Why It Matters
At the same time that national spirit and pride were growing throughout the country, a strong sectional rivalry was also developing. Both North and South wanted to further their own economic and political interests.

The Impact Today
Differences still exist between the regions of the nation but are no longer as sharp. Mass communication and the migration of people from one region to another have lessened the differences.

The American Republic to 1877 Video The chapter 13 video, "Young People of the South," describes what life was like for children in the South.
**HISTORY**

Chapter Overview
Visit tarvol1.glencoe.com and click on Chapter 13—Chapter Overviews to preview chapter information.

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**The Oliver Plantation** by unknown artist  During the mid-1800s, plantations in southern Louisiana were entire communities in themselves.

**Compare-and-Contrast Study Foldable**
Make this foldable to help you analyze the similarities and differences between the development of the North and the South.

**Step 1** Mark the midpoint of the side edge of a sheet of paper.

**Step 2** Turn the paper and fold the outside edges in to touch at the midpoint.

**Step 3** Turn and label your foldable as shown.

**Reading and Writing**  As you read the chapter, collect and write information under the appropriate tab that will help you compare and contrast the people and economics of the Northern and Southern states.

- **1845**
  - Alexander Cartwright sets rules for baseball
  - Beginning of Irish potato famine

- **1848**
  - Revolution in Austrian Empire

- **1849**
  - Thoreau writes “Civil Disobedience”

- **1850**

- **1857**
  - Sepoy Rebellion begins in India

- **1859**
  - Darwin’s *On the Origin of Species* published

- **1860**
  - U.S. population climbs to over 30 million

**Buchanan**  1857–1861
**Tyler**  1841–1845
**Polk**  1845–1849
**Taylor**  1849–1850
**Fillmore**  1850–1853
**Pierce**  1853–1857
**Fillmore**  1857–1861

**Northern**  Economy & People
**Southern**  Economy & People
The North’s Economy

Main Idea
During the 1800s, advances in technology and transportation shaped the North’s economy.

Key Terms
clipper ship, telegraph, Morse code

Reading Strategy
Organizing Information  As you read the section, re-create the diagram below and list examples of advances in transportation and technology.

Read to Learn
• how advances in technology shaped the economy of the North.
• how new kinds of transportation and communication spurred economic growth.

Section Theme
Economic Factors  Advances in technology and transportation shaped the North’s economy.

Technology and Industry
In 1800 most Americans worked on farms. Items that could not be made at home were manufactured—by hand, one at a time—by local blacksmiths, shoemakers, and tailors. By the early 1800s, changes took place in the Northern states. Power-driven machinery performed many tasks that were once done by hand. Industrialization and technology were changing the way Americans worked, traveled, and communicated.
Productive Resources

New methods in technology and business allowed the country to tap its rich supply of natural resources, increase its production, and raise the money needed for growth. The United States had the resources needed for a growing economy. Among these resources are productive resources often called the factors of production. These are land, labor, and capital. The first factor of production, land, means not just the land itself but all natural resources. The United States held a variety of natural resources that were useful for industrial production.

The second production factor is labor. Large numbers of workers were needed to turn raw materials into goods. The third production factor, capital, is the equipment—buildings, machinery, and tools—used in production. Land and labor are needed to produce capital goods. These goods, in turn, are essential for the production of consumer goods.

The terms “capital” is also used to mean money for investment. Huge amounts of money were needed to finance industrial growth. One source of money was the selling of stock by corporations. Another was corporate savings, or businesses investing a portion of their earnings in better equipment.

Improved Transportation

Improvements in transportation contributed to the success of many of America’s new industries. Between 1800 and 1850, construction crews built thousands of miles of roads and canals. The canals opened new shipping routes by connecting many lakes and rivers. The growth of the railroads in the 1840s and 1850s also helped to speed the flow of goods. Inventor Robert Fulton demonstrated a reliable steamboat in 1807. Steamboats carried goods and passengers more cheaply and quickly along inland waterways than could flatboats or sail-powered vessels.

In the 1840s canal builders began to widen and deepen canals to accommodate steamboats. By 1860 about 3,000 steamboats traveled the major rivers and canals of the country as well as the Great Lakes. Steamboats spurred the growth of cities such as Cincinnati, Buffalo, and Chicago.

In the 1840s sailing ships were improved. The clipper ships—with sleek hulls and tall sails—were the pride of the open seas. They could sail 300 miles per day, as fast as most steamships of the day. The ships got their name because they “clipped” time from long journeys. Before the clippers, the voyage from New York to Great Britain took about 21 to 28 days. A clipper ship could usually make that trip in half the time.

Picturing History

A clipper ship, the Flying Cloud, set a new record by sailing from New York to California in less than 90 days. How did clipper ships get their name?
Locomotives

The development of railroads in the United States began with short stretches of tracks that connected mines with nearby rivers. Early trains were pulled by horses rather than by locomotives. The first steam-powered passenger locomotive, the *Rocket*, began operating in Britain in 1829.

Peter Cooper designed and built the first American steam locomotive in 1830. Called the *Tom Thumb*, it got off to a bad start. In a race against a horse-drawn train in Baltimore, the *Tom Thumb*’s engine failed. Engineers soon improved the engine, and within 10 years steam locomotives were pulling trains in the United States.

A Railway Network

In 1840 the United States had almost 3,000 miles of railroad track. By 1860 it had almost 31,000 miles, mostly in the North and the Midwest. One railway linked New York City and Buffalo. Another connected Philadelphia and Pittsburgh. Yet another linked Baltimore with Wheeling, Virginia (now West Virginia).
Railway builders connected these eastern lines to lines being built farther west in Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. By 1860 a network of railroad track united the Midwest and the East.

**Moving Goods and People**

Along with canals, the railways transformed trade in the nation’s interior. The changes began with the opening of the Erie Canal in 1825 and the first railroads of the 1830s. Before this time agricultural goods were carried down the Mississippi River to New Orleans and then shipped to other countries or to the East Coast of the United States.

The development of the east-west canal and the rail network allowed grain, livestock, and dairy products to move directly from the Midwest to the East. Because goods now traveled faster and more cheaply, manufacturers in the East could offer them at lower prices.

The railroads also played an important role in the settlement and industrialization of the Midwest. Fast, affordable train travel brought people into Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. As the populations of these states grew, new towns and industries developed.

**Faster Communication**

The growth of industry and the new pace of travel created a need for faster methods of communication. The telegraph—an apparatus that used electric signals to transmit messages—filled that need.

**Samuel Morse**, an American inventor, had been seeking support for a system of telegraph lines. On May 24, 1844, Morse got the chance to demonstrate that he could send messages instantly along wires. As a crowd in the U.S. capital watched, Morse tapped in the words, “What hath God wrought!” A few moments later, the telegraph operator in Baltimore sent the same message back in reply. The telegraph worked! Soon telegraph messages were flashing back and forth between Washington and Baltimore.

Morse transmitted his message in Morse code, a series of dots and dashes representing the letters of the alphabet. A skilled Morse code operator could rapidly tap out words in the dot-and-dash alphabet. Americans adopted the telegraph eagerly. A British visitor marveled at the speed with which Americans formed telegraph companies and erected telegraph lines. Americans, he wrote, were driven to “annihilate [wipe out] distance” in their vast country. By 1852 the United States was operating about 23,000 miles of telegraph lines.

**Reading Check**  
Explaining How did canals and railways change transportation?

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**Picturing History**

The defeat of the train Tom Thumb in 1830 did not mean the end of the steam engine. The first successful use of a steam locomotive in the United States took place in South Carolina in 1831. In 1860 which regions of the United States had the most miles of railroad track?
Agriculture

The railroads gave farmers access to new markets to sell their products. Advances in technology allowed farmers to greatly increase the size of the harvest they produced.

In the early 1800s, few farmers had ventured into the treeless Great Plains west of Missouri, Iowa, and Minnesota. Even areas of mixed forest and prairie west of Ohio and Kentucky seemed too difficult for farming. Settlers worried that their wooden plows could not break the prairie’s matted sod and that the soil was not fertile.

Revolution in Agriculture

Two revolutionary inventions of the 1830s changed farming methods and encouraged settlers to cultivate larger areas of the West. One was the steel-tipped plow that John Deere invented in 1837. Far sturdier than the wooden plow, Deere’s plow easily cut through the hard-packed sod of the prairies. Equally important was the mechanical reaper, which sped up the harvesting of wheat, and the thresher, which quickly separated the grain from the stalk.

McCormick’s Reaper

Born on a Virginia farm, Cyrus McCormick became interested in machines that would ease the burden of farmwork. After years of tinkering, McCormick designed and constructed the mechanical reaper and made a fortune manufacturing and selling it.

For hundreds of years, farmers had harvested grain with handheld sickles. McCormick’s reaper could harvest grain much faster than a hand-operated sickle. Because farmers could harvest wheat so quickly, they began planting more of it. Growing wheat became profitable.

McCormick’s reaper ensured that raising wheat would remain the main economic activity in the Midwestern prairies. New machines and railroads helped farmers plant more acres in “cash” crops—crops planted strictly for sale. Midwestern farmers began growing more wheat and shipping it east by train and canal barge. Farmers in the Northeast and Middle Atlantic states increased their production of fruits and vegetables that grew well in Eastern soils.

Despite improvements in agriculture, however, the North turned away from farming and increasingly toward industry. It was difficult making a living farming the rocky soil of New England, but industry flourished in the area. The number of people who worked in factories continued to rise—and so did problems connected with factory labor.

Math

Research the number of acres of wheat harvested in the United States before and after McCormick introduced his reaper. Then create a chart or graph to illustrate your findings.
Main Idea
Many cities grew tremendously during this period.

Key Terms
trade union, strike, prejudice, discrimination, famine, nativist

Reading Strategy
Determining Cause and Effect As you read the section, re-create the diagram below and list two reasons for the growth of cities.

Read to Learn
• how working conditions in industries changed.
• how immigration affected American economic, political, and cultural life.

Section Theme
Geography and History Growth of industry and an increase in immigration changed the North.

Preview of Events
1820 1830 1840 1850 1860
1827 Freedom’s Journal, first African American newspaper, is published
1833 The General Trades Union of New York is formed
1854 American Party (Know-Nothings) forms
1860 Population of New York City passes 800,000

American Story
“At first the hours seemed very long, but I was so interested in learning that I endured it very well; when I went out at night the sound of the mill was in my ears,” a Northern mill worker wrote in 1844. The worker compared the noise of the cotton mill to the ceaseless, deafening roar of Niagara Falls. The roar of machinery was only one feature of factory life workers had to adjust to. Industrialization created new challenges for the men, women, and children who worked in the nation’s factories.

Northern Factories
Between 1820 and 1860, more and more of America’s manufacturing shifted to mills and factories. Machines took over many of the production tasks.
In the early 1800s, in the mills established in Lowell, Massachusetts, the entire production process was brought together under one roof—setting up the factory system. In addition to textiles and clothing, factories now produced such items as shoes, watches, guns, sewing machines, and agricultural machinery.
Working Conditions

As the factory system developed, working conditions worsened. Factory owners wanted their employees to work longer hours in order to produce more goods. By 1840 factory workers averaged 11.4 hours a day. As the workday grew longer, on-the-job accidents became more and more common.

Factory work involved many dangerous conditions. For example, the long leather belts that connected the machines to the factory’s water-powered driveshaft had no protective shields. Workers often suffered injuries such as lost fingers and broken bones from the rapidly spinning belts. Young children working on machines with powerful moving parts were especially at risk.

Workers often labored under unpleasant conditions. In the summer, factories were miserably hot and stifling. The machines gave off heat, and air-conditioning had not yet been invented. In the winter, workers suffered because most factories had no heating.

Factory owners often showed more concern for profits than for the comfort and safety of their employees. Employers knew they could easily replace an unhappy worker with someone else eager for a job. No laws existed to regulate working conditions or to protect workers.

Attempts to Organize

By the 1830s workers began organizing to improve working conditions. Fearing the growth of the factory system, skilled workers had formed trade unions—organizations of workers with the same trade, or skill. Steadily deteriorating working conditions led unskilled workers to organize as well.

In the mid-1830s skilled workers in New York City staged a series of strikes, refusing to work in order to put pressure on employers. Workers wanted higher wages and to limit their workday to 10 hours. Groups of skilled workers formed the General Trades Union of New York.

In the early 1800s going on strike was illegal. Striking workers could be punished by the law, or they could be fired from their jobs. In 1842 a Massachusetts court ruled that workers did have the right to strike. It would be many years, however, before workers received other legal rights.

African American Workers

Slavery had largely disappeared from the North by the 1830s. However, racial prejudice—an unfair opinion not based on facts—and discrimination—unfair treatment of a group—remained in Northern states. For example, in 1821 New York eliminated the requirement that white men had to own property in order to vote—yet few African Americans were allowed to vote. Both Rhode Island and Pennsylvania passed laws prohibiting free African Americans from voting.

Most communities would not allow free African Americans to attend public schools and barred them from public facilities as well. Often African Americans were forced into segregated, or separate, schools and hospitals.
A few African Americans rose in the business world. Henry Boyd owned a furniture manufacturing company in Cincinnati, Ohio. In 1827 Samuel Cornish and John B. Russwurm founded Freedom’s Journal, the first African American newspaper, in New York City. In 1845 Macon B. Allen became the first African American licensed to practice law in the United States. The overwhelming majority of African Americans, however, were extremely poor.

**Women Workers**

Women had played a major role in the developing mill and factory systems. However, employers discriminated against women, paying them less than male workers. When men began to form unions, they excluded women. Male workers wanted women kept out of the workplace so that more jobs would be available for men.

Some female workers attempted to organize in the 1830s and 1840s. In Massachusetts the Lowell Female Labor Reform Organization, founded by a weaver named Sarah G. Bagley, petitioned the state legislature for a 10-hour workday in 1845. Because most of the petition’s signers were women, the legislature did not consider the petition.

Most of the early efforts by women to achieve equality and justice in the workplace failed. They paved the way, however, for later movements to correct the injustices against female workers.

**The Rise of Cities**

The growth of factories went hand in hand with the growth of Northern cities. People looking for work flocked to the cities, where most of the factories were located. The population of New York City, the nation’s largest city, passed 800,000, and Philadelphia, more than 500,000 in 1860.

Between 1820 and 1840, communities that had been small villages became major cities, including St. Louis, Pittsburgh, Cincinnati, and Louisville. All of them profited from their location on the Mississippi River or one of the river’s branches. These cities became centers of the growing trade that connected the farmers of the Midwest with the cities of the Northeast. After 1830 the Great Lakes became a center for shipping, creating major new urban centers. These centers included Buffalo, Detroit, Milwaukee, and Chicago.

**Immigration**

Immigration—the movement of people into a country—to the United States increased dramatically between 1840 and 1860. American manufacturers welcomed the tide of immigrants, many of whom were willing to work for long hours and for low pay.

The largest group of immigrants to the United States at this time traveled across the Atlantic from Ireland. Between 1846 and 1860 more than 1.5 million Irish immigrants arrived in the country, settling mostly in the Northeast.

The Irish migration to the United States was brought on by a terrible potato famine. A famine is an extreme shortage of food. Potatoes were the main part of the Irish diet. When a devastating blight, or disease, destroyed Irish potato crops in the 1840s, starvation struck the country. More than one million people died.

Although most of the immigrants had been farmers in Ireland, they were too poor to buy land in the United States. For this reason many Irish immigrants took low-paying factory jobs in
Northern cities. The men who came from Ireland worked in factories or performed manual labor, such as working on the railroads. The women, who accounted for almost half of the immigrants, became servants and factory workers.

The second-largest group of immigrants in the United States between 1820 and 1860 came from Germany. Some sought work and opportunity. Others had left their homes because of the failure of a democratic revolution in Germany in 1848.

Between 1848 and 1860 more than one million German immigrants—many in family groups—settled in the United States. Many arrived with enough money to buy farms or open their own businesses. They prospered in many parts of the country, founding their own communities and self-help organizations. Some German immigrants settled in New York and Pennsylvania, but many moved to the Midwest and the western territories.

**The Impact of Immigration**

The immigrants who came to the United States between 1820 and 1860 changed the character of the country. These people brought their languages, customs, religions, and ways of
Before the early 1800s, the majority of immigrants to America had been either Protestants from Great Britain or Africans brought forcibly to America as slaves. At the time, the country had relatively few Catholics, and most of these lived around Baltimore, New Orleans, and St. Augustine. Most of the Irish immigrants and about one-half of the German immigrants were Roman Catholics.

Many Catholic immigrants settled in cities of the Northeast. The Church gave the newcomers more than a source of spiritual guidance. It also provided a center for the community life of the immigrants.

The German immigrants brought their language as well as their religion. When they settled, they lived in their own communities, founded German-language publications, and established musical societies.

**Immigrants Face Prejudice**

In the 1830s and 1840s, anti-immigrant feelings rose. Some Americans feared that immigrants were changing the character of the United States too much.

People opposed to immigration were known as nativists because they felt that immigration threatened the future of “native”—American-born—citizens. Some nativists accused immigrants of taking jobs from “real” Americans and were angry that immigrants would work for lower wages. Others accused the newcomers of bringing crime and disease to American cities. Immigrants who lived in crowded slums served as likely targets of this kind of prejudice.

**The Know-Nothing Party**

The nativists formed secret anti-Catholic societies, and in the 1850s they joined to form a new political party: the American Party. Because members of nativist groups often answered questions about their organization with the statement “I know nothing,” their party came to be known as the **Know-Nothing Party**.

The Know-Nothings called for stricter citizenship laws—extending the immigrants’ waiting period for citizenship from 5 to 21 years—and wanted to ban foreign-born citizens from holding office.

In the mid-1850s the Know-Nothing movement split into a Northern branch and a Southern branch over the question of slavery. At this time the slavery issue was also dividing the Northern and Southern states of the nation.
**Why Learn This Skill?**

Have you ever watched someone dish out pieces of pie? When the pie is cut evenly, everybody gets the same size slice. If one slice is cut a little larger, however, someone else gets a smaller piece. A **circle graph** is like a pie cut in slices. Often, a circle graph is called a **pie chart**.

**Learning the Skill**

In a circle graph, the complete circle represents a whole group—or 100 percent. The circle is divided into “slices,” or wedge-shaped sections representing parts of the whole.

The size of each slice is determined by the percentage it represents.

To read a circle graph, follow these steps:
- Study the labels or key to determine what the parts or “slices” represent.
- Compare the parts of the graph to draw conclusions about the subject.
- When two or more circle graphs appear together, read their titles and labels. Then compare the graphs for similarities and differences.

**Practicing the Skill**

*Read the graphs on this page. Then answer the following questions.*

1. **What do the four graphs represent?**
2. **What percentage of workers were in agriculture in 1840? In 1870?**
3. **During what decade did the percentage of workers in manufacturing increase the most?**
4. **What can you conclude from the graphs about the relationship between manufacturing and agricultural workers from 1840 to 1870?**

**Applying the Skill**

**Reading a Circle Graph** Find a circle graph related to the economy in a newspaper or magazine. Compare its sections. Then draw a conclusion about the economy.

Glencoe’s **Skillbuilder Interactive Workbook CD-ROM, Level 1**, provides instruction and practice in key social studies skills.
Main Idea
Cotton was vital to the economy of the South.

Key Terms
- cotton gin, capital

Reading Strategy
Comparing As you read the section, re-create the diagram. In the ovals, give reasons why cotton production grew while industrial growth was slower.

Read to Learn
- how settlement expanded in the South.
- why the economy of the South relied on agriculture.

Section Theme
Science and Technology Technology, a favorable climate, and rising demand led to the cotton boom in the Deep South.

Preview of Events
- 1780
- 1800
- 1820
- 1840
- 1860

1793
Eli Whitney invents cotton gin

1800s
Removal of Native Americans spurs expansion of cotton production

1860
The South remains largely rural and dependent on cotton

AN American Story
Cotton was “king” in the South before 1860. “Look which way you will, you see it; and see it moving,” wrote a visitor to Mobile, Alabama. “Keel boats, ships, brigs, schooners, wharves, stores, and press-houses, all appeared to be full.” Cotton was also the main topic of conversation: “I believe that in the three days that I was there... I must have heard the word cotton pronounced more than 3,000 times.”

Rise of the Cotton Kingdom
In 1790 the South seemed to be an underdeveloped agricultural region with little prospect for future growth. Most Southerners lived along the Atlantic coast in Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina in what came to be known as the Upper South.

By 1850 the South had changed. Its population had spread inland to the states of the Deep South—Georgia, South Carolina, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas. The economy of the South was thriving. Slavery, which had disappeared from the North, grew stronger than ever in the South.
Cotton Rules the Deep South

In colonial times, rice, indigo, and tobacco made up the South’s main crops. After the American Revolution, demand for these crops decreased. European mills, however, wanted Southern cotton. But cotton took time and labor to produce. After harvest, workers had to painstakingly separate the plant’s sticky seeds from the cotton fibers.

Cotton production was revolutionized when Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin in 1793. The cotton gin was a machine that removed seeds from cotton fibers, dramatically increasing the amount of cotton that could be processed. A worker could clean 50 pounds of cotton a day with the machine—instead of 1 pound by hand. Furthermore the gin was small enough for one person to carry from place to place.

Whitney’s invention had important consequences. The cotton gin led to the demand for more workers. Because the cotton gin processed cotton fibers so quickly, farmers wanted to grow more cotton. Many Southern planters relied on slave labor to plant and pick the cotton.

Cotton Production, 1820–1860

1. Human-Environment Interaction What states included areas that produced more than 45 bales of cotton per square mile?

2. Human-Environment Interaction Describe the changes in South Carolina’s areas of cotton production from 1820 to 1860.
By 1860 the economies of the Deep South and the Upper South had developed in different ways. Both parts of the South were agricultural, but the Upper South still produced tobacco, hemp, wheat, and vegetables. The Deep South was committed to cotton and, in some areas, to rice and sugarcane.

The value of enslaved people increased because of their key role in producing cotton and sugar. The Upper South became a center for the sale and transport of enslaved people throughout the region.

**Reading Check Describing** What effect did the cotton gin have on the South’s economy?

**Industry in the South**

The economy of the South prospered between 1820 and 1860. Unlike the industrial North, however, the South remained overwhelmingly rural, and its economy became increasingly different from the Northern economy. The South accounted for a small percentage of the nation’s manufacturing value by 1860. In fact, the entire South had a lower value of manufactured goods than the state of Pennsylvania.

**Barriers to Industry**

Why was there little industry in the South? One reason was the boom in cotton sales. Because agriculture was so profitable, Southerners remained committed to farming rather than starting new businesses.

Another stumbling block was the lack of capital—money to invest in businesses—in the South. To develop industries required money, but many Southerners had their wealth invested in land and slaves. Planters would have had to sell slaves to raise the money to build factories. Most wealthy Southerners were unwilling to do this. They believed that an economy based on cotton and slavery would continue to prosper.

In addition the market for manufactured goods in the South was smaller than it was in the North. A large portion of the Southern

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**TECHNOLOGY & History**

**The Cotton Gin**

In 1793 Eli Whitney visited Catherine Greene, a Georgia plantation owner. She asked him to build a device that removed the seeds from cotton pods. Whitney called the machine the cotton gin—"gin" being short for engine.

*How did the invention of the cotton gin affect slavery?*

*Eli Whitney*
population consisted of enslaved people with no money to buy merchandise. So the limited local market discouraged industries from developing.

Yet another reason for the lack of industry is that some Southerners did not want industry to flourish there. One Texas politician summed up the Southerners’ point of view this way:

“We want no manufactures; we desire no trading, no mechanical or manufacturing classes. As long as we have our rice, our sugar, our tobacco and our cotton, we can command wealth to purchase all we want.”

**Southern Factories**

While most Southerners felt confident about the future of the cotton economy, some leaders wanted to develop industry in the region. They argued that, by remaining committed to cotton production, the South was becoming dependent on the North for manufactured goods. These Southerners also argued that factories would revive the economy of the Upper South, which was less prosperous than the cotton states.

One Southerner who shared this view was **William Gregg**, a merchant from Charleston, South Carolina. After touring New England’s textile mills in 1844, Gregg opened his own textile factory in South Carolina.

In Richmond, Virginia, **Joseph Reid Anderson** took over the Tredegar Iron Works in the 1840s and made it one of the nation’s leading producers of iron. Years later during the Civil War, Tredegar provided artillery and other iron products for the Southern forces.

The industries that Gregg and Anderson built stood as the exception rather than the rule in the South. In 1860 the region remained largely rural and dependent on cotton.

**Southern Transportation**

Natural waterways provided the chief means for transporting goods in the South. Most towns were located on the seacoast or along rivers. There were few canals, and roads were poor.

Like the North, the South also built railroads, but to a lesser extent. Southern rail lines were short, local, and did not connect all parts of the region in a network. As a result Southern cities grew more slowly than cities in the North and Midwest, where railways provided the major routes of commerce and settlement. By 1860 only about one-third of the nation’s rail lines lay within the South. The railway shortage would have devastating consequences for the South during the Civil War.

**Reading Check**  
**Explaining**  
What is capital? Why is it important for economic growth?
Main Idea
The South’s population consisted of wealthy slaveholding planters, small farmers, poor whites, and enslaved African Americans.

Key Terms
yeoman, tenant farmer, fixed cost, credit, overseer, spiritual, slave code

Reading Strategy
Organizing Information As you read the section, re-create the diagram below and describe the work that was done on Southern plantations.

Read to Learn
• about the way of life on Southern plantations.
• how enslaved workers maintained strong family and cultural ties.

Section Theme
Culture and Traditions Most of the people in the South worked in agriculture in the first half of the 1800s.

Preview of Events
1808 Congress outlaws the slave trade
1831 Nat Turner leads rebellion in Virginia
1859 Arkansas orders free blacks to leave
1860 Population of Baltimore reaches 212,000

AN American Story
Planters gathered in the bright Savannah sunshine. They were asked to bid on a strong slave who could plow their fields. Fear and grief clouded the enslaved man’s face because he had been forced to leave his wife and children. Later, he wrote this letter: “My Dear wife I [write] . . . with much regret to inform you that I am Sold to a man by the name of Peterson. . . . Give my love to my father and mother and tell them good Bye for me. And if we Shall not meet in this world, I hope to meet in heaven. My Dear wife for you and my Children my pen cannot express the [grief] I feel to be parted from you all.”

Small Farms
Popular novels and films often portray the South before 1860 as a land of stately plantations owned by rich white slaveholders. In reality most white Southerners were either small farmers without slaves or planters with a handful of slaves. Only a few planters could afford the many enslaved Africans and
the lavish mansions shown in fictional accounts of the Old South. Most white Southerners fit into one of four categories: yeomen, tenant farmers, the rural poor, or plantation owners.

**Small Farmers and the Rural Poor**

The farmers who did not have slaves—**yeomen**—made up the largest group of whites in the South. Most yeomen owned land. Although they lived throughout the region, they were most numerous in the Upper South and in the hilly rural areas of the Deep South, where the land was unsuited to large plantations.

A yeoman’s farm usually ranged from 50 to 200 acres. Yeomen grew crops both for their own use and to sell, and they often traded their produce to local merchants and workers for goods and services.

Most Southern whites did not live in elegant mansions or on large plantations. They lived in far simpler homes, though the structure of their homes changed over time. In the early 1800s many lived in cottages built of wood and plaster with thatched roofs. Later many lived in one-story frame houses or log cabins.

Not all Southern whites owned land. Some rented land, or worked as **tenant farmers**, on landlords’ estates. Others—the rural poor—lived in crude cabins in wooded areas where they could clear a few trees, plant some corn, and keep a hog or a cow. They also fished and hunted for food.

The poor people of the rural South were stubbornly independent. They refused to take any job that resembled the work of enslaved people. Although looked down on by other whites, the rural poor were proud of being self-sufficient.

**Plantations**

A large plantation might cover several thousand acres. Well-to-do plantation owners usually lived in comfortable but not luxurious farmhouses. They measured their wealth partly by the number of enslaved people they controlled and partly by such possessions as homes, furnishings, and clothing. A small group of plantation owners—about 4 percent—held 20 or more slaves in 1860. The large majority of slaveholders held fewer than 10 enslaved workers.

A few free African Americans possessed slaves. The Metoyer family of Louisiana owned thousands of acres of land and more than 400 slaves. Most often, these slaveholders were free African Americans who purchased their own family members in order to free them.
**Economics**

**Plantation Owners**

The main economic goal for large plantation owners was to earn profits. Such plantations had **fixed costs**—regular expenses such as housing and feeding workers and maintaining cotton gins and other equipment. Fixed costs remained about the same year after year.

Cotton prices, however, varied from season to season, depending on the market. To receive the best prices, planters sold their cotton to agents in cities such as New Orleans, Charleston, Mobile, and Savannah. The cotton exchanges, or trade centers, in Southern cities were of vital importance to those involved in the cotton economy. The agents of the exchanges extended **credit**—a form of loan—to the planters and held the cotton for several months until the price rose. Then the agents sold the cotton. This system kept the planters always in debt because they did not receive payment for their cotton until the agents sold it.

**Plantation Wives**

The wife of a plantation owner generally was in charge of watching over the enslaved workers who toiled in her home and tending to them when they became ill. Her responsibilities also included supervising the plantation’s buildings and the fruit and vegetable gardens. Some wives served as accountants, keeping the plantation’s financial records.

Women often led a difficult and lonely life on the plantation. When plantation agriculture spread westward into Alabama and Mississippi, many planters’ wives felt they were moving into a hostile, uncivilized region. Planters traveled frequently to look at new land or to deal with agents in New Orleans or Memphis. Their wives spent long periods alone at the plantation.

**Work on the Plantation**

Large plantations needed many different kinds of workers. Some enslaved people worked in the house, cleaning, cooking, doing laundry, sewing, and serving meals. They were called domestic slaves. Other African Americans were trained as blacksmiths, carpenters, shoemakers, or weavers. Still others worked in the pastures, tending the horses, cows, sheep, and pigs. Most of the enslaved African Americans, however, were field hands. They worked from sunrise to sunset planting, cultivating, and picking cotton and other crops. They were supervised by an **overseer**—a plantation manager.

**Reading Check**

**Explaining** Why were many slaves needed on a plantation?

**Life Under Slavery**

Enslaved African Americans endured hardship and misery. They worked hard, earned no money, and had little hope of freedom. One of their worst fears was being sold to another planter and separated from their loved ones. In the face of these brutal conditions, enslaved African Americans maintained their family life as best they could and developed a culture all their own. They resisted slavery through a variety of ingenious methods, and they looked to the day when they would be liberated.

**Life in the Slave Cabins**

Enslaved people had few comforts beyond the bare necessities. Josiah Henson, an African American who escaped from slavery, described the quarters where he had lived.
"We lodged in log huts and on the bare ground. Wooden floors were an unknown luxury. In a single room were huddled, like cattle, ten or a dozen persons, men, women and children..."

Our beds were collections of straw and old rags, thrown down in the corners and boxed in with boards, a single blanket the only covering... The wind whistled and the rain and snow blew in through the cracks, and the damp earth soaked in the moisture till the floor was miry [muddy] as a pigsty.

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**Family Life**

Enslaved people faced constant uncertainty and danger. American law in the early 1800s did not protect enslaved families. At any given time a husband or wife could be sold away, or a slaveholder’s death could lead to the breakup of an enslaved family. Although marriage between enslaved people was not recognized by law, many couples did marry. Their marriage ceremonies included the phrase “until death or separation do us part”—recognizing the possibility that a marriage might end with the sale of one spouse.
To provide some measure of stability in their lives, enslaved African Americans established a network of relatives and friends, who made up their extended family. If a father or mother were sold away, an aunt, uncle, or close friend could raise the children left behind. Large, close-knit extended families became a vital feature of African American culture.

African American Culture

Enslaved African Americans endured their hardships by extending their own culture, fellowship, and community. They fused African and American elements into a new culture. The growth of the African American population came mainly from children born in the United States. In 1808 Congress had outlawed the slave trade. Although slavery remained legal in the South, no new slaves could enter the United States. By 1860 almost all the enslaved people in the South had been born there.

These native-born African Americans held on to their African customs. They continued to practice African music and dance. They passed traditional African folk stories to their children. Some wrapped colored cloths around their heads in the African style. Although a large number of enslaved African Americans accepted Christianity, they often followed the religious beliefs and practices of their African ancestors as well.

African American Christianity

For many enslaved African Americans, Christianity became a religion of hope and resistance. They prayed fervently for the day when they would be free from bondage.

The passionate beliefs of the Southern slaves found expression in the spiritual, an African American religious folk song. The song “Didn’t My Lord Deliver Daniel,” for example, refers to the biblical story of Daniel who was saved from the lions’ den.

“Didn’t my Lord deliver Daniel, deliver Daniel, deliver Daniel, Didn’t my Lord deliver Daniel, An’ why not every man?”

Spirituals provided a way for the enslaved African Americans to communicate secretly among themselves. Many spirituals combined Christian faith with laments about earthly suffering.

Slave Codes

Between 1830 and 1860 life under slavery became even more difficult because of the slave codes—the laws in the Southern states that controlled enslaved people—became more severe. In existence since the 1700s, slave codes aimed to prevent the event white Southerners dreaded most—the slave rebellion. For this reason slave codes prohibited slaves from assembling in large groups and from leaving their master’s property without a written pass.

Slave codes also made it a crime to teach enslaved people to read or write. White Southerners feared that a literate slave might lead other African Americans in rebellion. A slave who did not know how to read and write, whites believed, was less likely to rebel.

Resistance to Slavery

Some enslaved African Americans did rebel openly against their masters. One was Nat Turner, a popular religious leader among his fellow slaves. Turner had taught himself to read and write. In 1831 Turner led a group of followers on a brief, violent rampage in Southampton County, Virginia. Before being captured Turner and his followers killed at least 55 whites. Nat Turner was hanged, but his rebellion frightened white Southerners and led them to pass more severe slave codes.

Armed rebellions were rare, however. African Americans in the South knew that they would only lose in an armed uprising. For the most part enslaved people resisted slavery by working slowly or by pretending to be ill. Occasionally resistance took more active forms, such as setting fire to a plantation building or breaking tools. Resistance helped enslaved African Americans endure their lives by striking back at white masters—and perhaps establishing boundaries that white people would respect.
Born as a slave in Maryland, Harriet Tubman worked in plantation fields until she was nearly 30 years old. Then she made her break for freedom, escaping to the North with the help of the Underground Railroad. Realizing the risks of being captured, Tubman courageously made 19 trips back into the South during the 1850s to help other enslaved people escape. Altogether she assisted more than 300 individuals—including her parents—to escape from slavery. While she did not establish the Underground Railroad, she certainly became its most famous and successful conductor. Tubman was known as the “Moses of her people.” Despite huge rewards offered in the South for her capture and arrest, Tubman always managed to elude her enemies.

**Escaping Slavery**

Some enslaved African Americans tried to run away to the North. A few succeeded. Harriet Tubman and Frederick Douglass, two African American leaders who were born into slavery, gained their freedom when they fled to the North.

Yet for most enslaved people, getting to the North was almost impossible, especially from the Deep South. Most slaves who succeeded in running away escaped from the Upper South. The Underground Railroad—a network of “safe houses” owned by free blacks and whites who opposed slavery—offered assistance to runaway slaves.

Some slaves ran away to find relatives on nearby plantations or to escape punishment. Rarely did they plan to make a run for the North. Moses Grandy, who did escape, spoke about the problems runaways faced:

“They hide themselves during the day in the woods and swamps; at night they travel. . . . [I]n these dangerous journeys they are guided by the north-star, for they only know that the land of freedom is in the north.”

Most runaways were captured and returned to their owners. Discipline was severe; the most common punishment was whipping.

**Reading Check**  
Explain how did the African American spiritual develop?

**City Life and Education**

Although the South was primarily agricultural, it was the site of several large cities by the mid-1800s. By 1860 the population of Baltimore had reached 212,000 and the population of New Orleans had reached 168,000. The ten largest cities in the South were either seaports or river ports.

With the coming of the railroad, many other cities began to grow as centers of trade. Among the cities located at the crossroads of the railways were Columbia, South Carolina; Chattanooga, Tennessee; Montgomery, Alabama; Jackson, Mississippi; and Atlanta, Georgia. The population of Southern cities included white city dwellers, some enslaved workers, and many of the South’s free African Americans.
The cities provided free African Americans with opportunities to form their own communities. African American barbers, carpenters, and small traders offered their services throughout their communities. Free African Americans founded their own churches and institutions. In New Orleans they formed an opera company.

Although some free African Americans prospered in the cities, their lives were far from secure. Between 1830 and 1860 Southern states passed laws that limited the rights of free African Americans. Most states would not allow them to migrate from other states. Although spared the horrors of slavery, free African Americans were denied an equal share in economic and political life.

Education

Plantation owners and those who could afford to do so often sent their children to private schools. One of the best known was the academy operated by Moses Waddel in Willington, South Carolina. Students attended six days a week. The Bible and classical literature were stressed, but the courses also included mathematics, religion, Greek, Latin, and public speaking.

During this era, no statewide public school systems existed. However, cities such as Charleston, Louisville, and Mobile did establish excellent public schools.

By the mid-1800s, education was growing. Hundreds of public schools were operating in North Carolina by 1860. Even before that, the Kentucky legislature set up a funding system for public schools. Many states also had charity schools for students whose parents could not afford to pay.

Although the number of schools and teachers in the South grew, the South lagged behind other sections of the country in literacy, the number of people who can read and write. One reason for this was the geography of the South. Even in the more heavily populated Southern states there were few people per square mile. Virginia and North Carolina had fewer than 15 white inhabitants per square mile. In contrast, Massachusetts had 124 inhabitants per square mile.

It was too great a hardship for many Southern families to send their children great distances to attend school. In addition, many Southerners believed education was a private matter, not a state function; therefore, the state should not spend money on education.

✔ Reading Check Describing What Southern city had surpassed 200,000 in population by the year 1860?
Reviewing Key Terms
On graph paper, create a word search puzzle using the following terms. Crisscross the terms vertically and horizontally, then fill in the remaining squares with extra letters. Use the terms’ definitions as clues to find the words in the puzzle.

1. telegraph
2. nativist
3. overseer
4. yeoman
5. credit

Reviewing Key Facts
6. How did the development of the canal and rail network alter the trade route between the Midwest and the East Coast?
7. How did the telegraph influence long-distance communication?
8. Provide three reasons why cities grew in the early 1800s.
9. What was the goal of workers going on strike?
10. In what ways were women in the workforce discriminated against?
11. Why did immigration from Germany increase after 1848?
12. How did the cotton gin affect cotton production?
13. Why was there little industry in the South?
14. What was the Underground Railroad?
15. What was the purpose of the slave codes?

Critical Thinking
16. Analyzing Themes: Economic Factors How did improvements in transportation affect the economy of the North?
17. Comparing Discuss one advantage and one disadvantage of city life in the North.
18. Comparing Re-create the diagram below and compare the use of railroads in the North and South before 1860.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use of railroads</th>
<th>North</th>
<th>South</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

19. Analyzing Information Describe ways in which enslaved African Americans held on to their African customs.
Directions: Choose the best answer to the following question.

Organizations of workers having the same skills or working within the same trade are called

A nativists.
B trade unions.
C yeomen.
D congressional committees.

Test-Taking Tip
Use the process of elimination to answer this question: Which answers can you rule out as definitely wrong?