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The **Lieber Code** of April 24, 1863, also known as Instructions for the Government of Armies of the United States in the Field, General Order № 100, or Lieber Instructions, was an instruction signed by President Abraham Lincoln, which dictated how soldiers should conduct themselves in war time. It was named after the German-American jurist and political philosopher Francis Lieber.

The main sections were concerned with martial law, military jurisdiction, treatment of spies and deserters, and how prisoners of war should be treated.

### Contents

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### Ethical treatment

The document insisted upon the humane, ethical treatment of populations in occupied areas. It was the first expressly codified law that expressly forbade giving "no quarter" to the enemy (i.e., killing prisoners of war), except in such cases when the survival of the unit that held these prisoners was threatened. It forbade the use of poisons, stating that use of such puts any force who uses them entirely outside the pale of the civilized nations and peoples; it forbade the use of torture to extract confessions; it described the rights and duties of prisoners of war and of capturing forces. It described the state of war, the state of occupied territories, the ends of war, and discusses permissible and impermissible means to attain those ends; it discussed the nature of states and sovereignties, and insurrections, rebellions, and wars. As such, it is widely considered to be the first written recital of the customary law of war, in force between the civilized nations and peoples since time immemorial, and the precursor to the Hague Regulations of 1907, the treaty-based restatement of the customary law of war.

### Sterner measures

Both the Lieber Code and the Hague Regulations of 1907, which took much of the Lieber Code and wrote it into the international treaty law, did comprehend practices that would be considered illegal or extremely questionable in this day and age. In the event of the violation of the laws of war by an enemy, the Code permitted reprisal (by musketry) against the enemy's recently captured POWs; it permitted the summary battlefield punishment (by musketry) of spies, saboteurs, francs-tireurs, and guerrilla forces, if caught in the act of carrying out their missions.

However, the code envisioned a reciprocal relationship between the population and the Army. As long as the population did not resist military authority, it was to be treated well. Should the inhabitants violate this compact by taking up arms and
supporting guerrilla movements, then they were open to sterner measures. Among these were the imposition of fines, the confiscation and/or destruction of property, the imprisonment and/or expulsion of civilians who aided guerrillas, the relocation of populations, the taking of hostages, and the possible execution of guerrillas who failed to abide by the laws of war.\[^2\] It authorized the shooting on sight of all persons not in uniform acting as soldiers and those committing, or seeking to commit, sabotage.\[^3\]

(These allowable practices were later abolished by the [Third and Fourth Geneva Conventions of 1949](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Third_Geneva_Convention), following the [Second World War](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Second_World_War), which saw these practices in the hands of totalitarian states used as the rule rather than the exception to such.)

### Philippine-American War

The Lieber Code was used extensively during the [Philippine-American War](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Philippine%E2%80%93American_War) as a justification and later a defense for actions against the native population (see [J. Franklin Bell](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/J._Franklin_Bell) and [Littleton Waller](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Littleton_Waller)).

Worcester, Agoncillo, Boot, and Miller have questioned whether the acts of American forces, specifically the practice of [reprisal](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Reprisal_%28war%29) by summary shooting of newly-captured Filipino POWs, during the Philippine-American War, were, by the standards of the day, war crimes. Instead, these scholars suggest that many of the acts were the lawful exercise of the [customary right of reprisal](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Customary_right_of_reprisal) for war crimes and atrocities committed by Filipino insurrectionist forces against American POWs, and were conducted to demonstrate to the insurrectionist forces that failure to respect the rights of American POWs would result in reprisals against Filipino POWs. Credible allegations prompting American reprisals against Filipino forces included the roasting alive of American POWs over fires, as well as the burial of living American POWs to their neck in dirt, followed by use of insects (specifically fire-ants) as means of execution.\[^4\][^5][^6][^7]

Excesses by American forces in the carrying out of reprisals, such as extending them to non-combatants, were punished by court-martial. In addition, one unquestionable set of war crimes (under the Lieber Code and the later Hague Regulations of 1907) did take place during the Philippine-American War: the [torture](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Torture) of certain Filipino insurrectionists, uncovered by the [Lodge Committee](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lodge_Committee). One particularly common means of torture was the use of what was then known as the [water cure](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Water_cure), by American forces, in one instance “...in order to secure information of the murder of Private O'Herne of Company I, who had been not only killed, but roasted and otherwise tortured before death ensued.”\[^8\]

### The Lieber Code and the development of the laws of land warfare

Many point to the Lieber Code, which was promulgated by the Union during the [American Civil War](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/American_Civil_War), as critical in the development of the laws of land warfare.\[^9\]

### See also

- [Command responsibility](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Command_responsibility)
- [International criminal law](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/International_criminal_law)
- [Laws of war](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Laws_of_war)
- [War crimes](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/War_crimes)

### External links

- [The full text of the Lieber Code](https://avalon.law.yale.edu/19th_century/lieber.asp)
- [The full text of the Lieber Code at the Yale Avalon Project](https://avalon.law.yale.edu/19th_century/lieber.asp)

### References


4. ^ Worcester 1914, p. 237 Ch.14
5. ^ Agoncillo 1990, pp. 227–231
6. ^ Boot 2003, p. 102

Categories: American Civil War documents | Laws of war | Philippine–American War | General orders

https://www.civilwarhome.com/liebercode.htm

The Lieber Code of 1863

CORRESPONDENCE, ORDERS, REPORTS, AND RETURNS OF THE UNION AUTHORITIES
FROM JANUARY 1 TO DECEMBER 31, 1863.--#7
O.R.--SERIES III--VOLUME III [S# 124]

GENERAL ORDERS No. 100.

WAR DEPT., ADJT. GENERAL’S OFFICE,
Washington, April 24, 1863.

The following "Instructions for the Government of Armies of the United States in the Field," prepared by Francis Lieber, LL.D., and revised by a board of officers, of which Maj. Gen. E. A. Hitchcock is president, having been approved by the President of the United States, he commands that they be published for the information of all concerned.

By order of the Secretary of War:

E. D. TOWNSEND,
Assistant Adjutant-General.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE GOVERNMENT OF ARMIES OF THE UNITED STATES IN THE FIELD.

SECTION I.--Martial law--Military jurisdiction--Military necessity--Retaliation.

1. A place, district, or country occupied by an enemy stands, in consequence of the occupation, under the martial law of the invading or occupying army, whether any proclamation declaring martial law, or any public warning to the inhabitants, has been issued or not. Martial law is the immediate and direct effect and consequence of occupation or conquest.
The presence of a hostile army proclaims its martial law.

2. Martial law does not cease during the hostile occupation, except by special proclamation, ordered by the commander-in-chief, or by special mention in the treaty of peace concluding the war, when the occupation of a place or territory continues beyond the conclusion of peace as one of the conditions of the same.

3. Martial law in a hostile country consists in the suspension by the occupying military authority of the criminal and civil law, and of the domestic administration and government in the occupied place or territory, and in the substitution of military rule and force for the same, as well as in the dictation of general laws, as far as military necessity requires this suspension, substitution, or dictation.

The commander of the forces may proclaim that the administration of all civil and penal law shall continue either wholly or in part, as in times of peace, unless otherwise ordered by the military authority.

4. Martial law is simply military authority exercised in accordance with the laws and usages of war. Military oppression is not martial law; it is the abuse of the power which that law confers. As martial law is executed by military force, it is incumbent upon those who administer it to be strictly guided by the principles of justice, honor, and humanity—virtues adorning a soldier even more than other men, for the very reason that he possesses the power of his arms against the unarmed.

5. Martial law should be less stringent in places and countries fully occupied and fairly conquered. Much greater severity may be exercised in places or regions where actual hostilities exist or are expected and must be prepared for. Its most complete sway is allowed—even in the commander's own country—when face to face with the enemy, because of the absolute necessities of the case, and of the paramount duty to defend the country against invasion.

To save the country is paramount to all other considerations.

6. All civil and penal law shall continue to take its usual course in the enemy’s places and territories under martial law, unless interrupted or stopped by order of the occupying military power; but all the functions of the hostile government—legislative, executive, or administrative—whether of a general, provincial, or local character, cease under martial law, or continue only with the sanction, or, if deemed necessary, the participation of the occupier or invader.

7. Martial law extends to property, and to persons, whether they are subjects of the enemy or aliens to that government.

8. Consuls, among American and European nations, are not diplomatic agents. Nevertheless, their offices and persons will be subjected to martial law in cases of urgent necessity only; their property and business are not exempted. Any delinquency they commit against the established military rule may be punished as in the case of any other inhabitant, and such punishment furnishes no reasonable ground for international complaint.

9. The functions of ambassadors, ministers, or other diplomatic agents, accredited by neutral powers to the hostile government, cease, so far as regards the displaced government; but the conquering or occupying power usually recognizes them as temporarily accredited to itself.

10. Martial law affects chiefly the police and collection of public revenue and taxes, whether imposed by the expelled government or by the invader, and refers mainly to the support and efficiency of the Army, its safety, and the safety of its operations.
11. The law of war does not only disclaim all cruelty and bad faith concerning engagements concluded with the enemy during the war, but also the breaking of stipulations solemnly contracted by the belligerents in time of peace, and avowedly intended to remain in force in case of war between the contracting powers.

It disclaims all extortions and other transactions for individual gain; all acts of private revenge, or connivance at such acts.

Offenses to the contrary shall be severely punished, and especially so if committed by officers.

12. Whenever feasible, martial law is carried out in cases of individual offenders by military courts; but sentences of death shall be executed only with the approval of the chief executive, provided the urgency of the case does not require a speedier execution, and then only with the approval of the chief commander.

13. Military jurisdiction is of two kinds: First, that which is conferred and defined by statute; second, that which is derived from the common law of war. Military offenses under the statute law must be tried in the manner therein directed; but military offenses which do not come within the statute must be tried and punished under the common law of war. The character of the courts which exercise these jurisdictions depends upon the local laws of each particular country.

In the armies of the United States the first is exercised by courts-martial; while cases which do not come within the Rules and Articles of War, or the jurisdiction conferred by statute on courts-martial, are tried by military commissions.

14. Military necessity, as understood by modern civilized nations, consists in the necessity of those measures which are indispensable for securing the ends of the war, and which are lawful according to the modern law and usages of war.

15. Military necessity admits of all direct destruction of life or limb of armed enemies, and of other persons whose destruction is incidentally unavoidable in the armed contests of the war; it allows of the capturing of every armed enemy, and every enemy of importance to the hostile government, or of peculiar danger to the captor; it allows of all destruction of property, and obstruction of the ways and channels of traffic, travel, or communication, and of all withholding of sustenance or means of life from the enemy; of the appropriation of whatever an enemy's country affords necessary for the subsistence and safety of the Army, and of such deception as does not involve the breaking of good faith either positively pledged, regarding agreements entered into during the war, or supposed by the modern law of war to exist. Men who take up arms against one another in public war do not cease on this account to be moral beings, responsible to one another and to God.

16. Military necessity does not admit of cruelty—that is, the infliction of suffering for the sake of suffering, or for revenge, nor of maiming or wounding except in fight, nor of torture to extort confessions. It does not admit of the use of poison in any way, nor of the wanton devastation of a district. It admits of deception, but disclaims acts of perfidy; and, in general, military necessity does not include any act of hostility which makes the return to peace unnecessarily difficult.

17. War is not carried on by arms alone. It is lawful to starve the hostile belligerent, armed or unarmed, so that it leads to the speedier subjection of the enemy.

18. When a commander of a besieged place expels the non-combatants, in order to lessen the number of those who consume his stock of provisions, it is lawful, though an extreme measure, to drive them back, so as to hasten on the surrender.
19. Commanders, whenever admissible, inform the enemy of their intention to bombard a place, so that the non-combatants, and especially the women and children, may be removed before the bombardment commences. But it is no infraction of the common law of war to omit thus to inform the enemy. Surprise may be a necessity.

20. Public war is a state of armed hostility between sovereign nations or governments. It is a law and requisite of civilized existence that men live in political, continuous societies, forming organized units, called states or nations, whose constituents bear, enjoy, and suffer, advance and retrograde together, in peace and in war.

21. The citizen or native of a hostile country is thus an enemy, as one of the constituents of the hostile state or nation, and as such is subjected to the hardships of the war.

22. Nevertheless, as civilization has advanced during the last centuries, so has likewise steadily advanced, especially in war on land, the distinction between the private individual belonging to a hostile country and the hostile country itself, with its men in arms. The principle has been more and more acknowledged that the unarmed citizen is to be spared in person, property, and honor as much as the exigencies of war will admit.

23. Private citizens are no longer murdered, enslaved, or carried off to distant parts, and the inoffensive individual is as little disturbed in his private relations as the commander of the hostile troops can afford to grant in the overruling demands of a vigorous war.

24. The almost universal rule in remote times was, and continues to be with barbarous armies, that the private individual of the hostile country is destined to suffer every privation of liberty and protection and every disruption of family ties. Protection was, and still is with uncivilized people, the exception.

25. In modern regular wars of the Europeans and their descendants in other portions of the globe, protection of the inoffensive citizen of the hostile country is the rule; privation and disturbance of private relations are the exceptions.

26. Commanding generals may cause the magistrates and civil officers of the hostile country to take the oath of temporary allegiance or an oath of fidelity to their own victorious government or rulers, and they may expel every one who declines to do so. But whether they do so or not, the people and their civil officers owe strict obedience to them as long as they hold sway over the district or country, at the peril of their lives.

27. The law of war can no more wholly dispense with retaliation than can the law of nations, of which it is a branch. Yet civilized nations acknowledge retaliation as the sternest feature of war. A reckless enemy often leaves to his opponent no other means of securing himself against the repetition of barbarous outrage.

28. Retaliation will therefore never be resorted to as a measure of mere revenge, but only as a means of protective retribution, and moreover cautiously and unavoidably—that is to say, retaliation shall only be resorted to after careful inquiry into the real occurrence and the character of the misdeeds that may demand retribution.

29. Modern times are distinguished from earlier ages by the existence at one and the same time of many nations and great governments related to one another in close intercourse.

Peace is their normal condition; war is the exception. The ultimate object of all
modern war is a renewed state of peace.

The more vigorously wars are pursued the better it is for humanity. Sharp wars are brief.

30. Ever since the formation and coexistence of modern nations, and ever since wars have become great national wars, war has come to be acknowledged not to be its own end, but the means to obtain great ends of state, or to consist in defense against wrong; and no conventional restriction of the modes adopted to injure the enemy is any longer admitted; but the law of war imposes many limitations and restrictions on principles of justice, faith, and honor.

SECTION II.—Public and private property of the enemy—Protection of persons, and especially of women; of religion, the arts and sciences—Punishment of crimes against the inhabitants of hostile countries.

31. A victorious army appropriates all public money, seizes all public movable property until further direction by its government, and sequesters for its own benefit or of that of its government all the revenues of real property belonging to the hostile government or nation. The title to such real property remains in abeyance during military occupation, and until the conquest is made complete.

32. A victorious army, by the martial power inherent in the same, may suspend, change, or abolish, as far as the martial power extends, the relations which arise from the services due, according to the existing laws of the invaded country, from one citizen, subject, or native of the same to another.

The commander of the army must leave it to the ultimate treaty of peace to settle the permanency of this change.

33. It is no longer considered lawful—on the contrary, it is held to be a serious breach of the law of war—to force the subjects of the enemy into the service of the victorious government, except the latter should proclaim, after a fair and complete conquest of the hostile country or district, that it is resolved to keep the country, district, or place permanently as its own and make it a portion of its own country.

34. As a general rule, the property belonging to churches, to hospitals, or other establishments of an exclusively charitable character, to establishments of education, or foundations for the promotion of knowledge, whether public schools, universities, academies of learning or observatories, museums of the fine arts, or of a scientific character—such property is not to be considered public property in the sense of paragraph 31; but it may be taxed or used when the public service may require it.

35. Classical works of art, libraries, scientific collections, or precious instruments, such as astronomical telescopes, as well as hospitals, must be secured against all avoidable injury, even when they are contained in fortified places whilst besieged or bombarded.

36. If such works of art, libraries, collections, or instruments belonging to a hostile nation or government, can be removed without injury, the ruler of the conquering state or nation may order them to be seized and removed for the benefit of the said nation. The ultimate ownership is to be settled by the ensuing treaty of peace.

In no case shall they be sold or given away, if captured by the armies of the United States, nor shall they ever be privately appropriated, or wantonly destroyed or injured.

37. The United States acknowledge and protect, in hostile countries occupied by them, religion and morality; strictly private property; the persons of the inhabitants,
especially those of women; and the sacredness of domestic relations. Offenses to the
contrary shall be rigorously punished.

This rule does not interfere with the right of the victorious invader to tax the
people or their property, to levy forced loans, to billet soldiers, or to appropriate property,
especially houses, lands, boats or ships, and the churches, for temporary and military uses.

38. Private property, unless forfeited by crimes or by offenses of the owner, can be
seized only by way of military necessity, for the support or other benefit of the Army or of
the United States.

If the owner has not fled, the commanding officer will cause receipts to be given,
which may serve the spoliated owner to obtain indemnity.

39. The salaries of civil officers of the hostile government who remain in the
invaded territory, and continue the work of their office, and can continue it according
to the circumstances arising out of the war--such as judges, administrative or political
officers, officers of city or communal governments--are paid from the public revenue of
the invaded territory until the military government has reason wholly or partially to
discontinue it. Salaries or incomes connected with purely honorary titles are always
stopped.

40. There exists no law or body of authoritative rules of action between hostile
armies, except that branch of the law of nature and nations which is called the law and
usages of war on land.

41. All municipal law of the ground on which the armies stand, or of the countries
to which they belong, is silent and of no effect between armies in the field.

42. Slavery, complicating and confounding the ideas of property (that is, of a
thing), and of personality (that is, of humanity), exists according to municipal or local law
only. The law of nature and nations has never acknowledged it. The digest of the Roman
law enacts the early dictum of the pagan jurist, that "so far as the law of nature is
concerned, all men are equal." Fugitives escaping from a country in which they were
slaves, villains, or serfs, into another country, have, for centuries past, been held free and
acknowledged free by judicial decisions of European countries, even though the municipal
law of the country in which the slave had taken refuge acknowledged slavery within its
own dominions.

43. Therefore, in a war between the United States and a belligerent which admits
of slavery, if a person held in bondage by that belligerent be captured by or come as a
fugitive under the protection of the military forces of the United States, such person is
immediately entitled to the rights and privileges of a freeman. To return such person into
slavery would amount to enslaving a free person, and neither the United States nor any
officer under their authority can enslave any human being. Moreover, a person so made
free by the law of war is under the shield of the law of nations, and the former owner or
State can have, by the law of postliminy, no belligerent lien or claim of service.

44. All wanton violence committed against persons in the invaded country, all
destruction of property not commanded by the authorized officer, all robbery, all pillage or
sacking, even after taking a place by main force, all rape, wounding, maiming, or killing of
such inhabitants, are prohibited under the penalty of death, or such other severe
punishment as may seem adequate for the gravity of the offense.

A soldier, officer, or private, in the act of committing such violence, and
disobeying a superior ordering him to abstain from it, may be lawfully killed on the spot
by such superior.
45. All captures and booty belong, according to the modern law of war, primarily to the government of the captor.

Prize money, whether on sea or land, can now only be claimed under local law.

46. Neither officers nor soldiers are allowed to make use of their position or power in the hostile country for private gain, not even for commercial transactions otherwise legitimate. Offenses to the contrary committed by commissioned officers will be punished with cashiering or such other punishment as the nature of the offense may require; if by soldiers, they shall be punished according to the nature of the offense.

47. Crimes punishable by all penal codes, such as arson, murder, maiming, assaults, highway robbery, theft, burglary, fraud, forgery, and rape, if committed by an American soldier in a hostile country against its inhabitants, are not only punishable as at home, but in all cases in which death is not inflicted the severer punishment shall be preferred.

SECTION III.--Deserters--Prisoners of war--Hostages--Booty on the battle-field.

48. Deserters from the American Army, having entered the service of the enemy, suffer death if they fall again into the hands of the United States, whether by capture or being delivered up to the American Army; and if a deserter from the enemy, having taken service in the Army of the United States, is captured by the enemy, and punished by them with death or otherwise, it is not a breach against the law and usages of war, requiring redress or retaliation.

49. A prisoner of war is a public enemy armed or attached to the hostile army for active aid, who has fallen into the hands of the captor, either fighting or wounded, on the field or in the hospital, by individual surrender or by capitulation.

All soldiers, of whatever species of arms; all men who belong to the rising en masse of the hostile country; all those who are attached to the Army for its efficiency and promote directly the object of the war, except such as are hereinafter provided for; all disabled men or officers on the field or elsewhere, if captured; all enemies who have thrown away their arms and ask for quarter, are prisoners of war, and as such exposed to the inconveniences as well as entitled to the privileges of a prisoner of war.

50. Moreover, citizens who accompany an army for whatever purpose, such as sutlers, editors, or reporters of journals, or contractors, if captured, may be made prisoners of war and be detained as such.

The monarch and members of the hostile reigning family, male or female, the chief, and chief officers of the hostile government, its diplomatic agents, and all persons who are of particular and singular use and benefit to the hostile army or its government, are, if captured on belligerent ground, and if unprovided with a safe-conduct granted by the captor's government, prisoners of war.

51. If the people of that portion of an invaded country which is not yet occupied by the enemy, or of the whole country, at the approach of a hostile army, rise, under a duly authorized levy, en masse to resist the invader, they are now treated as public enemies, and, if captured, are prisoners of war.

52. No belligerent has the right to declare that he will treat every captured man in arms of a levy en masse as a brigand or bandit.

If, however, the people of a country, or any portion of the same, already occupied by an army, rise against it, they are violators of the laws of war and are not entitled to their protection.

53. The enemy's chaplains, officers of the medical staff, apothecaries, hospital nurses,
and servants, if they fall into the hands of the American Army, are not prisoners of war, unless the commander has reasons to retain them. In this latter case, or if, at their own desire, they are allowed to remain with their captured companions, they are treated as prisoners of war, and may be exchanged if the commander sees fit.

54. A hostage is a person accepted as a pledge for the fulfillment of an agreement concluded between belligerents during the war, or in consequence of a war. Hostages are rare in the present age.

55. If a hostage is accepted, he is treated like a prisoner of war, according to rank and condition, as circumstances may admit.

56. A prisoner of war is subject to no punishment for being a public enemy, nor is any revenge wreaked upon him by the intentional infliction of any suffering, or disgrace, by cruel imprisonment, want of food, by mutilation, death, or any other barbarity.

57. So soon as a man is armed by a sovereign government and takes the soldier's oath of fidelity he is a belligerent; his killing, wounding, or other warlike acts are no individual crimes or offenses. No belligerent has a right to declare that enemies of a certain class, color, or condition, when properly organized as soldiers, will not be treated by him as public enemies.

58. The law of nations knows of no distinction of color, and if an enemy of the United States should enslave and sell any captured persons of their Army, it would be a case for the severest retaliation, if not redressed upon complaint. The United States cannot retaliate by enslavement; therefore death must be the retaliation for this crime against the law of nations.

59. A prisoner of war remains answerable for his crimes committed against the captor's army or people, committed before he was captured, and for which he has not been punished by his own authorities. All prisoners of war are liable to the infliction of retaliatory measures.

60. It is against the usage of modern war to resolve, in hatred and revenge, to give no quarter. No body of troops has the right to declare that it will not give, and therefore will not expect, quarter; but a commander is permitted to direct his troops to give no quarter, in great straits, when his own salvation makes it impossible to cumber himself with prisoners.

61. Troops that give no quarter have no right to kill enemies already disabled on the ground, or prisoners captured by other troops.

62. All troops of the enemy known or discovered to give no quarter in general, or to any portion of the Army, receive none.

63. Troops who fight in the uniform of their enemies, without any plain, striking, and uniform mark of distinction of their own, can expect no quarter.

64. If American troops capture a train containing uniforms of the enemy, and the commander considers it advisable to distribute them for use among his men, some striking mark or sign must be adopted to distinguish the American soldier from the enemy.

65. The use of the enemy's national standard, flag, or other emblem of nationality, for the purpose of deceiving the enemy in battle, is an act of perfidy by which they lose all claim to the protection of the laws of war.

66. Quarter having been given to an enemy by American troops, under a misapprehension of his true character, he may, nevertheless, be ordered to suffer death if, within three days after the battle, it be discovered that he belongs to a corps which gives no quarter.

67. The law of nations allows every sovereign government to make war upon another sovereign State, and, therefore, admits of no rules or laws different from those of regular warfare, regarding the treatment of prisoners of war, although they may belong to the army of a
government which the captor may consider as a wanton and unjust assailant.

68. Modern wars are not internecine wars, in which the killing of the enemy is the object. The destruction of the enemy in modern war, and, indeed, modern war itself, are means to obtain that object of the belligerent which lies beyond the war.

Unnecessary or revengeful destruction of life is not lawful.

69. Outposts, sentinels, or pickets are not to be fired upon, except to drive them in, or when a positive order, special or general, has been issued to that effect.

70. The use of poison in any manner, be it to poison wells, or food, or arms, is wholly excluded from modern warfare. He that uses it puts himself out of the pale of the law and usages of war.

71. Whoever intentionally inflicts additional wounds on an enemy already wholly disabled, or kills such an enemy, or who orders or encourages soldiers to do so, shall suffer death, if duly convicted, whether he belongs to the Army of the United States, or is an enemy captured after having committed his misdeed.

72. Money and other valuables on the person of a prisoner, such as watches or jewelry, as well as extra clothing, are regarded by the American Army as the private property of the prisoner, and the appropriation of such valuables or money is considered dishonorable, and is prohibited.

Nevertheless, if large sums are found upon the persons of prisoners, or in their possession, they shall be taken from them, and the surplus, after providing for their own support, appropriated for the use of the Army, under the direction of the commander, unless otherwise ordered by the Government. Nor can prisoners claim, as private property, large sums found and captured in their train, although they have been placed in the private luggage of the prisoners.

73. All officers, when captured, must surrender their side-arms to the captor. They may be restored to the prisoner in marked cases, by the commander, to signalize admiration of his distinguished bravery, or approbation of his humane treatment of prisoners before his capture. The captured officer to whom they may be restored cannot wear them during captivity.

74. A prisoner of war, being a public enemy, is the prisoner of the Government and not of the captor. No ransom can be paid by a prisoner of war to his individual captor, or to any officer in command. The Government alone releases captives, according to rules prescribed by itself.

75. Prisoners of war are subject to confinement or imprisonment such as may be deemed necessary on account of safety, but they are to be subjected to no other intentional suffering or indignity. The confinement and mode of treating a prisoner may be varied during his captivity according to the demands of safety.

76. Prisoners of war shall be fed upon plain and wholesome food, whenever practicable, and treated with humanity.

They may be required to work for the benefit of the captor's government, according to their rank and condition.

77. A prisoner of war who escapes may be shot, or otherwise killed, in his flight; but neither death nor any other punishment shall be inflicted upon him simply for his attempt to escape, which the law of war does not consider a crime. Stricter means of security shall be used after an unsuccessful attempt at escape.

If, however, a conspiracy is discovered, the purpose of which is a united or general escape, the conspirators may be rigorously punished, even with death; and capital punishment may also be inflicted upon prisoners of war discovered to have plotted rebellion against the authorities of the captors, whether in union with fellow-prisoners or other persons.
78. If prisoners of war, having given no pledge nor made any promise on their honor, forcibly or otherwise escape, and are captured again in battle, after having rejoined their own army, they shall not be punished for their escape, but shall be treated as simple prisoners of war, although they will be subjected to stricter confinement.  
79. Every captured wounded enemy shall be medically treated, according to the ability of the medical staff.  
80. Honorable men, when captured, will abstain from giving to the enemy information concerning their own army, and the modern law of war permits no longer the use of any violence against prisoners in order to extort the desired information, or to punish them for having given false information.  

SECTION IV.--Partisans--Armed enemies not belonging to the hostile army--Scouts--Armed prowlers--War-rebels.  

81. Partisans are soldiers armed and wearing the uniform of their army, but belonging to a corps which acts detached from the main body for the purpose of making inroads into the territory occupied by the enemy. If captured they are entitled to all the privileges of the prisoner of war.  
82. Men, or squads of men, who commit hostilities, whether by fighting, or inroads for destruction or plunder, or by raids of any kind, without commission, without being part and portion of the organized hostile army, and without sharing continuously in the war, but who do so with intermitting returns to their homes and avocations, or with the occasional assumption of the semblance of peaceful pursuits, divesting themselves of the character or appearance of soldiers--such men, or squads of men, are not public enemies, and therefore, if captured, are not entitled to the privileges of prisoners of war, but shall be treated summarily as highway robbers or pirates.  
83. Scouts or single soldiers, if disguised in the dress of the country, or in the uniform of the army hostile to their own, employed in obtaining information, if found within or lurking about the lines of the captor, are treated as spies, and suffer death.  
84. Armed prowlers, by whatever names they may be called, or persons of the enemy's territory, who steal within the lines of the hostile army for the purpose of robbing, killing, or of destroying bridges, roads, or canals, or of robbing or destroying the mail, or of cutting the telegraph wires, are not entitled to the privileges of the prisoner of war.  
85. War-rebels are persons within an occupied territory who rise in arms against the occupying or conquering army, or against the authorities established by the same. If captured, they may suffer death, whether they rise singly, in small or large bands, and whether called upon to do so by their own, but expelled, government or not. They are not prisoners of war; nor are they if discovered and secured before their conspiracy has matured to an actual rising or to armed violence.  

SECTION V.--Safe-conduct--Spies--War-traitors--Captured messengers--Abuse of the flag of truce.  

86. All intercourse between the territories occupied by belligerent armies, whether by traffic, by letter, by travel, or in any other way, ceases. This is the general rule, to be observed without special proclamation. Exceptions to this rule, whether by safe-conduct or permission to trade on a small
or large scale, or by exchanging mails, or by travel from one territory into the other, can take place only according to agreement approved by the Government or by the highest military authority.

Contraventions of this rule are highly punishable.

87. Ambassadors, and all other diplomatic agents of neutral powers accredited to the enemy may receive safe-conducts through the territories occupied by the belligerents, unless there are military reasons to the contrary, and unless they may reach the place of their destination conveniently by another route. It implies no international affront if the safe-conduct is declined. Such passes are usually given by the supreme authority of the state and not by subordinate officers.

88. A spy is a person who secretly, in disguise or under false pretense, seeks information with the intention of communicating it to the enemy.

The spy is punishable with death by hanging by the neck, whether or not he succeed in obtaining the information or in conveying it to the enemy.

89. If a citizen of the United States obtains information in a legitimate manner and betrays it to the enemy, be he a military or civil officer, or a private citizen, he shall suffer death.

90. A traitor under the law of war, or a war-traitor, is a person in a place or district under martial law who, unauthorized by the military commander, gives information of any kind to the enemy, or holds intercourse with him.

91. The war-traitor is always severely punished. If his offense consists in betraying to the enemy anything concerning the condition, safety, operations, or plans of the troops holding or occupying the place or district, his punishment is death.

92. If the citizen or subject of a country or place invaded or conquered gives information to his own government, from which he is separated by the hostile army, or to the army of his government, he is a war-traitor, and death is the penalty of his offense.

93. All armies in the field stand in need of guides, and impress them if they cannot obtain them otherwise.

94. No person having been forced by the enemy to serve as guide is punishable for having done so.

95. If a citizen of a hostile and invaded district voluntarily serves as a guide to the enemy, or offers to do so, he is deemed a war-traitor and shall suffer death.

96. A citizen serving voluntarily as a guide against his own country commits treason, and will be dealt with according to the law of his country.

97. Guides, when it is clearly proved that they have misled intentionally, may be put to death.

98. All unauthorized or secret communication with the enemy is considered treasonable by the law of war.

Foreign residents in an invaded or occupied territory or foreign visitors in the same can claim no immunity from this law. They may communicate with foreign parts or with the inhabitants of the hostile country, so far as the military authority permits, but no further. Instant expulsion from the occupied territory would be the very least punishment for the infraction of this rule.

99. A messenger carrying written dispatches or verbal messages from one portion of the army or from a besieged place to another portion of the same army or its government, if armed, and in the uniform of his army, and if captured while doing so in the territory occupied by the enemy, is treated by the captor as a prisoner of war. If not in
uniform nor a soldier, the circumstances connected with his capture must determine the disposition that shall be made of him.

100. A messenger or agent who attempts to steal through the territory occupied by the enemy to further in any manner the interests of the enemy, if captured, is not entitled to the privileges of the prisoner of war, and may be dealt with according to the circumstances of the case.

101. While deception in war is admitted as a just and necessary means of hostility, and is consistent with honorable warfare, the common law of war allows even capital punishment for clandestine or treacherous attempts to injure an enemy, because they are so dangerous, and it is so difficult to guard against them.

102. The law of war, like the criminal law regarding other offenses, makes no difference on account of the difference of sexes, concerning the spy, the war-traitor, or the war-rebel.

103. Spies, war-traitors, and war-rebels are not exchanged according to the common law of war. The exchange of such persons would require a special cartel, authorized by the Government, or, at a great distance from it, by the chief commander of the army in the field.

104. A successful spy or war-traitor, safely returned to his own army, and afterward captured as an enemy, is not subject to punishment for his acts as a spy or war-traitor, but he may be held in closer custody as a person individually dangerous.

SECTION VI.--Exchange of prisoners--Flags of truce--Flags of protection.

105. Exchanges of prisoners take place--number for number--rank for rank--wounded for wounded--with added condition for added condition--such, for instance, as not to serve for a certain period.

106. In exchanging prisoners of war, such numbers of persons of inferior rank may be substituted as an equivalent for one of superior rank as may be agreed upon by cartel, which requires the sanction of the Government, or of the commander of the army in the field.

107. A prisoner of war is in honor bound truly to state to the captor his rank; and he is not to assume a lower rank than belongs to him, in order to cause a more advantageous exchange, nor a higher rank, for the purpose of obtaining better treatment.

Offenses to the contrary have been justly punished by the commanders of released prisoners, and may be good cause for refusing to release such prisoners.

108. The surplus number of prisoners of war remaining after an exchange has taken place is sometimes released either for the payment of a stipulated sum of money, or, in urgent cases, of provision, clothing, or other necessaries.

Such arrangement, however, requires the sanction of the highest authority.

109. The exchange of prisoners of war is an act of convenience to both belligerents. If no general cartel has been concluded, it cannot be demanded by either of them. No belligerent is obliged to exchange prisoners of war.

A cartel is voidable as soon as either party has violated it.

110. No exchange of prisoners shall be made except after complete capture, and after an accurate account of them, and a list of the captured officers, has been taken.

111. The bearer of a flag of truce cannot insist upon being admitted. He must always be admitted with great caution. Unnecessary frequency is carefully to be avoided.

112. If the bearer of a flag of truce offer himself during an engagement, he can be
admitted as a very rare exception only. It is no breach of good faith to retain such flag of truce, if admitted during the engagement. Firing is not required to cease on the appearance of a flag of truce in battle.

113. If the bearer of a flag of truce, presenting himself during an engagement, is killed or wounded, it furnishes no ground of complaint whatever.

114. If it be discovered, and fairly proved, that a flag of truce has been abused for surreptitiously obtaining military knowledge, the bearer of the flag thus abusing his sacred character is deemed a spy.

So sacred is the character of a flag of truce, and so necessary is its sacredness, that while its abuse is an especially heinous offense, great caution is requisite, on the other hand, in convicting the bearer of a flag of truce as a spy.

115. It is customary to designate by certain flags (usually yellow) the hospitals in places which are shelled, so that the besieging enemy may avoid firing on them. The same has been done in battles when hospitals are situated within the field of the engagement.

116. Honorable belligerents often request that the hospitals within the territory of the enemy may be designated, so that they may be spared.

An honorable belligerent allows himself to be guided by flags or signals of protection as much as the contingencies and the necessities of the fight will permit.

117. It is justly considered an act of bad faith, of infamy or fiendishness, to deceive the enemy by flags of protection. Such act of bad faith may be good cause for refusing to respect such flags.

118. The besieging belligerent has sometimes requested the besieged to designate the buildings containing collections of works of art, scientific museums, astronomical observatories, or precious libraries, so that their destruction may be avoided as much as possible.

SECTION VII.--The parole.

119. Prisoners of war may be released from captivity by exchange, and, under certain circumstances, also by parole.

120. The term parole designates the pledge of individual good faith and honor to do, or to omit doing, certain acts after he who gives his parole shall have been dismissed, wholly or partially, from the power of the captor.

121. The pledge of the parole is always an individual, but not a private act.

122. The parole applies chiefly to prisoners of war whom the captor allows to return to their country, or to live in greater freedom within the captor's country or territory, on conditions stated in the parole.

123. Release of prisoners of war by exchange is the general rule; release by parole is the exception.

124. Breaking the parole is punished with death when the person breaking the parole is captured again.

Accurate lists, therefore, of the paroled persons must be kept by the belligerents.

125. When paroles are given and received there must be an exchange of two written documents, in which the name and rank of the paroled individuals are accurately and truthfully stated.

126. Commissioned officers only are allowed to give their parole, and they can give it only with the permission of their superior, as long as a superior in rank is within reach.
127. No non-commissioned officer or private can give his parole except through an officer. Individual paroles not given through an officer are not only void, but subject the individuals giving them to the punishment of death as deserters. The only admissible exception is where individuals, properly separated from their commands, have suffered long confinement without the possibility of being paroled through an officer.

128. No paroling on the battle-field; no paroling of entire bodies of troops after a battle; and no dismissal of large numbers of prisoners, with a general declaration that they are paroled, is permitted, or of any value.

129. In capitulations for the surrender of strong places or fortified camps the commanding officer, in cases of urgent necessity, may agree that the troops under his command shall not fight again during the war unless exchanged.

130. The usual pledge given in the parole is not to serve during the existing war unless exchanged. This pledge refers only to the active service in the field against the paroling belligerent or his allies actively engaged in the same war. These cases of breaking the parole are patent acts, and can be visited with the punishment of death; but the pledge does not refer to internal service, such as recruiting or drilling the recruits, fortifying places not besieged, quelling civil commotions, fighting against belligerents unconnected with the paroling belligerents, or to civil or diplomatic service for which the paroled officer may be employed.

131. If the government does not approve of the parole, the paroled officer must return into captivity, and should the enemy refuse to receive him he is free of his parole.

132. A belligerent government may declare, by a general order, whether it will allow paroling and on what conditions it will allow it. Such order is communicated to the enemy.

133. No prisoner of war can be forced by the hostile government to parole himself, and no government is obliged to parole prisoners of war or to parole all captured officers, if it paroles any. As the pledging of the parole is an individual act, so is paroling, on the other hand, an act of choice on the part of the belligerent.

134. The commander of an occupying army may require of the civil officers of the enemy, and of its citizens, any pledge he may consider necessary for the safety or security of his army, and upon their failure to give it he may arrest, confine, or detain them.

SECTION VIII.--Armistice--Capitulation.

135. An armistice is the cessation of active hostilities for a period agreed between belligerents. It must be agreed upon in writing and duly ratified by the highest authorities of the contending parties.

136. If an armistice be declared without conditions it extends no further than to require a total cessation of hostilities along the front of both belligerents. If conditions be agreed upon, they should be clearly expressed, and must be rigidly adhered to by both parties. If either party violates any express condition, the armistice may be declared null and void by the other.

137. An armistice may be general, and valid for all points and lines of the belligerents; or special--that is, referring to certain troops or certain localities only.

An armistice may be concluded for a definite time; or for an indefinite time, during which either belligerent may resume hostilities on giving the notice agreed upon to the
138. The motives which induce the one or the other belligerent to conclude an armistice, whether it be expected to be preliminary to a treaty of peace, or to prepare during the armistice for a more vigorous prosecution of the war, does in no way affect the character of the armistice itself.

139. An armistice is binding upon the belligerents from the day of the agreed commencement; but the officers of the armies are responsible from the day only when they receive official information of its existence.

140. Commanding officers have the right to conclude armistices binding on the district over which their command extends, but such armistice is subject to the ratification of the superior authority, and ceases so soon as it is made known to the enemy that the armistice is not ratified, even if a certain time for the elapsing between giving notice of cessation and the resumption of hostilities should have been stipulated for.

141. It is incumbent upon the contracting parties of an armistice to stipulate what intercourse of persons or traffic between the inhabitants of the territories occupied by the hostile armies shall be allowed, if any.

If nothing is stipulated the intercourse remains suspended, as during actual hostilities.

142. An armistice is not a partial or a temporary peace; it is only the suspension of military operations to the extent agreed upon by the parties.

143. When an armistice is concluded between a fortified place and the army besieging it, it is agreed by all the authorities on this subject that the besieger must cease all extension, perfection, or advance of his attacking works as much so as from attacks by main force.

But as there is a difference of opinion among martial jurists whether the besieged have a right to repair breaches or to erect new works of defense within the place during an armistice, this point should be determined by express agreement between the parties.

144. So soon as a capitulation is signed the capitulator has no right to demolish, destroy, or injure the works, arms, stores, or ammunition in his possession, during the time which elapses between the signing and the execution of the capitulation, unless otherwise stipulated in the same.

145. When an armistice is clearly broken by one of the parties the other party is released from all obligation to observe it.

146. Prisoners taken in the act of breaking an armistice must be treated as prisoners of war, the officer alone being responsible who gives the order for such a violation of an armistice. The highest authority of the belligerent aggrieved may demand redress for the infraction of an armistice.

147. Belligerents sometimes conclude an armistice while their plenipotentiaries are met to discuss the conditions of a treaty of peace; but plenipotentiaries may meet without a preliminary armistice; in the latter case the war is carried on without any abatement.

SECTION IX.--Assassination.

148. The law of war does not allow proclaiming either an individual belonging to the hostile army, or a citizen, or a subject of the hostile government an outlaw, who may be slain without trial by any captor, any more than the modern law of peace allows such international outlawry; on the contrary, it abhors such outrage. The sternest retaliation
should follow the murder committed in consequence of such proclamation, made by whatever authority. Civilized nations look with horror upon offers of rewards for the assassination of enemies as relapses into barbarism.

SECTION X.--**Insurrection-- Civil war--Rebellion.**

149. Insurrection is the rising of people in arms against their government, or portion of it, or against one or more of its laws, or against an officer or officers of the government. It may be confined to mere armed resistance, or it may have greater ends in view.

150. Civil war is war between two or more portions of a country or state, each contending for the mastery of the whole, and each claiming to be the legitimate government. The term is also sometimes applied to war of rebellion, when the rebellious provinces or portions of the state are contiguous to those containing the seat of government.

151. The term rebellion is applied to an insurrection of large extent, and is usually a war between the legitimate government of a country and portions of provinces of the same who seek to throw off their allegiance to it and set up a government of their own.

152. When humanity induces the adoption of the rules of regular war toward rebels, whether the adoption is partial or entire, it does in no way whatever imply a partial or complete acknowledgment of their government, if they have set up one, or of them, as an independent or sovereign power. Neutrals have no right to make the adoption of the rules of war by the assailed government toward rebels the ground of their own acknowledgment of the revolted people as an independent power.

153. Treating captured rebels as prisoners of war, exchanging them, concluding of cartels, capitulations, or other warlike agreements with them; addressing officers of a rebel army by the rank they may have in the same; accepting flags of truce; or, on the other hand, proclaiming martial law in their territory, or levying war taxes or forced loans, or doing any other act sanctioned or demanded by the law and usages of public war between sovereign belligerents, neither proves nor establishes an acknowledgment of the rebellious people, or of the government which they may have erected, as a public or sovereign power. Nor does the adoption of the rules of war toward rebels imply an engagement with them extending beyond the limits of these rules. It is victory in the field that ends the strife and settles the future relations between the contending parties.

154. Treating in the field the rebellious enemy according to the law and usages of war has never prevented the legitimate government from trying the leaders of the rebellion or chief rebels for high treason, and from treating them accordingly, unless they are included in a general amnesty.

155. All enemies in regular war are divided into two general classes--that is to say, into combatants and non-combatants, or unarmed citizens of the hostile government.

The military commander of the legitimate government, in a war of rebellion, distinguishes between the loyal citizen in the revolted portion of the country and the disloyal citizen. The disloyal citizens may further be classified into those citizens known to sympathize with the rebellion without positively aiding it, and those who, without taking up arms, give positive aid and comfort to the rebellious enemy without being bodily forced thereto.

156. Common justice and plain expediency require that the military commander
protect the manifestly loyal citizens in revolted territories against the hardships of the war as much as the common misfortune of all war admits.

The commander will throw the burden of the war, as much as lies within his power, on the disloyal citizens, of the revoluted portion or province, subjecting them to a stricter police than the non-combatant enemies have to suffer in regular war; and if he deems it appropriate, or if his government demands of him that every citizen shall, by an oath of allegiance, or by some other manifest act, declare his fidelity to the legitimate government, he may expel, transfer, imprison, or fine the revoluted citizens who refuse to pledge themselves anew as citizens obedient to the law and loyal to the government.

Whether it is expedient to do so, and whether reliance can be placed upon such oaths, the commander or his government have the right to decide.

157. Armed or unarmed resistance by citizens of the United States against the lawful movements of their troops is levying war against the United States, and is therefore treason.
Dr. Francis Lieber (March 18, 1800 – October 2, 1872), originally known as Franz Lieber, was a German-American jurist and political philosopher. The year of his birth has been debated because he lied about his age to enlist in the Prussian army. [1] He was the first American to take the title of political scientist, he is most widely known as the author of the Lieber Code during the American Civil War, [citation needed] also known as Code for the Government of Armies in the Field (1863), which laid the foundation for conventions governing the conduct of troops during wartime.

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Biography
Franz Lieber was born in Berlin, the capital of the Kingdom of Prussia. While still in Germany, Lieber joined the Colberg Regiment of the Prussian Army in 1815 during the Napoleonic Wars, and was wounded during the Battle of Waterloo [2].

Education in Germany
Francis did not receive anything like a normal gentleman's education. Returning to Berlin after the Napoleonic wars (post 1815), Francis studied hard to pass the entrance exams to the University of Berlin. But being denied admission because of his nationalist activities, which opposed the Prussian monarchy, he was denied admission. Moving to Jena he matriculated in 1820 to the University of Jena and within a span of four months finished writing a dissertation in the field of mathematics. [3] As the authorities caught up with him he left Jena for Dresden to study topography with Major Decker. His studies in Dresden were very brief for as soon as the Greek Revolution of 1821 broke out he volunteered his services. [4]

European activities
He fought briefly in the Greek War of Independence, and then spent one year, 1822–1823, in Rome in the family of the historian Niebuhr, then Prussian ambassador, as tutor to his son. While there, he wrote on his sojourn in Greece. The result was published in Leipzig in 1823 and also in Amsterdam under the title The German Anacharsis. He returned to Germany on a royal pardon, but was soon imprisoned once again, this time at Köpenick. There he wrote a collection of poems entitled Wein- und Wonne-Lieder (Songs of wine and bliss), which on his release, through the influence of Niebuhr, were published in Berlin in 1824 under the pen name of “Franz Arnold.” He fled to England in 1825, and supported himself for a year in London, giving lessons and contributing to German periodicals. He also wrote a tract on the Lancasterian system of instruction. Then he was invited to establish a gymnasium in the United States and became a member of Boston society.
American educator and writer

Lieber moved to Boston in 1827, where he became a founder and editor of the *Encyclopaedia Americana*, after conceiving of the idea of translating the *Brockhaus encyclopedia* into English. At this time, he also made translations of a French work on the revolution of July, 1830, and of Feuerbach's life of Kaspar Hauser. He was also a confident to Alexis de Tocqueville on the customs of the American people.

Lieber and Charles Follen, believing thoroughly in the importance of training the body along with the mind, were the first to introduce gymnastic training in Boston. Lieber's Boston swimming school of 1827, also a new departure in the educational field, became such a feature that John Quincy Adams, then President of the United States, went to see it.[5][6]

In 1832, he received a commission from the trustees of the newly founded Girard College to form a plan of education. He resided in Philadelphia from 1833 until 1835.

Then he became a professor of history and political economics at South Carolina College (now the University of South Carolina), where he remained until 1856. During his 20 years at the College, he produced some of his most important works. Such writers and jurists as Wittermaier, Johann Kaspar Bluntschli, Edouard René de Laboulaye, Joseph Story and James Kent, recognized in him a kindred mind. The spirit of Lieber's work is indicated in his favorite motto, *Nullum jus sine officio, nullum officium sine jure* (“No right without its duties, no duty without its rights”).[7]

From 1856 until 1865, he was professor of political economy at Columbia University (then Columbia College). In 1860, he also became professor of political science in the law school, which post he held until his death. His inaugural address as professor at Columbia, on “Individualism; and Socialism, or Communism,” was published by the college.

Civil War activities

Lieber sided with the North during the American Civil War, even though he had been a resident of South Carolina. As early as 1851, he delivered an address in South Carolina warning the southern states against secession. One of his sons, geologist Oscar Montgomery Lieber (see below), joined the Confederate army and died at the Battle of Williamsburg. During the conflict, he served as the head of the Loyal Publication Society of New York, compiling news articles for dissemination among Union troops and Northern newspapers. More than one hundred pamphlets were issued by it under his supervision, of which ten were by himself. He also assisted the Union War Department and President Abraham Lincoln in drafting legal guidelines for the Union army, the most famous being General Orders Number 100, or the "Lieber Code" as it is commonly known. The Lieber Code would be adopted by other military organizations and go on to form the basis of the first laws of war.

Preserving Confederate documents

After the Civil War, Lieber was given the task of accumulating and preserving the records of the former government of the Confederate States of America. While working in this capacity, Lieber was one of the last known people to possess the infamous Dahlgren Affair papers. Shortly after obtaining them, Lieber was ordered to give them to Secretary of War Edwin M. Stanton, who likely disposed of them, as they have not been seen since.

Diplomacy

From 1870 until his death in New York City, aged 72, Francis Lieber served as a diplomatic negotiator between the United States and Mexico.[citation needed]

Family

His son Oscar Montgomery Lieber (8 September 1830, Boston, Massachusetts - 27 June 1862 Richmond, Virginia) was a geologist, educated at Berlin, Göttingen, and Freiburg. He was state geologist of Mississippi from 1850 to 1851, engaged in the geological survey of Alabama from 1854 to 1855, and from 1856 until 1860 held the office of mineralogical, geological, and agricultural surveyor of South Carolina.

His first annual report of the last-mentioned survey was published in 1857, and the fourth and last in 1860. In 1860 he accompanied the American astronomical expedition to Labrador as geologist. At the beginning of the civil war he joined the Confederate army, and died of wounds that he received in the Battle of Williamsburg. Oscar Lieber was the author of *The Assayer's Guide* (Philadelphia, 1862), *The Analytical Chemist's Assistant*, translated from the German of Friedrich
A second son, Hamilton Lieber (7 June 1835, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania - 18 October 1876, Baden-Baden, Austria-Hungary) entered the volunteer army at the beginning of the civil war as 1st lieutenant, 9th Illinois Regiment, and was badly wounded at Fort Donelson. Afterward he was appointed a captain in the veteran reserve corps, and served during the draft riots in New York City in 1863. In 1866 he was made a captain and military storekeeper in the regular army, and was retired on account of disabilities contracted in the line of duty.

A third son, Guido Norman Lieber (b. 21 May 1837, Columbia, South Carolina - died ????) graduated from the University of South Carolina in 1856, and at Harvard Law School in 1859, and in that year was admitted to the bar of New York. At the beginning of the Civil War he became 1st lieutenant in the 11th infantry, U.S. Army, and was appointed regimental adjutant, and served during the peninsular campaign under George B. McClellan, being brevetted captain for gallantry at the Battle of Gaines' Mill on 27 June 1862. He was with his regiment at the Second Battle of Bull Run, being then appointed aide-de-camp to the general-in-chief. In 1862 he was appointed major and judge advocate, and he served in this capacity in the Department of the Gulf, being present in the Teche and Red River campaigns. For gallantry during the latter he received another brevet, and he was brevetted a third time for services during the war. He also served as adjutant general of the department, and as judge of the provost court in New Orleans. He was then transferred to the judge advocate general's office in Washington, and subsequently appointed assistant to his father in the Bureau of Confederate Archives. He afterward served as judge advocate of various military departments and divisions, being, when stationed in New York, one of the founders of the Military service institution. He was professor of law at the U. S. Military Academy from 1878 until 1882, when he was assigned to duty in Washington in the Bureau of Military Justice. In 1884 he was appointed assistant judge advocate general, with the rank of colonel, and was on duty as acting judge advocate general of the U.S. Army. In 1895, he was promoted to brigadier general and served as Judge Advocate General until 1901, in which capacity he was one of the most valuable advisers of President William McKinley during the Spanish-American War. His publications include several important treatises on the laws of war, such as The Use of the Army in Aid of the Civil Power (1898), and Remarks on the Army Regulations (1898).[8]

Works

- Notes on the Fallacies of American Protectionists
- Encyclopaedia Americana (Editor, 1829–1851)
- The Stranger in America in 2 volumes (1833–35)
- Reminiscences of Niebuhr (1835)[9]
- A Manual of Political Ethics (1838)
- Legal and Political Hermeneutics, or Principles of Interpretation and Construction in Law and Politics (1838)
- Translation of Dictionary of Latin Synonymes by Lewis Ramshorn (1839)[10]
- Laws of Property: Essays on Property and Labor (1841)
- Great events: described by distinguished historians, chroniclers, and other writers (1847)[11]
- Translation of Penitentiary System in the United States by Alexis de Tocqueville (1848)
- The West and Other Poems (1848)
- On Civil Liberty and Self-Government (1853)
- Guerrilla Parties Considered with Reference to the Laws and Usages of War (1862)[12]
- General Order No. 100 aka the Lieber Code (1863)[13]
- Reflections on the changes which may seem necessary in the present constitution of the state of New York (1867)[14]
- Memorial relative to the Verdict of Jurors (1867)
- The Unanimity of Juries (1867)
- International Copyright and Fragments of Political Science, or Nationalism and Internationalism (1868)

External links


9. Reminiscences of Niebuhr

10. Translation of Dictionary of Latin Synonymes by Lewis Ramshorn (1839)

11. Great events: described by distinguished historians, chroniclers, and other writers

12. Guerrilla Parties Considered with Reference to the Laws and Usages of War

13. General Order No. 100

14. Reflections on the changes which may seem necessary in the present constitution of the state of New York

- Biography from Yale Dictionary of American Legal Biography
- Francis Lieber on the Sources of Civil Liberty by Steven Alan Samson
- "Lieber, Francis". Appletons’ Cyclopedia of American Biography. 1892.

**Persondata**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Lieber, Francis</th>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Short description</td>
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<td>Date of birth</td>
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<td>Place of birth</td>
<td>Berlin, Kingdom of Prussia</td>
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<tr>
<td>Date of death</td>
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Categories: 1798 births | 1872 deaths | American economists | American political philosophers | Columbia University faculty | German economists | German immigrants to the United States | Prussian Army personnel of the Napoleonic Wars | People from Berlin | People from the Margraviate of Brandenburg | People of New York in the American Civil War | University of Jena alumni | Presidents of the University of South Carolina

**Francis Lieber: Biography from Answers.com**

The German-American political scientist Francis Lieber (ca. 1798-1872) is regarded as the first practitioner of political science as a separate academic discipline in ...


**Francis Lieber - Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia**

| Biography | |
| Family | |
| Works | |
| External links | |
Dr. Francis Lieber, originally known as Franz Lieber, was a German-American jurist and political philosopher. The year of his birth has been debated because he lied about his age to...

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Francis_Lieber

By order of the Secretary of War:

E. D. TOWNSEND,
Assistant Adjutant-General

Wikipedia search

(Redirected from E. D. Townsend)

Edward Davis Townsend
August 22, 1817(1817-08-22) – May 10, 1893(1893-05-10) (aged 75)

Edward D. Townsend

<table>
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<tr>
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Edward Davis Townsend (August 22, 1817 – May 10, 1893) was Adjutant General of the United States Army from 1869 to 1880.

The grandson of Vice President Elbridge Gerry, Townsend was educated at Boston's Latin School before graduating from the United States Military Academy in 1837. He was commissioned a Second Lieutenant in the Second U. S. Artillery and served as that regiment's adjutant and participating in the Second Seminole War and the relocation of the Cherokee. In 1846 he was transferred to the Adjutant General's Corps and assigned to duty in Washington, D.C. He served on the Pacific coast from 1851 to 1856, after which he returned to Washington for the remainder of his career. In February 1869 he was promoted to Brigadier General and became Adjutant General. He retired in 1880. He died in Washington in 1893 after an accidental shock from a cable car and is buried at Rock Creek Cemetery in Washington DC.
See also
- List of Adjutant Generals of the U.S. Army
- List of Massachusetts generals in the American Civil War

References

Further reading

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Military offices</th>
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<tr>
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Maj. Gen. E. A. Hitchcock

Ethan A. Hitchcock (general) (redirect from E. A. Hitchcock)
Ethan Allen Hitchcock (May 18, 1798 – August 5, 1870) was a career United States ... Gen. George B. McClellan ... as general-in-chief and Maj. ...
9 KB (1,164 words) - 20:43, 27 February 2011

William Tecumseh Sherman
Vicksburg, Mississippi Soon after, his XV Corps was ordered to join Maj. ... For instance, Alabama-born Major Henry Hitchcock, who served ...
96 KB (14,347 words) - 08:14, 1 May 2011

Dix–Hill Cartel
As Cobb's replacement, CSA General Robert E. Lee named Maj. ... General Ethan Allen Hitchcock appointed Butler as a "special agent for ...
20 KB (2,996 words) - 11:05, 4 February 2011

Second Seminole War
Gen. Walker Keith Armistead, who had earlier served in Florida as ... However, Colonel Ethan A. Hitchcock recorded in his diary, with ...
66 KB (10,811 words) - 01:16, 13 March 2011

Union Army
The board consisted of Ethan A. Hitchcock, the chairman, with ... His successor, Maj. Gen. McClellan, built and trained the massive Union ...
31 KB (4,676 words) - 13:44, 4 April 2011

List of American Civil War Generals (Union)
Bidwell, Daniel Davidson Brigadier General | 75px Bingham, Henry Harrison | Major, Judge Advocate Staff of Gen. ... W. S. Hancock Brevet ... E Union-E ...
154 KB (15,756 words) - 06:04, 9 May 2011

United States Senate Committee on the Philippines
Gen. Macarthur Testifies; He Disclaims Responsibility for Gen. ... Will Not Call Maj. Gardener; Senate Committee on the Philippines Decides by ...
35 KB (4,874 words) - 14:51, 14 October 2010

Court-martial of Fitz John Porter
Major General E.A. Hitchcock, the former chairman of the War Board, ... aside the findings and sentence of the court-martial in the case of Maj. ...
36 KB (5,623 words) - 18:21, 25 March 2011

Columbia, South Carolina in the American Civil War
Gen. Lafayette McLaws attempted ... Salkehatchie River by the right wing of Maj. ... Review of the Letters and Campaign Diaries of Henry Hitchcock. ...
11 KB (1,540 words) - 19:18, 6 March 2011

Order of battle of the Battle of Long Island
Gen. Leopold Philip von Heister A regiment from Waldeck that was ... Hitchcock's Rhode Island Regiment | Colonel Daniel Hitchcock | 368 | ...
39 KB (4,695 words) - 20:00, 28 March 2011

United States Congress Joint Committee on the Conduct of the War
Gen. Daniel Sickles, a former congressman, accused Maj. ... Thomas, Pope, Foster, Pleasanton, Hitchcock, Sheridan, and brigadier general Ricketts. ...
11 KB (1,536 words) - 00:06, 6 May 2010

Seminole Wars
Gen. Edmund Pendleton Gaines to deal with the fort. ... Major Ethan Allen Hitchcock was among those who found the remains of the Dade party ...
78 KB (12,627 words) - 19:02, 24 April 2011

American Indian Wars
110 men, left Fort Brooke under the command of Maj. Francis L. Dade. ... Subsequently Major Ethan Allen Hitchcock was among those who found ...
62 KB (9,458 words) - 17:56, 9 May 2011

Declining a British honour

Lieber Code 27 of 31
have indicated acceptance beforehand, but not always (e.g. Keith Hill). (such as Sir Alfred Hitchcock), or have initially refused an ...

37 KB (4,494 words) - 13:52, 30 April 2011

Medicine Lodge Treaty

government for fraud on behalf of the tribes in Lone Wolf v. Hitchcock. They were under the command of Maj. Joel H. Elliott, who had...

25 KB (3,780 words) - 17:04, 18 April 2011

June 1900


28 KB (4,284 words) - 16:42, 18 March 2011

Boston Brigade Band

History: Maj. Simpson was just the man to carry out successfully Capt. ... 1830s: Respectfully dedicated to Gen. J. L. C. Ame, first commander ...

19 KB (2,807 words) - 12:57, 17 November 2010

Magars

own belief system regarding life after death (Hitchcock, 1966:25-34). whereas Mongoloid eyes are very rare Lt Gen (Retd) Y. M. Bammi (PhD), ...

51 KB (7,488 words) - 20:43, 2 May 2011

Prince of Wales's Leinster Regiment

National Defence, the Hon. Edward Mortimer Macdonald, and of Maj-Gen. Hitchcock MC, Capt F. C.: STAND TO, a Diary of the Trenches 1915— ...

11 KB (1,433 words) - 10:19, 22 April 2011

Ethan A. Hitchcock (general) - Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

(Redirected from E. A. Hitchcock) ... had been relieved of his responsibilities as general-in-chief and Maj. Gen. Henry ...

en.wikipedia.org/wiki/E._A._Hitchcock - Cached

Hitchcock Ethan Allen: Free Encyclopedia Articles at Questia ...

On Sept. 30, the soldiers returned...forlorn pleas, the president ordered Maj. Gen. E.A. Hitchcock to make the swap. It took some time because the Confederates...

www.questia.com/library/encyclopedia/hitchcock_ethan... - Cached

OUR MILITARY FORCES. - The New Rules for the Government of ...

... the government of the armies of the United States in the field, prepared by FRANCIS LEIBER, LL. D., and revised by a Board of officers, of which Maj.-Gen E.A. HITCHCOCK ...

query.nytimes.com/gst/abstract.html?res=9904EFDD163EEE34...

Ethan Allen Hitchcock

May 18, 1798(1798-05-18) – August 5, 1870(1870-08-05) (aged 72)
Ethan Allen Hitchcock (May 18, 1798 – August 5, 1870) was a career United States Army officer and author who had War Department assignments in Washington, D.C., during the American Civil War, in which he served as a major general.

Contents

• 1 Early life
• 2 Civil War
• 3 Postbellum life
• 4 Contributions to alchemy studies and Jungian psychology
• 5 Musical collection
• 6 Selected works
• 7 See also
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Early life

Hitchcock was born in Vergennes, Vermont, grandson of American Revolutionary War hero General Ethan Allen. He
graduated from the United States Military Academy in 1817 (17th out of 19) and was commissioned a third lieutenant in the U.S. Artillery. From 1829 to 1833, he served as commandant of cadets at West Point and achieved the rank of the lieutenant colonel in the 3rd U.S. Infantry by 1842 in command of Fort Stansbury. [1] He served in the Seminole War in Florida, in the Pacific Northwest, and in the Mexican-American War, where he served as Gen. Winfield Scott's inspector general in the march on Mexico City. He received a brevet promotion to colonel for Contreras and Churubusco and to brigadier general for Molino del Rey. In 1851 became the colonel of the 2nd U.S. Infantry. From 1851 to 1854 he commanded the Pacific Division and then the Department of the Pacific. In October, 1855, he resigned from the Army following a refusal by Secretary of War Jefferson Davis to extend a four-month leave of absence that he had requested for reasons of health. He moved to St. Louis, Missouri, and a presumed retirement, occupying himself with writing and studies of general literature and philosophy.

Civil War

After the start of the Civil War, Hitchcock applied to return to the service, but was rejected. It was only after the intervention of his former general, Winfield Scott, that he was commissioned a major general in the U.S. Army and became special adviser to the Secretary of War from February 17, 1862. From March 17 to July 23, 1862, he served as the chairman of the War Board, the organization that assisted President Abraham Lincoln and Secretary of War Edwin M. Stanton in the management of the War Department and the command of the Union armies during the period in which there was no general-in-chief. (Maj. Gen. George B. McClellan had been relieved of his responsibilities as general-in-chief and Maj. Gen. Henry W. Halleck had not yet replaced him.) He sat on the court-martial of Maj. Gen. Fitz John Porter which convicted the general of disobedience and cowardice. From November 1862 through the end of the war, he served as Commissioner for Prisoner of War Exchange, and then Commissary-General of Prisoners until 1867.

Postbellum life

Hitchcock was mustered out of the volunteer service in 1867 and moved to Charleston, South Carolina, then to Sparta, Georgia. He died in Sparta, and is buried in West Point National Cemetery, New York.

Contributions to alchemy studies and Jungian psychology

Known as the "Pen of the Army," Ethan Allen Hitchcock was recognized by his contemporaries as an avid reader of philosophy and a published scholar.

By the time of his death, Hitchcock had amassed a large private library of philosophical texts, including over 250 volumes on the subject of alchemy. This collection was widely regarded as one of the finest private holdings of rare alchemical works and is preserved by St. Louis Mercantile Library at the University of Missouri-St. Louis. Through Remarks upon Alchemy and the Alchemists and other writings, Hitchcock argued that the alchemists were actually religious philosophers writing in symbolism. In Problems of Mysticism and its Symbolism, the Viennese psychologist Herbert Silberer credited Hitchcock with helping to open the way for his explorations of the psychological content of alchemy.

A manuscript from the Hitchcock collection

Hitchcock was a Rosicrucian and a member in Washington D. C. club along with Lincoln.[2]
Musical collection
The Major-General also played the flute and amassed a sizable collection of flute music. In the 1960s, almost one hundred years after his death, part of Hitchcock's personal music collection was discovered in Sparta, Georgia. This collection, which consists of 73 bound volumes and approximately 200 loose manuscripts, currently resides in the Warren D. Allen Music Library at Florida State University. Included in this collection are works by some of the general's contemporaries, music manuscripts handwritten by Hitchcock himself, and items of personal correspondence. The library's acquisition of these materials was celebrated in 1989 by a recital given by F.S.U. flute students and attended by several of Hitchcock's descendants.

Selected works
- Remarks upon Alchemy and Alchemists (published in 1857)
- Christ the Spirit (1861)
- The Story of the Red Book of Appin (1863)
- Spenser's Poem (1865)
- Remarks on the Sonnets of Shakespeare (1867)
- Fifty Years in Camp and Field (posthumous, 1909)
- A Traveler in Indian Territory: The Journal of Ethan Allen Hitchcock, Late Major-General in the United States Army (posthumous, 1930)

Notes

References

External links
- Military biography of Hitchcock from the Cullum biographies
- Encyclopedia of Oklahoma History and Culture - Hitchcock, Ethan Allen