Why It’s Important

Many of the differences between the North and the South have disappeared since the 1800s. Differences still exist, but no longer are there sharp economic and cultural distinctions between the two regions. The South now has many industries, while many cities in the North now have fewer factories than they did in the 1800s. Mass communication and the migration of people from one region to another have also erased regional differences.

Chapter Themes

- Section 1, Economic Factors
- Section 2, Geography and History
- Section 3, Science and Technology
- Section 4, Culture and Traditions

On the Saint Johns River by John Bunyan Bristol  Most Southerners did not own plantations. Many were poor farmers, living off the crops they raised.
In the Northern states, technology changed the way Americans worked, traveled, and communicated. By the mid-1800s, power-driven machinery performed many tasks that were once done by hand, and factories had largely replaced cottage industries.

**Technology and Industry**

The industrialization of the North developed in three phases. In the first, manufacturers made products by dividing the tasks involved among the workers. One worker would spin thread all day and another would weave cloth—instead of having one person spinning and then weaving. During the second phase, manufacturers built factories to bring specialized workers together. This allowed products to be made more quickly than before.

In the third phase, factory workers used machinery to perform some of their work. Many of the new machines ran on waterpower or steam power. For example, power-driven looms took over the task of weaving. The worker’s job was no longer to weave but to tend the machine, which produced more products in less time.

**Mass Production**

Mass production of cotton textiles began in New England in the early 1800s. After Elias Howe invented the sewing machine in 1846, machine operators could produce clothing on a large scale from textiles made by machine. Other types...
Chapter 13
North and South

By 1860 the Northeast’s 74,000 factories produced about two-thirds of the country’s manufactured goods.

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 railroads in the 1840s and 1850s produced another means to speed the flow of goods.

Steamboats and Steamships

Inventor Robert Fulton changed river travel in 1807 with his steamboat. Steamboats carried goods and passengers more cheaply and quickly along inland waterways than flatboats or sail-powered vessels could do.

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 development of cities such as Cincinnati, Buffalo, and Chicago.

Before long, steam also powered ships across the ocean. One of the first steam-powered ocean-going vessels was an iron ship called the Great Western. On its first voyages between the United States and Great Britain in 1838, the Great Western carried a supply of sails in case the steam engine broke down in midocean.

Clipper Ships

In the 1840s sailing ships were improved. The clipper ships—with their sleek hulls and tall sails—were the pride of the open seas. They could sail an average of 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.

Famous clipper ships included the Flying Cloud, the Sea Witch, and the Cutty Sark. In 1853 the Champion of the Seas set a new record, sailing 465 miles in 24 hours. No steamship matched this speed for more than 25 years.

Locomotives

The development of railroads in the United States began with short stretches of tracks that connected mines with nearby rivers. Early trains were drawn by horses rather than by locomotives. The first steam-powered 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 some 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. Still another linked Baltimore with Wheeling, Virginia (now West Virginia).

Railway builders tied these eastern lines to lines being built 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 over railroads than they could over earlier canal, river, and wagon routes.

Map Study

1. Location To what westernmost city did the railroads extend by 1860?
2. Analyzing Information What two major cities were joined by the Baltimore and Ohio line?
faster and more cheaply, merchants in the East could sell 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 population 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.

Lines of Communication

Samuel Morse, an American inventor, had been seeking to win support for a system of telegraph lines for five years. Finally, in 1843 Congress set aside $30,000 to build an experimental line from Baltimore, Maryland, to Washington, D.C.

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 1860 the United States had constructed more than 50,000 miles of telegraph lines.

Spreading the News

In 1846 Richard Hoe invented the steam cylinder rotary press, a new kind of printing press that printed newspapers quickly and inexpensively. The rotary press prompted the start of dozens of newspapers.

Revolution in Agriculture

The railroads gave farmers access to new markets where they could sell their products. Advances in technology allowed farmers to greatly increase the size of the crops they produced.
Farm Technology

Very few farmers ventured into the treeless Great Plains west of Missouri, Iowa, and Minnesota in the early 1800s. 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.

Three 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 were the mechanical reaper, which sped up the harvesting of wheat, and the thresher, which quickly separated the grain from the stalk.

Biography

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. After patenting the reaper in 1834, McCormick opened a factory in Chicago in 1847 to mass-produce the machine. By 1860 he had sold 100,000 reapers.

For hundreds of years, farmers had harvested grain with handheld sickles. McCormick’s reaper could harvest grain four times faster than the 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.

Cash Crops

American farmers had always kept some of their crops for themselves and sold some for cash. New agricultural machines and railroads helped farmers plant more acres in cash crops and sell those crops in distant markets. Midwestern farmers began growing wheat in large quantities and shipping it east by train and canal barge. Farmers in the Northeast and the Middle Atlantic states also increased their production of cash crops, concentrating on the fruits and vegetables that grew well in Eastern soils.

Despite improvements in agriculture, however, the North turned 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.

Section 1 Assessment

Checking for Understanding

1. Identify Robert Fulton, Samuel Morse, John Deere, Cyrus McCormick.
2. Define clipper ship, telegraph, Morse code.
3. Identify the three phases of industrialization in the North.

Reviewing Themes

4. Economic Factors How did improvements in transportation affect the price of goods?

Critical Thinking

5. Determining Cause and Effect How did the steel-tipped plow aid settlers on the Great Plains?

Activity

Making a Graph 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.
Between 1820 and 1860, more and more of America’s manufacturing shifted to mills and factories. Machines took over many of the production tasks.

**Northern Factories**

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. As the workday grew longer—by 1840 factory workers averaged 11.4 hours a day—on-the-job accidents became more common.

Factory work involved some 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 showed more concern for profits than for the comfort and safety of their employees. They knew that 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.

The owners of the Lowell mills had built simple but clean lodging for employees in an effort to attract young women workers to the new industry. By the 1840s, however, factory owners no longer provided this benefit. Workers had to find their own lodging. Because of low wages, most workers ended up living in slums near the factories.

**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 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 to put pressure on employers. Workers struck to get higher wages and to limit their workday to 10 hours. In 1834 groups of skilled workers formed the General Trades Union of New York.

**The Right to Strike**

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.

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**African American Workers**

Slavery had largely disappeared from the North by 1820. 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.

Another damaging effect of prejudice in the North was that African Americans had to take the lowest-paying jobs. William J. Brown, a free African American who lived in Rhode Island in the 1830s, later wrote:

“To drive carriages, carry a market basket after the boss, and brush his boots . . . was as high as a colored man could rise.”

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**Young Man in White Apron by John Mackie Falconer**

The artist of this painting was known for his watercolors depicting New York City workers such as this African American clerk. **How did prejudice affect the lives of African Americans in the North?**
A few African Americans in the North became well-to-do businesspeople. 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. Although better off than the enslaved people of the South, Northern African Americans still suffered the cruel and lasting effects of discrimination.

**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 day 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.

**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.

**Newcomers From Ireland**

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 mainstay of the Irish diet, eaten for breakfast, lunch, and dinner. When a devastating blight, or disease, destroyed Irish potato crops in the 1840s, starvation struck the country. More than 1 million people died.

Although most of the immigrants had been farmers in Ireland, they were too poor to buy land

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**Footnotes to History**

**Birth of the Chip** In 1853 a diner at an elegant resort in Sarasota Springs, New York, refused an order of potatoes that were “too thick.” The chef, Native American George Crum, sliced and fried a batch so thin that they could not be picked up with a fork. The guest loved the crisp potatoes, and the “potato chip” was born!
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 digging ditches and working on the railroads. The women, who accounted for almost half of the immigrants, became servants and factory workers. By 1850 one-third of all workers in Boston were Irish.

**German Immigrants**

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 1 million German immigrants—mostly men—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 life with them. Various features soon filtered into American culture.

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-
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.

A New Political 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 urged Americans to fight the “alien menace.” They called for stricter citizenship laws—extending the immigrants’ waiting period for citizenship from 5 to 14 years—and wanted to ban foreign-born citizens from holding office. In 1856 the Know-Nothings supported former president Millard Fillmore as their presidential candidate. He lost to the Democratic candidate, James Buchanan.

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.

**Graph Study**

Immigration to the United States increased dramatically between 1820 and 1860.

1. Which country provided the most immigrants?
2. Analyzing Information What was the highest number of German immigrants before 1855?

**Section 2 Assessment**

**Checking for Understanding**

1. **Identify** Sarah G. Bagley, Know-Nothing Party.
2. **Define** trade union, strike, prejudice, discrimination, famine, nativist.
3. **List** three reasons workers formed unions in the 1830s.

**Reviewing Themes**

4. **Geography and History** How did German and Irish immigrants differ in where they settled?

**Critical Thinking**

5. **Making Inferences** How do you think nativists would have defined a “real” American?

**Activity**

Design a campaign poster for a Know-Nothing Party candidate.
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:

- Read the title of the graph to find out what the subject is.
- 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?

**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, Level 1 provides instruction and practice in key social studies skills.
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 into the Deep South—a band of states stretching from Georgia through South Carolina, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Missouri, Arkansas, and Texas. The economy of the South was thriving. Slavery, which was disappearing from the North, grew stronger than ever in the South. Cotton had transformed the stagnant economy of the South into a prosperous, robust economy.

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

Cotton had not always been the South’s leading cash crop. In colonial times tobacco was the most profitable crop in Virginia. Georgia and South Carolina produced ever-increasing quantities of rice and indigo.

Both tobacco and rice had drawbacks. Tobacco depended on foreign markets, so its price varied wildly. Tobacco also wore out land quickly because it stripped the soil of important nutrients. Rice could not be grown in the dry climate of inland areas.

Sugarcane, another Southern crop, was raised in southeastern Louisiana. To grow sugarcane,
farmers needed to invest large sums of money in irrigation canals and machinery. Sugarcane was therefore considered a “rich man’s crop.”

The Cotton Gin

The growth of the British textile industry in the late 1700s had created a huge demand for cotton. Unfortunately cotton was difficult to process. 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 far-reaching consequences for the South. The cotton gin led to the demand for more slaves. Because the cotton gin processed cotton fibers so quickly, farmers wanted to grow more cotton. Many Southern planters relied on slave labor to perform these tasks.

New Lands for Cotton

The removal of Native Americans from the Southeast in the early 1800s opened the way for expanding cotton production across the Deep
South. Settlers swept into the regions of Alabama and Mississippi after 1815.

With wet springs and summers and dry autumns, the Deep South was well suited for cotton production. Farmers without cotton gins or slaves could make a profit growing cotton even on small farms. They could succeed without actually owning a cotton gin because gins could be rented, and enslaved African Americans could be hired from slaveholders.

On large plantations, however, cotton growing went hand in hand with slavery. Using slave labor, the planters could plant and tend vast fields of cotton.

**Cotton Rules the Deep South**

Intense demand for cotton in Great Britain kept the price of cotton high in the years before 1860. By that year 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.

**Economics**

**Industry’s Limited Role 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 only a small percentage of the nation’s manufacturing in the 1850s. In fact, the entire South produced fewer manufactured goods than the state of Massachusetts.
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, and they saw no reason to risk their resources in new industrial ventures.

In addition the market for manufactured goods in the South was smaller than it was in the North. A large portion of the Southern 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 in the South is that some Southerners simply 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. These promoters of industry believed that, by remaining rural and 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

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**HISTORY AND ART**

*Slave Market in Richmond, Virginia* by Eyre Crowe

A British observer, Crowe showed the dignity of enslaved people. His work, however, fails to show the inhumanity of the slave market. What role did the Upper South play in promoting slavery?
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.

The railroad boom that the North experienced in the 1840s and 1850s did not take hold in the South until late in the period. Southern rail lines were short and 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.

### Section 3 Assessment

**Checking for Understanding**

1. **Identify** Eli Whitney, William Gregg, Joseph Reid Anderson.
2. **Define** cotton gin, capital.
3. **Compare** agriculture in the Upper South and Deep South.

**Reviewing Themes**

4. **Science and Technology** Why did the invention of the cotton gin increase the demand for enslaved Africans?

**Critical Thinking**

5. **Predicting Consequences** If slavery had been outlawed, how do you think it would have affected the South’s economy?

**Activity**

Creating an Advertisement Design an advertisement to sell the newly invented cotton gin.
**The South’s People**

**Read to discover . . .**
- how people lived on Southern plantations.
- what roles different people played on plantations.
- how enslaved African Americans maintained strong family and cultural ties.

**Terms to learn**
- yeoman
- overseer
- tenant farmer
- spiritual
- fixed cost
- slave code
- credit

**The Storyteller**

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 Farmers and the Rural Poor**

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.

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.

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 12 percent—held more than half of the slaves. About half of the planters held fewer than five enslaved workers.

**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 had 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.

**Life Under Slavery**

Enslaved African Americans endured appalling hardship and misery. They worked hard, earned no money, and had little hope of freedom. One of their worst fears was being resold 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.

**Enslaved Workers**

Overseers rang the wake-up bell or horn well before dawn. The enslaved workers reached the fields before the sun came up, and they stayed there until after sundown.

Planters wanted to keep the slaves busy all the time, which meant long and grueling days in the fields. Enslaved women as well as men were required to do heavy fieldwork. Young children carried buckets of water. By the age of 10, they were considered ready for fieldwork. Enslaved people who reached old age—60 or older—performed lighter chores such as weaving or caring for children.

**Eyewitness to HISTORY**

**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 [filthy] as a pigsty."

Enslaved people lived on a diet consisting mostly of cornmeal, pork fat, and molasses. Many plantation owners allowed enslaved people to have their own gardens. The slaves grew greens and yams to supplement their diet. They usually had enough to eat, but their diet often was not well balanced or nutritious.

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 husband or wife 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 and distinctive 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 and proverbs on 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. Spirituals provided a way for the enslaved African Americans to communicate secretly among themselves. Many spirituals combined Christian faith with laments about earthly suffering. The song “Didn’t My Lord Deliver Daniel,” for example, refers to the biblical tale 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?”

**Slave Codes**

Between 1830 and 1860, life under slavery became even more difficult because 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 the passage of 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.

**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 in 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 runaways.

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

Life in the Cities

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 that of New Orleans 168,000. Other cities on the rise included Charleston, Richmond, and Memphis. The population of Southern cities included white city dwellers, some enslaved workers, and a large share—about 250,000—of the South’s free African Americans.

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. In 1859 Arkansas ordered all free African Americans out of the state.

Although spared the horrors of slavery, free African Americans were denied an equal share in economic and political life.

Section 4 Assessment

Checking for Understanding

1. **Identify** Nat Turner, Harriet Tubman, Frederick Douglass, Underground Railroad.
2. **Define** yeoman, tenant farmer, fixed cost, credit, overseer, spiritual, slave code.
3. **List** two differences between yeomen and plantation owners.

Reviewing Themes

4. **Culture and Traditions** Why were extended families vital to African American culture?

Critical Thinking

5. **Making Generalizations** If you were a plantation owner, what would you tell your son or daughter if they asked why you held slaves?

Illustrating Differences **Draw scenes that illustrate differences between planters and enslaved people in the 1800s.**
Thoreau—The Abolitionist

If a man does not keep pace with his companions, perhaps it is because he hears a different drummer. Let him step to the music he hears, however measured and far away.” These are the words of a man who believed strongly in personal freedom. He believed that if a government, company, or society interferes with a person’s life, that person has a right to protest.

This man was Henry David Thoreau (1817–1862). While living in a small cabin on Walden Pond near Concord, Massachusetts, Thoreau devoted himself to the study of nature and to writing about social issues. When he saw something in society that he thought was unjust, he spoke out.

In the mid-1800s, Thoreau became very active in the abolitionist movement. He helped fugitive slaves who were following the Underground Railroad. Horrified by slavery, Thoreau never missed an opportunity to speak out against the government that allowed slavery to continue.

"How does . . . a man behave toward this American government today? I answer that he cannot without disgrace be associated with it. I cannot for an instant recognize that political organization as my government which is the slave’s government also.

. . . [W]hen a sixth of the population of a nation which has undertaken to be the refuge of liberty are slaves . . . I think that it is not too soon for honest men to rebel and revolutionize.

. . . There are thousands who are in opinion opposed to slavery and to the [Mexican] war, who yet in effect do nothing to put an end to them; who, esteeming themselves children of Washington and Franklin, sit down with their hands in their pockets, and say that they know not what to do, and do nothing. . . ."

Thoreau wrote these ideas in an essay called “Civil Disobedience.” His powerful message later influenced Martin Luther King, Jr., and Indian leader Mohandas Gandhi.

Designing a Poster  What is there in your community that needs changing? Perhaps homeless people need help or litter needs cleaning up. Design a poster to convince people in your community to take action.

Activity
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. Share your puzzle with a classmate.

telegraph
Morse code
trade union
prejudice
nativist
cotton gin
yeoman
credit
overseer
slave code

Reviewing Key Facts

1. How did the development of the canal and rail network alter the trade route between the Midwest and the East Coast?
2. How did the telegraph influence long-distance communication?
3. In what ways were women in the workforce discriminated against?
4. Why was there little industry in the South?
5. What was the purpose of the slave codes?

Critical Thinking

Comparing and Contrasting

The difference in the economies of the North and South was reflected in the way people lived.

1. Why did the North have more large cities than the South?
2. How did the lives of Northern African Americans differ from those of Southern African Americans?

Reviewing Themes

1. Economic Factors How did improvements in transportation affect the economy in the North?
2. Geography and History Discuss one advantage and one disadvantage of city life in the North.
3. Science and Technology Compare the use of railroads in the North and South before 1860.
4. Culture and Traditions Describe ways in which enslaved African Americans held on to their African customs.

Geography Activity

Study the map below and answer the questions that follow.

Northern Products in 1860

1. Place What products were developed in Ohio?
2. Location In general, where were most textile mills located?
3. Region How do the products shown here differ from the South’s products as shown on the map on page 400?
Skill Practice Activity

Reading a Circle Graph
Study the circle graphs below, then answer the questions that follow.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Populations of the North and South in 1860</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>North</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>98% white</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2% African American</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>South</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63% white</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37% African American</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. What does the information in the two graphs represent?
2. What percentage of the population in the North was white in 1860?
3. In which part of the country did African Americans make up more than one-third of the population?
4. What can you conclude from the graphs about the total population of the North and South?

Technology Activity

Using a Word Processor
Search encyclopedias and other library resources for information about the world’s cotton industry today. Find out the countries that grow cotton, quantities grown, and the types of fertilizer used, if any. Gather this information and create a minireport of interesting cotton facts. Share your report with the rest of the class.

Time Line Activity
Create a time line on which you place the following events in chronological order.
- Nat Turner leads a rebellion
- Elias Howe invents the sewing machine
- Samuel Morse sends the first telegraph message
- First steam-powered locomotive operates
- Cyrus McCormick patents the mechanical reaper
- Know-Nothing Party is formed

Cooperative Activity

History and Art
With members of your group, create a model of what you think a Southern plantation might have looked like. Your model should include a planter’s home, slave quarters, farm fields, a cookhouse, barns for the horses, and other details. Research to find illustrations to help you construct your model. Draw a design of your plantation on grid paper. Then gather scrap materials from home to construct your model. You will also need markers, glue, tape, and a large piece of stiff cardboard on which to build your model.