on for another voyage, and headed home to New York. The same year, Humiston met and married Philiinda Smith. The births of their children—Franklin (1855), Alice Eliza (1857), and Frederick (1859)—soon followed.

Humiston chose to move his growing family west to Portville, New York, a lumber town on the Allegheny River where he returned to the harness business. The Reverend Isaac Ogden later described Amos Humiston as “a man of noble, generous impulses, a quiet citizen, a kind neighbor and devotedly attached to his family.” These were happy years in Humiston’s adult life, living with his beloved family and enjoying steady work in a growing community: The Civil War would rend this quiet life, as it did for so many families.

When President Lincoln called for troops to defend the Union in April 1861, Amos Humiston was reportedly “anxious to enlist,” but as the Reverend Ogden recalled, “his duty to his family seemed then to be paramount to his duty to his country.” Humiston still hesitated when a year later, on July 1,
1862, Lincoln called for 300,000 more volunteers. Only when the Portville community raised over a thousand dollars for the support of the families of soldiers, and he was certain that his family would be taken care of while he was away, did Humiston allow himself to enlist.4 The family would be taken care of while he was away, did Humiston join the Portville community raised over a thousand dollars for the support of the families of soldiers, and he was certain that his family would be taken care of while he was away.

In July 1862, Humiston joined the 112th New York Volunteer Infantry. After two months of training, he was mustered in with the newly created 154th New York Regiment Company C.5 Adventure had once again found Amos Humiston, with the danger of the open sea now traded for that of the battlefields.

The duties of the 154th New York were initially quite dull. Amos wrote frequently to Philinda during this period, sending his love to the family along with his pay. Humiston longed for his wife and children, as is clear from his letter of December 2, 1862. “how I would like to be with you Christmas and New Years and … have the babies on my knee to hear them prattle as they used to. …”6

In early May 1863, the 154th finally saw action at Chancellorsville. That same month, Philinda sent Amos an ambrotype of the three children, a gift that thrilled him. Humiston, “tired and worn out with hard marching and hard fare,” wrote to Philinda that “there was no identification, but in the soldier’s hand was an ambrotype of three children. Somehow the image made it to Ben Schriver, who displayed it in his tavern. Dr. John Francis Bourns, who was traveling to Gettysburg from Philadelphia to aid in the care of wounded soldiers and entered the tavern when his carriage broke down, spotted the image and was captivated by it. Dr. Bourns understood that the mystery of the soldier’s identity could be solved if the children could be identified, and he persuaded Schriver to give it to him. When he returned to Philadelphia, Dr. Bourns initiated the process of discovering the identity of the soldier and his family. Since newspapers could not yet reproduce photographs, Bourns decided to begin his search by having the newspapers print a description of the ambrotype. Next he had carte de visite copies of the ambrotype created to show – and sell – to interested inquirers. His hope was that someone would recognize the identity of the soldier’s children and identify their soldier father. He further hoped that the sale of the photographs could provide the widow and her children with income. This story might, Bourns thought, be used by other newspapers to aid in the identification of these children, so that they would know “that the last thoughts of their dying father was for them, and them only.”7

Other papers did pick up the story. Within a month, the story would become a national one, eventually making its way to tiny Portville, New York.

Philinda Humiston, who had not heard from her husband since the battle at Gettysburg, recognized the description of the ambrotype. Surely, she thought, it was the one she sent to her husband months ago. A letter was sent to Dr. Bourns requesting a carte-de-visite of the image. When it arrived, her premonition was confirmed. She was a widow, and her three children – Franklin, now eight years old, Alice, now six, and Frederick, just four – were fatherless. Gettysburg’s Unknown Soldier had been identified. On November 19, 1863, as President Lincoln spoke at Gettysburg, another newspaper story...
appeared under the headline “Dead Soldier Identified.” “The dread certainty of widowhood and orphanage flashed upon the group with this discovery; yet the severity of the blow was tempered by the dying affection of the father...”16 Over the next days, Philadelphia newspapers printed the story, announcing that the identity of the soldier had been confirmed and the family located.17

News of the identification ushered in a second wave of publicity, thrusting the Humiston family’s private grief into public celebrity. The carte-de-visites were in high demand as patriotic Americans sought to aid the Humistons. Back in Gettysburg, Humiston’s hasty grave was dug up, and the Sergeant was re-interred on Cemetery Hill. Amos Humiston had been taken care of, but would his family as well?18

The Humiston family’s celebrity continued to grow. Frank Leslie’s Illustrated Newspaper ran the story in January 1864, complete with an imaginary illustration of Humiston lying with the picture in his hands.19 It was further immortalized by popular performer James G. Clark’s song “Children of the Battlefield,” released in April 1864 with the front cover design featuring the now famous image of the children. The carte-de-visites were put on exhibition, and for sale, at the Metropolitan Fair in New York City in 1864.20

The image of the children triggered a successful fund-raising campaign which, according to Dr. Bourns’ original intention, was to have gone to the Humistons. Yet according to Alice Humiston, Philinda Humiston and her children received little of the revenue generated by the ambrotype. Years later, in 1914, claiming the family had been cheated by Dr. Bourns, Alice Humiston spoke to a reporter for a Gettysburg newspaper to set the record straight: “It is believed that my mother received a portion of the money raised by the sale of the pictures. This is not so…. The public may as well know this side of the story as the other.”21 Alice wrote to her brother, Fred: “I boil every time I think about it.”22

Described as a “complex man,” Bourns seemed to have impulses of both kindness and greed.23 Tempted by profits, Dr. Bourns lacked the integrity to fully deliver his promise of financial support to the Humistons. He did not follow through with payments from all the sales of the ambrotype to support Philinda Humiston and the children. In 1884 Dr. Bourns even asked Frank for more pictures of the Humistons, to which Frank gave the doctor a “stern rebuff,” as he believed the doctor was scheming to use the family again for his own financial gain.24 Although Bourns would offer “sporadic help” to the family, his impulses were tempered by the dying affection of the father….25

One positive development emerged from this story. In March 1866, the National Orphans’ Home Association, formed in 1865 and backed by wealthy donors and a Sunday-school fundraising effort, purchased a building on Cemetery Hill in Gettysburg. By October about thirty children – all soldiers’ orphans – arrived. Philinda Humiston was offered a position as a housekeeper, which meant that she could reside at the Homestead and bring her children.26 She accepted the position and she and the children took up residence there. The orphanage became an important part of the Gettysburg community. Beginning in 1868, the Homestead children led the annual Memorial Day procession to the cemetery.

On that day, the Humiston children and the other orphans walked up the hill to what is now the Soldiers National Cemetery, and put bouquets of flowers on the graves of their fathers. This tradition was repeated each year.27

In the summer of 1869, an addition was added to the building to increase boarding room, bringing the capacity of the house to over one hundred.28 Financially, the institution was solvent, thanks to continued support from sale of the Humiston carte-de-visites, individual donors, and many northern Sunday schools. Indeed, the Homestead was thriving until the appearance of Rosa Carmichael, the new matron recommend-ed by Dr. Bourns.

Signs of trouble in the orphanage became apparent begin-ning on Memorial Day 1876, when Rosa Carmichael refused to allow the children to participate in the procession as they had always done. This, and rumors of Carmichael’s mistreat-ment of the children, prompted veterans of the local Grand Army of the Republic post to launch an investigation into the Homestead. They found Carmichael guilty of “general misconduct and tyranny,” including assault, for which she was arrested.29 The Homestead Board of Directors investigated further the administration of the orphanage, and filed lawsuits against Carmichael and Bourns for “mismanagement, want of care, property, violation of trust,” and other charges.20 The legal trouble for Dr. Bourns escalated when he was charged with embezzlement from the Homestead. The grief he had demonstrated by capitalizing on the Humiston family was once again in evidence with regard to the orphanage. The damage to the institution was deemed to be irreversible. In January 1878, the Gettysburg sheriff seized the Homestead property, and in April the property was sold.23 The Homestead experiment had ended disastrously less than a decade after its beginning.

The Humiston family was not involved in the Homestead scandal, as the family had moved on by the time the troubles appeared. In October 1869 Philinda Humiston, anxious to leave Gettysburg, hastily married Asa Barnes, and relocated to Becket, Massachusetts. The children joined them in 1871. Frank Humiston would go on to practice medicine and raise a family in Jaffrey, New Hampshire. Frederick settled in West Sommerville, Massachusetts, where he worked as a traveling salesman. Alice held a variety of jobs, never marrying. Philinda became a widow again in 1881 when Asa Barnes died, in 1913 she died at the age of eighty-two.24

The Humistons had not sought celebrity. In fact, in their adult years, the children rarely talked about their story. After many years in the public spotlight, they preferred their family tragedy and legacy to be private. Yet the story of the dying soldier and his family was one that touched many, during the war and throughout the country for generations afterwards.

There was to be one more public event honoring Amos Humiston. In 1993, a monument to him – the only monument at Gettysburg to an enlisted man – was dedicated near the spot where Humiston’s body was found. This battlefield mon-ument memorizes not Amos Humiston’s military heroism, but rather his love for Frank, Fred, and Alice.

Andrew Borsa graduated from Boston College in 2012 with a degree in history and English. A former intern with the Catoctin Center for Regional Studies, he currently works for Wolters Kluwer in New York City.

2 Rev. Isaac G. Ogden, “Sergeant Hummiston and His Family,” in American Presbyterian, December 17, 1863, 201.
3 Rev. Ogden, “Sergeant Hummiston and His Family,” 201.
4 Olean Times, in Dunkelman, 56; Rev. Ogden, “Sergeant Hummiston and His Family,” 201.
5 Dunkelman, 57-58.
6 Amos Humiston to Dear Wife, December 2, 1862, in Dunkelman, 72.
7 Amos Humiston to Dear Wife, May 9, 1863, in Dunkelman, 104.
8 Charles W. McKay, “Three Years or During the War,” in Dunkelman, 118.
9 Dunkelman, 120.
10 Ibid, 131-132.
11 Ibid, 138-139.
13 Philadelphia Inquirer, October 19, 1863.
14 “The Dead Soldier Identified,” American Presbyterian, November 19, 1863.
17 Dunkelman, 162.
18 Alice Humiston, quoted in Gettysburg Star and Sentinel, October 31, 1914, and Alice Humiston to Fred Humiston, October 28, 1914, in Dunkelman, 172.
19 Dunkelman, 133.
21 Ibid, 208.
22 Ibid, 182.
23 Ibid, 190.
24 Ibid, 192.
25 Ibid, 201.
26 Ibid, 207.
27 Ibid, 208.
28 Ibid, 213-222, passim.

Andrew Borsa

[125x271 to 489x552]

The Soldiers’ Orphan Home in Gettysburg in 1867

COMPANY OF ENGINEERS
From the fall of 2002 to the spring of 2014, the Catoctin Center for Regional Studies published twelve issues of *Catoctin History*. Listed below are the articles and authors that appear in each issue. These issues of *Catoctin History* can be accessed electronically at http://catoctinhistory.frederick.edu.
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(Fall/Winter 2007)

- "A Blot on Our National Character": Roger Brooke Taney and the Defense of Jacob Gruber  
  Mark S. Hudson
- "Corbit's Charge": The Battle of Westminster  
  G. Thomas Legore
- Crop of Gold: The Story of Goldfish Farming in Frederick County  
  James Rada, Jr.

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- A “Sixty-Pie” Barn: The Bank Barns of Mid-Maryland  
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  Jill Craig
- A War of Manners: Jeb Stuart’s “Sabers and Roses” Ball  
  James A. Davis

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- Almost Wright: Frank Lloyd Wright’s Vision for Sugarloaf Mountain  
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- Securing the Potomac: Colonel Charles P. Stone and the Rockville Expedition, June-July 1861  
  Timothy R. Snyder
- The Dignity of Free Men: The Story of Tolson’s Chapel in Sharpsburg  
  Edie Wallace

**Issue #12**  
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- A World War II Secret: The OSS in Catoctin Mountain Park  
  John Whiteclay Chambers II
- Invitation to Battle: Special Orders 191  
  Tracy Evans
- The Postmaster and the General: Franklin and Braddock in Frederick  
  Stephen Powell

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- Document – Traveling the Erie Canal in 1825: An Account by Margaret Schley  
  Frank G. Lesure
- Yesterday’s Headlines – Balloon Ascends, Dog Descends?!!
- Traditions – Crazy for Kraut  
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**Catoctin History Tour #9**  
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- Antietam Reunion  
  David Nathanson

**Catoctin History Tour #10**  
- Bank Barns of Frederick County  
  Lisa Mroszczyk

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- “Pitch In and Help!”  
  Jenna L. Gianni and Hannah M. Grant

**Catoctin History Tour #11**  
- Monuments of Monocacy  
  Dean Herrin and Edie Wallace

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- From the Mountain Top to Fifth Avenue

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- Children of the Battlefield  
  Andrew Burke

**Catoctin History Index**

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- Tree Stump in Marble: A Monument to Halsey  
  Sarah Hovde

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**Website Wins Award!**

The Catoctin Center for Regional Studies recently received the Maryland Preservation Award for Excellence in Media and Publications for the “Crossroads of War: Maryland and the Border in the Civil War” website. This website explores the history of the Civil War era in central Maryland and the surrounding region, offering viewers detailed information on all facets of this critical time in America’s history. From Antietam to Monocacy, Gettysburg to Harpers Ferry, and from John Brown’s Raid and the causes of the Civil War to post-war Reconstruction efforts, “Crossroads of War” provides a comprehensive look at how the war affected people’s lives in this tense border region. Interactive maps, images and videos, a guide to historic sites, lively essays, and research databases that allow users to explore period newspapers, letters, diaries, and information on hundreds of individual soldiers help make this complex and chaotic era both more understandable and more personal.

Explore the website at:  
www.crossroadsofwar.org
This unusual monument in Rose Hill Cemetery in Hagerstown, Maryland, marks the grave of Milton R. Hawken, a veteran of the Spanish-American War. Hawken was a thirty-year-old lieutenant in Company B of the First Regiment Infantry of the Maryland National Guard, based in Hagerstown, when war was declared with Spain in 1898. The regiment was renamed the First Maryland Regiment, U.S. Volunteers, and Hawken was appointed a battalion adjutant. The regiment performed garrison duty at various camps in the U.S. during the war. After the war, Hawken worked as a clerk in Hagerstown and briefly as city tax collector. He remained a member of Company B, which was designated a Maryland National Guard unit.

Milton Hawken died in 1901 of “consumption,” presumably tuberculosis, at the age of thirty-three. Seeking a fitting tribute to their fallen comrade, the men of Company B chose to honor him with this monument in the form of a tree stump, symbolizing a life cut short, and ornamented with military gear including a sword, knapsack, hat, canteen, and belt. This tree stump monument is six feet high, and was carved out of Bedford marble by the local Hagerstown marble and stone works firm of Jackson & Shuford, located on the corner of South Jonathan and Antietam Streets. The inscription on the gravestone reads:

Milton R. Hawken [sic]
1st Lieut.
Born Sept. 7, 1867
Died Feb. 2, 1901
Aged 33 Yrs. 3 Mos.
And 25 Days

And Served As
Battalion Adj.
In The 1st MD. U.S.V.
In The Spanish
American War
During 1898
Erected in fond
remembrance by his
comrade