Great stories that embrace the history of the Palmetto State
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The Palmetto State
Get to know South Carolina...

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“Smiling faces, beautiful places!”

—Slogan seen on South Carolina license plates
Chapter 1

The Geography & People of South Carolina
South Carolina Counties
5—People & Geography

Major South Carolina Interstates

South Carolina rivers, lakes, and national forests
# South Carolina Fast Facts & Symbols

| **Statehood** | May 23, 1788  
(8th state) |
|----------------|----------------|
| **Named After** | English King Charles I  
(Charles is “Carolus” in Latin) |
| **Nickname** | The Palmetto State |
| **Land Area** | 30,111 Square Miles  
(40th largest states) |
| **Population** | 4,012,012 (2000 Census)  
(26th most populated state) |
| **Highest Point** | Sassafras Mountain  
(3,560 ft.) |
| **Lowest Point** | Atlantic Ocean  
(sea level, 187 mile coastline) |
| **Borders** | North Carolina (north)  
Georgia (west)  
Atlantic Ocean (east) |
<p>| <strong>State Bird</strong> | Carolina Wren |
| <strong>State Flower</strong> | Yellow Jessamine |
| <strong>State Tree</strong> | Cabbage Palmetto |
| <strong>State Stone</strong> | Blue Granite |</p>
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                     music by Anne C. Burgess) |
|                   | “South Carolina  
                     on my Mind”  
                     (by Hank Martin & Buzz Alredge) |
| **State Mottos**  | “Prepared in mind and  
                     resources.” |
|                   | “While I breathe, I hope.” |
South Carolina at a Glance

A brief overview of South Carolina

Where is South Carolina? Technically, the state is located from longitude 78° 30' W to 83° 20' W, and latitude 32° 4' 30" to 35° 12' N. Unfortunately, that doesn’t mean too much to the average person. It might be better to say that South Carolina is situated in the southeastern part of the United States. It is about 260 miles long and 200 miles wide, and covers 30,111 miles of land area (making it the nation’s 40th largest state).

The state’s size is not particularly impressive, but South Carolina makes the most of it. In fact, its geography runs the gamut from mountains to oceans—with plenty in between (read about the state’s geographical regions on pages 10-11). This geography has helped determine the state’s history. The fertile soil of the coastal plains made South Carolina an agricultural powerhouse in colonial times. It remained so until the Civil War (the devastation of the war defined the state for the next century, read all about it in chapter 5). The major river systems—the Edisto River, Pee Dee River, Santee River, and Savannah River—proved vital in the rise of the textile industry in the late 1800s. These rivers also helped bring electrical power to the state in the 1930s. In recent years, the prominent coastline of South Carolina, along with its mild climate (only a few areas ever get below freezing or above 90° F), has given rise to a major tourist industry. The Blue
Ridge Mountains, located in the northwestern part of the state, also attract its share of tourists.

Native Americans have lived in South Carolina for centuries, but Europeans did not find it until the French and Spanish started to explore the area in the 1500s. They arrived by way of the Atlantic Ocean, making landfall at Winyah Bay near present day Georgetown. The British established a more permanent settlement in the 1600s (the early settlements are discussed in detail in the next chapter). The lush vegetation of the area, not to mention the comfortable climate and fertile soil, fascinated the Europeans. In fact, when the land was first discovered, there were more known species of trees in South Carolina than there were in all of Europe.

Within a few years of settlement, South Carolina became one of the richest areas in the New World. The city of Charleston grew to the fifth largest city in North America. Unfortunately, the good times didn’t last forever. In the 1860s, the violent Civil War completely leveled South Carolina. The once-prosperous state went from “thriving” to “struggling” within a decade, and the hard times seemed to keep on coming.

Throughout the late 1800s, South Carolina’s agricultural economy struggled to compete with new industrial centers. The growing frustration led to poverty, racial tensions, and political corruption. It wasn’t until after World War II that things started to straighten out. At that time, South Carolinians began to welcome new industry, and the economy received a much needed boost. The Civil Rights movement of the 1950s and 1960s put an end to segregation, and racial tensions started to disappear in the 1970s.

Without question, the history of South Carolina is an up-and-down roller coaster ride. This book will give you many of the highlights of that turbulent history. Enjoy.
From Mountains to Oceans
South Carolina’s geographical regions

The tourist industry has thrived in South Carolina over the past century. It doesn’t hurt, of course, that there are so many different places to visit. This is a result of South Carolina’s wide range of geographical features.

Let’s start with the Blue Ridge Mountains. Running through the upcountry, this range provides a perfect retreat for campers and hikers. It includes remarkable land formations—such as Table Rock and Caesar’s Head—and a slew of scenic viewpoints and impressive landscapes.

The heart of South Carolina’s tourism is not in the mountains, however. It’s on the other side of the state, by the Atlantic Ocean. An impressive 187 miles of coastline has produced some of the most renowned tourist spots in the country. People come from thousands of miles away to visit Myrtle Beach and the Grand Strand, and the city of Charleston is rarely lacking for visitors.

Regardless of where the tourists decide to visit, they are probably taking advantage of the South Carolina’s geography in some way. Technically, the state is divided into several geographic regions, and each of these is often sub-divided into smaller regions. On the most basic level, the state consists of coast, the piedmont, and the mountains. Of course, it’s impossible to keep things that simple.

The area defined as the “Coastal Plain” usually includes everything from the Atlantic shoreline to seventy miles inland. The beaches and islands on the far eastern part make up the “Coastal Zone,” and are easily the most coveted tourist locations in the state. They are also the most susceptible to hurricanes and other tropical storms.

A Little Extra...
The Chattooga River runs through the mountains of South Carolina, and has become a favorite spot for whitewater rafting.

It became legendary, however, in 1972, when scenes from the blockbuster movie Deliverance were filmed there.
A few miles inland from the Coastal Zone is the “Outer Coastal Plain.” This area is relatively flat, and most of its soil is recent sediment, such as sand and silt. A number of rivers run through the Outer Coastal Plain, and a large portion of it is swamplands. If you come inland just a little further, you reach the “Inner Coastal Plains.” This region consists of rolling hills, though it is far from mountainous. The Inner Coastal Plains is the location of South Carolina’s most fertile soil, which helped serve the agricultural needs of residents for centuries. This fertile soil has enabled several natural pine tree forests to thrive in the area.

Once you head further inland from the Coastal Plains, you come across an extremely interesting geographical feature. There is a thin strip of sand hills running across the state. These sand hills raise a simple question—where did they come from? It is believed that at one time the ocean was higher and the Coastal Plain regions were under water. These sand hills are remnants of old coastal dunes.

Continuing the trek west, you enter the “Piedmont” region. The Piedmont is about 100 miles wide, and consists of slightly higher elevations (anywhere from 400 to 1,200 feet above sea level). The most significant feature of this region is the Fall Line. This is where the rivers of the mountains and higher areas literally “fall” into the Coastal Plain. The power of water along the Fall Line became an early power source for various mills in the area.

The elevations continue to increase as you head west from the Piedmont, until you eventually get to the mountains. A small strip of the Appalachian Mountains (often called the Blue Ridge Mountains) runs through the northwestern part of South Carolina, reaching elevations of up to 3,000 feet. The mountain region in South Carolina is sometimes called the “Alpine” region. It is most prominent in Oconee and Pickens counties.
Meet the People

An overview of South Carolinians

According to the 2000 census, South Carolina had a population of 4,012,012 people, making it the 26th most populated state in the nation. Within that population is a diverse group of citizens, including men and women from several different ethnicities and backgrounds.

South Carolina is the home to thousands of Asians, Hispanics, and Native Americans, although the bulk of the population is either white (just under 70%) or African American (about 30%). Fortunately, these different groups live and work peacefully together—but that hasn’t always been the case.

During colonial times, settlers from Barbados introduced the plantation system to South Carolina. While this system was profitable, it also relied on slave labor. Most African Americans in South Carolina worked as slaves prior to the Civil War (during these years, the slave population was higher than the white population). Even though slavery ended after the war, the issues between whites and African Americans did not. Racial tensions plagued the state for over a century, resulting in segregation laws and radical groups (such as the Ku Klux Klan). It wasn’t until the early 1970s, after all of the public schools finally integrated, that those racial tensions began to disappear.

Many people in South Carolina pride themselves in being part of the “Deep South,” though there is less distinction as the 21st century begins. Over a century ago, the states in the Deep South were primarily agricultural, with cotton being the most important crop. That is no longer the case. The majority of South Carolinians have moved away from the farms, and industry has spread throughout the state. Textile mills began to pop up in the late 1800s, and the tourism industry started to thrive in the early
1900s. Today, the economy of South Carolina is strong, and the people work in a wide variety of jobs.

Agriculture is still important to the state, although tobacco and soybeans have replaced cotton as leading crops. Poultry, cattle, and hogs are also big opportunities for South Carolina farmers.

When industry started to compete with agriculture in South Carolina, many families moved from the farms to the cities. Today, cities and urban areas make up about 10% of the land in South Carolina, though they hold a greater percentage of the population. Columbia is currently the largest city in the state (≈117,000 people), and it is followed by Charleston (≈100,000 people). Other notable cities are North Charleston, Greenville, and Rock Hill, all of which have at least 50,000 residents.

The migration from the rural areas to the cities was common throughout the nation in the 1800s and early 1900s. South Carolina, however, hung onto its agricultural roots longer than most northern states, many of which already had industrial cities prior to the Civil War. In fact, South Carolina’s reluctance to welcome industry led to a few major problems. In the 1920s, a boll weevil infestation destroyed much of the state’s cotton crop. Over the next two decades, literally hundreds of thousands of African American farm workers left the state. Most went north to find new opportunities, and to escape the racial discrimination of the South.

This “outmigration” wasn’t limited to African Americans. Between World War I and World War II, many educated white citizens also left South Carolina. They felt that industrial centers offered more potential for their education and talents. That was one of the reasons why Governor Strom Thurmond, when he was elected in 1947, made an effort to attract industry in the state. (you’ll read much more about the population shifts and the economic struggles of South Carolina in the later chapters).

Today, the population of South Carolina is moving in the right direction. It is increasing steadily, nearly at the same rate as the national population. While the future isn’t certain, it does seem bright.
A Taste of Carolina

Trademark foods of South Carolina

Don’t joke about barbecue in South Carolina—you might offend someone. Barbecue is one of the many foods that South Carolinians take very seriously. Thousands of arguments (and perhaps a fight here and there) have arisen over the issue of “vinegar-based” barbecue versus “mustard-based” barbecue. If you’re in the eastern part of the state, expect your barbecue to be prepared with vinegar and pepper. Likewise, if you’re in the Piedmont region, get ready for the mustard sauce. Either way, you’re probably in for a tasty meal.

While South Carolina might be most famous for its barbecue, it certainly has its share of staple dishes. Try the boiled peanuts, for example. They might seem a little too squishy at first, but many South Carolinians are “addicted” to them. Another trademark of the state is sweet tea. Iced tea is available all around the country, of course, but it’s customary to add sugar if you want the tea to be sweet. Not in South Carolina. In fact, if you don’t want your tea to be sweet, you should probably speak up while you’re ordering.

With a 187-mile coastline, it’s not surprising that South Carolina is also known for its seafood. Fresh fish, shrimp, and even crab can be found on menus across the state. Coastal cities like Charleston and Myrtle Beach are nationally renowned for their seafood restaurants. Charleston has its own world famous dish—“She-Crab Soup.” This meal is a delicate combination crabmeat (preferably a female crab) and sherry wine.

South Carolina is part of the Deep South. This has given the state a unique political history, but it has also given rise to a wide variety of “down-home southern cooking.” On any given night, you can find South Carolina families feasting on fried chicken, cole slaw (or simply “slaw”), and deviled eggs. Old-fashioned banana pudding usually works well for dessert.
Over the past few decades, fast-food restaurants and New-York style pizza joints have been built throughout South Carolina, even in the smallest towns. Many residents, however, still seem determined to hold onto their southern cooking traditions. It also helps that these chain restaurants have yet to put shrimp and grits, and other staple items, on the menu.

The wide range of food isn’t something that is new to South Carolina. The first Europeans to explore the area (from Spain and France, which you’ll read about in the next chapter), saw it as a land of “milk and honey.” There were plenty of forests for settlers to hunt wild game and rivers for seafood.

One of the major problems of the early northern settlements (such as where the Pilgrims landed in Massachusetts in 1620) was finding food during the winter. With its mild climate and vast resources, settlers in South Carolina didn’t have this problem. Aside from the hunting and fishing, the Carolina soil proved to be highly fertile. By the 1680s, the settlers were growing rice for food and profit, and the state remained an agricultural powerhouse for over a century.

A Side Note…

Food Festival

Aside from taking pride in their wide range of foods, South Carolinians also celebrate it. Below are some of the many food festivals that take place each year within the state:

- Apple Festival  
  Oconee County
- Peach Festival  
  Gaffney
- Poultry Festival  
  Batesburg-Leesville
- Catfish Festival  
  St. Stephen
- Oyster Festival  
  Columbia / Charleston
- Sweet Potato Festival  
  Darlington
- Rice Festival  
  Walterboro
- Grits Festival  
  St. George
- Shrimp Festival  
  Beaufort
- WineFest  
  Hilton Head Island
“Our sovereign lord the King having, out of his royal grace and bounty, granted unto us the province of Carolina...”

—John Locke, Renowned political philosopher

Excerpt from the preamble of The Fundamental Constitutions of Carolina

Written March 1, 1669, to establish the first government for the early settlers in the Carolina territory.
Chapter 2

The history of

South Carolina

during

Exploration, Settlement, & Colonial Times
New Land up for Grabs

European nations compete for the Carolinas

Great Britain was slow to get out of the gate. The empire had fallen behind Portugal and Spain, both of which were racing to establish new settlements in the Americas.

It all started in 1492, when explorer Christopher Columbus stumbled upon a large, undiscovered continent lying west of Europe. It made little difference that Columbus was never really looking for new land. Instead, he had been employed by Spanish King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella to find a quicker trade route to Asia by sailing westward (Columbus had originally approached Portugal with the idea, but he did not get any support).

Columbus’s discovery gave Spain a jump-start on settling the Americas. In 1521, explorer Francisco Gordillo came to the “Sea Islands” of South Carolina, located in the area now known as Beaufort County. By 1526, the Spanish felt that they were ready to build a settlement—they were wrong. About 600 Spaniards built a small town known as San Miguel de Gualdape on the Atlantic Coast (it is uncertain whether the settlement was in present day South Carolina or Georgia). By the end of twelve months, disease and hunger claimed the lives of nearly four out of five of the settlers. The rest returned home.

The Spanish had more success building settlements in South America and Mexico, but they didn’t want to give up on the land further north. In the 1540s, veteran explorer Hernando de Soto journeyed up the coastline. De Soto made his first trip to America in his early twenties, and he eventually helped claim Florida for Spain. De Soto continued to track the coastline northward until he hit the lowcountry of South Carolina. Convinced that there was great treasure to be found, he traveled inland and became the first European to explore the Mississippi River. He never did find the treasure he was looking for, but his explorations proved valuable to future generations.
19—Settlement & Colonial Times

The Spanish rulers realized early on that colonies in the Americas provided land, resources, and prestige. Of course, the Spanish weren’t the only ones who wanted in on the action. All of the powers in Europe—Spain, Portugal, France, and England—wanted to get a foothold in the New World. The French were among the first to come up with a plan of their own.

In the mid 1520s, King Francis I employed Giovanno da Verrazano to explore the coastline from Florida to Canada. Verrazano landed at Cape Fear, near the outer banks, and traveled north. In 1562, Jean Ribault took it a step further. He led a group of French Huguenots (Protestants who were continually being persecuted in France – read pages 26-27) to start a settlement on Parris Island in South Carolina. The French immediately built Charlesfort, named in honor of their king, Charles IX.

Not surprisingly, the Spanish weren’t happy that the French were trying to move into the Americas. For the next few years, the two nations battled one another for control of the new continent. In the end, neither was able to establish a permanent settlement. Within a few years, the French abandoned Charlesfort after running short of supplies. Fort San Felipe (built near the ruins of Charlesfort) didn’t fare much better. The Spanish fort was attacked and destroyed by Native Americans. Despite efforts to repair it, the fort was completely abandoned by the 1590s.

As the Spanish and French battled for control of the eastern coast of America, the British appeared to be sitting on the sidelines. History now shows that this was a good strategy. In the mid-1600s, the British decided to enter the game in full force. They claimed a huge piece of land on the eastern part of North America that the other European nations had been fighting over for years. The British settlements marked the beginning of the colonial period in South Carolina (you can read more about the first British settlers on pages 22-23).
What Did They Find?
First impressions of SC to European settlers

Prior to the early 1500s, South Carolina was virtually unknown to the people of Europe. When news of the land got back to "Old World", many Europeans wasted no time in coming to explore and settle in the new territories. Everyone had a different reason for coming. Some wanted to escape persecution, others were seeking fortune, and still others hoped to find a better life. There was another reason for coming to South Carolina—it made a great first impression.

The early settlers in South Carolina were astounded by the area’s lush vegetation—especially the trees. The Europeans stumbled upon extensive forests with dozens of different species of trees. In fact, they found more species of trees than were known to exist on the entire continent of Europe at the time.

There was another reason to be excited about the heavy vegetation. The wide assortment of plants and trees proved that the Carolinas had a healthful and mild climate, not to mention its highly fertile soil (this quickly made Carolina one of the leading agricultural producers in the New World—more on that later). The early settlers also found their share of fish and wild game.

Rumors of South Carolina traveled back to Europe, and it gained a reputation as a land of abundance—and opportunity. This wasn’t far from the truth. Many settlers from Europe and elsewhere made a fortune in South Carolina, especially after the introduction of the plantation system (check out pages 38-39).

Unfortunately, as the European population grew, settlers in South Carolina discovered a few drawbacks. For starters, South Carolina already had its share of residents. Over forty different
Indian tribes lived within the territory during colonial times. These tribes were classified as Indians of the Eastern Woodlands (because they lived east of the Mississippi River) — but that was about all that they had in common. Most of the tribes spoke different languages, practiced different customs, and worshipped different gods. In fact, many of the tribes were often at war with one another.

During the colonial era, the relationship between the Europeans settlers and the Native Americans varied drastically. On some occasions, the white settlers and the Indians lived together peacefully, conducting trade and offering various services. At other times, bloody wars broke out between the settlers and the Natives. While dozens of small tribes existed throughout the state, colonial history was really shaped by three groups of Native Americans — the Cherokee, Catawba, and Yamasee (there will be much more on the relationship between the Native Americans and white settlers later in the chapter).

Like other areas of the New World, the potential of the Carolinas excited Europeans. The previous passage discussed the early French and Spanish explorations in the area. These two nations were the first to arrive in South Carolina, but their stay proved to be only temporary. When you turn the page, you will read about how England finally got into the game in the late 1600s, and managed to set up permanent colonies in South Carolina.
An English Colony

England lays claim to the Carolinas

It’s hard to imagine an English explorer with a name like Giovanni Caboto. That’s because he was born Italy, where he spent much of his time becoming an able navigator and sailor. In 1492, Caboto heard the news of Christopher Columbus sailing west from Europe and discovering the American continents. Like Caboto, Columbus was Italian. Columbus had gone to Spain to get money for his journey. This seemed like a good strategy to Caboto, so he decided to approach England for some funding.

Today, Giovanni Caboto is known by the more common name of John Cabot. That’s what the English decided to call him when they hired him to set sail and find a shorter trade route to Asia. Just as Christopher Columbus had done five years earlier, John Cabot ran into America before he got to Asia. He landed much further north than Columbus, near Canada and Newfoundland.

Through Cabot’s voyage, the British set foot in America as early as 1497, but it was well over a century before they laid claim to what is now the United States. During the 1500s, English explorers tried to establish settlements in America, but they all failed (lack of food, supplies, experience, and unwelcoming Natives were the major obstacles). In 1607, the London Virginia Company landed 104 men at Jamestown, Virginia. This became England’s first permanent settlement in America.

Meanwhile, back in England, everyone seemed to have a different idea about who should control the land in the New World. King James I was in charge when Jamestown was founded (thus the name Jamestown). When Charles I became king in 1625, he took a different approach. He gave a huge land grant— including all of present day North and South Carolina— to Sir Robert Heath. Heath was a powerful judge at the time, but certainly not an expert on real estate. For over thirty years, he let the valuable land sit idle.

King Charles I had more important things on his mind than making America prosper. He was the center focus of the English Civil War, a rebellion that abolished the monarchy and ultimately ended in his beheading. When the turmoil died down, the monarchy was restored with Charles II (the son of Charles I) at the throne.
Charles II had his own plans for America. In 1663, he chose eight of his most loyal supporters and made them “Lord Proprietors” of the Carolinas. At this same time, explorer William Hilton was busy leading his ship, the *Adventurer*, up the Carolina coast and throughout the Cape Fear region. Hilton accurately mapped out the area and gave insight about the Native Americans (*Hilton dealt extensively with the local tribes when he tried to convince them to release British castaways*).

Anthony Ashley-Cooper, one of the eight Lord Proprietors, was ready to set up a British colony at Albemarle Point by 1670. The community was located near two rivers, appropriately named the Ashley and Cooper Rivers. Albemarle Point evolved into the city of Charles Town (*in honor of King Charles II*)—and it didn’t stay small for long.

### A Side Note...

**The Fundamental Constitutions of Carolina**

During the Enlightenment of the 17th century, philosopher **John Locke** changed the way people thought about government. He believed that people were born with natural rights—such as life, liberty, and property. It was not the job of a government to give people these rights (*people had them regardless of what the government said*). An effective government was meant only to protect these basic rights.

One of the first documents that revealed Locke’s beliefs was the *Fundamental Constitutions of Carolina*, written in 1669. He worked with Lord Proprietor Anthony Ashley Cooper to draft this system of government intended to be followed by the settlers in the Carolina territories. Unfortunately, the document was a bit too rigid and confusing for the men to strictly follow.

Over the next few decades, Locke was able to refine his thoughts on government. In fact, his works became an inspiration for many of the ideas set forth in the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution written a century later.
Meet the Natives

Native Americans of colonial South Carolina

The Europeans started traveling to the Carolinas in the 16th century—but they didn’t exactly “discover” the area. Native Americans had been living on the land for centuries before they arrived. The Natives built villages, worked on farms, practiced religion, and lived a completely self-sufficient lifestyle.

The South Carolina territory was full of Native Americans—over thirty different tribes lived in the area. The Cherokee Indians, for example, made their home in the foothills of the Blue Ridge Mountains (today, this area would include the counties of Anderson, Cherokee, Greenville, Oconee, Pickens, and Spartanburg). The tribesmen hunted bear and deer, and they were even skilled farmers.

Of course, it’s not exactly accurate to say that the Native Americans “lived peacefully” before the arrival of the Europeans. The Cherokee Indians came to South Carolina to avoid continuous fighting with other Indian Tribes (mostly the Iroquois) in the Great Lakes area. Even within South Carolina, the different tribes were often at war with one another.

Surprisingly, the first exchanges between the white settlers and the Cherokee were relatively diplomatic. The Natives traded their deerskin for tools, such as hammers and saws, as well as firearms. Unfortunately, as the years passed (and the Cherokee realized that the Europeans were here to stay), the relationship began to sour.

Living to the east of the Cherokee Indians, in the area now known as York County, were the Catawba Indians. For the most part, these two tribes didn’t get along well at all, though they became strange allies when the British started to colonize in the late 1600s. At the start of the 17th century, there were about 5,000 Catawbas living in the woodlands of northern South Carolina. By 1775, this number had dwindled to less than 500 (this decline was due to fighting with the British and—even more deadly—the spread of European diseases).
Fortunately, the Catawba Tribe did not go extinct (which was the fate of most tribes living in South Carolina during the 1600s). The number of Catawbas rebounded to well over 1,000 by the 1990s, and the tribe was granted federal recognition in 1993. With this recognition came a large land grant in York County, as well as $50,000,000. In fact, the Catawba tribe is currently the only tribe officially recognized by the state of South Carolina.

As the Cherokee and Catawba tribes dealt with the British in the northern part of the state, the Yamasee Indians had their own problems in the south. The Yamasee had been living in Florida for centuries when the Spanish came in the 1500s. For a while, the two cultures got along fine, but Spanish efforts to put the Yamasee Indians to work as slaves sparked a rebellion. In the late 1600s, many of the Yamasee Indians fled north, eventually settling in South Carolina.

Like they had with the Spanish, the Yamasee tribe lived in peace with the British—at first. In 1715, a war broke out between the Yamasee and the English, eventually leading to the demise of the Natives. But there will be more on that later.
26—South Carolina

Huguenots Come to Town
French Protestants migrate to South Carolina

Being a Protestant in 16th century France was not an easy task. The Huguenots (French Protestants) were the focus of constant persecution and ridicule. The Catholics living in France at the time gave them the most trouble. It just so happened that the vast majority of France, along with the rest of Europe, was Catholic.

This clash between Protestants and Catholics became the cause of the appropriately named “French Wars of Religion” in the late 1500s. This war proved to be a disaster for the Huguenots. In 1562, Catholics murdered over 1,000 Huguenots in Vassy, France. Ten years later, several thousand more met their death at the bloody St. Bartholomew’s Day Massacre (see the “Fast Fact” box).

Finally, the Huguenots caught a break. In 1589, King Henry IV took the throne of France. Technically, Henry had to be a Catholic to rule the nation, but he had a soft spot for the Huguenot cause. In fact, he had once been a Huguenot leader. Henry IV converted to Catholicism only when he had the opportunity to become king, explaining, “Paris is well worth the mass.”

In 1598, King Henry IV issued the Edict of Nantes to put an end to the persecution of the Huguenots. While it didn’t make them the most loved group in France, the Edict did give the Huguenots religious freedom, civil rights, and a general safe haven. In short, it made life bearable.

With the fighting over, it seemed that the Huguenots and the Catholics could put their differences aside and unite as a nation. That’s not exactly what happened. In 1643, King Louis
XIV took over the throne—and he hated the Huguenots. At first, there wasn’t much that he could do. Huguenot rights were, after all, protected by the Edict of Nantes.

After a few decades of frustration, King Louis XIV finally did the unthinkable. In 1685, he revoked the Edict of Nantes (even though it was supposed to be irrevocable). Once again, it was fair game to murder, humiliate, and persecute the Huguenots.

Having learned their lesson during the French War of Religion a century earlier, many Huguenots decided to head for the hills. About 200,000 of them packed their bags and left France, moving to places like Germany, Switzerland, Britain, and even South Africa. Some even came to the Americas.

Several thousand Huguenots migrated to what is now Charleston, South Carolina, and they eventually populated much of the state. The Huguenots came for a better life, and they usually found it. For starters, there was religious freedom—something they had never experienced in Europe.

The quality of land in the Carolinas was also a nice surprise. Taking advantage of the good soil and mild weather, the Huguenots built huge plantations. Throughout the 1700s, many of them made a fortune farming rice, indigo, and cotton. In less than a century, the French Huguenots helped make South Carolina one of the richest of the American colonies.

With the success that they found in the colonies, it’s no surprise that the majority of the Huguenots never returned to Europe. Instead, they enjoyed the religious freedom of the American colonies. This freedom increased as Protestantism thrived in the New World, despite the fact that almost all of Europe remained Catholic. The spread of Protestantism came as a result of the continued English expansion in the 1600s (England was—and still is—a Protestant nation).
I Bet You Didn’t Know...

Charles Town was named in honor of King Charles II, the ruler of England at the time it was founded. So, where did South Carolina get its name?

Surprisingly, South Carolina was named after Charles II’s father, Charles I. The word “Carolus” is Latin for “Charles” (apparently, Carolina had a better ring to it than Carolus).

Charles I was the King of England when the nation first claimed the Carolinas. However, no permanent colony was established during his rule.

Extra Fact: Charles Town was renamed Charleston in 1783.

Anthony Ashley-Cooper had the vision of building a great port town in the Americas. He was one of the eight Lord Proprietors to the Carolinas (a privilege earned simply because he was a good friend of King Charles II), but Ashley-Cooper was the first to actively work to build a British settlement in the area. He ordered a group of settlers to set sail from England in 1669, and they found a nice spot by the Ashley River (named for Ashley-Cooper himself). They named it Albemarle Point.

A century earlier, the Spanish and French had each tried to form settlements in virtually the same area, but both had failed. Ashley-Cooper’s men had better luck (not to mention a long list of “lessons learned” from the Spanish and French). Over the next decade, the settlement thrived. The population increased with new settlers arriving from England, Barbados, and even from already-established northern settlements. After that, a number of French Huguenots joined the ranks.

By 1680, the small piece of land at Albemarle Point wasn’t enough to hold all of the settlers. The residents moved their location a few miles away and across the river and began building a larger settlement. They named the capital of this new settlement Charles Town, in honor of English King Charles II.

Ashley-Cooper had envisioned a great port city in the Americas—and he got his wish. By 1690, Charles Town had a population of 1,200. These days, that might not be considered any more than in a small dot on the map, but at the time it was the
fifth largest city in North America. What’s more, the town was growing rapidly and getting more prosperous each year (it had become a commercial center for trading rice and indigo).

Charles Town wasn’t created to be just another average port city. It was created to be the “Grand Model” of towns (actually, they spelled it as “Grand Modell” back in 1680). This included a grid layout that increased the efficiency of daily business and allowed for smooth growth. Charles Town was only 600 acres, making it easy to instill the Grand Model. Over the years, the city has grown to eight square miles (over 500 times larger than its original area), with over 100,000 residents (as opposed to the 1,200 residents in 1690). The metropolitan area is even larger (containing over 500,000 people). Nonetheless, the remnants of the Grand Model grid can still be seen in downtown Charleston.

Even as Charles Town prospered, its future wasn’t certain. The Spanish and French still had their eyes on America, and neither was convinced by Britain’s sudden claim to the land. As a result, the European nations launched several assaults on the British settlement. There was also the added threat of local Native Americans who were not happy about the British building a permanent settlement. To protect the city, the people of Charles Town built a fortification wall around the entire area, virtually turning the town into a giant fort. In fact, the only building that remains from this original “walled city” is the Powder Magazine, where the supply of gunpowder was stored.

Despite the ever-present threats, Charles Town was never seriously damaged by any outside forces during its first few years of existence. By the mid-1700s, it had easily become the largest and wealthiest city south of Philadelphia. During the years of the Revolutionary War, the city became even more critical to the American colonies—but you’ll read all about that in the next chapter.
The Slave Trade

South Carolina becomes dependent on slavery

A mixed blessing came to South Carolina in 1685—rice. The crop grew tremendously well in marshy lands that wouldn’t support other crops, and it soon made many farmers extremely wealthy. Of course, growing rice required a lot of labor. For that reason, South Carolina got into the “slavery business” (a decision that would cause the state a tremendous amount of problems over the next 200 years).

The first African slaves living in South Carolina worked alongside the whites building cabins and creating a settlement. Rice changed all of that. In the early 1700s, several Africans were brought into South Carolina solely to pick rice, and the population of slaves soon surpassed the population of whites. South Carolina farmers found even more opportunities for profit when they began planting indigo and cotton—this increased the demand for slaves. In the mid-1700s, over 20,000 Africans were brought to America and put to work in the fields.

For the most part, the settlers of South Carolina already knew how to turn slave labor into huge profits. Many had come from Barbados, where they had owned huge sugar cane plantations that used African slaves for labor. When these men arrived in the Carolinas, they brought their slaves with them. They set up plantations similar to the ones that they had owned in Barbados, only they grew rice, indigo, or cotton instead of sugar cane. Other South Carolina farmers followed their lead.

Life for the African slaves was rough, though the physical labor was often the least of their worries. They were taken from their homes and lives in Africa, almost certain never to return. The Africans were packed onto boats in an unthinkable manner. The ships were often so crowded that the slaves were forced to lie down, pressed up against one another, unable to move. Many died during the voyage, often from a lack of air.
Upon arrival in America, the slaves were examined and sold as if they were wild animals. If the slaves hadn’t been separated from their family by this time, they usually were at the selling block. When they were put to work in South Carolina, more slaves suffered from catching malaria in the swampy rice fields than they did from picking the rice.

Of course, there were small rebellions and attempts at escape, but the large-scale abolition movement did not begin until the early 1800s. As the years passed, slavery became more engrained into the South Carolina economy. The plantation owners depended on the slaves, and needed them to function and make a living. As more and more slaves were born in America, the knowledge of life outside slavery and of African heritage virtually disappeared.

**A Side Note…**

**Stono’s Rebellion**

Stono’s Rebellion was the largest slave uprising in the American colonies prior to the Revolutionary War. It all started on Sunday morning, September 9, 1739 (when all of the plantation owners and farmers were at church). A group of about a dozen African slaves, led by a slave named Jemmy, organized to fight for their freedom. They went to Stono Bridge (about twenty miles from Charleston), killed a storekeeper, and stole his guns and powder.

As the group headed south, they recruited nearly 100 other slaves to the cause. On Sunday afternoon, however, the rebel slaves were met by a large group of farmers. In the ensuing skirmish, about twenty slaves were killed and the rebellion was put to an end. Forty slaves were later hanged or executed.

The specific events of Stono’s Rebellion were insignificant compared to its aftermath. In the next few years, a variety of Slave Codes were developed to prevent any more uprisings. These new codes established some of the following rules:

- Slaves could not meet without a white man present
- Slaves could not travel without written permission
- Slaves could not learn to read or write
- Slaves could not raise and store their own food
- Slaves could not communicate with drums, horns, or other loud instruments
A New Ruler in Town

South Carolinians reject the Lord Proprietors

Virtually no Englishmen lived in the Carolinas in 1663, so nobody raised any objection when King Charles II awarded the land to eight “Lord Proprietors.” Beginning in 1670, a number of settlements began to pop up here and there—and that’s when the trouble started.

The land in South Carolina proved to be extremely profitable. It was great for growing rice, indigo, cotton, and tobacco—all of which were ideal money crops. As the planters started to get rich, they weren’t too keen on having the Lord Proprietor’s looking over their shoulder. In fact, all that the South Carolinians wanted from the Proprietors was guaranteed protection. And they weren’t getting it.

There were a number of threats to the thriving areas of South Carolina, especially near the port city of Charles Town. For starters, the local Native Americans weren’t happy that the European settlers seemed to be making a permanent home. The Spanish were also a little jealous that the British had claimed the prime real estate of South Carolina (they had tried to settle the land over a century earlier). On more than one occasion, the Native Americans and the Spanish released their frustrations by assaulting the British settlements. To make matters worse, the continuing prosperity of South Carolinians attracted the attention of pirates. Legends such as Blackbeard and Calico Jack terrorized merchant ships by setting up a blockade on the coast of Charles Town (read about the pirates on pages 40-41).

As the settlers of South Carolina lived with these constant threats, the Lord Proprietors lived in England and were completely oblivious to the situation (or so it seemed to the settlers in America). For that reason, the men in the Carolinas wanted an end to the Proprietary rule.

The first step was to get rid of the governor of the Carolinas. In 1719, a group of settlers forced the governor to leave Charles Town, the capital city at the time. Two years later, a representative was sent to England to request that the Carolinas be made a “Royal Province.” In other words, the people wanted the area to be an extension of England, ruled directly by the King.
33—Settlement & Colonial Times

Not surprisingly, the Lord Proprietors didn’t like this idea. Unfortunately for them, all of the original Proprietors (who had been given the land directly by King Charles II) had been dead for at least forty years, and the new proprietorship had no support in America. By 1729, it was official—Carolina was a Royal Province. That same year, the distinction between North Carolina and South Carolina became official (prior to that time, the term Carolina had included both states).

The situation did improve for the citizens of South Carolina after becoming a Royal Province, though it was probably a coincidence. Blackbeard was captured and killed in 1718, virtually eliminating the threat of piracy. Also, the area of Georgia became a province, thus providing South Carolina with a buffer zone between the Spanish forces in Florida.

South Carolina had only a few decades to enjoy being a Royal Province of Britain. In the 1760s, tensions began to flair between the American colonies and England, and they were completely severed in 1776 at the start of the American Revolution.

**A Side Note...**

**The Split—North & South Carolina**

Long before it was official, there was a definite division between North and South Carolina. For starters, there were natural borders—such as the Cape Fear River—that divided the two. The settlers in the two areas also had different backgrounds. The English and the French Huguenots primarily settled South Carolina, while immigrants from Ireland, Scotland, Wales, and Germany made a home in North Carolina. The settlers brought with them their own religions and customs, until the attitude among the Carolinas became “us and them” rather than “we.”

Charles Town was the capital of both North and South Carolina until the early 1700s. However, even when the split became “official,” the exact border between the two areas was constantly in dispute. The issue wasn’t completely resolved until 1808!
Indian Wars
Tensions ignite the Yamasee & Cherokee Wars

When the English arrived in the Carolinas in 1670, some important introductions had to be made. Nearly thirty Native American tribes were living in the area, and most of them had never seen a European before. Missing from this first encounter was the Yamasee Indians, a tribe already familiar with European culture.

At the time, the Yamasee tribe was living south of Carolina, in southern Georgia and Florida. This was Spanish territory. The Spanish had claimed the southern areas of America over a century before the British started to arrive. During that time, the Spanish and the Yamasee managed to get along peacefully—at least at first glance. They traded with one another, and often labored side by side. As the years passed, however, the Yamasee people began to realize that the land they once ruled was quickly becoming the property of the Spanish. And that wasn’t going to change.

Obviously, tensions began to rise. These tensions hit a boiling point when the Spanish tried to send a few of the Natives to work as slaves in the West Indies (a group of islands south of Florida that was full of European farmers). The Yamasee had enough, and began to rebel in the late 1600s. Realizing that they could no longer live side by side with the Spanish, many Natives decided to head north to South Carolina.

That’s when history started to repeat itself. This time the Yamasee tribe encountered the British instead of the Spanish. Relations once again began peacefully. Trade became common between the two groups, with the tribesmen often swapping deerskins for firearms, metal, and cloth. But the British kept coming. Just as the Spanish had done in Florida, the English settlers were now turning the Carolinas into permanent European colonies.

In 1715, the Yamasee joined forces with several tribes in the southern parts of South Carolina, and they attacked British camps. The natives massacred over 200 white settlers, and also
Native American tribes were constantly fighting against one another (Cherokee vs. Iroquois, Catawba vs. Shawnee, etc.), which made it difficult for them to wage an effective war against the Europeans.

A Little Extra...

destroyed farms and livestock. With little warning, the Yamasee tribe had declared war.

The odds seemed to be in favor of the Natives. For starters, they had caught the English off guard, and they had numerical superiority. But the tables started to turn. Many Virginia settlers came to the aid of their Carolina neighbors. This was somewhat surprising during the early 1700s, when the attitude was often, “every colony for itself.”

The Yamasee also hit a snag when the Cherokee Indians refused to join their cause. The Cherokee had a huge population in the Carolinas, but they had few problems with English settlements (the Cherokee lived much further inland, where there were fewer English settlers). In fact, some Cherokees took up arms to help the British! The Yamasee War did not chase the Europeans away, but instead chased the Yamasee people back down to Florida, where they had originally started. The Natives had come full circle.

Had the Cherokee joined the Yamasee tribe, the English would have been in for a long fight, and could have very possibly been chased from South Carolina. Ironically, the Cherokee Indians may have regretted their decision. Only forty years later, the Cherokee declared a war of their own against the British. This came in the midst of the wider scale French and Indian War, in which British and American colonists defended their claims to territory against the combined forces of French and Native American soldiers.

The Cherokee Indians raided several English settlements from 1759 to 1761, but failed to chase the British from the Carolinas. In the end, the British claims to the American colonies were only increased by the wide scale victory in the French and Indian War.

After those years of turmoil, the Cherokee went back into a peaceful coexistence through the 1760s—at least until the American Revolution (you’ll read about that on pages 74-75).
A Town Called Ninety-Six
A trading post forms along the Cherokee Trail

It’s not too difficult to imagine how Charles Town received its name. Anyone could guess that it was named after someone named Charles.

In this particular case, Charles Town was named for King Charles II (the English king when the town was founded). Even in 1783, when Charles Town was renamed to the more familiar “Charleston,” the roots of its nomenclature were fairly obvious.

When the coast of South Carolina became too populated, traders and explorers began to head inland. They traveled across the state using a number of Indian trails, finally ending up in the foothills of the Blue Ridge Mountains. Several of the trails intersected in a small village that naturally became a hot spot for trading. The name of this village was “Ninety Six.”

As far as town names go, Ninety Six is a bit unusual. Unlike Charles Town, which was obviously named after a person, Ninety Six was named after a distance—ninety six miles. But ninety six miles from what?

The village of Ninety Six just happened to be ninety six miles from a major Cherokee town of Keowee by route of the Cherokee Path (a much traveled Indian trail cutting through the upstate of South Carolina).

Many English settlers moved to the small village, hoping to take advantage of the booming trade and to collect huge profits. In the 1750s, the residents built Fort Ninety Six to protect themselves from Cherokee attacks (the fort was later the site of a critical battle during the American Revolution).

As the trade increased between the coast and the inland areas of South Carolina, the town of Ninety Six grew dramatically. In fact, it grew a little too fast. A significant population existed before there was a chance to create any churches, schools, police departments, or organized government. The result was a period of lawlessness defined by looting, theft, and even murder. To
maintain order, the local residents formed vigilante groups and weeded out the petty thieves. When they were caught, the punishments usually outweighed the crime (*i.e.* a man might be hanged for stealing a bottle of rum).

Finally, things started to settle down. By doing business with the travelers along the Indian trails, a trader named Robert Gouedy managed to make a fortune. He purchased 1500 acres in the area, and helped establish a more stable town of Ninety Six. Along with his success came mills, trade shops, merchant stores, and government buildings. The organization of the western areas continued during the “Regulator Movement” of the 1760s. During this time, settlers pressured state officials to restore order and offer protection to citizens in newly formed towns.

The town of Ninety Six still exists in present day Greenwood County, but it is no longer a powerhouse of trade. It has a population of about 2,000, and is roughly one and a half square miles in size.

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**A Side Note...**

**The Name of Ninety Six**

According to local legend, the town of Ninety Six earned its name after the valiant efforts of a young Cherokee woman.

At the Cherokee trading city of Keowee, a young English trader named Francis Allen had fallen in love with Cateechee, a beautiful Cherokee woman. The two were separated when Allen went to work at a trading post on the Cherokee path.

One night, Cateechee overheard Cherokee warriors devising a plan to attack the trading post where her beloved Allen was living. To warn him, Cateechee jumped on a pony and rode from Keowee to Allen’s post. She got there just in time to save the small town.

The distance that Cateechee had to ride was ninety six miles. The legend states that the town of Ninety Six (*where Francis Allen was working*) was named in her honor.

***This same legend has been passed down in a variety of different ways. A popular version claims that the love affair took place between a pioneer’s daughter and a young British officer who was stationed at Fort Ninety Six.***
South Carolina Gets Rich
*Rice and indigo crops create a wealthy colony*

Throughout the 17th and 18th century, European citizens came to the American continents by the boatload—literally. They would quit their jobs, leave their homes, and cram themselves onto a small boat for at least a month at sea. Then, provided they survived the journey, the settlers arrived to a land that they had never seen, and had learned about only through wild rumors and inconsistent reports. Because so many people were willing to do this, it raises an obvious question—*why?*

The answer varies. Some settlers had a thirst for adventure, while others were looking for rumored treasure (*such as a lost city of gold or a fountain of youth*). But these sorts of men were few and far between. Many people were anxious to come to America simply because they wanted to *get out* of Europe. Some suffered from religious persecution (*such as the Pilgrims, who settled in Massachusetts, or the French Huguenots, who settled in South Carolina*). Others were poor or unemployed, and came to America in search of a better life.

Lastly, a large group of settlers saw America as a land of opportunity. They wanted to take advantage of the New World’s resources, farmland, and other surprises. Basically, they hoped to build a fortune.

As for the settlers who arrived in the Carolinas, the ones looking for a lost city of gold or some other rumored treasure were disappointed. However, those searching for a better life or a great business opportunity were extremely pleased. South Carolina became one of the richest colonies in America during the 1700s.

It all started with the growing of rice, which began in the 1680s. This major cash crop thrived in the marshy lands of the South Carolina coast, and the farmers adapted well to the plantation system (*several settlers from the West Indies brought their expertise—and African slaves—with them to take advantage of the fertile land*). It didn’t stop there. Before long, hundreds of planters were making huge fortunes by growing indigo (*a blue dye used in textiles*).

In 1745, only about 5,000 pounds of indigo were exported from the major port of Charles Town. That was hardly enough to raise any eyebrows. Eliza Lucas Pinckney changed all of that. She
Eliza Lucas Pinckney became such an important figure in the colonial south that President George Washington was a pallbearer at her funeral.

She had been born in the West Indies (where the plantation system flourished), and received a respectable education in England. She moved with her family to Charles Town during her teenage years. Her father was a British officer in the military, and was traveling far too much to run his plantations in South Carolina. Eliza volunteered to do it for him.

Over the next decade, Eliza learned how to effectively cultivate indigo. She shared her secrets in the mid-1740s, and South Carolina’s indigo exports jumped from 5,000 pounds to over 100,000 pounds in two years. With rice and indigo as major cash crops, South Carolina became one of the wealthiest colonies in the New World. Cotton became another profitable crop, though it didn’t reach full potential until the early 1800s.

Other factors helped South Carolina planters make a fortune. As a British colony, the area was part of an economic policy known as “mercantilism.” This theory stressed that nations should export more goods than they imported, thus helping them establish a surplus of gold and silver.

To do this, powerful nations in Europe heavily regulated the trade of their colonies. They encouraged the colonies to grow raw materials and other resources (such as indigo, lumber, cotton, tar, etc.), and to sell them back to the “Mother Country” at extremely low prices. This enabled the European nations to export finished products. England levied heavy taxes on any products that the American colonies sold to countries other than England. In fact, the British often demanded that American products pass through England, even if they were going to nations like France or Spain.

How did this help South Carolina? For mercantilism to work, England had to make sure that the colonies produced plenty of raw materials. American farmers were given subsidies to encourage them to grow more crops. Indigo planters greatly benefited from this.

Ironically, many of the factors that made South Carolina rich later came back to haunt the state. For example, the trade restrictions of mercantilism eventually stunted growth, and the slave dependent plantation system fell apart after the Civil War.
South Carolina was growing richer by the day. The success of the rice and indigo plantations, the bustling port in Charleston, and a great network of rivers and harbors all helped to put money in the pockets of merchants. Of course, this success also caught the attention of pirates.

In the late 1600s and early 1700s—the “Golden Age” of piracy—no merchant ship could leave the port of Charleston and feel completely safe. There were too many instances of pirates raiding ships, stealing all of the food, liquor, valuables, and whatever else they could find. If the crewmembers cooperated, the pirates would take what they wanted and be on their way. If there was resistance, the pirates did not hesitate to shoot and kill. Or, even worse, the pirates would drop their victims off on a deserted island and leave them to die.

The most infamous of the pirates was Edward Teach, more commonly known as “Blackbeard.” Blackbeard terrorized the coast of the Carolinas from 1716 to 1718, until the governor of North Carolina finally employed military ships to hunt him down. Blackbeard earned his reputation not only because of his brutality, but also because he simply looked like a pirate. He was a large man, with a massive pitch black beard that he tied in knots during battle. He always sported an array of guns, knives, swords, and other weapons. In modern times, Blackbeard serves as a standard image for pirates in a more romanticized vision of the illegal practice.

While he was the most popular, Blackbeard certainly wasn’t the only pirate to threaten the Carolina coast. One of the most unlikely pirates was a man named Stede Bonnet. Growing up in Virginia, Bonnet benefited from a fine education and worked as a successful planter. He abandoned all of this, however, to become a pirate. Bonnet terrorized a number of
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merchant ships, and at one point even teamed up with Blackbeard, but he was inexperienced in the art of piracy. For starters, Bonnet purchased his own boat (instead of stealing one like any other pirate would do), and he actually turned himself in (only to be set free and go back to being a pirate). His strange tactics earned him a reputation as the “Gentleman Pirate.” Eventually, Bonnett was captured, tried, and sentenced to death in Charleston.

South Carolina was also the home of Anne Bonny, who became a part of one strangest pirating teams. Anne was raised around respectable farmers and plantation owners, but she had an infatuation for pirates. She married a local pirate named James Bonny, but left him for a more dangerous and (in her eyes) a more respectable pirate named Jack Rackham (Rackham was more commonly known as “Calico Jack” as a result of his predictable wardrobe).

Anne Bonny and her new husband hoped to run off and be pirates together, but no ship crew would agree to have a woman on board their ship. To avoid this problem, Anne dressed as a man, and sailed under the name “Adam Bonny.” As it turned out, she wasn’t the only woman working on the ship. An anonymous crewmember was also hiding a secret. Mary Read had dressed like a man to get a job among the pirates, and she eventually shared her secret with Anne Bonny. The two became fast friends. They continued with their charade until Anne Bonny became pregnant (making it difficult to pose as a man).

There were several other pirates who worked the waters off of the Carolinas, but very few fit with the romantic image that pirates are given today. Most were in it to “get rich quick,” or they simply wanted to avoid following the rules of legitimate enterprise. In any case, the pirates were a major headache for the merchants of Charleston, and they soon became a major political problem for the Lord Proprietors (the inability to deal with the pirates eventually led to the downfall of the Proprietors, which was discussed on pages 32-33).
The French and Indian War

European nations bring their fight to America

By the mid-1700s, the American colonies had become important chess pieces to the powerful nations of Europe. When one European country made a sudden move in America, the other countries had to react with an equally strategic counter. With tensions so high, it’s no surprise that a small skirmish along the Ohio River in 1754 sparked a deadly war across two continents.

Here’s how it happened. The key powers in Europe—Britain, Spain, and France—had been rivaling for over a century to gain a stronghold in North America. The Spanish had succeeded in taking the south and the western frontier. The British settled in the prosperous land along the eastern coastline, and the French occupied much of Canada and the central part of the continent. But it wasn’t always so clear as to who owned what.

Both the British and the French claimed land near the Ohio River, a critical trade route. In 1754, a twenty-three year old George Washington led an inexperienced group of soldiers to battle the French for the area. They were easily defeated.

Meanwhile, back in Europe, tensions were building between Britain and France. Britain had taken sides with the ever-expanding empire of Prussia (although Prussia was small in size, it had one of the most impressive armies in the world). This alliance alarmed the French, and they refused to give an inch as the British tried to take away their territories in America. Prepared to battle, the French sided with Russia, Austria, and Sweden.

For the next seven years, these European powers fought in numerous battles for territory and national superiority. This war became appropriately known as the “Seven Years War.”

Meanwhile, the fighting continued in North America. The American colonists (many of whom had British roots) sided with Britain. Most of the Native American tribes (frustrated by English expansion) sided with the French. The French had several early victories, which helped persuade the Native Americans to join
their cause. The war in North America was related to the war in Europe, but it took on a different name. This war was given the title, “The French and Indian War,” which identified the two groups who opposed the British and American troops. Most of the fighting during the French and Indian War occurred around the Ohio River and northward into Canada. By 1759, the British and the Americans succeeded in overcoming the French resistance. This established the British as the dominant world power in the Americas (of course, the American colonists would question that claim a few decades later).

North and South Carolina were occupied by the British prior to the war, so the French did not attempt to capture those areas. However, there was a group that did not respect Britain’s claim to the Carolinas. In 1760, the Cherokee Indians revolted in South Carolina, raiding several British forts. The resistance didn’t remove the British from the area. Instead, the Cherokee War led to a series of restrictions and forced treaties designed to control the local Native American tribes.

With the signing of the Treaty of Paris in 1763, the Seven Years War grinded to a halt in Europe. There were a few concessions made by both sides, but the largest victories came in North America. The British managed to gain control of all land east of the Mississippi River, as well as Canada and Florida. In other words, the English became the dominant expansionist empire outside of Europe, a reputation that the nation would keep for several generations to come.
An Artsy Town

Charleston becomes a center of high culture

Colonial South Carolina was a wealthy place. Plantation owners and farmers were getting rich through rice, indigo, and cotton. But they didn’t spend all of their time working in the fields. Whenever there is an increase in wealth, there is also an increase in leisure time. That, in turn, usually leads to an increase in high culture.

It shouldn’t be a surprise that Charles Town, one of the most thriving locations in colonial America, was a hotbed for the arts. It shouldn’t be a surprise—but it usually is.

By the mid-1700s, Charles Town had already proven that it was on the cutting edge of entertainment, rivaled only by areas such as New York and Philadelphia. It may have started with the arrival of Henrietta Johnston in 1707. Born into a family of French Huguenots, Henrietta learned to paint and draw after immigrating to London with her parents.

As an adult, Henrietta came to South Carolina with her husband. She brought her passion with her, becoming the first professional female painter in America. She specialized in portraits, usually using family members and friends as her subjects. Her artwork became popular throughout the colonies.

The success of Henrietta Johnston wasn’t an isolated case for the arts of South Carolina. In 1735, actors performed Colley Cibber’s ballad opera Flora (sometimes known as Hob in the Well) in the courtroom of Charles Town. Historians note that this might have been the first opera presented in America. Considering the special occasion, the people of Charles Town didn’t settle for any playwright. Cibber was one of the most significant British playwrights since the days of William Shakespeare, and he served as poet laureate of England during the 1730s.

A Little Extra...

Henrietta Johnston may have been too far ahead of her time. Throughout the 1720s, she created her art using pastels. These weren’t made popular, however, until Edgar Degas began using them in the 1880s.

In 1972, the Pastel Society of America was created to help popularize the medium.
Apparently, the audience in Charles Town enjoyed the production. One year later, the New Theatre building opened on Dock Street in Charles Town. The idea of dedicating an entire building to nothing but theatrical productions was unheard of at the time—at least in America. Nonetheless, productions began in February 1736, and the first performance was *The Recruiting Officer* by Irish playwright George Farquhar.

As exciting as it was, the New Theatre closed for business after only a month. Despite this minor setback, Charles Town kept on rolling with artistic firsts. In 1762, residents formed the St. Cecilia Musical Society, which held a variety of public concerts for the South Carolinians to enjoy.

Even today, Charleston (*the name was changed from Charles Town in 1783*) is known for being a city of high culture. The town prides itself most on its wide selection of museums, which includes the legendary Charleston Museum. Founded in 1773, this became the first public museum in America, and it still offers visitors a look at Charleston’s rich history.

**A Side Note...**

**The Recruiting Officer**

In 1736, the people of Charles Town constructed the first building designed solely for the staging of theatrical productions. The first play performed in that building was *The Recruiting Officer*, by Irish playwright George Farquhar.

*The Recruiting Officer* was a huge hit when it opened in London earlier in the year. It was based on the real life experiences of the author. Despite a loyal following, Farquhar never made a significant amount of money writing plays. To support his family, he joined the army. His service in the army provided much of the humor included in *The Recruiting Officer*.

Farquhar never reaped the benefits of his huge hit. He finished *The Recruiting Officer* while on his deathbed, and had already died a poor man by the time the play hit the theatres.
“Don’t Tread on Me”

—Slogan of the “Gadsden Flag” (1775)

The Gadsden Flag flew over the Continental Navy’s first ships, and received its name from Christopher Gadsden, the leader of South Carolina’s Sons of Liberty.
Chapter 3

The history of

South Carolina

during

The American Revolution
& the
New Nation
Tensions Rise

*Extra taxes ignite Revolutionary tensions*

The British Parliament decided to levy its first major direct tax on the American colonies in 1765—and it was a big one. The Stamp Act required all newspapers, legal documents, pamphlets, bills, advertisements, and even playing cards to bear a stamp. Of course, the money used to pay for the stamp went right to the British government.

To the British people, this new tax seemed obvious and reasonable. English soldiers had, after all, been sent to America to help the colonists during the French and Indian War (*England absorbed most of the cost of the war*). The taxes raised from the Stamp Act were going to be used to pay for the defense of the American colonists. In other words, fair is fair.

The American colonists had a different point of view. They had no representation in parliament (*i.e. they did not get a vote*), and weren’t going to accept any tax if they had no say in the matter. When the Stamp Act became official, the colonists rebelled in any way they could. Merchants started to boycott English goods, stamp collectors were assaulted and forced to resign, and the stamps themselves were destroyed.

In October 1765, delegates from all over the colonies attended a “Stamp Act Congress” to discuss the actions of Britain. While many of the protests were coming from northern areas like Boston and New England, the southern colonies were equally distraught. South Carolina was the southernmost colony to send a representative to the Congress. The state sent twenty-five year old John Rutledge to the meeting (*Rutledge would later play a huge role during and after the American Revolution—he also served as a South Carolina’s first governor*).
Delegates from nine of the thirteen colonies attended the Stamp Act Congress, and an official Declaration of Rights was drawn up to denounce the Stamp Act. The resistance from the colonies was so bad that the British decided to repeal the Act in 1766—less than a year after it had been passed. But the trouble between the colonies and Britain was only beginning.

A few years later, in 1767, the British passed the Townshend Duties, a more subtle version of the Stamp Act. Instead of taxing paper products, these duties taxed secondary goods such as paint, paper, lead, and tea. The British thought that the colonists might react less violently to this tax, considering that tea was the only one of these products to be produced heavily in America. It was this tax on tea, however, that led to the infamous Boston Tea Party in 1773 (a major protest in which colonists threw crates of tea off of British merchant ships). In Charleston, the tea was taken off of British ships and stored in a government warehouse.

Despite the optimistic hopes of the British, the American colonists reacted to the Townshend Duties with monstrous protests. Simply mentioning the name Charles Townshend (the British Chancellor in charge of finance, and the brainchild of the Townshend Duties) caused many Americans to become quickly enraged. At the same time, the British Parliament passed other rules that alarmed the colonists. For example, one unpopular law ordered American colonists to provide shelter and other necessities for British soldiers stationed in the area. In other words, if a British soldier knocked on the door wanting to get a bite to eat and a shower, the Americans had to invite them in (if they didn’t, they would be considered criminals).

The Stamp Act and the Townshend Duties were in the 1760s, well over a decade before any shots were fired in the American Revolution. During that time, colonists from South Carolina to New England argued on how to handle the frustrations with England. At first, most colonists wanted to simply repair the problems—not to sever all ties with Britain. But the tensions kept building…
**Time to Choose Sides**  
**Loyalists & Patriots clash in South Carolina**

Arguing against the Stamp Act and declaring that the American colonies should break away from Britain were two different things. Being frustrated over taxes and trade restrictions seemed natural. Wanting to sever all ties with the greatest empire in history seemed a bit extreme.

Not surprisingly, the colonists living in South Carolina were divided when it came to the problems with Britain. In the 1760s, as arguments grew more and more heated, it became necessary for everyone to choose a side. Colonists were either loyal to the crown, or they favored a complete break—there was no middle ground.

It might come as a shock, but most South Carolinians did not want to take up arms against Britain—at least at first. The state had been largely settled by the English, and most colonists had a great respect for the English king. Even settlers from different nations (such as the French Huguenots) had come to South Carolina to escape persecution in their own country. They had no animosity towards the British government.

By the mid-1770s, the backcountry areas of South Carolina were becoming more and more populated. The settlers in these areas were farmers or traders who, for the most part, stayed out of national politics. Of course, they had heard rumors of rebellions in areas up north and in large cities like Charles Town. But these outbreaks had little to do with their daily lives. In fact, many people in the inland of South Carolina felt that living in a British colony was as close to living in complete freedom as anyone could ever get. Aside from a few small taxes, the British let the colonists do as they wished, and the British even offered military protection from Native Americans and foreign invaders.

Not everyone was singing the praises of the British. Many people despised the British on a pure moral ground. In England, the American colonies were often viewed as a means of profit (this was the basis of an economic strategy known as mercantilism, where a colony provides the Mother Country with needed resources). Most Englishmen did not see the colonists as respectable people, but instead saw them as a group of misfits and ungrateful ne’er-do-wells. Fully aware of
this perspective, many of the American colonists had a chip on their shoulder.

It wasn’t all perception, however. To gain a profit out of the colonies, the British government did instill a series of unfair taxes and unreasonable legislation. Colonial merchants became frustrated when the British mandated which nations Americans could and could not trade with. Others grew angry when the British government passed laws in the colonies without allowing the colonists to argue or vote on the issue.

In major port areas, such as Charles Town, smugglers often ignored British regulations on trade. Instead, they snuck ships into the West Indies and made huge profits. When the British found out about this smuggling, they started to keep a close eye on the port cities.

To merchants who dealt with this on a day to day basis, going to war seemed to be the only option. On the other hand, certain politicians and other loyalists were often rewarded for keeping protests and rebellions at bay. These individuals wanted to stay on Britain’s good side.

Finally, there was the huge number of people who didn’t really care one way or the other (so long as their daily lives weren’t affected). This was the situation in South Carolina as the 1770s rolled around, which helped to foreshadow that the next few years would be extremely interesting.

A Side Note…

**Tories and Whigs**

During the American Revolution, colonists who supported the British king were called “Loyalists” or “Royalists.” They were also known by a stranger name—Tories. The term Tory was derived from an Irish word for outlaw or robber. In the late 1670s, citizens tried to remove King James II from the throne. Those who supported him were part of the Tory Party (the slang term for the Conservative Party). It came to be used to describe anyone who supports an unpopular king (such as King George III during the American Revolution).

Those who wanted King James II removed were part of the Whig party. The term “Whig” came from the word “whiggamor,” which meant cattledriver. Patriots during the American Revolution were often called Whigs. The party reappeared in American politics during the 1830s.
A Patriot Named Gadsden

Christopher Gadsden leads the Patriot cause

It would only make sense that Christopher Gadsden was a die-hard British loyalist. In his hometown of Charles Town, his father had worked for the English king collecting taxes. As a young man in the early 1700s, Christopher went to England and attended some of the finest schools in the country.

It’s true that Christopher Gadsden should have loved England at an early age. By the time he turned forty, however, he viewed Britain more as an evil empire. It was at that time that Britain passed the infamous Stamp Act, thus taxing the American colonists without their consent.

Gadsden was living back in Charles Town when the Stamp Act was passed, and he boldly spoke out against it. He led a group of young patriots to protest the act by any means necessary—including violence. This group earned the honorary title of the “Sons of Liberty.” Similar protest groups also popped up throughout the American colonies, mainly in Boston and New England.

For the next decade, Gadsden became a leading proponent of going to war with Britain. He especially helped sway the opinion in South Carolina, where he served in the state legislature almost the entire time between 1760 and 1780. When the Revolution started, he served for a short period as the commander of all military forces in South Carolina. In 1780, the British captured Charles Town. Gadsden was serving as the state’s lieutenant-governor at the time, thus making him a high prize when British soldiers took him captive.

Even as a prisoner, Gadsden didn’t lose his patriotic spark. The British offered him parole several times on the condition that he accept specific privileges and demands of the Royal Army. He refused. To make matters worse for the British,
Gadsden had a way of motivating other prisoners to refuse their paroles if it came with any conditions. Frustrated, the British moved him to a prison in St. Augustine, Florida. For the next forty-two weeks he was confined to a dungeon. Finally, the tables turned for the Patriots, and Gadsden was set free when the British defeat was imminent.

After the war, Christopher Gadsden remained involved in South Carolina politics. In 1788, he was among those who ratified the United States Constitution for South Carolina. He died in Charleston—the same town in which he was born.

**A Side Note...**

**The Gadsden Flag**

Christopher Gadsden made another impact during the American Revolution, though he probably wouldn’t include it among his greatest accomplishments. In 1775, he was a delegate of South Carolina to the Continental Congress, and he served on a committee that was preparing the nation for the Revolutionary War.

One of the first orders of business was the creation of the Continental Navy. Four ships were purchased at the start. Gadsden and the committee chose a Rhode Island man, Esek Hopkins, to be the commander-in-chief of the Navy. He was presented with a flag, which Hopkins later used as his personal standard. The flag presented to Hopkins was the legendary “Don’t Tread on Me” flag, featuring a picture of a rattlesnake.

The rattlesnake was taken from a famous “Join or Die” cartoon designed by Benjamin Franklin a few years earlier. The legendary phrase, “Don’t Tread on Me,” was written on the flag, though historians are not sure where the phrase originated. Because Gadsden presented the famous flag to Hopkins, it has become known as the **Gadsden Flag**.
The Middleton Boys

Three generations of Middletons hold office

The Middleton boys certainly did their share to shape the history of South Carolina. During the late 1700s and early 1800s, three generations of Middleton men served in high leadership positions, not only for South Carolina, but for the entire United States.

It all started with Henry Middleton, who at the age of twenty-four moved into a large plantation near Charleston. The 200-acre plot of land was part of the dowry that Henry received when he married his wife, Mary. The plantation served as the couple’s home when Henry Middleton started to become involved in politics in the mid 1700s. Those years proved to be very important in American history, as heavy taxation and extensive trade restrictions created tensions between the American colonists and the British.

In October 1774, with a nearly inevitable war on the horizon, Henry became the President of the Continental Congress. In other words, he was the political leader of what later became the United States of America. Henry Middleton served for only a short time – but a very significant time. During his six-month tenure, he worked with the delegates from around the colonies to prepare the country for the American Revolution. In May 1775, he resigned his post to prepare for the war himself (the first shots of the war had been fired in Lexington, Massachusetts one month earlier).
When Henry Middleton left the Continental Congress, another Middleton stepped in to take his place. It was Henry’s son, Arthur, who assumed the position. Arthur had been educated at the finest schools in England, and had traveled extensively throughout Europe during his childhood. Yet Arthur didn’t have a soft spot for his English roots. He became a radical spokesman against the tyrannical rule of Britain.

Boston resident John Hancock became the president of the Continental Congress shortly after Arthur Middleton joined as South Carolina’s delegate. During Hancock’s term, the Revolution quickly grew more violent. He and the delegates drafted the legendary Declaration of Independence, officially stating that America was severing all ties with Britain. Arthur Middleton signed this historic document, and was one of only four South Carolinians to do so. He also signed the Articles of Confederation, which was the nation’s first attempt at setting up a government (the Articles proved to be ineffective because they left the federal government too weak).

When the war began to threaten his home state of South Carolina, Arthur Middleton joined forces to defend Charleston. The city fell to the British in 1780, and Arthur was taken as a prisoner of war. He served in a prison in St. Augustine, Florida, for a year.

Arthur’s son, Henry, was ten years old when his father went to prison. Henry (named after his grandfather, discussed at the beginning of this passage) was tutored at the Middleton plantation. He followed in his father and his grandfather’s footsteps, becoming an important political figure in South Carolina. In 1802, just as the new nation was starting to expand, Henry began his long career as a state legislator. He eventually became the governor of South Carolina, and went on to serve as a United States congressman. Henry Middleton rounded out his political career as the American Minister to Russia.
The Rutledge Brothers
John & Edward Rutledge guide the Revolution

The previous passage discusses the Middleton family. During the Revolutionary era, three generations of Middleton men loyally served their home state of South Carolina—and the United States as a whole. If there's any family that could possibly rival the impact of the Middletons during that time period, it would have to be the Rutledges.

While the Middleton team included a grandfather, father, and a son, the Rutledge boys were all brothers. They were the children of an Irish immigrant named Dr. John Rutledge, who came to South Carolina in the 1730s. Rutledge died while his sons were still young (leaving his widowed wife to care for seven children while still in her twenties). Nonetheless, the family managed to pull through.

The oldest of the Rutledge children was John, Jr. He followed his father into the law profession, and received a top education in London. When John returned to Charleston, he began an extremely successful—and lucrative—law career. His chance to enjoy the “good life,” however, was put on hold when tensions began building prior to the American Revolution.

The first sign of trouble was the passing of the Stamp Act in 1765, in which the British placed a tax on all printed documents (everything from newspapers to playing cards). John was only twenty-six at the time, but he became a leading opponent against the Stamp Act. He was joined in the cause by another man who was still in his twenties—Patrick Henry (who later recited the legendary line, “Give me liberty, or give me death!”).
John Rutledge remained active for the next decade, as the coming war with Britain became inevitable. Meanwhile, his younger brother, Edward, was in London receiving his education. Edward returned to join his brother on the political scene. Unlike John, however, Edward was hesitant to sever ties with Britain. He argued to postpone any attempts at becoming an independent nation.

When push came to shove, Edward saw that there was no other solution. He joined with the other delegates and signed the Declaration of Independence—he was one of four South Carolinians to sign the historical document.

When the war broke out, both John and Edward went to Charleston to support the fight against the British. John served as the governor, and Edward served as the head of the militia. In 1780, the British took the city of Charleston. John managed to escape and fled to North Carolina. Edward was taken as a prisoner of war and sent to St. Augustine, Florida.

While in North Carolina, John Rutledge worked to reorganize the military and recover South Carolina. Fortunately, the tables began to turn, and the patriot forces started to wear down the British. John returned to South Carolina and helped rebuild the shattered government. He was a representative to the Constitutional Convention in 1787, and a signer of the Constitution of the United States (which laid the framework for the government that is still in use today).

Edward was released when it became obvious that the British were going to be defeated. He continued in politics, serving as a congressman during the 1780s and 1790s. Again following his brother, Edward became South Carolina’s governor in 1796.

While John and Edward Rutledge received most of the spotlight, a middle brother named Hugh was also an important South Carolina native. Like his two brothers, Hugh studied law, but he actually spent much more time pursuing the profession. During the war, he served as a respected judge in Charleston, and was thrown in prison when the British took the city. Hugh returned to working as a judge after the war.
Two Thomas Jr.’s
Lynch & Heyward sign the Declaration for SC

If you’ll look back at the last few pages, you can read about Arthur Middleton and Edward Rutledge, two of South Carolina’s signers of the Declaration of Independence (they were also brother-in-laws). In all, four men from South Carolina signed the historic document. The other two were a pair of “Thomas Jr.’s” — their names were Thomas Lynch, Jr. and Thomas Heyward, Jr.

Both of the Thomas’s were born into wealth and sent to England for the best schooling. Because of their prominent roots, both men were involved in politics at a very young age. In fact, neither had reached the age of thirty when he signed the Declaration of Independence.

Thomas Heyward was a few years older than Thomas Lynch. This gave him the opportunity to take an extensive tour of Europe while Lynch was still finishing law school in England. By the early 1770s, both men were back in the colonies, ready to offer their services in the coming Revolution.

As the war became a greater threat throughout the colonies, Thomas Heyward was suddenly called upon to serve in the Continental Congress. He was filling a vacancy left by fellow South Carolinian John Rutledge. Rutledge wanted to return to Charleston to prepare for a British attack (as a result, John Rutledge did not sign the Declaration of Independence, but his brother, Edward, did).

Thomas Lynch had a bit of a rougher ride than Heyward did. Upon returning from Europe, Lynch joined the South
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Carolina militia. While serving as an officer, he developed a terrible fever, and he never completely recovered. At about the same time, Lynch’s father, who was serving in the Continental Congress, became deathly ill.

Lynch requested permission to go see his father, but was denied. Instead, he was elected to congress himself to serve as his father’s successor. Fortunately, when Lynch arrived in Philadelphia as a delegate, his father was still alive.

While his father’s health was improving, Thomas Lynch was still having trouble shaking the fever that he had caught in South Carolina. The stress of the convention took a toll on his health, though he continued to attend the meetings and signed the Declaration of Independence.

By the time he returned to South Carolina, Lynch had basically given up the idea of ever fully recovering. He decided to set sail for Europe, hoping that relaxation and a change in climate might help. He set sail in 1779, and was never seen again. Lynch was only thirty years old.

While Thomas Lynch’s health prevented him from becoming more involved in the American Revolution, Thomas Heyward did have the opportunity. He returned to South Carolina after the convention and worked as a judge in Charleston. Because of his influence, the British took him prisoner when they overran Charleston (Heyward was also wounded during his defense of Charleston, which left him with a permanent scar). He served as a prisoner of war in St. Augustine, Florida, for one year.

After the war, Heyward resumed his duties as a judge, and he also served in the South Carolina state legislature in the early 1780s.

Fast Fact

Three out of the four men from South Carolina who signed the Declaration of Independence (Arthur Middleton, Edward Rutledge, and Thomas Heyward, Jr.) were taken as prisoners of war when the British overran the city of Charleston in 1780. All were released after a year.
The Revolution Begins

The war quickly comes to South Carolina

South Carolina played a major role in the American Revolution. During the years 1780 and 1781, numerous battles were fought throughout the state, and most historians are quick to acknowledge that this southern campaign helped break the back of the British.

Far less attention, however, is paid to the battles that took place in South Carolina at the beginning of the war. In fact, two serious confrontations had already taken place before the Declaration of Independence was ever signed.

The war officially came to South Carolina by way of Fort Johnson, near Charleston. Fort Johnson had been built in the early 1700s to help guard the harbor. At that time, the likeliest attack was from the French—not the British. No attack ever came.

The namesake of the fort, Sir William Johnson, was a known British loyalist. At the start of the American Revolution, this just wasn’t an acceptable political view. On September 14, 1775, soldiers under General William Moultrie seized the fort for the colonists. William Johnson and his family were forced to flee to Canada. This became South Carolina’s first altercation of the Revolution.

As the violence increased during the war, the top priority on most southerner’s minds was the defense of Charleston (it was still called Charles Town until 1783). Therefore, it was a bit of a surprise to many that the second round of fighting in South Carolina took place several hundred miles inland. In 1775, the town of Ninety Six (named after its distance to the Cherokee city of Keowee—you can read more on pages 36-37) was active and prosperous—but was still rather insignificant compared to Charles Town. It had only 100 or so residents, a handful of houses, a few shops, and a small courthouse.

Despite its small size, the town of Ninety Six seemed to be in the middle of everything. It was located along the Cherokee
Trail, a major trading route during colonial times. In other words, people were always passing through.

On November 18, 1775, about 600 patriots under the command of Major Andrew Williamson were just “passing through” the town. They were attacked by nearly 1,800 loyalist troops, and a battle ensued for several days. Both sides eventually declared a truce on November 21. This proved to be a warm-up for the town of Ninety Six. In 1781, the town was the site of the longest siege in the American Revolution. For nearly one month, Colonial troops tried (unsuccessfully) to capture a British fort in the area.

After these early skirmishes in South Carolina, the major battles of the American Revolution took place up north (with the exception of Fort Sullivan, which you will read about on the next page). The major fighting of the war returned to South Carolina in 1780, and the state was a key locale throughout the entire southern campaign (more on that later).

**A Side Note…**

**The Moultrie Flag**

When he was given the order to take Fort Johnson, William Moultrie had a special flag designed to give to his soldiers. He instructed them to hang it over the fort when it was captured. The flag was inspired by an earlier design used to protest the Stamp Act.

**Moultrie’s Flag** consisted of a blue background with a white crescent symbol in the upper left hand corner. Printed inside the crescent was the word, “Liberty.”

This flag was first raised at Fort Johnson, but it is most remembered for being flown during the defense of Fort Sullivan in June 1776 (read about that on the next page).
Defending Sullivan’s Island

*Patriots make an early stand at Fort Sullivan*

Once the American Revolution had begun, it was inevitable that the British were going to come after Charleston. It was the largest and most important city south of Philadelphia. It was also a port city, which meant easy access for British ships.

When the patriots began developing a plan to defend Charleston, it wasn’t a question of “if the British attack” — it was a question of “when the British attack.” The colonial army prepared quickly, resting much of their hope on a small fort located on Sullivan’s Island.

Unfortunately, Fort Sullivan had one major flaw — it wasn’t finished. As the summer of 1776 approached, soldiers worked desperately to complete it. Construction materials consisted largely of palmetto logs and sand bags. Knowing that the situation was bleak, Governor John Rutledge asked congress to provide him with reinforcements and military leadership.

He was sent General Charles Lee. Lee took one look at the incomplete fort and warned that it was going to be impossible to hold off a British invasion, and that it was a wasted effort to try to rebuild it. He referred to Fort Sullivan as a “slaughter pen.”

John Rutledge listened to Lee’s recommendations and then delivered the bad news to the fort’s commander, William Moultrie. Rutledge, however, added his own views to the message. He wrote Moultrie, “General Lee wishes you to evacuate the fort. You will not without an order from me. I will sooner cut off my hand than write one.”

The question was settled — ready or not, the South Carolinians were going to fight the British at Fort Sullivan.
General Lee didn’t approve of the decision. He was so certain that the fort would fall quickly, that he failed to supply the soldiers with enough gunpowder for an extended fight.

In June 1776, twenty British ships appeared off the coast of Charleston. The ships had trouble finding an acceptable spot to invade the city, so they remained at sea for a couple of more weeks. Meanwhile, the colonial soldiers continued to rebuild Fort Sullivan. Finally, on June 28, the British troops began the attack.

They colonial soldiers knew that they would need a tremendous amount of luck to fight off the British. Fortunately, luck was on their side. Several of the Royal Ships ran aground as they tried to come closer to the fort. The patriots began to fire their rounds. Despite having almost no experience, the South Carolina soldiers fought bravely and took advantage of the British confusion.

The British also tried to attack the northern end of Sullivan’s Island, away from the fort. There they were met by soldiers led by William Thomson, who fired at the British at point blank range.

Having failed at both ends of the island, the British called off their attack and tried to recover the ships that had run aground. One of the frigates, the Acteon, could not be pulled from the sand. Despite the fact that it was brand new and one of the finest in the Royal Navy, the British had to set the ship on fire to keep it from falling into the hands of the colonists.

The defense of Fort Sullivan was a huge milestone for the colonists. For starters, it was the first major and decisive victory for America. Thus, it was a tremendous morale booster. It made the Declaration of Independence, which had been signed just a few weeks later, a much more intimidating document to King George III. The victory also saved the city of Charleston for another three years. Had the British taken it on that day in 1776, they would have started the American Revolution with a strong presence in the south. That certainly would have changed the course of the war.
A Great City Under Attack
The British launch a siege on Charleston

The British didn’t want to make the same mistake twice. In 1776, very early in the war, they had attacked the city of Charleston hoping to gain control in the south. It was a disaster (you can read about it in the previous passage).

When British General Henry Clinton was again given the orders to try to take Charleston in 1780, he decided to do things a little differently. For starters, he came prepared. Having been stationed in New York, Clinton brought with him a force of nearly 10,000 soldiers. He also didn’t try to land directly in the city (that was the main mistake of the 1776 attack). Instead, he landed his troops safely thirty miles south of Charleston and began an overland approach.

Had the British succeeded in taking Charleston on their first attempt, they would have immediately gained control of the south and broken the will of the patriots. But that didn’t happen. In the years that followed, the majority of the fighting took place in the north, and the British had to slowly regroup in the south. By 1779, the British had managed to overrun the cities of Augusta and Savannah in Georgia—but these both paled in comparison to Charleston.

In March 1780, the British troops surrounded Charleston. On March 29, they came one step closer by crossing the Ashley River in a dense fog. This gave them an extremely strong position just outside Charleston.

On April 2, 1780, the siege began. The British began by moving into the nearby city of Moncks Corner, which fell on April 14. While luck had worked against the British on their first attempt to capture Charleston, it seemed to be with them this time. They captured a messenger who was carrying a letter from American General Benjamin Lincoln. The letter revealed how the rebel troops
were deployed. Before the sun began to rise on April 14, the British used this information and surprised an American post.

After taking the area, the British soldiers were easily able to fan themselves across the entire city of Charleston, completely cutting it off from outside communication, support, and supplies. There was no longer anything that could be done to keep Charleston out of enemy hands.

The American troops refused to surrender, and fought on for another month. Unfortunately, the British were positioned too deeply, and the continued fighting left the great city in ruins. Buildings were raided, houses were set on fire, dams were torn down, and a general sense of destruction and doom lingered over the area. On May 12, 1780, General Benjamin Lincoln surrendered Charleston to British hands.

The outlook of the war was bleak after the fall of Charleston. Most of the high commanders in the city became prisoners of war (including three men from South Carolina who signed the Declaration of Independence). Some officers, including General Benjamin Lincoln, were exchanged for British prisoners. Governor John Rutledge managed to escape to North Carolina, where he immediately began plans to chase the British out of South Carolina.

Over the next year, the British launched a campaign to control the entire south. British General Henry Clinton went back to New York, but he handed the control of his troops over to General Charles Cornwallis. Cornwallis organized the southern campaign, though he intended not to make any bold moves that might jeopardize the British control of Charleston.

The capture of Charleston resulted in a greater loss of American manpower (5,000 soldiers were taken prisoner) and equipment than any other single event in the Revolution. The British felt confident as they began their march through the southern states. Perhaps a little too confident…
A Disaster at Camden
The Battle of Camden ends in a major defeat

The fall of Charleston was a tremendous blow to the American colonists. It was extremely important that the continental bounce back quickly, and stop the British from marching uncontested through the south. In other words, the colonists needed a big victory—and they needed it badly.

General Horatio Gates was sent to regroup the southern forces. Earlier in the war, Gates earned the title of the “Hero of Saratoga” for his efforts in countering the British offensive into New York from Canada. The Continental Congress and General George Washington hoped that he could work the same kind of magic in the Carolinas. Unfortunately, Gates didn’t get off to a great start.

When he first met with his troops in North Carolina, Gates decided to march down to Camden, South Carolina, and defeat a small unit of British soldiers. Occupying Camden would provide safe travel along the Indian trails in the backcountry of South Carolina. It also seemed like an easy victory—Gates was certain that Cornwallis would rather keep his troops in the recently captured Charleston instead of defending the small town of Camden.

For the most part, the plan was sound. It was the execution that got Horatio Gates and his men in trouble. His first mistake was ignoring the advice of his officers that the route he had chosen was too dangerous. The officers had suggested taking an indirect route that wasn’t as swampy and infested with unfriendly Native Americans. Gates insisted on marching his 3,000 men on as straight a route as possible.

Fast Fact
As the colonial forces marched to Camden, they ran short of food supplies. They began to eat whatever rotten fruit or vegetables they could find along the way, which led to serious indigestion among the troops on the eve before the battle.
By the time the troops approached Camden, they had run out of supplies and were exhausted from marching through the swamps. That was the least of their worries. General Cornwallis had learned that Gates’ men were on the move, and he decided to lead his own forces into Camden.

On August 16, 1780, at about 2:00 in the morning, the troops of Horatio Gates and Charles Cornwallis literally ran into one another on Waxhaw Road, about ten miles north of Camden. They were both caught completely by surprise, and decided to wait until sunrise before the serious fighting began.

The Battle of Camden was not America’s finest hour. General Gates decided to challenge the British in the open field. Unfortunately, most of his troops were militia men, and had more experience with guerrilla tactics. When the two sides were close enough to draw bayonets (which was common in open field battles), the militia men turned and ran.

When the militia retreated, the British turned their focus on a group of American troops led by General Baron de Kalb, who was second in command under Gates. De Kalb had been struggling all morning in the flank, and he couldn’t possibly match the reinforced British troops. Like the others, his men turned and ran. De Kalb was shot, and later died from his wounds.

In a matter of hours, the British took the field and killed or captured over 500 Americans. In fact, of the 3,000 colonial troops involved in the battle, it’s estimated that 2,000 fled without taking a shot.

Adding to the loss of Charleston a few months earlier, the defeat at Camden proved to be devastating and humiliating for the Americans. General Horatio Gates didn’t have a chance to recover from his defeat. He was replaced in command by General Nathanael Greene. As you will read in the upcoming passages, Greene had much more success.
The “Swamp Fox”

Marion uses rough terrain to fight the British

The Battle of Camden revealed that the tattered Continentals just could not compete with British Regulars in an open field fight. Lacking experience, the American soldiers began to scatter when the British soldiers closed in. The defeat was a blow to morale, and it proved that there was no sense in trying to beat the British at their own game.

Francis Marion knew that there had to be a better way. The American forces were not making use of their greatest advantage—a knowledge of the land. South Carolina was full of swamps, woods, marshes, and backcountry trails. If these were the battlegrounds, instead of the huge open fields, then the outcomes just might be American victories.

The concept seemed simple, so Francis Marion wasted no time in putting his ideas into action. He rounded up 150 men, who became known as “Marion’s Brigade.” Marion led his troops through the swamps and the woods, and he attacked the British where they least expected it. Then, before the British had time to react, Francis Marion disappeared back into the swamps. The British began to believe that Marion was no ordinary man—instead they called him the “Swamp Fox.”

Using these tactics, the Swamp Fox and his troops were able to cut off British communication lines and keep them from getting supplies. His small victories couldn’t have come at a better time. By late 1780, the great city of Charleston had already fallen to the British. The Americans then suffered several small disasters, including the extremely embarrassing defeat at the Battle of Camden. Worst of all, the morale of the Continental Soldiers was at an all time low.
Marion’s Brigade helped turn all of that around. They didn’t do it through major battles or large-scale victories. Instead, a number of raids, surprise attacks, and skirmishes managed to frustrate the British and make their lives miserable. To put an end to the frustration, the British sent several top men to pursue Francis Marion and his brigade (this list included Major James Wemyss, Lt. Colonel Banastre Tarleton, and Lt. Colonel John Watson, among others).

Throughout late 1780 and early 1781, Francis Marion led the British on pursuits into the backwoods and swamplands of South Carolina, where the British Regulars didn’t have much of a chance. The Swamp Fox was never captured, and his men were never defeated. They always seemed to disappear into the swamp before the British retaliated.

The Swamp Fox began to step up his guerrilla raids in August 1780, just after the British won the Battle of Camden and appeared to be making a victory lap in the south. For the next year, he demoralized the British troops and helped the Americans win back their confidence. The momentum of the war had changed by the time that Marion’s Brigade forced the British to retreat to a battlefield in Cowpens (this became a huge American victory, which you’ll read about on the bottom of page 71).

A frustrated General Cornwallis moved his troops north, only to run into George Washington and a prepared American infantry at Yorktown. The British defeat there virtually marked the end of the American Revolution.

In hindsight, the Swamp Fox and only 150 men helped turn the tables on the British and enabled an American victory in the war.
Join the Militia

*Militia troops help terrorize the British*

The British Regulars were known for being disciplined, organized, and experienced. The same can’t be said for the American militias. Instead, these “make-shift” soldiers had a reputation for being disorderly, untested, and often out of control. This description might not have been too far off, but it didn’t change the fact that the militias helped play a huge part in the American victory.

Militia troops fought throughout the colonies, but no place did they shine more than in South Carolina. Men like Francis Marion (the legendary “Swamp Fox,” who you can read all about in the previous passage) frustrated the British and saved the morale of the Americans. Marion and his brigade weren’t alone. There were several key militia leaders in South Carolina who helped turn the tables on the British.

Among these leaders was Andrew Pickens, who had earned his experience by fighting against Native Americans in the Cherokee Wars. When the American Revolution came, Pickens gathered a group of a few hundred men and caused trouble for the British in Georgia and the Carolinas. Like Francis Marion, Pickens took advantage of the swamps and thick woods to launch quick attacks on the British Regulars.

On May 12, 1780, it seemed that all of Pickens’ efforts were wasted. On that day, the city of Charleston fell to the British, and the south seemed to be a lost cause. Pickens decided at that point to give up fighting, and he and his men went home.

Much to his surprise, the war was just beginning for Andrew Pickens. When he arrived home, he found that British soldiers and loyalists had destroyed his property and intimidated his family. With a renewed energy, and a score to settle, Pickens rejoined the war. He spent the next year hindering the British through calculated militia attacks. His finest moment was at the Battle of Cowpens (read the “Side Note” column at the end of this passage).
Thomas Sumter was another effective militia leader, though he also helped create the negative reputation that militias often carried. Sumter managed to frustrate the British by blocking off supply lines near Charleston. He wasn’t much of a team player, however. Sumter paid little attention to the goals of the regular army, and instead seemed to be out to satisfy his own vengeance. He was also less calculated than Francis Marion or Andrew Pickens. His men often suffered defeat or were caught off-guard.

Despite his controversial tactics, everybody agreed that Sumter was effective. The news of his successes lifted the morale of the Americans so much that over 1,000 men volunteered to join his militia. After the war, Sumter’s heroics won him a seat in congress.

While the militia troops were not part of the regular army, their success in South Carolina was largely due to the leadership of the Regulars. When General Nathanael Greene took control of the southern forces in late 1780, he encouraged the guerrilla tactics of militia forces. He recognized that the small raids could lift American morale, and destroy British confidence. He was right.

In a strategic move, Greene placed Daniel Morgan in charge of a 600-man light infantry force. Having fought under George Washington, Morgan was already a veteran of the Revolution by this time. His orders under Greene were to travel throughout South Carolina and harass the British, but to never engage in a serious battle. This plan helped give the Continental Army a huge presence in the Carolinas.

A Side Note…

The Battle of Cowpens

For the most part, militia troops engaged in small raids and surprise attacks, always retreating into the swamps or woods before being caught. The militia played a larger role, however, at the Battle of Cowpens, which proved to be the turning point for the war.

Daniel Morgan ordered militia leader Andrew Pickens to have his men stand in the open field and fire two shots at the British. When the British prepared to retaliate, the militia men turned and ran. Thinking that they were retreating, the British followed—and they ran right into a trap. Thousands of men in the Continental Army were waiting to fire upon the blindly charging British.
The Tables Turn

Battle of Kings Mountain lifts Patriot morale

May 12, 1780, was perhaps the darkest day in the history of South Carolina. On that day, the great port city of Charleston fell into the hands of the British after a deadly siege. To make matters worse, the fall of Charleston seemed to mark the beginning of the end for America, as British troops prepared to march through the south and bring an end to the Revolution.

The entire year of 1780 seemed to bring disaster for the American colonies, and South Carolina just happened to be on center stage. Then the tables started to turn.

The first major victory came at Kings Mountain, South Carolina (located just miles from the North Carolina border). The battle itself was not huge—in fact, there were virtually no British soldiers on hand. Instead, it was a battle between patriots (almost all of which were militia troops, including the legendary “Overmountain Men” from Tennessee) and loyalists. In other words, it was a battle of Americans against Americans. The regular army gave no official orders to fight, and the battle lasted only one hour and involved only 2,000 soldiers. Nonetheless, the patriot troops routed their loyalist enemies.

While Kings Mountain wasn’t even close to the largest battle of the American Revolution, it was one of the most significant. For starters, it ended a string of British victories and finally put them on the defensive. The victory also lifted American morale, and it gave General Nathanael Greene time to regroup the Continental Army in the south.

General Greene had replaced Horatio Gates in the south after Gates failed to hinder British advances. Raised by a Quaker family, Nathanael Greene earned the title, “The Fighting Quaker,”
for his militaristic instincts. Ironically, the Society of Friends—commonly known as Quakers—strongly stressed pacifist views (in fact, Greene was expelled from the religion when he began to study the art of warfare).

When the Revolution came, Greene became a critical part of several northern campaigns, and a favorite of George Washington. Washington recommended him to command the south. When he took over, Greene recognized that his army was not the strongest or most experienced, but used mobility and a strong militia presence in the Carolinas to frustrate the British.

Greene used the militia forces to draw British troops to Cowpens, South Carolina, in January 1781. He surprised the Royal Army (who had grown used to fighting small bands of inexperienced militia) with a newly regrouped Continental Army. The American victory at Cowpens put the British on the run, and perhaps for the first time the British felt desperate.

Over the next month, Nathanael Greene and British commander Charles Cornwallis competed in the “race to the Dan.” The “Dan” referred to the Dan River, which marked the border between North Carolina and Virginia.

The American troops were tired and weary, and were being heavily pursued by the British. In order to prepare for a final offensive, Greene had to escape from the British retaliation after the Battle of Cowpens. With Cornwallis on their tail, the American troops raced to the Dan River, and managed to cross it before the British caught them (during the winter, the river swelled over and could only be crossed in specific locations). In less than a month, the Continental Army had marched over 200 miles in rough terrain and cold weather (all stragglers had to be left behind).

After they were revived, the Americans crossed the Dan River again, this time in pursuit of the British. There were several confrontations between the two armies throughout 1781, the last major one being the Battle of Eutaw Springs in South Carolina. In this engagement, over 1,000 British troops were killed or captured, thus making Britain’s southern army too weak to provide assistance at Yorktown, Virginia (which ultimately secured the British defeat).
The Cherokee Choose Sides

Natives join the British during the Revolution

Whether they liked it or not, the Native Americans could not ignore the actions of the European settlers. Even as early as the 1500s, it became apparent that the Europeans were planning to build permanent settlements in the New World. When the British started coming in the 1600s, Native American life changed forever. There were isolated skirmishes, and even larger-scale wars, waged by the Natives to defend their heritage. In the end, the Europeans were more than willing to fight for the prime real estate, and they unintentionally brought with them a secret weapon—smallpox (in the 1730s, smallpox wiped out nearly a quarter of the Cherokee Indians).

In the 1750s, the American settlers and the British joined sides during the French and Indian War. Most Native American warriors decided to take up arms and support the French troops. Their intention was to discourage the rapid British expansion in America. Unfortunately, the Natives had chosen the wrong side. Twenty years later, during the American Revolution, the Indian tribes had to choose sides again.

The Native Americans were not overly concerned with whether or not the colonies gained their independence. They were, however, very concerned about their own future. Throughout the 1700s, the American colonists quickly spread along the east coast of the New World. The Cherokee Indians, who lived in the upstate of South Carolina, had very little interaction with the Europeans living near Charleston and along South Carolina’s coastline. Unfortunately for the Cherokees, this all changed when the settlers established trading posts and small towns throughout the backcountry areas.

It seemed obvious that, if the colonists gained their independence, they would continue their rapid expansion (and that is exactly what happened). For that reason, the Cherokee Indians—and most other Native American tribes—sided with the British during the American Revolution. They believed that the British would keep the colonists in check, and the Natives wanted to be on good terms with the Royal Empire.
During the course of the Revolution, from 1776 to 1783, the Cherokee Indians raided forts and towns in the upcountry of South Carolina. The violence reached its peak after 1780, when the British Army began its southern campaign and waged several battles across the state. The militia troops, led by men such as Daniel Morgan, struggled to put down these Native American rebellions.

In the end, the Natives made the same mistake that they made during the French and Indian War—they chose the wrong side. The American colonists were victorious, and they lacked sympathy for the Native American soldiers who had fought against them. With little hesitation, settlers overran the land once occupied by the Cherokee Indians.

In 1786, a major treaty was signed in Hopewell, South Carolina, between the Cherokee Indians and the United States government. The treaty set aside certain areas of land for the Cherokee. It also promised an end to the routine violence against the Natives. Unfortunately, this treaty proved to be much better in theory than it was in practice.

As the population of white settlers rapidly increased in the upstate, the Cherokee Indians started to be viewed as a mere hindrance. Few people recognized the borders of areas set aside as Cherokee lands, and the treatment of the Natives didn’t improve. Several more treaties were written and signed over the next few decades, but none were held in high regard by white settlers.

The struggle of the Cherokee Indians continued through the early 1800s. In the 1830s, the United States government decided that the land in the Carolinas and Georgia was too valuable to be occupied by Native Americans. The result was the infamous “Trail of Tears,” in which all Natives in the area were forced to march to less desirable lands in Oklahoma—4,000 Cherokees die along the way.

Fast Fact
On December 16, 1811, a major earthquake struck Missouri and was felt throughout the Cherokee nation. Several more earthquakes struck in the next three months. A desire to explain the cause and meaning of these earthquakes sparked a major religious revival among the Cherokee Indians.
Beyond the Call of Duty

*Emily Geiger delivers a critical message*

From May 22 to June 18, 1781, Nathanael Greene and his troops launched a tedious siege on a British fort in the town of Ninety Six. For three weeks, the Continental forces literally moved just a few feet a day, protecting themselves from enemy fire by hovering in ditches and behind dirt mounds. Nearly 1,000 patriots tried to close in on the strategically positioned fort, which housed just over 500 loyalists. Then British reinforcements finally arrived, and the Continental army had to drop everything and run. Three weeks of calculated planning and the attack had been for nothing.

Not only had the siege of Ninety Six failed, but Nathanael Greene now had the powerful British army on his tail. What had started out as a patriot attack was looking like it might end in a devastating surrender. If he was going to make another stand, Greene needed the help of the militia forces fighting in the eastern part of the state. He considered sending a message out to Thomas Sumter, who was leading a group of nearly 1,000 militiamen in quick raids against British Regulars.

Unfortunately, the backcountry of South Carolina was swarming with British soldiers and loyalists, and it was nearly impossible to pass through unquestioned. Anyone caught delivering a message for the Continental army would be thrown in prison or, if he wasn’t so lucky, put to death. Not surprisingly, soldiers weren’t lining up to volunteer for the mission.

There was one person who was anxious to serve, but it wasn’t who Nathanael Greene was looking for. A teenage girl named Emily Geiger volunteered to deliver the General’s message to Thomas Sumter. Greene refused at first, but Emily was persistent. Seeing as she was the only one willing to take on the daring task, Greene ultimately agreed to let her.

Greene transcribed a message asking Sumter to join his troops and provide reinforcements. Emily took a copy of the letter,
and set out to deliver it. She made good time on her first day, before finally stopping to rest. Knowing the importance of her mission, Emily memorized Greene’s letter, just in case she should have to dispose of it in pinch.

On the second day, Emily’s good luck took a turn for the worse. British loyalists stopped her and questioned why such a young girl would travel alone so far out in the country. She had made up a story about going to visit her uncle, and she told the tale just as she had rehearsed. Unfortunately, Emily wasn’t a good liar. The loyalists grew suspicious and had her arrested.

When the guards weren’t looking, Emily tore up Greene’s letter to keep it from falling into British hands. Not knowing what to do with the pieces of paper, she quickly shoved them in her mouth and swallowed. Her quick plan might have saved her life. When a British loyalist came in to search Emily, he decided that she wasn’t carrying anything of interest. She was soon set free.

Despite being flustered by the incident, Emily carried on with her mission. She had been forced to destroy Greene’s letter, but was certain that she had it well memorized. When she arrived at Sumter’s camp, she could recite the letter orally.

After another day of exhausting riding, Emily came upon a group of patriots. They could see that she was thirsty and tired, but Emily demanded to see Thomas Sumter immediately. The soldiers took her to Sumter, where she told of her mission and verbally delivered Greene’s message.

Soon after, Sumter joined Greene’s army near Orangeburg, just as he had been asked to do. Emily Geiger returned home safely, and lived on as a hero of the Revolution. Her story became popular throughout the Carolinas, though the first written accounts of Emily’s mission did not appear until the 1800s.
Sacrificing for the Cause

Rebecca Motte helps Patriots destroy her home

One year made a world of difference for the future of South Carolina. In May 1780, Charleston fell to British troops, and the Royal Army marched easily through the state over the next few months.

Finally, in October 1780, the momentum started to shift. A small battle at Kings Mountain put an end to a string of British and loyalist victories. This effort was aided by militia troops, who constantly terrorized and harassed the British Regulars. Finally, Nathanael Greene began to lead the Continental Army back across South Carolina, regaining captured territory and keeping the British army on the defensive.

By early 1781, even battles that ended in American defeats were equally as devastating for the British. At the Battle of Guilford Courthouse, for example, General Cornwallis succeeded in chasing the patriots off the field, but he lost over half of his army in the process.

The patriot army was on a roll by the time it arrived at Fort Motte in May 1781. The fort, located in Calhoun County, had recently been captured by the British. The Royal Army was hoping to hold off the patriots until reinforcements arrived.

Francis Marion was leading the South Carolina militia in the attack of Fort Motte, and he was joined by militia leader “Light Horse” Harry Lee. As the battle raged on, it became strategically important for the main house of the fort to be destroyed. Otherwise, British reinforcements could arrive and regroup within, thus creating a major setback for the Colonial army. Giving the order to destroy the house, however, wasn’t so easy.

Fort Motte had been the summer home of Rebecca Motte. Rebecca had grown up in Charleston surrounded by wealth and
privilege. Her good times came to an end, unfortunately, when the British captured the city. The Motte home in Charleston became a headquarters for British troops, who forced the family to live in a small room. Finally, the British gave the Motte family permission to leave Charleston and go to its home in the middle of the state.

The new home wasn’t much better. Shortly after arriving at the destination, the British soldiers once again decided to use the Motte residence as a headquarters. They built a trench around the house and established fortifications. As had been the case in Charleston, Rebecca and her family were forced to live in a small room so that the soldiers could be comfortable. The Motte summer home was suddenly the “British Fort Motte.”

Patriot leaders Francis Marion and “Light Horse” Harry Lee had heard of Rebecca Motte’s misfortune, and they were hesitant to destroy her house while fighting the British. Unfortunately, there didn’t seem to be another way. They approached Rebecca with their dilemma.

Without any hesitation, Rebecca Motte gave the Colonial soldiers permission to destroy her home, and then she took it one-step beyond. She provided the soldiers with arrows that she had received from the West Indies. These arrows were set on fire and shot at the house. It quickly caught on fire, and Fort Motte was destroyed. The British surrendered before any reinforcements could arrive.

After successfully capturing Fort Motte, the patriots were able to continue reclaiming South Carolina from the British. The militia forces reeked havoc whenever they could, which enabled Nathanael Greene and the Continentals to contain the Royal Army.

When Charleston was finally recaptured from the British, Rebecca Motte returned to her home in the city. She raised her family in the same rooms that had housed the British soldiers. Her heroics during the siege of Fort Motte quickly spread around the colonies, and she became known as a hero of the American Revolution.
A Capital City

South Carolina forced to switch capital cities

The city of Columbia, located almost directly in the center of the state, has served as the capital of South Carolina since 1786. Its central location made it the obvious choice when a bill was introduced to move the capital from the coast to a new and permanent location. Of course, South Carolina was around long before 1786, so it seems only logical that other cities have once claimed the title of “state capital.”

An obvious city that once served as South Carolina’s capital is Charleston. In fact, Charleston (or Charles Town, as it was known prior to 1783) was the capital of the Carolinas back when North Carolina and South Carolina were a single colony. Serving as a major port, Charleston grew to become the largest American city south of Philadelphia (by 1700, it was the fifth largest city in all of North America).

In 1780, a disastrous event made Charleston unable to serve as the capital of South Carolina. The British army seized and took control of the city. As a result, an unlikely location was chosen as the seat of the state legislature. The new South Carolina state capital became Jacksonboro, a small village on the Edisto River, only fifty miles away from Charleston.

The town of Jacksonboro wasn’t chosen for its rich history, strategic significance, or honorable reputation. It was chosen because the delegates were in a jam, and they needed a place to meet. Nonetheless, during the occupation of Charleston, it became the center for political debate and important decision-making.
Perhaps the most important piece of legislature created in Jacksonboro was the “South Carolina Estate Confiscation Act,” passed in 1782. Even though Charleston was still under British control, this document determined how loyalists were to be treated after the war was officially over and the patriots were back in charge. It listed names of those who had been loyal to the British, and what their appropriate punishments should be (the post-war years were extremely difficult for the loyalists—they were fined, punished, and stripped of property while receiving little sympathy from the colonists).

Jacksonboro wasn’t the only obscure place to join the ranks of Columbia and Charleston as state capitals. While the British occupied Charleston, General Charles Cornwallis decided to pick a city as his own capital, where he could safely establish his headquarters. He didn’t want to remain in Charleston. Because the city was so far on the eastern side of the state, it was not a good place for him to run the British military as it embarked on its southern campaign.

Cornwallis chose the small town of Winnsboro, about thirty miles north of Columbia. When he came to the area, Cornwallis remarked on the “fair fields” around the land. This statement became the namesake for Fairfield County, where Winnsboro is located. Fortunately, the British presence in South Carolina did not last long. In October 1781, Cornwallis was forced to surrender to George Washington in Yorktown, Virginia.

**Fast Fact**

Despite their significant roles in South Carolina history, the towns of Jacksonboro and Winnsboro never grew into large cities. Jacksonboro currently has a population of less than 1,000, while Winnsboro claims around 4,000 people.

In the 1780s, the towns of Jacksonboro and Winnsboro were often spelled, “Jacksonborough” and “Winnsborough.” This slight change in spelling is not uncommon over a period of two centuries.
The Road to Statehood

The colonial governments of South Carolina

A number of different constitutions have defined South Carolina over the centuries. In fact, the first South Carolina constitution was created before any English settlers even arrived. In the 1660s, as the Lord Proprietors prepared to establish colonies in North America, renowned philosopher John Locke drafted the “Fundamental Constitution of Carolina.” Locke paved the way for revolutionary thinkers like Thomas Jefferson and James Madison—but his “Constitution of Carolina” probably wasn’t his best work. It proposed an arrangement similar to the feudal system used in Europe in the Middle Ages. There was to be a group of “nobles” who owned the land in the Carolinas, and a group of “serfs” who worked the land.

This first attempt at government didn’t go over too well. The Constitution was never put into full effect, and the rule of the Lord Proprietors was abolished by 1720. South Carolina was growing rapidly, however, which made the need for government more important than ever.

During the 1700s, the major decisions of South Carolina were made by the Commons House of Assembly (which later became known as “General Assembly”). This powerful governing body included a number of prominent men who voted on the important issues. Unfortunately, it had its flaws. The major problem was choosing the representatives. While the backcountry of South Carolina was becoming more and more populated, the most wealthy and educated citizens still lived around Charleston. The result was a constant battle between the upstate and lowcountry for fair representation in the assembly.

For the most part, the rural lands always seemed to get the short end of the stick. While only one-third of the population lived in the lowcountry (i.e. in and around Charleston), the area sent over two-thirds of the representatives to the South Carolina Congress in 1775. This was largely because the backcountry towns were still
struggling to establish local governments, thus making them much less aware of statewide politics.

When the American Revolution came, South Carolinians decided it was important to get everyone on the same page. A new constitution was adopted in 1776, establishing the colony as an individual entity. John Rutledge, who served the position of governor, was referred to as “President,” and his “Vice-president” was Henry Laurens.

With the war quickly getting underway, this Constitution had to be made in haste. It was revised in 1778, though the same problems existed as before. The elite population near Charleston still ran the government as they pleased, while those living in the backcountry had little say.

It wasn’t until the ratification of the Federal Constitution in 1787 that South Carolinians became serious about creating a fair state constitution. It wasn’t easy. The basic principles, and even some of the same phrases, were taken right out of the Federal Constitution. Unfortunately, there didn’t seem to be any way to satisfy those living in the upcountry and those in the lowcountry. Tensions remained high between the two areas for the next twenty years (by that time, the people of the upcountry were making enough money with cotton that they could no longer be ignored). Unlike the Federal Constitution, the new South Carolina Constitution did not last. A new constitution was drafted in 1868, as a devastated South Carolina attempted to recover from the Civil War.

**A Side Note… Why Didn’t It Last?**

South Carolina’s constitution in 1790 mirrored the Federal Constitution in many ways. Why, then, did the State Constitution only last a few decades (*a new one was created in 1868*), while the Federal Constitution still works over 200 years later? Here’s one reason:

South Carolina’s Constitution restricted voting rights to wealthy men who owned property. This worked because South Carolina was an extremely wealthy state (*due to the rice, indigo, and cotton industries*). After the Civil War, however, people lost their fortunes, and freed slaves had no property at all. The new constitution had to represent these sudden changes.
A High Profile Prisoner  
*Henry Laurens sent to the Tower of London*

If Henry Laurens didn’t have reason to hate the British before the American Revolution, he certainly found a reason during the war. His problems with England were personal—he was locked up in the infamous Tower of London for fifteen months and nearly died from failing health. Here’s how it happened.

While serving as a soldier during the fight against the Cherokee Indians, Laurens started to become involved in colonial politics. He was elected as South Carolina’s “Vice-president” in 1776 (*a position now known as the lieutenant-governor*). By the time the American Revolution came around, Laurens had started to take his politics to the national level. He was named as the first delegate to the Continental Congress in 1777, and he served as its president for a year. Surprisingly, Laurens wasn’t initially in favor of going to war with the British. He had hoped for some sort of reconciliation—though he eventually sided with the more radical patriots when England continued to abuse the colonies.

Even though Henry Laurens was important in the daily discussions of the Continental Congress, his real impact came after he left. In 1780, Laurens was named as the minister to Holland. He traveled there to convince the Dutch to join the war effort, but he never made it back to America. The British captured Laurens on his return trip and threw him into the Tower of London under the charge of treason.
This was a disaster for two reasons. For starters, one of the finest political minds in the country was now rotting away in a damp prison cell. For over a year, Laurens' health seriously declined as he served time in the Tower. There was a greater injustice, however. Throughout the American Revolution, both sides had captured a number of prisoners of war. It was customary for these prisoners to be allowed to communicate through mail, and be exchanged for other prisoners if possible. Many times, the prisoners were offered parole if they followed certain conditions.

Because he was in the Tower of London, over 3,000 miles away, Henry Laurens had none of these benefits. He was so important to the American cause that the British refused to trade him for other prisoners.

In late 1781, the patriots finally managed to get some negotiating power. British General Charles Cornwallis was forced to surrender to George Washington after being defeated at Yorktown. The Americans refused to release Cornwallis to the British unless Henry Laurens was set free. The British agreed.

His health never completely recovered from the time spent in the Tower of London, but Laurens still jumped back into national politics. In 1783, he helped negotiate the Treaty of Paris, which officially ended the war. Laurens then decided to retire from public life and spend time on his plantation in Charleston.

When the Constitutional Convention met in 1787, the other delegates tried to persuade Henry Laurens to attend. He declined. Laurens did, however, agree to review and ratify the Constitution for the state of South Carolina one year later.

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**I Bet You Didn’t Know...**

Henry Laurens wrote in his will that he wanted his body to be burned after his death. This wish was carried out according to his instructions.

The **cremation** of Henry Laurens on December 8, 1792, was the first in the history of the United States.
Hello Charles Pinckney

Four important men named Charles Pinckney

When studying the history of South Carolina’s road to statehood, the name “Charles Pinckney” seems to come up time and time again. It almost seems as if the accomplishments of Charles Pinckney were more than one man could ever do. That’s because they were. Throughout the 1700s and early 1800s, there were actually four important South Carolinians named Charles Pinckney, and they were all related to each other in one way or another.

The first of the men to carry the name ‘Charles Pinckney’ was an attorney general of South Carolina in 1733, who went on to become the speaker of the General Assembly. Perhaps his most famous achievement was his marriage to Eliza Lucas, the woman who transformed the entire economy of South Carolina by introducing an effective way to grow the indigo plant.

Charles Pinckney was the uncle of Colonel Charles Pinckney, the most controversial of the Pinckney boys. Colonel Pinckney fled Charleston when it fell to the British during the American Revolution. He returned a year later, and swore loyalty to the British crown to avoid having his property confiscated. Not surprisingly, the American forces didn’t approve of Colonel Pinckney’s decision, and the South Carolina legislature heavily fined him after the war.

The next generation of Pinckneys had an even greater impact than their predecessors. The son of the first Charles Pinckney— the Speaker of the General Assembly— was Charles Cotesworth Pinckney. As a leading member of the Constitutional Convention in 1787, Charles Cotesworth Pinckney argued for the interests of South Carolina. His main concern was to keep the heavily populated states from having too much power. Instead, he felt that representation should be determined by wealth (keep in mind that, despite a limited population, South Carolina was one of the richest colonies in the nation). Charles Cotesworth Pinckney also argued that slaves should be included with the rest of the population. Because so many slaves worked on the South Carolina plantations, counting them would greatly increase the colony’s
representation in Congress (eventually, it was determined that a slave represented three-fifths of a person in the population count).

Charles Cotesworth Pinckney was not the only Pinckney from South Carolina to attend the Constitutional Convention. His second cousin—also named Charles Pinckney—joined him in Philadelphia. Unlike his father, Colonel Charles Pinckney (who is described two paragraphs above), the younger Charles Pinckney never pledged loyalty to the British. In fact, he was taken as a prisoner of war when the British captured Charleston.

After his release in 1781, Charles Pinckney joined the Continental Congress. He was one of the youngest delegates to the Convention, though he immediately took on a position of leadership. Pinckney joined his cousin in arguing the views of South Carolina as the delegates attempted to write a fair document.

Charles Pinckney later became governor of South Carolina, and he used his experience in the Constitutional Convention to help create the state’s own constitution in 1790.

**A Side Note…**

**Differing Views**

During the Constitutional Convention, Charles Pinckney and Charles Cotesworth Pinckney shared many of the same views. After the Constitution was signed, both men became leaders of the Federalist Party, which stressed the importance of a strong national government.

The two cousins parted ways, however, during the election of 1800. Charles Pickney decided to support Thomas Jefferson, a fierce opponent of the Federalist Party. Charles Cotesworth Pinckney remained a diehard Federalist, and even ran against Jefferson in the election (Charles Cotesworth Pinckney also ran for President as a Federalist in 1804 and 1808, but was defeated both times).
Back to Real Life

Life begins again after the Revolution

What do you do when it’s all over? South Carolina should have been back to normal by 1790. After all, the American Revolution had ended, the Federal Constitution had been signed, and South Carolina had become an official state with a constitution of its own. Everyone could finally get back to normal—but that proved to be much more difficult than it seemed.

For starters, the British had devastated much of South Carolina by fighting in over 100 battles and skirmishes during the course of 1780 and 1781. The most costly damage occurred during the British siege and occupation of Charleston (the city was held captive for nearly three years). Even when British soldiers were forced to leave South Carolina, they made sure to do damage along the way. The soldiers looted homes and farms, and stole anything that they could carry. The British even took slaves off the plantations. By the time the war was over, nearly 25,000 slaves had either been killed, stolen, or had managed to escape. This temporarily shattered South Carolina’s agricultural economy.

When the British soldiers finally left the area, South Carolinians still weren’t ready to let the war end. Thousands of loyalists—many of which had been born and raised in South Carolina—had taken up arms for the Royal Army. Several battles pitted loyalists against the patriots, with no British soldiers involved. In other words, it was Americans versus Americans. The tensions between the loyalists and patriots—especially in the backcountry—remained even after all of the shots had been fired.

In 1782, the General Assembly met in Jacksonborough to decide what to do with loyalists who remained in the South Carolina. There was little sympathy for those who supported England, and the loyalists were charged with heavy fines and had

Fast Fact

Thomas Jefferson wrote an anti-slavery clause in the Declaration of Independence, but it was removed before the final draft. South Carolina was one of the states that opposed the clause because its agricultural economy depended heavily on slavery.
property confiscated. As a result, nearly 4,000 of them fled the state (about 5% of the total white population).

There was one more dividing factor that kept tensions high in South Carolina. There was a huge division between the people living in the upcountry and those living in the lowcountry. It had started in the mid-1700s, when trading posts along the Indian Trails formed into small towns. These areas were loosely governed—to say the least—and order was kept only by the actions of violent vigilante groups. This way of life seemed archaic to the wealthy aristocrats living in and around Charleston. The people in the lowcountry had little respect for the “misfits” living in the backwoods.

At first, this division may have been only a perception, but it became quite real when the lowcountry used their wealth and property to control most of the representation in the General Assembly. Over two-thirds of the representatives lived just miles from Charleston, even though the backcountry contained a greater population of the state.

This struggle for fair representation went on for years. In 1793, an important invention finally united the lowcountry and the upcountry of South Carolina. The invention was the cotton gin, which could quickly separate cotton fibers from the seeds. Over the next decade, cotton became a very important cash crop in South Carolina. The upcountry was no longer a “wild frontier.” Instead, it was the home of wealthy cotton planters. With money came power, and the people of the upcountry began to have a little more say in political affairs.

By the early 1800s, South Carolinians were finally able to put the tensions of the Revolutionary years behind them. They focused on a new era—the Antebellum Era—that would be defined by successful cotton plantations and a heavy dependence on slavery (the next chapter focuses on the Antebellum Era).
Revolutionary Pride

The legacy of the American Revolution in SC

It’s often said that the Civil War never ended in South Carolina. The later chapters of this book will tell about South Carolina being the first state to secede from the Union, and how the first shots of the war were fired at Fort Sumter (in Charleston). In dozens of towns across the state, you can still find monuments to the fallen Confederate soldiers, and there are hundreds of historical markers detailing tid-bits of history about the war. Confederate heroes such as Robert E. Lee and Stonewall Jackson are often viewed more as legends than as actual military leaders.

The reasons why the Civil War still seems so present in South Carolina has far less to do with states’ rights or slavery (the original reasons why the war was fought) than it does with simple southern pride. The Confederate soldiers fought courageously, and many South Carolinians are proud to have them as ancestors.

With so much focus on the Civil War, it’s often forgotten how large a role South Carolina played in the American Revolution. A great deal of the southern campaign of 1780 took place within the state (discussed in great detail earlier in this chapter), and it proved to be a critical part of the American victory. While these events may seem overshadowed by the events of the Civil War, they are certainly not forgotten by modern South Carolinians.

Many major battlefields—such as Camden, Cowpens, and King’s Mountain—have been preserved as national or state parks. Likewise, while the roads of South Carolina are filled with markers featuring tid-bits of the Civil War, there are plenty of markers that discuss the great history of the American Revolution.

There is another reason for South Carolinians to remember the American Revolution—one that cannot be used for the Civil War. The American Revolution was a time when South Carolina shined. The fighting within the state shifted the entire momentum
of the war, and ultimately helped force the British to surrender at Yorktown. That victory gained the United States its independence, thus making it one of the most important moments in American history.

After the Revolution, South Carolina continued as one of the wealthiest states. Rice and indigo crops were replaced by cotton, but the results were the same—lots of profits for the planters. The Civil War did not have such a happy ending.

The fighting of the Civil War completely leveled South Carolina, and resulted in the complete destruction of the state’s economy. It took nearly half a century for the state to recover. In fact, South Carolina never regained the economic greatness that it had achieved during the Revolutionary years.

Despite the struggles, many people in South Carolina are still proud of the stance that the state took during the Civil War. That doesn’t mean, however, that anyone has forgotten the period in history that could be the state’s shining moment—the American Revolution.

### A Side Note…

#### What’s In a Name?

As proof that South Carolina hasn’t forgotten the American Revolution, check out these counties named for Revolutionary heroes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>County</th>
<th>Named for</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Laurens County</td>
<td>Henry Laurens</td>
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<tr>
<td>Horry County</td>
<td>Peter Horry</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sumter County</td>
<td>Thomas Sumter</td>
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<tr>
<td>Jasper County</td>
<td>William Jasper</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pickens County</td>
<td>Andrew Pickens</td>
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<tr>
<td>Marion County</td>
<td>Francis Marion (i.e. “The Swamp Fox”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anderson County</td>
<td>Robert Anderson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barnwell County</td>
<td>John Barnwell</td>
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***Lexington County*** was named after Lexington, Massachusetts, where the first shots of the American Revolution were fired.
"The Union, next to our Liberty, most dear"

—John Calhoun, Vice-president & South Carolina Native

Calhoun made this statement during the Nullification Crisis of 1832-1833. He was responding to a toast by President Andrew Jackson, in which the President declared, “Our Federal Union! It must be preserved!”
Chapter 4

The history of South Carolina during The Antebellum Era
A Better Way

*Invention of cotton gin revolutionizes the South*

Things had to change in South Carolina. The violence of over 100 battles and skirmishes in a two-year period (1780-1781, *during the southern campaign of the American Revolution*) had left parts of the once-prosperous state in shambles. As the British left the area, they broke the will of plantation owners by burning farms and stealing thousands of slaves on their way out. Many South Carolinians felt that it was time to acknowledge the fact that the plantation system might be dead. After all, it seemed obvious that the state no longer had a stronghold on indigo (*a major cash crop prior to the war*), and rice plantations only thrived in the lowcountry. The rest of the state had nothing to offer.

Then everything suddenly changed. In 1793, inventor Eli Whitney put together the cotton gin, a simple device that separated cotton fibers from the seeds. Prior to the cotton gin, the cotton crop was too tedious to be profitable. It would take a slave hours to separate the seeds from the fibers of just one pound of cotton. The cotton gin could do the same amount of work in under a minute. The new invention virtually eliminated the most time-consuming part of harvesting cotton—all that the cotton farmer had to do now was grow it and pick it.

This was easier said than done. Growing cotton took its share of labor, and picking the crop took even more. It just so happened that South Carolinians were experienced when it came to finding cheap labor. The state thrived on the plantation system,
which largely depended on slave workers. It was this efficient use of slaves that made the indigo crop profitable in the 1700s. When the indigo market dried up, many speculated that the institution of slavery would also come to an end. Cotton quickly revived it.

As the 19th century rolled around, indigo plantations were transformed into cotton plantations, and owning slaves became more important than ever. By 1820, South Carolina was producing more cotton than any other state in the nation.

With the restoration of the plantation system came a new way of life in South Carolina. Prosperity returned, which many feared had disappeared after the devastation of the American Revolution. “Southern Pride” also returned—indeed, it was much stronger than it ever was before.

This “Southern Pride” defined the period between the American Revolution and the Civil War. During this time, often referred to as the “Antebellum Era,” southerners became convinced that planting was the only proper occupation for a man. While a tradesman or a merchant could easily make a fortune, he wasn’t given the same respect as a plantation owner.

This sentiment was so strong that industry was discouraged in South Carolina during the early 1800s. When factories began to thrive in the northern states, the southern states continued to focus on agriculture, and they fiercely protected the plantation system and the institution of slavery. Farmers in the Deep South (South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana) primarily focused on cotton, which they usually sold to northern factories.

The growing tensions between the industrial north and the agrarian south eventually led to the Civil War in the 1860s—but that’s the next chapter.
A New College in Town

*South Carolina focuses on education*

Just a few years after the nation came together and gained its independence, the state of South Carolina looked like it was going to fall apart. There was a constant feud between the large population living in the upcountry and the elite few living near Charleston. In 1790, the capital was moved from Charleston to Columbia, a more centrally located city. Politicians hoped that this move would ease the tensions between the two sides of the state. It didn’t change much.

When the 19th century came, South Carolina leaders came up with another great idea. They decided to charter a college and have it fully funded by the state—a idea almost unheard of at the time. This college would bring together the best and brightest young men from all parts of South Carolina, thus promoting a sense of unity across the state.

The College of South Carolina opened its doors in 1805, and it quickly gained a reputation as one of the finest in America. The college grew steadily over the next twenty years, but it didn’t always draw the most intellectual student body. In fact, during the 1820s and 1830s, the school housed a bit of a “rough crowd.” The students were all young men, which meant that there was plenty of smoking, chewing tobacco, and brawling. Most of the time, the “scholars” were covered with mud (the campus contained only dirt paths — most of the brick walkways and sidewalks were not added until the 1900s). Things got so bad that a brick wall had to be built around the campus to keep students from sneaking out and stealing chickens or buying alcohol. In 1833, there was even a fatal duel on campus!

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A Little Extra...</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The University of South Carolina does not only include the original college in Columbia. It also includes:</td>
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<tr>
<td>• USC Aiken</td>
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<td>• USC Beaufort</td>
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<td>• USC Lancaster</td>
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<td>• USC Salkehatchie</td>
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<td>• USC Upstate</td>
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<td>• USC Sumter</td>
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<td>• USC Lancaster</td>
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More than 35,000 attend the university, but nearly 25,000 of them go to the Columbia campus.
Despite its colorful student body, the College of South Carolina continued to expand the minds of young men. At the start of the Civil War, almost all of the students joined the Confederate Army, thus forcing the institution to shut down. It reopened in 1865, and quickly made front-page news by becoming the only southern college to admit African American students during Reconstruction (this was so controversial that authorities shut the college down again in the late 1870s). In 1906, the College of South Carolina officially became the University of South Carolina. It grew exponentially during the 20th century, and expanded to other campuses throughout the state.

Other states followed South Carolina’s lead. Within twenty years of the chartering of the College of South Carolina, North Carolina, Georgia, and Virginia all started colleges of their own. This was in large part due to the efforts of President Thomas Jefferson, who encouraged the construction of educational institutions in the south.

The University of South Carolina wasn’t the only major college founded in South Carolina prior to the Civil War. Institutions such as Erskine (1837), Furman (1850), and Wofford (1851) were also established, but these non-state colleges usually had religious ties and were supported by philanthropists.

The expansion of education didn’t stop at colleges. There was also a large push for secondary education during the 1800s. In colonial times, most of the South Carolina elite sent their children up north or to Europe for schooling. In 1804, the Willington Academy opened in present-day McCormick County. The academic standards at Willington rivaled those of any school in America or Europe. By 1820, over 100 high schools existed across the state, though many of these lacked the funding to be truly effective. In fact, instead of public schools, they were often called “paupers’ schools.”

While it took time to build a reliable public school system in South Carolina, the sentiment was in the right place by the early 1800s. Unfortunately, the devastation of the Civil War stunted much of that growth (you will read about that later).
Who Were They?

*Classes of people living during the Antebellum*  

Try to picture South Carolina during the Antebellum Era (*between the end of the American Revolution and the start of the Civil War*). The first thing that comes to mind is probably a large plantation, complete with the breathtaking family house and acres of open field. What’s growing in those fields? Most likely it’s cotton—lots of cotton.

The plantation system defined the Antebellum Era in South Carolina. Unfortunately, not everyone was lucky enough to be a plantation owner. Like all periods in history, the standard of living varied for South Carolinians during the early 1800s. While there was no official class structure, most of the residents fell into one of five different “categories”: the elite, middle class, skilled craftsmen, independent farmers, and the African Americans.

South Carolina’s elite had been around for quite a while. At first, most of the wealthy citizens lived near Charleston, but the rise of the cotton industry enabled plantation owners in the upcountry to also make a fortune. Being part of the “elite” meant more than just having money. While manufacturers or tradesmen could get rich, South Carolinians tended to respect only those who tended the land for a living (*this was the complete opposite outlook of people in the north*). Family ties also carried a great deal of weight during the Antebellum Era. People were proud to be born into a family that had lived in South Carolina for generations, and it was an added bonus to be related to someone who was important in the state’s colonial history.

Obviously, for the elite group to remain elite, it couldn’t include too many people. Residents who were not rich, but still lived comfortably, were considered middle class. This class consisted of successful businessmen and small town politicians. Middle class citizens usually had enough education and financial stability to avoid having to work with their hands.
A step down from the middle class was the skilled craftsman, which included mechanics, carpenters, artists, and any skilled laborers. This group was a dying breed during the 1800s. Added competition from free blacks and skilled slaves made it hard for a white person to make a respectable living as a laborer. Despite the struggles, the members of this class usually had enough skill and hands on training to get by.

The last two classes were both the largest and least fortunate. The upcountry was scattered with independent farmers, whose land was a far cry from a huge plantations. In a few isolated cases, these farmers became prosperous, but the goal was usually to be self-sufficient. Unfortunately, thousands were stuck with marginal land and poor equipment, thus forcing them to fight for survival. Despite the hardships, poor farmers were true to South Carolina's agricultural mentality and were proud to work the land.

If situations improved or worsened, South Carolinians could often cross over the class barriers. There was one class, however, that had very few opportunities for change. That class consisted of African Americans. Most of the blacks in the early 1800s worked as slaves. The majority spent their time in the fields, either on the rice or cotton plantations, and the work was usually vigorous. If the slaves were lucky, the plantation owners would treat them civilly. They were never treated as equals, though. A series of laws, known as "black codes," prevented the slaves from having even the most basic rights. For example, slaves were forbidden from holding meetings in private, or even learning to read and write. The greatest threat for the slaves may have been the possibility of being "sold down the river," which meant a permanent separation from friends and family.

A small minority of blacks gained freedom by purchasing it, escaping, being set free, or migrating from somewhere else. These men had a better life than the slaves did, but the black codes still applied to them. In rare cases, a freed black might become wealthy, but he never gained full respect. Under no circumstances, for example, were any African Americans considered part of the elite class.
The War Hawks

Calhoun crusades to fight in the War of 1812

The idea of another war with Britain frightened many Americans—and rightfully so. In 1783, the colonies signed a peace treaty with England and secured a miraculous victory in the American Revolution. The British left the newly formed United States alone to form its own government—a nation by the people and for the people.

Unfortunately, the problems with Britain weren’t entirely over. The British troops never completely left the United States. The Royal army maintained a presence in areas around the Great Lakes and Canada. As the United States continued to expand and settle these areas, the American people grew anxious to see the British troops go home. To make matters worse, the British often provided aid and support to the Native Americans fighting against settlers in the frontier.

Even with these problems, the United States wasn’t anxious to start another fight with Britain. In the early 1800s, Great Britain was still the most powerful empire on the planet, and the United States was still a new nation experiencing its first growing pains. Nonetheless, a few radical patriots demanded that Americans take up arms and end British bullying. These men consisted of Democratic-Republicans from the southern and western parts of the nation, and they became known as “War Hawks.” One of the most outspoken of the War Hawks was South Carolina representative John Calhoun.

Calhoun’s reasons for wanting to go to war with Britain included all of those listed above, but there was a much more important reason. At the time, Britain and France were fighting throughout Europe as the British tried to prevent Napoleon from ransacking the continent. In theory, this European war should have had little impact on the United States. That wasn’t the case.
In order to hurt France, Britain began to heavily regulate foreign trade coming into Europe. The British set up a blockade around much of the entire continent, and the French retaliated by preventing the sale of certain goods to Britain. The United States, which had declared itself neutral, was suddenly in an economic crisis. Calhoun recognized that major ports, such as Charleston, were going to seriously suffer unless America went to war.

Henry Clay of Kentucky joined John Calhoun in leading the War Hawks’ crusade for retaliation against Britain. They eventually gained enough support, and the result was the War of 1812. The United States tried to accomplish two specific goals in this conflict. The first was to limit the British presence in the northern territories, and the second was to gain freedom in the open seas. In a broader sense, however, America was simply trying to gain respect (after all, the United States had not been seriously tested on the battlefield since it had become an independent nation).

Even though John Calhoun was one of the leading voices promoting the war, his home state saw virtually no action. The conflict was largely a naval war along the Canadian border. There were also a few battles around the Gulf of Mexico. While the fighting never came to South Carolina, many of the state’s residents kept a close eye on its outcome. The end result would have an impact on trade with Britain, which was a large source of profit for the port cities.

In the end, no significant territory changed hands during the War of 1812, and Britain wasn’t forced to make major changes concerning trade. The United States did, however, succeed in holding its own with the British Empire. In other words, America accomplished its number one goal—it earned respect.
A major threat to the South’s slavery system

By the early 1800s, the agricultural economy of South Carolina was completely dependent on slavery. In fact, nearly half of the white families in the state owned slaves, and the major plantations owned hundreds of them. The 1820 census revealed that there were more slaves living in South Carolina than white citizens. By 1860, slaves consisted of nearly 60% of the population.

While the institution of slavery seemed secure, simple mathematics dictated otherwise. Slaves greatly outnumbered whites and—if they managed to organize—could very well stage a rebellion to end the practice. Because most slaves were isolated in the fields, they failed to realize this. The white plantation owners, however, were very aware of the threat.

To keep the slaves in check, South Carolina leaders created a series of “black codes.” These were laws designed to keep slaves on a tight leash. They made it illegal for slaves to hold private meetings, or to travel without written permission. The laws even restricted slaves from learning to read or write (though a few slaves taught themselves these skills). The first black codes came in 1739, after slaves staged an unsuccessful rebellion near Charleston (the details of the Stono Rebellion are described on the bottom of page 31).

By making it difficult for the slaves to plan anything without the knowledge of the plantation owners, the black codes succeeded in putting an end to major slave rebellions in South Carolina. For a slave rebellion to take place, someone would have to organize it from the outside. In 1822, that’s exactly what happened.

Denmark Vesey was a former slave who gathered enough money to purchase his freedom. When he left the plantation, he

A Little Extra...

After the Civil War, “black codes” started to be called Jim Crow Laws.

The name “Jim Crow” came from the minstrel show, Jump Jim Crow (1828). In these productions, white men painted their faces black so that they could play the part of Jim Crow and of other African Americans.
found work as a carpenter and managed to make a decent living. Not surprisingly, Vesey hated the concept of slavery even though he was living as a free man.

In 1822, Vesey started to organize a sophisticated slave revolt in Charleston. He enlisted a number of free black men who despised slavery as much as he did. Even a few white abolitionists joined in the plan. These men went around the city and spoke to the slaves, planning a simultaneous revolt for July 14, 1822. Over 9,000 slaves agreed to participate, all anxious to win their freedom.

Vesey was taking a gamble. In order for his plan to work, he needed all of the slaves to vow secrecy. He had hoped that their desire for freedom outweighed their fear of failure. For the most part, Vesey was right. The majority of the slaves kept silent. Unfortunately, one nervous slave told his owner of the secret conspiracy.

The white population of Charleston learned of the slave revolt about six weeks before it was to take place. The thought of 9,000 slaves taking up arms was enough to spread panic throughout the city. The leaders of the plot, including Denmark Vesey, were rounded up and thrown in jail. In all, over 100 people were arrested in connection with the rebellion (over thirty of them were later put to death). Vesey was quickly sentenced to death and hanged in June 1822—three weeks before the revolt was scheduled to take place.

On the day of Vesey’s execution, state militia and federal troops had to be brought in to prevent any violent demonstrations. Despite warnings against it, many free African Americans and slaves wore the color black as a sign of mourning for the loss of their leader.
Put the Cotton to Good Use

William Gregg establishes a textile mill

It didn’t take long for South Carolina to establish itself as one of the premiere cotton growing locations in the entire world. By 1820, it was supplying more cotton to factories in the north and in England than any other state in the country. One thing that South Carolina was not doing, however, was putting the cotton to good use at home.

The mid-1700s brought about major advancements in textiles, which in turn brought about the Industrial Revolution. By the 19th century, factories had spread throughout Europe and in the northern part of the United States. No longer were people knitting clothes and making tools by hand. Instead, steam engines and machines were making products far faster and more efficiently than individuals could ever imagine.

South Carolina wanted nothing to do with it. The state prided itself on its agricultural lifestyle, and the people were content to leave the manufacturing up to the north. The arrangement was simple—South Carolina grew the cotton, and then the northern states bought it from them to produce clothing in the textile factories. It seemed obvious that both sides benefited.

William Gregg saw huge flaws in this system. He didn’t see any reason why South Carolina couldn’t grow the cotton and turn it into clothing. The state had plenty of streams and rivers to power the factories, and there was an abundance of human labor to work in them. The addition of industry in the South would not only increase profits, but it would also make the southern states less dependent on their northern counterparts.

After moving to Columbia in the 1820s, William Gregg managed to make a fortune by selling jewelry. He felt, however, that the real opportunity was in industry. Gregg decided to purchase part of the Vaucluse Manufacturing Company, a cotton mill in the Barnwell District (in the western part of the state). His investment
A Little Extra...

William Gregg built an entire town around his mill, which was common for the large factories in the northern states.

The town of Graniteville in the late 1800s consisted of quality housing for the workers, a church, a library, and an impressive school for the town’s children.

proved to be a disaster. The Vaucluse mill was under-financed and poorly managed. It failed in only a few years.

William Gregg wasn’t about to give up. The opportunities for South Carolina to compete with the north in the textile industry seemed too obvious. In the early 1840s, he traveled to New England and studied textile mills to learn how to operate them. By 1845, he was ready to start his own mill, so he returned to South Carolina.

There were not many people who were excited to share Gregg’s vision of a textile mill. The predominate idea in the Antebellum South was that agriculture was the only admirable trade. Investing in textiles and other industrial practices was perceived as a halfhearted attempt to copy the northern states. Gregg finally convinced those who would listen that developing industry was not copying the northern states—it was gaining independence from them.

With financing from William Gregg and other wealthy South Carolinians, the Graniteville Manufacturing Company built its first factory near present-day Aiken. The plant became the first significant textile mill in the state, and it was fully equipped to compete with those up north. Local citizens had helped in the construction, and most were hired on as textile workers.

This mill marked the beginning of a major textile industry in South Carolina, which peaked in the late 1800s and early 1900s. Several upstate cities, such as Greenville and Spartanburg, became hotspots for textiles. The new mills defined the history of these locations.

William Gregg went on to become a member of the South Carolina House of Representatives in 1856, and he continued to argue for the industrialization of the state. His mill survived through the Civil War, and it currently operates in the town of Graniteville as a division of Avondale Mills, Inc.
Fighting the System

Abolitionists point out the wrongs of slavery

It’s impossible to understand the concept of slavery in today’s society. The idea of robbing a person of freedom and forcing them to work seems completely outrageous. When studying United States history in the early 1800s, however, it’s important to try to see the world from a different point of view.

At the time, slavery wasn’t viewed as a cruel system—it was just business. Plantation owners didn’t own slaves because they wanted to prove how powerful they were, or because they wanted to oppress African Americans (though these were both side effects of the system). Slaves were owned solely for economic reasons. A large labor force was needed to run the plantations, and using slaves seemed to be the most efficient way to provide that labor.

The slaves certainly did not have an easy life, but most plantation owners did not go out of their way to be cruel to their slaves. Each slave was such a large investment, that the owners felt that it was in their best interest to keep them healthy and relatively comfortable. Although it might seem harsh (and even ludicrous), African slaves were often seen as “human property.”

In theory, it was just business. Of course, not everyone saw it that way. Even those who had grown up in the plantation system, and had owned slaves for their entire lives, could not deny that there were moral issues at stake. In the South, most people recognized that the economics of slavery far outweighed the cruelty of it (keep in mind that African Americans were not viewed as equals at the time—even by most people who opposed slavery). A smaller group felt that slavery needed to be abolished, regardless of the economic impact. These people were appropriately known as “abolitionists.”

Most abolitionists lived in the northern states, where the economies did not depend so heavily on slavery. In South

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Carolina, the most active abolitionists were probably the Grimke sisters, who were unlikely candidates for the role. Sarah Grimke and her younger sister Angelina (they were thirteen years apart) grew up on a wealthy plantation in Charleston, surrounded by dozens of slaves. Their father was a respected South Carolina judge, and an ardent defender of slavery. With such a privileged upbringing, there didn’t seem to be any reason for the Grimke’s to be upset with the southern lifestyle.

At a young age, however, both sisters became troubled by the unequal treatment of the slaves. Before she was thirty, Sarah Grimke decided to travel to Philadelphia and join the Society of Friends (more commonly known as the “Quakers”). She began speaking out about her personal experiences with slavery and the obvious cruelty of the system. Angelina eventually joined her, and the two sisters lectured throughout the northern states. The Grimke’s attacks on slavery were so radical that the Society of Friends shunned them from the community. Nonetheless, more and more people started to turn out to hear them speak.

The Grimke sisters not only argued for the end of slavery, but also for equal treatment of African Americans. They were more than a century ahead of their time, which prompted mixed reactions.

The sisters even took it one-step further when they introduced women’s equality into the lectures. In the late 1830s, thousands of people came to hear them speak on these controversial topics. The Grimke sisters eventually retired from public life, but continued to write papers that supported the abolitionist cause and argued for women’s rights.
The Poinsettia Flower

Joel Poinsett discovers a Mexican flower

Joel Poinsett’s time in Mexico didn’t go exactly as planned, but he didn’t walk away empty handed. He brought back with him the Poinsettia flower, and introduced it to the United States (it’s easy to see where the name came from). Popularizing the beautiful flower turned out to be Poinsett’s greatest accomplishment, though his career started out on a far different path.

Like many other children of the South Carolina elite, Joel Poinsett was born in Charleston and attended the finest schools in the United States and Europe. He studied medicine and law—common trades for men of his stature—but his real love was botany. Flowers and plants fascinated Poinsett. In fact, he went so far as to build an elaborate greenhouse on his plantation in Greenville, South Carolina.

While flowers were an interesting hobby, Poinsett settled on a more practical career. During the 1810s, he became extensively involved in South Carolina politics, and eventually was elected to the United States House of Representatives. In 1822, Poinsett became a “special agent” to Mexico, and he was named America’s first ambassador to the nation a few years later.

To put it simply, Poinsett inherited an impossible situation. During the 1820s, Mexico was in a state of political turmoil, and the nation was not happy with its quickly expanding neighbor to the north. The United States had already expressed interest in purchasing the large territory of Texas, and Poinsett was sent to negotiate the deal. Mexico wasn’t interested. The Mexican government resented the United States, and its leader’s weren’t about to cooperate with Poinsett.

Eventually, the Texans fought for their own independence in 1836, and the United States annexed the territory in 1845. The exact border of Texas remained in dispute, which became the leading cause of a war between Mexico and the United States in
the late 1840s. Considering these events, it could be argued that Poinsett’s efforts in Mexico were largely a failure. Fortunately, there was the Poinsettia flower.

While walking in an area of Southern Mexico known as Taxco del Alarcon, Poinsett noticed a tall bush with bright red blossoms. He collected part of the bush and sent it back to his plantation in Greenville. When he arrived in South Carolina, he found that the flower grew quite well in the United States.

Poinsett began to give the new flower to friends and gardeners, and it was named “Poinsettia” in his honor. Today, the flower is very commonly seen during Christmas time, and it is grown primarily in the hot climates of California, Texas, and Florida. It also holds the distinction of being the top selling potted-plant in the United States.

Joel Poinsett continued his political career after returning from Mexico. He helped South Carolina work through the Nullification Crisis of the early 1830s (read about it on the next page), and he went on to serve as President Martin Van Buren's Secretary of War.

A Side Note...

The Legend of the Poinsettia

There is a legend in Mexico that explains the origin of the Poinsettia flowers. According to local stories, the plant was once a plain weed that grew over all of Mexico. That all changed one Christmas Eve.

It was custom in Mexico to bring gifts on Christmas Eve to honor Jesus Christ. A young girl named Pepita had no gifts to offer. Her cousin, Pedro, assured her that even the most humble gift would be appreciated. Pepita decided to gather a handful of weeds to offer as her gift.

When Pepita approached the alter, the weeds in her hand began to blossom into beautiful flowers. They became known as “Flowers of the Holy Night,” and are now known as Poinsettias.
Let Us Decide

*John Calhoun heads the Nullification fight*

In order for the United States government to work, a delicate balance had to be maintained. Each state had the freedom to pass laws and make choices that best fit its situation. The federal government, in turn, could step in only when it was absolutely necessary. Of course, it was always difficult to determine when it was “absolutely necessary.”

This unwritten rule became a serious problem during the Nullification Crisis of the 1830s. By this time, the northern part of the nation had become a center of industry and manufacturing, and it had the profits to show for it. The southern states, which focused on agriculture, provided little competition. Instead, the only threat to northern enterprises came from overseas.

To protect the business interests of the north, President Andrew Jackson passed a tariff on foreign products. This new tax increased the cost of any items purchased from overseas manufacturers. The result, of course, was that American products were cheaper than foreign products, helping the factories up north to make more money.

This was great for northern businesses, but it wasn’t so good for the people in the south who now had to buy more expensive products. Southerners didn’t care about *where* a specific good was manufactured—they just wanted a quality product at a cheap price. The new tariffs did away with the cheap prices, thus earning the nickname, “Tariff of Abominations.”

Vice-president John Calhoun had an idea. His home state of South Carolina was suffering badly from the tariffs for two reasons. For starters, the taxed goods that were manufactured in Europe usually passed through the port in Charleston (*on the other hand, goods made in the north resulted in no business for the port city*). Secondly, when the tariffs hurt the economy of England, the English merchants purchased less of South Carolina’s cotton to make their products.
John Calhoun decided that it was only reasonable to allow South Carolina to “nullify”—or void—any law that did not fit the circumstances of the state. He was not the first to introduce the idea of nullification. The nation’s forefathers, such as Thomas Jefferson and James Madison, had argued thirty years earlier that states should be allowed to nullify any laws whenever the federal government overstepped its authority.

John Calhoun’s reintroduction of the nullification argument echoed throughout the nation. American citizens immediately split on the issue, starting with the leaders. President Andrew Jackson opposed Vice-president Calhoun, arguing that a state’s right to overrule the federal government would eventually destroy the union. Many of the northern states strongly supported Jackson, mainly because the tariff worked in their favor.

John Calhoun had his supporters, mainly in the southern states. South Carolina especially stood behind their representative (even though some South Carolinians felt that Calhoun was taking too harsh a stance). Shippers and merchants in Charleston ignored the tariffs, and President Andrew Jackson eventually had to bring in federal troops to force South Carolinians to comply. Not wanting to secede entirely from the Union, South Carolina agreed to withdraw the Nullification Act if the tariff was considerably lowered (this became known simply as the “Compromise of 1833”). In the end, both sides declared a victory.

**A Side Note…**

**A Fierce Rivalry**

Andrew Jackson was elected president in 1828, and his vice-president was John Calhoun. The two became bitter rivals despite serving in office together, and growing up just over 100 miles apart (Andrew Jackson was born in the Waxhaws settlement on the border of North and South Carolina, and John Calhoun was born in Abbeville, South Carolina).

The main issue on which Jackson and Calhoun clashed over was states’ rights (Calhoun believed that a state should have more authority than the federal government). Their difference of opinion was highlighted at a presidential banquet in which Andrew Jackson toasted Calhoun by saying, “Our federal union: it must be preserved!” John Calhoun raised his glass and responded: “The union, next to our liberty, most dear!”
Moving Right Along

South Carolina improves transportation

In the early 1800s, South Carolina and the other southern states seemed to be behind the times—at least in the eyes of the people in the North. The southern states relied heavily on agriculture and slave labor, and they appeared to be unwilling to allow industry to flourish. It’s true that South Carolina prided itself on maintaining the plantation system, and that the plantation owners were reluctant to change. There was one area, however, where South Carolina was on the cutting edge—transportation.

From the beginning of colonial history, the port city of Charleston made South Carolina easily accessible to Europe, the West Indies, and any other nation across the Atlantic. By the 1820s, a series of canals spread throughout the state and allowed for the easy transportation of goods from the lowcountry to the upstate. A decade later, South Carolinians bragged that every district, with the exception of Greenville (located in the far northwest, by North Carolina and Georgia), could be reached by boat.

Even with a large system of canals, Charleston still seemed to be isolated on the coast, set off from the rest of the state by marshes and forests. It was easier to travel from Charleston to New York City than it was to travel from Charleston to a town in the backcountry of South Carolina. The South Carolina Railroad Company decided to take advantage of this situation. A convenient form of transportation—such as a railroad—could improve access across the state, and merchants would consider it well worth the ticket price.

This idea was extremely aggressive for the 1820s. Steam-powered locomotives were starting to be used in England, but American investors only briefly discussed the possibility of
building a track—the technology was still too new to be reliable. In the end, the people decided that it was too great of an opportunity to pass up. In 1827, land was chartered to build a railroad from Charleston to Hamburg, South Carolina (right on the border of Georgia, near Augusta).

The completion of the railroad came six years later. With a length of 136-miles, it was easily the longest railroad in the world up to that point. As expected, the railroad did improve the financial situation of Charleston.

Unfortunately, competing cities, such as Savannah, saw the benefits of railroad construction and wasted no time in building their own. By the mid-1800s, the entire country was covered with railroad lines (making the Charleston-Hamburg line far less impressive). The highlight of the railroad boom came in 1869 with the completion of the transcontinental railroad. This massive project, which took only six years to complete, covered a span of over 1,700 miles and connected the eastern and western coasts of the United States.

The Charleston-Hamburg line was originally constructed for the benefit of Charleston, but it ultimately helped other South Carolina towns prosper. The town of Aiken, located just miles from the end of the railroad, formed in the mid-1830s due to the traffic from the line. Branchville, located in the middle of the line, also benefited. Branchville contained a split in the railway, where trains could either head up north to Columbia or continue towards Hamburg. This made the small town the first railroad branch in the United States. Ironically, the area was already called “Branchville” before the railroad came through. The name originated in the early 1700s, when the town was a post along the Indian trails.

I bet you didn't know...

The town of Aiken, located near the end of the Charleston-Hamburg railroad line, was named for William Aiken, president of the South Carolina Railroad Company.

It is believed that William Aiken, who lived in Charleston, never actually set foot in Aiken County.
Moving Out

*South Carolina residents leave the state*

The good times of the Antebellum Era didn’t come crashing down until the start of the Civil War, but there were signs of trouble all along the way. During the 1700s, South Carolina was a wealthy colony where people ran in search of opportunity. Between 1820 and 1860, thousands of citizens left the state for various reasons, and far fewer came in to take their place.

One major reason for this “outmigration” was extremely simple – there were other places to go. During colonial times, Charleston was one of the five largest cities in North America. It never completely regained its glory after the American Revolution, though the city remained important in the early years of the United States. By the mid-1800s, however, nearby port cities began to rival Charleston. Southern cities such as Savannah, Mobile, and New Orleans all experienced tremendous growth. Many struggling businessmen in Charleston became more interested in these rising cities than one that might be on the decline.

The lowcountry wasn’t the only area to see its residents pack up and leave. During the early 1800s, the farmers in the upcountry began to make a fortune when they discovered the profitability of cotton. For years, it seemed as if all of their problems were in the past. Unfortunately, cotton had a strange quality. The cotton crop slowly depleted the soil, so that each year yielded less than the year before. Plantation owners had to avoid planting in certain fields so that the soil could “rest” for a season. Even then, areas produced less than they had in previous years.

Finally, planters began to look for better land in the nearby states, such as Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi. They found it. By 1860, farmers routinely crossed state borders in search of new land to harvest. South Carolina was on the losing end of this exchange—more farmers moved out of the state than moved into it.
The results of people moving away from South Carolina were subtle. The population of the state did not drop dramatically; it just didn’t grow nearly as rapidly as the other states in the Deep South. Therefore, South Carolina received less representation in national politics, and it became a less important factor in federal decision-making.

During the years of the American Revolution, no political or militaristic decision was made without considering how it would have an impact on Charleston. The city was, after all, the only major port in the south. In the mid 1800s, Charleston—while still an impressive city—was just one of many in the south, and it did not carry any more pull than the others. This decline in importance was an unwelcome adjustment for the elite families of South Carolina.

There was also a more significant consequence of people leaving South Carolina. Most of the planters and businessmen who left the state were ambitious men in search of better opportunity. In other words, they were the best and brightest that South Carolina had to offer. These men took with them many great ideas, as well as the “secrets” that originally made South Carolina prosperous. The main “secret,” of course, was the plantation system and the techniques for growing cotton. Surrounding states quickly caught up to South Carolina using the knowledge that South Carolinians had possessed for nearly a century.

The decline that South Carolina suffered from 1820 to 1860 proved insignificant compared to the massive damage that would occur in just five years of fighting during the Civil War. The Antebellum Era did, however, provide hints that the profitable days of the plantation system were quickly coming to an end.

| A Side Note… |
| Population Changes in the Deep South |

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Protecting Slavery

*The South fights for its way of life*

The northern states and the southern states had a serious conflict of interests in the early 1800s. The north had become an industrial center, while the south served the nation’s agricultural needs. Immigrants and low class citizens operated the factories up north, while African slaves worked on the plantations in the south. Because slavery was not a part of the northern economy, it was easy for northerners to condemn the practice and demand that the institution be abolished. In truth, the workers in the factory often faced more abuse and harsher conditions than the African slaves.

The division on the slavery issue started to cause serious friction between the north and the south in the early 19th century. The southern states wanted to make sure that they always had equal representation in the federal decision-making. This meant that there had to be as many slave states as there were free states. As new states were being added each year, this balance became especially difficult to maintain.

The heated tensions began to boil when the people from the Missouri Territory applied for statehood in 1820. In the previous year, Alabama had entered the Union as a slave state, and Maine had applied to enter as a free state. This made the number of free states and slave states equal – Missouri was going to throw it all off.

After heated debate, it was decided that all states located above the 36°30’ latitude line (the southern border of Missouri) would be free states, but slavery would still be allowed in Missouri. This became known as the Missouri Compromise, and seemed to calm tensions between the north and south for a short time.

Over the next twenty years, the idea of “popular sovereignty” began to become fashionable, largely through the arguments of Illinois senator Stephen Douglas. This idea proposed that each state should be able to decide on its own whether or not
to allow slavery. Popular sovereignty was first introduced after the United States captured territory during the Mexican War. The “Compromise of 1850” allowed part of the new territory (New Mexico and Utah) to make its own decisions concerning slavery. This compromise was controversial because it also stated that white citizens, even if they were living in a free state, could never offer help to runaway slaves (known as “Fugitive Slave” laws).

The issue of popular sovereignty was tested again with the Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854. This act aimed to once and for all determine the role of slavery in the new areas that were being added into the Union. The ruling had one problem. Much of the territory it dealt with was above the 36°30’ latitude. In other words, the Missouri Compromise of 1820 had already outlawed slavery in these areas. Politicians appeared to be changing the rules on a whim.

Things got even more complicated in 1857 when the Supreme Court ruled against Dred Scott. Scott was a slave who had sued for his freedom because he was being held as a slave in areas where slavery was illegal. The courts ruled that Scott was still a slave because he was “property,” and it would be unlawful to take away a person’s property without “due process.” This ruling was a major setback for African Americans and abolitionists.

In a broader sense, these detailed arguments over the spread of slavery merely served as a distraction. What southern states, such as South Carolina, truly feared was that the federal government was going to try to step in and interfere with their own system of slavery. Fighting to allow newly admitted states to have slaves only protected the interests back home. As the debates raged on, the north and south never saw eye to eye on the slavery issue, and it ultimately became a leading cause of the Civil War (more on that in the next chapter).
Fighting for Texas

Two South Carolinians fight at the Alamo

Expansion! Expansion! Expansion! That was the unspoken motto of the United States throughout the early 1800s. In 1803, the size of the young nation immediately doubled when Thomas Jefferson organized the Louisiana Purchase (in which France sold America a huge tract of land from the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains). It didn't stop there. New territories and new states were added to the United States almost annually. Many people believed in the concept of "Manifest Destiny," which declared that the American people were entitled by some Divine Right to occupy the entire span of the continent.

Not surprisingly, Mexico wasn't too keen on the idea of Manifest Destiny. They fought against United States expansion, and national borders became a subject of constant dispute. Meanwhile, more and more American settlers migrated to the territory of Texas. The United States claimed that these settlers answered to the American government. Mexico wanted them to answer to the Mexican government. The people in Texas felt that they should answer only to themselves.

The argument was centered around a rugged and sparsely populated piece of land, but it managed to capture the attention of the entire nation. By the 1830s, the situation in Texas had become common dinner table conversation in areas as far away as South Carolina. It especially interested two South Carolinians from Saluda, who ultimately played a huge role in the Texas Revolution.

The first to go from Saluda County to the battlefields of Texas was the legendary William Barret Travis. While living in South Carolina, Travis worked as a promising attorney, a newspaper publisher, a husband, and a father—all before he turned twenty years old. Unfortunately, there was an unexpected fork in the road. Travis's marriage began to fail, and he eventually decided to abandon his wife and son and head for the exciting action in Texas.

When he arrived, William Travis reorganized his life, opening another law practice in a small town. Despite his attempts at normalcy, the Texas Revolution was calling his name, and he soon
joined the fight. In 1836, Travis entered the Alamo with about thirty of his men. The Alamo was a mission-turned-fort where the Texans formed a stronghold to fight the Mexican Army. When the Mexicans arrived, they launched a siege on the Alamo that lasted for several weeks. During this time, William Travis rose as the commander of the 183 Texans who were trapped inside the small quarters.

On March 6, 1836, the Mexican Army attacked the Alamo. The Texans fought courageously, forcing the thousands of Mexican soldiers to kill every one of them before securing the fort. Several legendary fighters (such as Davy Crockett and James Bowie) lost their lives in the battle. Among the dead was William Barrett Travis, who was only twenty-six years old.

Fighting alongside Travis was another South Carolinian from Saluda County. It shouldn’t have been too much of a surprise that James Butler Bonham had traveled along to follow the action. He had a history of finding the excitement. In the 1820s, while Bonham was attending South Carolina College, he led the senior class in a revolt against the faculty. The students’ main complaint was that the food was unsatisfactory. Bonham was expelled for this tirade, along with most of his classmates.

On another occasion, Bonham was practicing law and landed himself in jail after he attacked another lawyer and insulted the judge. He moved from South Carolina to Alabama, where he started to become interested in the Texans’ quest for independence. After speaking out in favor of the Texans’ cause, he rallied a few volunteers and headed to Texas to offer his support.

Once he arrived, Bonham quickly sparked a friendship with fellow South Carolinian William Travis. This helped him get involved with the Texas fight for independence, and ultimately landed him at the Battle of the Alamo.

After routing the Alamo, the Mexican Army was finally defeated at the Battle of San Jacinto. At this battle, American troops were motivated by the legendary battle cry, “Remember the Alamo!” The victory helped Texas finally gain its independence in May 1836.
Violence in Congress

Preston Brooks beats Sumner with a cane

The battle over slavery seemed to cool off during the 1830s and 1840s—but that came to an end in Kansas. In truth, the heated opinions on the issue had never disappeared, but the Missouri Compromise and other attempts at a truce succeeded in pushing it aside for a few years. Unfortunately, what happened in Kansas was far too much to ignore.

Like many other territories at the time, Kansas was preparing to join the Union, so it had to be decided whether it was going to be a free state or a slave state. The northern states (whose industrial economy did not rely on slavery) favored turning the territory into a free state, and they decided to tip the scales in their favor. People living up north quickly moved to Kansas until the majority of the population was anti-slavery.

These newcomers, however, did not truly represent the sentiment in that area of the country. One state over, in Missouri, the bulk of the population was pro-slavery—and they weren’t about to be pushed aside. In 1854, a group of Missourians traveled to Lawrence, Kansas, and demanded that the northerners leave town. The settlers refused to move, marking the beginning of warlike tensions between the two areas.

In 1855, slaveholders from Missouri and Arkansas interfered with elections in Kansas. They destroyed polls, intimidated local citizens, and even cast false votes. These men knew that their own right to own slaves would quickly be encroached upon if neighboring Kansas outlawed it.

By this time, the rest of the country was closely watching the events unfolding in “Bloody Kansas.” Southern states, such as South Carolina, were sympathetic to Missouri. These states had also experienced pressure from the north to end slavery (despite the fact that most...
people in the north had no idea how to run a plantation). In the north, people sided with Kansas and wanted to put an end to the practice.

In 1856, Massachusetts Congressman Charles Sumner delivered a powerful speech condemning the events in Kansas, and he specifically denounced the southern states for being sympathetic to Missouri. If Sumner had been hoping to end the violence associated with “Bloody Kansas,” then he failed miserably. After his speech, Preston Brooks, the congressman from South Carolina, attacked Sumner and started beating him ruthlessly with a cane.

To say the least, this wasn’t just another day in congress. Brooks beat Sumner so fiercely that Sumner had to leave office for the next three years. The northern states saw Brooks as a monster, and demanded his quick removal. The southern states regarded Brooks as a hero, and a man willing to fight for southern pride.

In order to expel Brooks, the congress needed to gather a two-thirds vote. It didn’t get it. Brooks did, however, agree to resign in the midst of all of the controversy. Within a few months, he was re-elected to the seat in congress that was available from his own resignation!

Charles Sumner recovered from his wounds and returned to congress in 1859. Preston Brooks died two years earlier, preventing any future showdowns between he and Brooks.

The events of “Bloody Kansas” did not settle the slavery issue. It took a Civil War to finally end it, during which Charles Sumner remained outspoken against the practice.
Making Soldiers
The Citadel founded as a military college

Better safe than sorry. The city of Charleston was too pivotal in South Carolina’s history to be vulnerable to an attack. A great scare had come during the American Revolution when British troops seiged the great city and occupied it for several years. Fortunately, Charleston revived and prospered once again. During the Antebellum Era, the city became a center for the shipment of cotton, as well as the importation of slaves. Because of its importance, the South Carolina legislature voted in the 1820s to construct a guard post protecting Charleston and surrounding areas. At the time, there was no way to predict the intense violence of the Civil War, but legitimate threats always seemed to be near by.

The completion of the “Citadel,” designed to protect Charleston, came in 1829. A similar structure, known as the “Arsenal,” was built in Columbia. For the next decade, state troops occupied the two forts, though no major attacks ever came. In 1842, Governor John Peter Richardson decided that there might be a better use for the military buildings. He convinced the legislature to turn the forts into the South Carolina Military Academy. This institution was designed to both educate young men and provide them with military training.

The South Carolina Military Academy originally consisted of both the Citadel (in Charleston) and the Arsenal (in Columbia).
The Arsenal served as the freshman campus, and the students went to the Citadel to complete the remaining three years. The Academy quickly gained a reputation as a school that was tough in academics, and rigorous in military discipline (it still holds that same reputation today).

The first class of the South Carolina Military Academy only contained thirty-four students. About 300 students were enrolled by the end of the Civil War, when the Union forces took possession of the college. The Citadel managed to survive the Union occupation, and was reopened in 1882. The Arsenal wasn’t so lucky. General Sherman marched his troops through Columbia (you can read about that on pages 142-143) and burned down the Arsenal—it never reopened.

Because the Citadel was originally constructed solely for the protection of South Carolina, and not as a military institution, it has no ties to any military branch. Nonetheless, many of the Citadel graduates go on to become officers in the Army, Navy, Marines, or Air Force.

**A Side Note…**

**A Controversial Novel**

Bestselling author Pat Conroy wrote the novel, *Lords of Discipline*, to chronicle his experiences at the Citadel during the 1960s.

The novel was controversial because it discussed the harsh hazing techniques used at the time by Citadel cadets. It also revealed the mood of the Vietnam War era, as well as the atmosphere in Charleston and the Deep South in the 1960s.

Conroy gained praise for his ability to show how cadets evolved in response to rigorous training. He also demonstrated the strong bonds that were formed through mutual experiences.

*The Lords of Discipline* became a feature length film in 1983.
“…the union now subsisting between South Carolina and other States, under the name of the "United States of America," is hereby dissolved.”

—Excerpt
South Carolina Ordinance of Secession

On December 20, 1860, South Carolina became the first state to secede from the Union prior to the Civil War
Chapter 5

The history of South Carolina during The Civil War & Reconstruction
States’ Rights
The central cause of the Civil War

Slavery was a major cause of the Civil War, but it was not the main cause. Most southern leaders felt that protecting the rights of individual states was the most important issue, and the war was an attempt to keep the federal government from infringing on those rights. In a sense, slavery was just part of the broader issue of states’ rights. The southern states felt that it should be their choice—not the federal government’s—whether or not to utilize the institution of slavery.

The issue of states’ rights had existed from the day the United States became a nation, and even before. Prior to the American Revolution, the colonies often conflicted with one another to protect their own interests. When the Constitution was drafted in 1787, the central theme was to limit the power of the federal government.

In 1789, the Bill of Rights (the first ten amendments to the Constitution) further protected the rights of the states. In fact, the tenth amendment reads: “The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.”

Respected men such as Thomas Jefferson and James Madison argued persistently for states’ rights, and the issue always remained at the forefront of national politics. In the early 1830s, after a new generation of political thinkers replaced Jefferson and Madison, the most outspoken person on the topic was John Calhoun of South Carolina. In fact, Calhoun had South Carolina on the verge of secession during the Nullification Crisis of 1832. The state refused to cooperate with national tariffs that damaged its economy. In the end, South Carolina eased off the threat of seceding, and the federal government lowered the tariffs (you can read about the Nullification Crisis on pages 110-111).
While South Carolina stood alone during the Nullification Crisis, the rest of the South was completely ready to offer its support on the slavery issue. For years, the northern states campaigned to have slavery abolished due to its moral flaws. The southern states responded with the sentiment: “Leave us alone!” It was easy for the North to criticize the slave states. Their economy revolved around factories (which didn’t require slavery), while the South depended on the plantation system (which did require slavery). The North and South battled for the political upper hand as new states were admitted into the Union from 1820 to 1860.

During that time, Calhoun began to rise as a leader for states’ rights. Unlike previous politicians, Calhoun did not attempt to apologize for slavery or offer alternatives to it. Instead, he pointed out that the system helped southern agriculture thrive, and that attempts to abolish it were direct threats to the South. Calhoun rallied southerners to stand by their way of life, and to not feel that they owed the North any explanation or excuse. It eventually became apparent that the South would rather break from the Union entirely than be bullied by the federal government.

John Calhoun did not live to see the Civil War. He died in 1850, though he did predict that the southern states would secede if slavery remained an issue. When the war came, many blamed him for being the one who destroyed the Union. In truth, Calhoun wanted South Carolina and the nation to remain united—but only on certain terms. When he died, there was no other leader to keep the tensions from erupting into violence.

The idea of states’ rights is hard to imagine in today’s society, where the federal government is more powerful than ever. Prior to the Civil War, each separate state closely resembled an independent nation, and each state had its own view as to how it should be governed. Over time, advancements in communication and transportation have lessened these local differences, making it more practical to have a stronger central government. There remains, however, a constant struggle to prevent the federal government from infringing on individual freedoms.
A State Divided
South Carolinians debate secession

It was one thing to argue and debate, but it was quite another to completely sever all ties with the rest of the nation. Whether or not to secede from the Union was the most important decision that South Carolina ever had to make. In fact, it was equally as significant as when the colonies declared independence from Britain prior to the American Revolution. Needless to say, it was not a decision to be taken lightly.

Like any other major topic, there were people arguing all sides of the secession issue. Most South Carolinians had a personal opinion, and it usually fell into one of three groups: the Unionists, the Cooperationists, and Secessionists.

As their name would indicate, the Unionists were in favor of remaining a part of the United States, and they strongly discouraged secession. By no means, however, did they agree with the actions of the northern states or favor the federal government. The Unionists simply believed that the United States Constitution was well equipped to protect the South Carolina way of life. They also realized that seceding from the Union was a permanent decision—the grandeur of the United States would never return. Many Unionists were as frustrated as everyone else when it came to issues like states’ rights and slavery, but they did not feel that severing all ties was the solution.

In the middle of the road stood the Cooperationists. This group favored seceding from the Union in an extreme case—but only if it was done in the right way. If South Carolina seceded alone, without the support of the other southern states, then it was only a recipe for failure. The Cooperationists recalled the Nullification Crisis of the 1830s (look on pages 110-111). During this time, South Carolina rebelled against national tariffs and found itself in a
political duel with the federal government. The result was a frustrating stalemate (*in which both sides claimed victory*).

While the Nullification Crisis was a serious situation, it was not nearly as permanent or momentous as the decision to secede from the Union. The Cooperationists recognized this, and argued that such a major decision should not be made without the support of the surrounding states.

The final group consisted of the Secessionists, or Radicals. These men argued that secession was the only answer for South Carolina—period. Many of these men were actually involved in the showdown between South Carolina and the federal government during the Nullification Crisis. They had gone toe to toe with the government before, and they were willing to do it again. Unlike the Cooperationists, the Secessionists were not concerned about the decisions of the other states. They felt it was important to concentrate on what was best for South Carolina.

In November 1860, the General Assembly decided to hold a Secession Convention. The convention came in response to Abraham Lincoln’s victory in the presidential election. Lincoln believed in a strong federal government and he did not fully support slavery—these ideas presented obvious problems to South Carolina. Having been the most outspoken of all the southern states, it wasn’t too shocking when, on December 20, 1860, South Carolina became the first state to secede from the Union. Within a few months, other states in the South joined their cause.
130—South Carolina

Standing Alone

James Louis Petigru supports the Union

It’s safe to say that James Louis Petigru was a “rebel among rebels.” At a time when most South Carolinians were ready to take up arms against the federal government, Petigru stood as the lone voice in favor of the Union. Not surprisingly, he stirred up a bit of controversy.

It all began in 1832, when South Carolina found itself in the middle of the Nullification Crisis. The federal government had issued a tariff that blatantly damaged the economy of South Carolina, prompting the people of the state to nullify—or void—the law (check out pages 110-111). John Calhoun and other leaders rallied South Carolinians to the point that they were prepared to break apart from the Union if the tariff wasn’t removed (keep in mind that this was nearly thirty years before the Civil War).

President Andrew Jackson argued that the Union would break apart if individual states could ignore a federal law. Unfortunately for Jackson, most South Carolinians favored John Calhoun (Jackson’s vice-president and a native of South Carolina). Things got more complicated, however, when James Louis Petigru came out in support of the President, urging South Carolinians to compromise with the federal government.

Unlike Andrew Jackson, Petigru had respect in South Carolina. He was considered a competent and fair lawyer, and few argued his loyalty to the state. When he spoke, people listened. In the end, it wasn’t enough. Nullification supporters overwhelmingly prevailed in the elections of that year.

By taking such a bold stand, it seemed that Petigru was committing political career suicide. While he made his share of enemies, Petigru’s reputation turned out to be far too positive for
him to disappear from politics. Over the next three decades, as the tensions between South Carolina and the federal government increased, James Louis Petigru became a nagging voice in the conscience of the state. He served as a constant reminder to the people to avoid doing anything too rash.

In the few years prior to the Civil War, Petigru returned to his legal practice. He spent the majority of his time codifying the laws of South Carolina (an enormous project), though he frequently wrote and spoke out against those favoring secession from the Union. In 1860, after the election of Abraham Lincoln, the worst of his fears came true. In December of that year, South Carolina delegates met to sign the Ordinance of Secession, thus breaking apart from the Union. This made the Civil War virtually inevitable.

By this time, James Louis Petigru was seventy-one years of age, far too old and weak to launch a public campaign urging a peaceful resolution. More importantly, the idea of a peaceful resolution was impossible by this point. Instead, Petigru spent his last few years watching the Civil War rip through South Carolina. He died in 1863, one year before General Sherman marched across the state and destroyed everything in his path (more on that later).

Despite the intensity of the time, Petigru earned admiration as the state’s most respected dissenter. When he died, many who came to honor him later lost their lives fighting for the cause that he argued to prevent.

A Side Note…

A Memorable Epitaph

James Louis Petigru is buried at a cemetery in Charleston. His grave contains an unusual epitaph, which reads in part:

In the great Civil War He withstood his People for his Country
But his People did homage to the Man Who held his conscience higher than their praise
And his Country Heaped her honors on the grave of the Patriot,
To whom living, His own righteous self-respect sufficed Alike for Motive and Reward.
The War Begins
The first shots fired at Fort Sumter

By the spring of 1861, it was no longer a question of “if” — it was a question of “when.” Several southern states had already seceded from the Union and a civil war seemed inevitable. People were just waiting for it to begin.

The wait ended on April 12, 1861. On that day at 4:30 AM, Confederate General P.T. Beauregard ordered his troops to open fire on Fort Sumter. The fort had been one of the few Union strongholds in the South after several southern states had broken away from the Union. Fort Sumter was located near Charleston, and surrounded by hostile South Carolinians.

On April 8, newly elected President Abraham Lincoln informed the governor of South Carolina that he was going to send a ship out to provide reinforcements. General Beauregard believed that it was a trap. He asked Major Robert Anderson, the Union commander of Fort Sumter, to surrender immediately. Anderson refused, and Beauregard quickly ordered the attack.

It turned out that Fort Sumter was indeed very low on supplies, and certainly not prepared to fight. The Confederates bombarded the fort for hours with very little Union retaliation. The Union forces had too little ammunition and supplies to adequately defend the fort. After sustaining over thirty hours of bombardment, the northern troops surrendered Fort Sumter to the Confederates.

The Union soldiers were marched out of the fort and ferried to a nearby boat. Perhaps not realizing how fierce the war would become, the Confederate Army allowed the captured soldiers to return to their homes up north. At their homecoming, the Union soldiers received a hero’s welcome for making a stand despite having little ammunition and diminished supplies.
Casualties at the battle for Fort Sumter were minimal. In fact, no soldiers were killed by enemy fire, and the only deaths came when a mortar round exploded prematurely while Union soldiers were loading it. The significance of the battle far outweighed the specific events. The attack at Fort Sumter marked the beginning of a disastrous period in American history. The Civil War ultimately resulted in 600,000 casualties (no other war—fought before or after the Civil War—claimed as many American lives).

At the time, it was impossible for anyone to foresee the brutality of the Civil War. While arguing for secession, South Carolina governor William Gist confidently declared that the South would be victorious within a matter of months. The easy victory at Fort Sumter, and other early victories, gave the South confidence that it could indeed be a quick war. It wasn’t.

**Fast Fact**

As the Battle of Fort Sumter raged on, people in nearby Charleston came out of their homes and sat on porches and roofs to watch. Many cheered as the bombs exploded.

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**A Side Note...**

**P.G.T. Beauregard**

Pierre Gustave Toutant de Beauregard (better known simply as P.T. Beauregard) was a leading general for the Confederate army. He led the attack on Fort Sumter to start the Civil War, and he guided the Confederates to several early victories. From 1862 to 1864, he successfully defended the city of Charleston.

After the Civil War, Beauregard became one of very few Confederate commanders to protect the interests of freed slaves. He argued that they should be treated equally under the law, and even granted the right to vote.

Aside from being a military officer, Beauregard was an inventor. After studying the rising railroad industry, he patented a type of cable-powered railway car.
Meet the Opponents
Comparing the Union and Confederate Armies

When South Carolina became the first state to secede from the Union, it was extremely difficult to measure its chances for success. When the Civil War began, the differences between the average Confederate soldier and the average Union soldier were minimal. They were both Americans who had grown up learning that the United States was the land of the free. They both spoke the same language and, most likely, they were both Christians. Many times, the soldiers had relatives and friends fighting for the opposite side, and on unfortunate occasions the battles pitted brother against brother.

The major differences between the Confederate and Union soldiers came from the areas in which they lived. The Confederate soldiers grew up in the south, so it was very likely that they worked on farms and lived in the rural areas. They might not have had any formal military training before entering the war, but they probably had enough hunting experience to make firing a gun seem like second nature.

The Union soldiers lived mostly in the north. Many of these men resided in and around large cities (such as New York, Philadelphia, or Boston), and they were probably more used to seeing factories than plantations.

While it may have been difficult to draw striking comparisons between the Union and Confederate soldiers, it was easy to draw distinctions between the two armies. The most obvious—and important—difference had to do with size. The Union army had almost three soldiers to every one soldier for the Confederacy (over 2.5 million men fought in the war). This imbalance was not because the Union army had more support for the war—in
fact, it was probably the other way around. Nearly four out of every five young, able-bodied, southern men signed up for the fight. It just so happened that more people lived in the north.

The size advantage of the Union army didn’t stop at soldiers. It also had more money, more equipment, more railroads, more naval ships… The list seemed to go on and on.

The Union also had an established government. When the southern states seceded and created the Confederacy, they were forced to produce a makeshift government in a matter of months. To put it lightly, this was a difficult task.

The Confederate army did have a couple of important advantages. The first had to do with morale. The troops were mentally prepared to fight the war, and they had no intentions of succumbing to the Union army, regardless of its size. The southern states had been the ones to secede from the Union, and they believed that they had a score to settle. A few early victories in the war convinced the Confederates that they could win the war—despite the major obstacles.

The Confederate army also seemed to have superior leadership, especially at the beginning of the war. General Robert E. Lee was admired by his troops, and key early victories improved his reputation. The Union army had to go through several mediocre leaders until men like Ulysses Grant and William Sherman began to have success on the battlefield.

The advantages of the Union eventually took their toll on the Confederacy. The superior number of Union troops enabled the commanders to be aggressive on the battlefield (in fact, General Grant was nicknamed the “Butcher” for being too careless with casualties). The lack of southern railroads closed off the supply lines, and the abundance of Union ships allowed for a devastating blockade of the South (read about the blockade on pages 140-141). As the war raged on, the South grew weary and the scales started to tip in the Union’s favor. After four violent years, the Confederacy finally surrendered.
It’s all about Location

South Carolina’s geography and the Civil War

As the pressures increased in the years before the Civil War, it became obvious that South Carolina was going to be right in the thick of it. Even in the 1830s, the state was already accusing the federal government of infringing on state’s rights (read about the Nullification Crisis on pages 110-111). When the rest of the South started to join the crusade in the late 1850s, South Carolina was the first to take the major leap and secede from the Union.

It’s true that South Carolina made no attempt to shy away from the Civil War tensions, but there was probably no way that the state could have stayed out of trouble. The location of South Carolina made it too critical in the overall strategy.

The most important feature of South Carolina’s geography was its 187-mile coastline. In the mid-1800s, one of the major ports in the South was the city of Charleston. When war broke out in 1861, the primary focus of the Union was to place a blockade on the southern ports—and Charleston was the number one target. In November 1861, a northern fleet captured Port Royal Sound and used Hilton Head Island as the launching point for its blockade. For the remainder of the war, the Union ships closely monitored South Carolina’s coast, making it difficult for the Confederate army to get needed supplies (the specifics of Port Royal’s capture and the Charleston blockade are detailed in the next two passages).

South Carolina’s coastline played a critical role throughout the Civil War, but the state had a few other key characteristics. The state was full of great farmland—which ended up being a large disadvantage during the war. Cotton was a great way to make money during peacetime, but it didn’t help the soldiers much on the battlefield. In the North, many of the farms had been replaced by factories earlier in the century. These factories produced guns, cannons, and other key items that the soldiers
needed. In fact, southern cotton was often sent up North to be made into clothing.

This problem was not just in South Carolina. Most of the states in the Confederacy still clung to their agricultural roots, while the North was highly industrialized. This not only hurt the Confederacy’s ability to make military supplies, it also stunted the transportation systems. In the 1830s, the South Carolina Railroad Company constructed over 100 miles of rail line from Charleston to Hamburg (read about this on pages 112-113). This railroad put the state on the cutting edge of transportation. Unfortunately, it didn’t stay that way.

When the North expanded its industry, it became necessary to develop an intricate transportation system. Railroads were needed to bring raw materials to the factories, as well as to ship finished products to other areas of the country. By the start of the Civil War, the northern states had developed far more efficient railroads than those that existed in the South. These lines brought food and supplies to the troops, and proved to be a huge advantage throughout the war.

On the flip side of the coin, the farms and plantations proved to be an easy target for the Union. When General William Sherman’s troops marched through South Carolina, they torched the cotton and rice fields, and burned down farm houses. The state’s economy, which relied on these crops, was left in ruins. It took years—even generations—for South Carolina to recover from this damage.

The spread of industry in the North also promoted urban growth. By contrast, the interior of South Carolina was still extremely rural in the mid-1800s. With the exception of Columbia and Charleston, there were few areas that were heavily populated (this was especially true for the western part of the state or any areas that were more than fifty miles from the coast).

This made it easy for the Union to find the Confederacy’s weak spots. The importance of Charleston was obvious right from the start of the war, and the Union kept pressure on the city the entire time. Columbia was located in the center of the state, and it was much more difficult to approach. On February 17, 1865, the Union forces finally did capture Columbia, and burned it to the ground. For all practical purposes, this marked the end of the Civil War for South Carolina.
Beginning of the End

Union forces capture Port Royal

The Union strategists had one basic theory during the Civil War. They believed that the Confederate soldiers would be less willing to fight if they had no food, guns, clothes, or other supplies. To secure a victory in the war, it was necessary to keep these important items out of Confederate hands.

To the Union army, the quicker this was done the better. South Carolina had seceded from the Union in December 1860, and, in the next few months, several other southern states followed its lead. Each day the Confederacy and its army was growing stronger and more organized. The North decided that one of its top priorities had to be a direct attack on the South’s supply lines.

The location of the attack was obvious. Lacking a great railroad system, the Confederacy relied on its ports to receive goods from other areas of the nation and abroad. A couple of the most important port cities at the time were Charleston, South Carolina, and Savannah, Georgia. The Union army planned to put pressure on those two locations, but it decided to start its attack on a different front.

In November 1862, a federal fleet surrounded Port Royal Sound, about fifty miles south of Charleston. These ships threatened the cities of Beaufort, Port Royal, and a number of smaller islands. The most important prize, however, was the city of Hilton Head Island, a nationally famous resort. If the Union army gained control of the Port Royal Sound, it would not only be a blow to southern morale, but it would also enable the North to manage South Carolina’s coastline. This area could be used as the starting point for a major blockade of Savannah and Charleston (read about that in the next passage).

The Confederate army was still less than one year old, so it was not yet ready to fight off a major naval attack. The Union army bombarded the areas surrounding Port Royal Sound for
days, until 12,000 Union forces finally landed with little opposition. The areas soon fell to northern troops.

Hilton Head, Beaufort, Port Royal, and the adjacent islands remained under Union control for the remainder of the war. As a renowned vacation spot, the city proved to be a very comfortable headquarters for the North. In fact, as the Civil War raged on, the Union stationed over 50,000 soldiers in and around the city. For Union commanders, serving at Hilton Head was almost considered a vacation from the rest of the war.

Northern control of the Port Royal sound did more than launch the blockade in Charleston. After gaining a stronghold in South Carolina, northern troops constantly raided interior areas throughout the state. This put all of South Carolina on edge during the entire Civil War—plantations were destroyed, slaves were set free, and buildings were burned to the ground. Despite the routine attacks from the east, the bulk of damage to South Carolina eventually came from the west. Towards the end of the war, General Sherman conducted his infamous march, destroying everything in his path. The most devastating moment came on February 17, 1864, when Sherman captured, and eventually burned, the city of Columbia (the details of Sherman’s destruction of the south are discussed on pages 142-143).

Despite suffering through years of northern occupation, the cities near Port Royal Sound actually got off easy in the end. Because they were headquarters for the Union army, these areas were spared when northern troops ransacked the rest of South Carolina, leaving many cities and towns in shambles.

I Bet You Didn’t Know...

The most devastating aspect of the Civil War was that it often placed family members and friends on opposite sides.

During the Battle of Port Royal, General Thomas Drayton was in charge of the Confederate forces. His younger brother, Percival, commanded the Union ship that led the capture of the island.

After the war, both brothers went back to having a friendly relationship.
The Stranglehold

*The Union launches a blockade on Charleston*

The Union capture of Port Royal in November 1861 marked the beginning of a long war for South Carolina. Port Royal became the launching point for a massive blockade on the city of Charleston. Union ships sailed up and down the South Carolina coast in an effort to prevent any goods from leaving or entering the city. As one of the few major ports in the South, Charleston was an important lifeline for the Confederate army.

During the first two years of the war, the Confederacy watched its supplies diminish. Soldiers were short of food, clothing, and weapons. Even the difficulty of getting smaller items, like needles or coffee beans, made each day a struggle.

The military troops weren’t the only ones who suffered from the blockade. Any spare food had to go to the soldiers, so the wives and children who were left behind had to do without. The cost for even the most basic supplies—such as cloth and bread—skyrocketed. Inflation was so high that South Carolinians joked that, if they wanted to leave a store with a small bag of groceries, they needed to take in an entire wheel burrow of money.

During this time, the fate of South Carolina fell into the hands of the “blockade-runners.” These were ships that could slip through the lines of the Union blockade and deliver goods into Charleston. In many cases, these were British ships (*British merchants understood that much of their profits came through the port of Charleston*). Throughout 1862, blockade-runners managed to sneak in and out of Union lines. As the war continued, however, the North added more vessels to the blockade, and the stranglehold on Charleston increased.

Despite being suffocated by the Union blockade, the people of Charleston tried their best to live a normal life. This became impossible in late 1863. At that time, the Union army launched a siege on the Confederate fort at Morris Island, just outside Charleston. The Confederates held off the initial attack, but, as the days turned into months, the southern troops were forced to abandon the cause.
Once the Union troops occupied Morris Island, they controlled enough land around Charleston to attack it directly. They started firing cannons into the city on a daily basis, making it nearly impossible for the people to carry on with everyday living. The citizens of Charleston still refused to leave their homes and their work. In response, the northern forces continued with the bombardment.

While the blockade-runners had proved moderately effective during the early part of the war, the siege of Charleston made receiving or shipping supplies a lost cause. The North had already captured other southern ports, such as Savannah and New Orleans. As a result, many Confederate soldiers found themselves on the verge of starvation during the final two years of the war.

Throughout 1863 and 1864, the shelling of Charleston continued — yet the city still refused to surrender. Only after General Sherman entered South Carolina during his infamous march through the South (read about it on the next page) did the citizens abandon the fight. Nearly two years of bombardment had damaged the city so much that any attempt to stop the Union forces from marching through would have been useless.

**A Side Note...**

**H.L. Hunley—the first successful submarine**

In early 1864, a number of Union ships were sitting in the Charleston harbor and brutally bombing the city of Charleston. The Confederate army needed a victory badly. They decided to try an unconventional and untested form of combat—one that completely change the rules of naval warfare.

On February 17, 1864, the *H.L. Hunley* set out in the waters of Charleston Harbor. The *Hunley* was a submarine, built specifically to be used in battle. It was a risky investment—no previous submarine had ever succeeded in sinking an enemy ship.

Undetected until the last moments, the *Hunley* collided into the Union warship *Housatonic*. During the collision, the submarine placed a charge on the ship, which was detonated as the two vessels separated. The *Housatonic* sank within minutes, killing several Union soldiers.

Unfortunately, the crew of the *Hunley* never got to celebrate. The submarine did not make it back to shore, and remained hidden on the ocean bottom for over a century (it was found in 1995).
Path of Destruction

General Sherman marches through the South

It wasn’t enough that the Confederate troops were tired, hungry, and short on supplies. By late 1864, it seemed obvious that the Union forces were going to be victorious in the Civil War, but there was one small factor that prevented the war from being over—the South kept on fighting.

The Union leaders realized that, in order to end the war, it was going to be necessary to destroy the morale and pride of the South. This couldn’t be done solely on the battlefield. The Confederate soldiers had already proven that they were prepared to fight until the end. Instead, the Union decided to wage a “total war,” thus taking the fight directly to the civilians.

The Union assigned William Tecumseh Sherman to this brutal task, and he didn’t hold back. In late 1864, he conducted his infamous “March to the Sea.” He started in Atlanta, completely burning the city to the ground. For the next two months, Sherman led 60,000 men across Georgia. Along the way, the troops destroyed everything they came across (farms, railroads, homes, businesses, livestock…), leaving a path of destruction that was 360 miles long and 60 miles wide. Sherman reached the sea through Savannah, a city that he captured as a “Christmas gift” for Abraham Lincoln.

The purpose of Sherman’s march was not solely based on cruelty or revenge. He was hoping to destroy the will of the people living in the South, thus undermining the Confederate cause. As vicious as the tactic was, it worked. Sherman’s march
convinced the Confederate leaders that the South would literally be destroyed if they continued fighting the Civil War.

Sherman’s “March to the Sea” went through Georgia, but that was only the beginning of his rampage. He had proven that civilians were now fair game, and now Sherman aimed to bring the war to the front steps of as many people as possible. He turned his troops northward and began to attack South Carolina. Once again, Sherman’s troops spared no town, farm, or house. By this point, the Confederate forces were so battered that they could barely slow the Union advances.

On February 17, 1865, Sherman entered the capital city of Columbia. After looting everything of value, his troops set the city on fire. Over one-third of Columbia burned to the ground. For South Carolinians, this event proved that the war was a lost cause. Within a few hours, the citizens of Charleston started to evacuate their city (after courageously remaining there through two years of bombardment).

Sherman’s march did not end in Columbia. He continued through South Carolina (still destroying everything in his path), and eventually took his “total war” into North Carolina. Meanwhile, Union forces throughout the nation destroyed all remaining Confederate strongholds. On April 9, 1865, General Robert E. Lee put an official end to the war by surrendering to Ulysses S. Grant at Appomattox Court House in Virginia.

The brutality of the Civil War changed the concept of warfare for Americans. Soldiers were not the only ones expected to be involved in the violence—civilians were now fair game. Fortunately, no war since that time has brought such widespread destruction on American soil (in Europe, however, both World Wars of the 20th century were “total wars” that involved millions of civilians).
The Florence Stockade

Major POW prison constructed in Florence

It was only a matter of time. By September 1864, few places in the South were still able to put up a respectable fight against Union troops. General William Sherman had his sights on the state of Georgia. A month earlier, the Battle of Atlanta had broken the back—and spirit—of the Confederate Army, giving Sherman the opportunity to make a bold move. He prepared to lead his powerful army across the state, and to destroy everything he came across. That included civilians, farms, homes, railroads, businesses, plantations, and anything else that he found.

As bad as it seemed, the Confederates weren’t quite ready to throw in the towel. They didn’t have the manpower nor resources to stop Sherman, but they did have something to keep the Union troops at bay. The Confederates had thousands of Union prisoners who had been captured throughout the Civil War. These prisoners were being held at the infamous prison in Andersonville, Georgia. At one point, the facility held over 30,000 prisoners, though it was designed to hold less than half that amount.

Obviously, it would have been a nice detour for General Sherman to travel to Andersonville, raid the prison, and set free thousands of Union soldiers. Just as obvious was the fact that the Confederates didn’t want that to happen. They needed to move the prisoners to another location—and fast. To help this happen, construction began on a large prison stockade in Florence, South Carolina. Florence was chosen because several major railroads intersected within the city, making it an easy location to transport the captured soldiers.

Time was running out for the Confederates, so over 1,000 slaves and able-bodied men in the area were recruited for the construction. Even so, prisoners began to arrive before the facilities
were complete. They were moved into the prison stockade on the first Sunday in October 1864.

Surrounded by a fifteen-foot high wall constructed of untrimmed logs, the Union prisoners suffered through a harsh winter of late 1864 and early 1865. The captive soldiers had inadequate clothing, no shelter, little food, and poor medical treatment. During the first few months of operation, the Florence Stockade held over 10,000 soldiers, and over twenty of them were dying every day.

When the death toll became too high—and the conditions became too harsh—the Confederate leaders decided that something had to be done. They began to issue a series of paroles for any prisoner who was severely sick or injured (and there plenty who fit that description). After going through an “interview” process, thousands of Union soldiers were set free in December 1864. This placed the body count in the Florence prison to a more reasonable 7,500 prisoners, with the death toll at less than ten per day.

The Florence Prison wasn’t intended to be a decent prison where captured soldiers could be held for years. It was built only to buy the Confederates time. General Sherman and the Union troops continued to march through Georgia, and the Confederate Army continued to whither. On December 10, the Union captured the city of Savannah, offering it to President Abraham Lincoln as a “Christmas Present.” After taking Savannah, General Sherman decided to turn his sights northward and march through South Carolina.

After only five months, it was apparent that Florence was no longer a safe place to keep prisoners. In February 1865, the surviving captives were sent to various prisons in North Carolina, with the unrealistic hope that the Confederates would make one last stand and stop the Union troops. By the end of that month, the Florence Stockade was empty and closed. The Confederate Army held out for another month, until the surrender of Robert E. Lee on April 9, 1865 officially ended the war.
The Stumphouse Tunnel

The looming Civil War halts progress

When four out of every five able-bodied men go off to war, a few things have to be put on hold. That’s what happened to South Carolina during the Civil War. In addition to the damage on the battlefield, not to mention the devastation caused by Union troops marching through the state, the violent war also interfered with new construction, unfinished projects, and everyday business life.

To put it simply, the progress and momentum of the early 1800s virtually ceased during the Civil War (with the exception of weaponry and military advancements). A perfect example of this was the Stumphouse Tunnel. To this day, this ambitious project remains incomplete in the mountains of Oconee County.

In the 1830s—during the heart of the Antebellum Era (which you can read about in the previous chapter)—South Carolina cotton farmers were making a fortune on their plantations. The port in Charleston was booming, and merchants and farmers were anxious to ship their products to paying customers, many of whom lived over 1,000 miles away. At the same time, businessmen were importing products from other areas of the country for South Carolinians to purchase.

It was at this time that residents began to realize just how profitable it would be to build a railroad across the state and beyond. It would start in Charleston, cross through the mountains to Knoxville, Tennessee, and then continue to the Midwest. Such a railroad would immediately revive Charleston as the leading port in the southeast—and it could mean a fortune for thousands of merchants, planters, farmers, manufacturers, and other entrepreneurs.

Twenty years passed before this ambitious line started to become a reality. In 1852, the South Carolina General Assembly finally agreed to charter the land and heavily finance the project.
The hesitation came because of one key obstacle. Part of the railroad ran through the Blue Ridge Mountains, and the plans called for a major tunnel in the area. That meant that workers would have to drill a tunnel through more than one-mile of solid granite. The limitations of tools and technology in the 1850s made this an enormous undertaking.

As the line got underway, over 1,000 workers (most of them Irish laborers) focused on the tunnel. Progress was slow and tiresome, but it was steady. Unfortunately, the climate in the nation changed during the late 1850s. Tensions began to rise between the southern and northern states, and the possibility of a Civil War came closer to a reality every day. To make matters more complicated, the Blue Ridge Railroad had been designed to run through both Union and Confederate areas.

As the Civil War loomed, South Carolina decided to quit funding construction of the railroad, which was already over budget. The disappointed laborers were forced to abandon the nearly completed tunnel. Naturally, as the war raged on, South Carolinians became less concerned about the status of the railroad line.

The damaged suffered by South Carolina during the Civil War made it nearly impossible to renew construction of the railroad after the war ended. A few attempts were made, though most failed quickly. Today, the remnants of the “Stumphouse Tunnel” can still be seen in Oconee County. When it became obvious that the project wasn’t going to be complete, South Carolina turned the construction site into a state park. Visitors now have the opportunity to walk through the incomplete tunnel that was once intended to be the greatest railroad on the east coast.

**A Little Extra**

Near the Stumphouse Tunnel state park is another popular tourist attraction—**Issaqueena Falls**.

This 200-foot waterfall earned its name from a local legend. It is said that violent pursuers were once chasing a Cherokee woman named Issaqueena. She escaped only by pretending to jump off the falls, thus faking her own death. Issaqueena hid near the falls for hours, until it was safe for her to sneak away.
Mary Chestnut’s Diary

*Mary Chestnut privately records the Civil War*

When you find yourself near gunfire and cannon explosions, it seems like the last thing on your mind would be keeping up with your diary. Mary Chestnut felt the opposite. She made it a point to keep her eyes and ears open—and her pen moving—in the midst of the violence of the Civil War. She kept a diary that spanned throughout the course of the war. As the wife of a prominent Confederate politician, Chestnut always seemed to be close to the action, and she always had a unique perspective.

Mary Chestnut did not intend to be one of the most influential diarists of the Civil War. In fact, her early years were far removed from violence and destruction. She was the daughter of Stephen Decatur Miller, a popular South Carolina governor and wealthy landowner. He made sure that Mary received a privileged upbringing and a fine education. When the schools in Camden weren’t cutting it, he sent Mary to a French boarding school in Charleston. When she was still a teenager, Mary met James Chestnut, Jr., whose father owned one of the largest plantations in the state. The two were married shortly after, when Mary was seventeen.

Despite her elite standing in South Carolina society, Mary Chestnut was not able to escape the troubles that faced the state prior to the Civil War. As it turned out, she found herself right in the middle of it. James Chestnut became a senator, and she joined him on his travels to Washington, DC. At that time, Mary befriended Jefferson Davis and his wife, as well as many other men who would play a key role in the Civil War. Mary and James Chestnut came back to South Carolina while the *Ordinance of Secession* was being drafted, a document that set the wheels of war in motion.

**Fast Fact**

Mary Chestnut’s father, Stephen Decatur Miller, strongly opposed tariffs passed by the federal government in the 1830s. He urged South Carolinians to ignore them, thus becoming a key player in the **Nullification Crisis of 1832** (you can read about the crisis in the previous chapter).
During her travels, Mary Chestnut remained a relatively quiet observer. She began writing her diary after the election of President Abraham Lincoln, an event that proved to be the last straw for most South Carolinians. She continued to write it throughout the Civil War. Because of her husband’s high rank in the Confederacy, she traveled with him to Charleston, Montgomery, Columbia, and Richmond. She also had the opportunity to have personal conversations with Jefferson Davis, Robert E. Lee, and numerous other Confederate commanders.

The war raged on for four years, and Mary Chestnut carefully recorded the events. She watched as the South crumbled, and as she and her husband lost their personal fortunes. The last entry into her diary was in August 1865, several months after Robert E. Lee surrendered his Confederate troops to Union General Ulysses S. Grant. By spanning this period, Mary Chestnut was able to show the sharp contrast between the confident Antebellum Era, the struggling war years, and the shattered period after the war.

Once the Civil War ended, few cared to read the details of Mary Chestnut’s comprehensive diary. Most people simply wanted to forget the war and concentrate on rebuilding their shattered lives. As time past, however, the contents of the diary became more valuable. She revised it into book form in the 1880s, but it wasn’t first published until 1905—forty years after the end of the Civil War.

Over the past century, excerpts of Mary Chestnut’s diary have been published in several editions and read by millions of people. Aside from a simple recollection of events, the diary reveals Mary’s unique perspective, her wit, and her obvious intelligence. It is regarded as the finest work of literature to come out of the Confederacy.

**Fast Fact**

Aside from her Civil War diary, Mary Chestnut also wrote three novels. She never published any of them, however.
Beyond the Soldiers
The impact of the Civil War on civilians

In many ways, the soldiers fighting the Civil War were the lucky ones. While they went off to battle, women and children had to stay home and keep things in order. Unfortunately, the battles eventually came to them. When General Sherman marched his troops through the southern states, he took up arms against innocent people and private property. The civilians in the towns and cities had no way to defend themselves.

In December 1860, after South Carolina became the first state to secede from the Union, most people realized that life as they knew it had ended. Over the next few months, the Confederate army scrambled to build an effective military. Nearly four out of every five able-bodied, young, white men signed up for duty. As they ran off to war, the women were left behind to run the farms, as well as tend to the housework and the children. Of course, the constant concerns about their loved ones on the battlefield only added extra stress.

As the war raged on, the middle and lower class citizens in South Carolina started to run into real problems. The economy was shattered, making it impossible to effectively run a farm or a business. With no money, food and clothes became critical—and costly—items. The scarcity of these basic resources drove the prices way up, and they were often impossible to find. The same clothes had to be worn day after day. If they were torn, a patch was sewn on—if the patch ripped, it was replaced by another patch. Family farms and businesses had to fall to the side as people concentrated on the very basics of survival.

In Charleston, many of the elite families tried not to let the Civil War interfere with daily life—but this proved to be impossible. During the first few months of the war, the port at Charleston was already being strangled by a blockade of Union ships (check out pages 140-141). The residents had trouble receiving
even the most basic supplies, and the plantations struggled when exporting rice and cotton became more difficult.

During 1861 and 1862, the citizens of Charleston did their best to pretend that there was no war going on around them. This ended in 1863 when the Union ships began bombarding the city. For the next two years, the shelling remained constant, and even the most wealthy of the elite could no longer ignore the war.

There was another class of South Carolinians whose lives were transformed by the Civil War—only these people welcomed the change. Thousands of slaves used the chaos of the war to escape to the North, and many joined the Union army. When the northern troops marched through the state, they freed many of the slaves along the way. This was done for several reasons. For starters, the slaves made fine additions to the Union army. Also, the absence of slave labor destroyed the southern economy, thus making it difficult for the Confederacy to continue the war.

Gaining freedom was a huge goal for the African slaves, but by no means did it guarantee an easy life ahead. The years after the Civil War brought hard times for the newly freed slaves, most of whom had no property and no education (the struggles of Reconstruction are detailed later in this chapter).

Life was difficult for most South Carolinians during the first few years of the Civil War. Unfortunately, it only got worse. Later in the conflict, General Sherman marched 60,000 Union soldiers through South Carolina, directly attacking civilians. He destroyed farms and businesses, and set entire towns on fire. Sherman hoped to destroy any hope that still remained in the South—and he succeeded.

When the soldiers returned home from battle, it wasn’t a joyous homecoming. Many soldiers had been left dead on the battlefield, and others were permanently wounded. Thousands of homes and farms were in ruins—even the largest and most prosperous plantations were destroyed. South Carolina took years to recover from the Civil War, but it was never able to recover much of the wealth and confidence that existed during the Antebellum Era.
What’s in a Name?

Different names for the Civil War

If you want to get technical, you could argue that the Civil War was not a “civil war” at all. By definition, a civil war is a war fought between members of the same nation. In the American Civil War, the Confederate states officially seceded from the Union and established their own country. Therefore, the war was fought between two different countries. That made it different from a typical “civil war,” in which one country battles within itself.

The above reasoning might be stretching it a little. However, if you are a stickler for details, you’ll be glad to know that there are plenty of other names you can use besides “Civil War.” In fact, it’s probably safe to say that no other war in history has had so many different titles.

It’s not uncommon to hear the Civil War referred to as, “The War Between the States” or “The War of Secession.” These titles describe the conflict from a relatively unbiased point of view. Immediately after the Civil War, it was often simply called, “The War,” or even “The Late Unpleasantness” (a vast understatement).

Most of the different names for the Civil War aren’t so universal. After the war ended, the people in the South had their own recollection of why it was fought in the first place. This gave rise to titles such as, “The War for Southern Independence,” “The Second American Revolution”, or even “Mr. Lincoln’s War.” A few of the names weren’t so friendly. For example, many southerners referred to the Civil War as “The War to Suppress Yankee Arrogance” or “The War Against Northern Aggression.” It wouldn’t have been too difficult to guess the political opinions of those who chose to use these names. In
fact, many people in the South thought that the only proper title for the war was “The Lost Cause.”

The southerners weren’t the only ones to come up with descriptive titles for the Civil War. In the North, it wasn’t uncommon to hear it called, “The War for Abolition” or “The War of Southern Rebellion.” More extremists went as far as to call it “The War to Save the Union.”

Today, the term “Civil War” seems to work for most people. Officially, the title “The War Between the States” is more acceptable, at least in extremely formal and academic settings. The reasoning is that the title accurately describes the conflict, and it keeps the Civil War from being confused with other wars (the term “civil war” is a generic one, and does not always refer to the conflict in America).

**Fast Fact**

The term “civil war” does not just describe the Civil War in America, but any war where the people of one nation fight against one another.

There has been a civil war in England, Russia, Mexico, Finland, Ireland, China, Spain, Korea, Vietnam, Lebanon, Nigeria, and many other countries around the world.

### A Side Note...

**Other Names for the Civil War**

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154—South Carolina

**Complete Destruction**

*The state of South Carolina after the Civil War*

The good mood of the Antebellum Era seemed like a distant dream by the end of the Civil War. South Carolina was completely and utterly devastated, and much of the damage was beyond repair.

The most obvious measure of the destruction was the number of young, able-bodied men who were killed in battle. Nearly 100,000 men lost their lives in battle for the Confederacy, and about 5,000 of them were from South Carolina. Many more soldiers died of disease and hunger. Hundreds returned home with amputated arms and legs, and nearly all were emotionally scarred from the experience.

Unfortunately, the deaths on the battlefield were only the beginning of South Carolina’s problems. When the Union forces marched through the state, they destroyed everything that they crossed. This included homes, farms, plantations, railroads, bridges, factories, businesses, and even livestock. When the soldiers arrived home, they often found that they had no homes to return to. They had no money, no businesses, and no farms to run. The system of slave labor that had operated the plantations no longer existed (*most of the slaves had already escaped during the war or had been set free by Union soldiers*). Basically, there was no future.

For most South Carolinians, the years following the war were as bad—or even worse—than the years of actual fighting. This wasn’t true only for the poor citizens. In fact, they might have had the easiest time adjusting. When the war ended, the divisions of lower class, middle class, and elite became completely blurred. Everyone was struggling for survival.

Most of the elite citizens had lived near Charleston at the start of the Civil War. Two years of constant bombardment had reduced the fine homes and successful businesses to rubble. When the Union forces marched through the state, they destroyed any of the remaining plantations and large summer homes. Other cities,
such as Columbia, Lexington, and Winnsboro, were burnt to the ground. Everything was destroyed.

The end of the Civil War created an entirely new class of struggling South Carolinians—freed slaves. By no means, however, did this guarantee a kind future for African Americans. Like everyone else, the freed slaves were searching for food and shelter. It didn’t help that most of them had no money or education. The dilemma of the freedmen eventually led to the system of sharecropping, which was not much better than slavery (read about it on page 163).

With all of the physical damage, it’s easy to forget how destructive the mentality of South Carolina was after the Civil War. There was a complete loss of morale, confidence, and hope. During the Antebellum Era, the plantation owners and individual farmers had prided themselves on the agricultural presence of South Carolina. That no longer existed.

As the people struggled, Union troops continued to occupy the area, and northern politicians decided the future of the state. This only added to the anger and frustration. The only people who seemed to be getting rich were the “carpetbaggers” (people from up north who came south to profit from the destruction) and the “scalawags” (southerners who cooperated with the carpetbaggers).

South Carolina had a long road ahead of it after the Civil War. The Reconstruction period was a time of change and adjustment. Eventually, the state recovered economically and socially, but the bitterness of the Confederate loss never completely disappeared.

A Side Note…

**Carpetbaggers and Scalawags**

The most hated individuals of the Reconstruction Era were **Carpetbaggers**. These were northerners who came south after the Civil War to seek political or financial gain in the midst of the destruction. They were called “carpetbaggers” because they often put their belongings in a cheap carpet bag before heading south.

Southerners also despised **Scalawags**. These were southern Republicans who were sympathetic to the carpetbaggers, and who supported the Reconstruction policies. Southern farmers created the word “scalawag” prior to the war to describe a small and useless animal.
The Port Royal Experiment

*Teachers brought in to teach the freed slaves*

It quickly became apparent that freeing all of the slaves wasn’t going to make things easier. The Union forces realized this less than one year into the war, when they captured the areas around Port Royal Sound in South Carolina. When the troops came aboard the Sea Islands, most of the white citizens had already evacuated. Left behind were 10,000 slaves, all of them confused and scared.

The Union occupied the area for the next four years, and the newly freed slaves started to become a nuisance. They had no education and no skills, and many couldn’t even speak English (instead they spoke Gullah, which you can read about in the “Side Note” at the end of the passage). There was no telling what would happen to these freedmen when the Union forces left after the war. Something had to be done.

In order to help the freed slaves stand on their own two feet, the federal government conducted the “Port Royal Experiment.” The plan was to send teachers to South Carolina to educate the ex-slaves. Started in 1862, the Port Royal Experiment became a testing ground for solving the problems that would appear during the Reconstruction Era.

The teachers who volunteered for the task had their work cut out for them. Their first priority was to teach the freedmen to read and write, but it went much beyond that. Their students had been completely shut out from the democratic system as slaves, and most did not even understand it. The teachers had to make sure that the freed slaves were morally and socially prepared to become productive citizens. They taught about what it meant to be a “citizen,” including lessons on civil rights, property ownership, and the voting process. Basically, the goal was to familiarize the freedmen with “White Society.”

Another goal of the Port Royal Experiment was to help the freed slaves find a means of financial independence. Few of them
had any skills aside from working as field hands on the plantations. The quest for economic independence proved to be extremely difficult. In fact, after the war, many of them went back to work on the plantations in an arrangement known as “sharecropping,” which was little better than slavery (you can read more about this on page 163).

The intentions of the Port Royal Experiment were admirable, but the program would not be nearly enough to battle the problems of Reconstruction. The Civil War damaged South Carolina—and the rest of the South—as extensively that highly educated white men often struggled for survival along with the freed slaves. Hunger and hardship did not discriminate based on color.

Despite the end of slavery (officially ended in 1865 by the 13th amendment to the Constitution), African Americans did not get equal treatment. Small steps were taken during the Reconstruction period, such as the passing of the 14th and 15th amendments. The 14th amendment (1868) gave African Americans official citizenship, while the 15th amendment (1870) extended to them the right to vote.

The ability to own property and to vote (as well as the reviving cotton and rice industries) helped African Americans finally gain respect in the United States during the 1870s. By that time, they had become an integral part of the nation’s democratic system.

A Side Note…

Gullah

The purpose of the Port Royal Experiment was to educate freed slaves in the Union occupied areas of South Carolina’s coast. This proved to be extremely difficult because many of the ex-slaves spoke Gullah instead of English.

Gullah is a combination of English and West African languages, and was originally spoken by slaves living along the coastlines of South Carolina and Georgia. A few Gullah words that have survived are voodoo, juke (as in jukebox), and goober (originally a word for peanut).
Difference of Opinion
Two different plans for Reconstruction

After four years of brutal warfare, going back to normal wasn’t an easy task. The Confederate army and the southern states weren’t about to say, “We were wrong, and we’re ready to join the Union again and do whatever you say.” Things got a little more complicated.

Years before the Civil War ended, plans for Reconstruction were already in the works. President Abraham Lincoln had his own theory. Lincoln’s goal was to bring the Confederate states back into the Union as quickly as possible, thus allowing the country to get back to the ordinary. In late 1863, he announced his formal plan for Reconstruction, which consisted of a few controversial steps.

The first portion of Lincoln’s plan gave a general amnesty to all those who took an oath of loyalty to the United States and obeyed all of the federal laws (this included all laws concerning slavery). Lincoln decided to exempt the high Confederate officers and the military leaders from this process—they would be dealt with at a later date. The last part of the plan dealt with each state’s entry into the Union. Lincoln proposed that if one-tenth of the voters took the loyalty oath in a particular state, then that state could join the Union. At this point, the state was free to launch a new government and send members to Congress.

The central theme of Lincoln’s Reconstruction Plan was that it wasted no time in punishing the South, but got right to the business of uniting the nation. It wasn’t well received. After years of fighting, many northerners felt that the Confederacy deserved to be punished for seceding from the Union. Congress did not accept Lincoln’s terms, hoping to find a better way to make the South pay for all of the damages caused during the war.

Abraham Lincoln never got the opportunity to persuade Congress on his plan. On April 14, 1865, less than a week after the
end of the Civil War, he was assassinated while attending the theater. Andrew Johnson assumed the role of president.

Like Lincoln, Johnson didn’t feel that it was productive to punish the South out of spite. He decided to grant pardons to any southerners who took a loyalty oath to the Union. Johnson, however, refused to grant pardons to the Confederate officers or anyone else who had a significant amount of property. He agreed with Lincoln that the South had to abolish slavery, but he demanded that each state repeal its secession ordinance before the Union even recognize it as part of the nation.

Once again, Congress wasn’t pleased, but Andrew Johnson managed to start the plan while Congress was out of session. The trouble started when Congress returned; many members refused to allow the new representatives from the southern states to take a seat.

Congress had two problems with the new Reconstruction Plan. The members felt that it was too lenient on the Confederate states (the same complaint that they had with Lincoln’s plan). Congress was also upset that President Johnson allowed the southern states to have so much say about their future—especially when it came to the freed slaves. While Johnson’s plan abolished slavery, it left the treatment of the freed slaves, including voting rights and financial assistance, up to the individual states. Congress wanted the federal government to step in and make the important decisions, regardless of the opinions in the South.

South Carolina—often blamed for starting the Civil War—continued to stir up trouble during Reconstruction. Forced to give up slavery, the state updated its “black codes.” These were laws that limited the freedom of the African Americans, making it nearly impossible for them to be successful and respected citizens. The black codes kept the freedmen in virtual slavery. Federal forces eventually had to step in to get South Carolina to cooperate with Reconstruction efforts.
Starting all Over
South Carolina creates new Constitutions

South Carolina played a key role in helping the United States gain its independence, and it was one of the first states to ratify the Constitution in 1788. That patriotic history was largely forgotten, however, when South Carolina tried to rejoin the Union after fighting for the Confederacy in the Civil War.

As the first state to secede from the Union, South Carolina knowingly gave up the protection and privileges offered by the federal government. For it to rejoin the nation, the state had to demonstrate cooperation. South Carolinians had to take an oath of loyalty to the Union, and the Confederate government had to be completely disbanded.

President Andrew Johnson appointed Benjamin Franklin Perry as the governor of post-war South Carolina. Prior to the war, Perry had proven himself to be a devout Unionist, and he certainly wasn’t a favorite among South Carolinians. Nonetheless, it was his job to reestablish the government of the state, and he did this by holding a Constitutional Convention.

The new South Carolina Constitution was complete by late 1865. It wasn’t what the federal government expected. Despite the abolition of slavery, South Carolina’s constitution managed to keep African Americans in virtual slavery with a series of “black codes” (read about the struggle of the freed slaves in the next passage). The new constitution had a few other trouble spots. Representation in South Carolina’s Congress was based not only on population (only the white population was counted), but also on wealth. The state had used wealth as a criteria in every constitution it had ever had, and it always caused problems. During the Antebellum Era, conflicts arose between the middle-class upcountry and the elite lowcountry. After the Civil War, nearly everyone was poor. This only heightened the power struggle.

Despite the efforts of South Carolina to prevent it, the federal government continued to find ways to include the freed slaves in the democratic system. The Civil Rights Act of 1866 granted citizenship to all of the freed slaves. The Reconstruction Act of 1867 forced South Carolina to recognize it. This act divided all of
the Confederate states into five military districts. Federal soldiers were stationed throughout the South to insure that there was no interference with the Reconstruction efforts.

Many of the items in South Carolina’s Constitution of 1865 were now illegal according to federal law. In 1868, a new constitution was drafted to adjust to the changing times. Racial equality was the cornerstone of the new constitution. The federal troops occupying the South demanded that the southern states allow African Americans to vote—this changed everything. Since there were more blacks living in South Carolina than whites, the majority of the delegates elected to write the new constitution were black.

For the first time, the new constitution was sent out to the people for ratification. The black population quickly approved the document. By this time, the Republican Party had gained control of the state government, and Robert Kingston Scott served as governor. This shift in political power created serious racial tensions over the next decade. Naturally, African Americans were going to support the Republican Party, which had helped set them free and given them the right to vote. The Democratic Party, which consisted of most of the average white men in the state, found it nearly impossible to win a fair election.

Aside from the racial issues, the Constitution of 1868 had another key element. It based the representation of an area solely on population, regardless of wealth. This took power away from the lowcountry, where elite families had used their fortunes to control the government. This change proved to be permanent—all South Carolina constitutions written since that time have based representation on population, not wealth.

The approval of the 1868 Constitution did not solve the political problems of the state. The next few years were marked by serious political corruption, which was highlighted in the controversial election of 1876 (read pages 168-169). The Constitution of 1868 did, however, force South Carolina to be more cooperative with the Reconstruction efforts.
An Uphill Battle

Ex-slaves try to adjust to a life of freedom

South Carolina did its best to hinder Reconstruction efforts. The federal government wanted the newly freed slaves to quickly become functioning members of society. South Carolina didn’t. The state continually reintroduced the “black codes” that had been created during the days of slavery. These were laws that denied blacks civil freedoms. They had once prevented slaves from holding private meetings or learning to read. They now prevented the freedmen from voting or holding public office.

Northerners accused South Carolina of trying to reverse the results of the Civil War. Eventually the government placed federal troops back into the state, and the codes were suspended. To put an end to black codes, Congress passed the Civil Rights Act of 1866, overriding a veto from President Andrew Johnson. This act gave African Americans most of the privileges that went along with citizenship, including the protection of the court, the right to own property, and the right to sign and enforce contracts. It did not extend to them the right to vote.

During the first few years of Reconstruction, Congress did everything in its power to help the freedmen. This was a vast contrast to the approach of Andrew Johnson, who wanted to leave most of the decisions up to the individual states. The most dramatic—and controversial—action of Congress was the creation of the Freedmen’s Bureau. This was intended to provide African Americans with a few of the things that they had been denied during slavery. This included a basic education and necessary job skills. The Bureau even seized land that had belonged to Confederates and sold it to freed slaves at rock bottom prices.

After the Civil War, many white citizens in South Carolina faced the same economic struggles as the freed slaves. Obviously, the white population was not happy that the freed slaves were being given special treatment—nor were they happy about the added competition. The heavy resentment of the Freedmen’s Bureau led to its closing after only a few years of operation.

During the Reconstruction period, the federal government tried to help the freed slaves in a number of ways, most of which
did little good. There were, however, a few major forward steps. These came as amendments to the Constitution—appropriately known as the Reconstruction Amendments. The 13th amendment (1865) ended slavery; the 14th amendment (1868) gave blacks full citizenship (South Carolina originally rejected this amendment); and the 15th amendment (1870) gave them the right to vote.

Blacks made up the majority population of South Carolina at the time, so granting them the right to vote had an immediate impact. In 1870, Joseph Haynes Rainey became the first African American from South Carolina to be elected into the United States House of Representatives. In office, he became a champion of civil rights (for blacks and other minorities). Another African American to break into national politics was Robert Smalls, who had been born a slave. In 1875, South Carolina elected Smalls to be its representative in Congress. Like other African American politicians at the time, Smalls made civil rights his number one issue.

There were exceptions, but most freed slaves didn’t have the education to even consider holding a public office. The majority still struggled for survival. This desperation led to the system of “sharecropping.” In this arrangement, white plantation owners (who had lost their slave labor) hired freedmen to work in the fields. The owner provided the housing and equipment (which was still left over from the days of slavery), but he paid the workers in crops instead of in money. This practice began immediately after the war, and soon resembled slavery. Nonetheless, it continued into the 1870s.

The freedom of African Americans did not improve race relations (especially when blacks had the right to vote, and were in the majority). The 1870s were marked by race riots and attacks by the Ku Klux Klan. At one point, President Grant had to declare several South Carolina counties to be in a state of rebellion so that he could bring in federal troops to end numerous lynchings and beatings.
Dirty Business
Corruption plagues Reconstruction politics

Most of the Reconstruction policies were filled with good intentions. They were designed to help repair the South and give the Confederate states a smooth transition back into the Union. Much of the Reconstruction legislature was also aimed at ex-slaves, in hopes of quickly turning these freedmen into productive members of society. In theory, the goal of Reconstruction was to bring strength and unity back to the United States. It didn’t quite work that way.

Instead, corruption and inefficiency defined Reconstruction politics. In South Carolina, the state debt tripped in less than three years, while bribery and fraud became commonplace among government officials. This proved to be the case all over the South. There were several reasons why the Reconstruction policies fell apart, especially in the uncooperative areas like South Carolina.

For starters, the politicians tried to do too much too fast. After being occupied by federal troops, South Carolina and other rebel states were forced to allow African Americans to vote for the first time. Naturally, the freed slaves voted for the Republicans (the party that had ended slavery and gave them the right to vote). When the Republicans were in power, they attempted to build new public schools, improve public transportation, and provide aid to the lower class. While these programs may have been noble, they were also expensive. State taxes had to be raised dramatically. Furthermore, most of the programs were mismanaged and ill-timed. In the years following the Civil War, the average South Carolinian was far more interested in rebuilding his burned down farm or house than constructing a new public school.

The increasing state debt, as well as the general turmoil of the Reconstruction years, enabled some Republican politicians to be less than honest. They often accepted bribes and introduced legislation only for personal gain. Nonetheless, the Republicans
continued to hold power with the unrelenting support of African Americans. In fact, many white voters refused to cast a vote at all, realizing that it was just a waste of time. Over time, the corruption and rising taxes started to breathe new life into the Democratic Party. Even African American voters grew tired of high taxes and distrust, and threatened to switch the party lines.

In South Carolina, the average white farmer had another theory for the lack of progress during Reconstruction. The Republican Party concentrated much of its energy on helping freed slaves. They did this mainly by using taxes paid by the white farmers, and often by using land and property stolen from white farmers during the war. Critics cited that the Reconstruction programs failed because they took resources from the best and brightest (the white farmers who had made South Carolina rich prior to the war) and gave them to the poor and uneducated (the freed slaves, most of whom had no formal education or training).

The supporters of the Reconstruction politics had another idea. They blamed the lack of progress on a complete refusal of South Carolinians to cooperate. For example, the Ku Klux Klan formed in 1865 with the sole purpose of intimidating the black population. For over a decade, this group used violent beatings, arson, and even lynchings to terrorize innocent African Americans. Occasionally, Ku Klux Klan members even went after the Republican sympathizers.

Most white men in South Carolina were less radical. They did not threaten the freed slaves with violence, but they did oppose giving them the right to vote. Most of the whites even favored a set of laws, known as “black codes,” that restricted the civil rights of blacks.

Regardless of who was to blame, the Reconstruction policies in South Carolina didn’t work exactly as planned. Instead of providing a smooth transition back into the Union, the decade following the Civil War was marked by corruption, inefficiency, violence, and high taxes. This all culminated in the controversial election of 1876— which you can read all about on the next two pages.
Breaking the Color Barrier

*James Webster Smith enrolls in West Point*

The United States Military Academy in West Point, New York, has a longstanding tradition as one of the finest military institutions in the entire nation. General George Washington himself chose the site for the school, which served as a fort during the American Revolution. Students were admitted in 1802 under the order of Thomas Jefferson.

During the Civil War, a number of commanders and high-ranking officers graduated from West Point. The list included Robert E. Lee, Jefferson Davis, Ulysses S. Grant, and William Sherman (see the “Side Note” at the end of the passage). While a number of noteworthy graduates passed through the halls of the university, none of them were African Americans. Prior to the Civil War, no African Americans were allowed to enter West Point.

In 1870, during the heart of Reconstruction, officials decided that it was time to open the doors of the United States Military Academy (the official name for West Point) to African Americans. Of course, it wasn’t going to be easy for the cadet who was chosen to break the color-barrier. He would have to be scholarly, well mannered, and—above all—mentally tough.

James Webster Smith fit that description. Smith was living in Columbia, South Carolina, when a northern philanthropist noticed him. Impressed by Smith’s character, the philanthropist convinced him to enroll in West Point. James felt that he was up to the challenge, and soon became the first African American student accepted into the esteemed college.

James Webster Smith knew that it was going to be difficult, but he had no idea of the obstacles that lay ahead. He was completely ostracized by the faculty, ignored by his fellow students, and subjected to endless taunts and racism. It didn’t help that Smith was from South Carolina, which had been the first state to secede from the Union and was often blamed for starting the Civil War.
The academic standards at West Point were rigorous. It was a much different environment than that of South Carolina during Reconstruction, a time when quality public schooling was rare. Rather than worrying about the school system, South Carolinians concentrated on rebuilding farms, businesses, railroads, and other property destroyed during the war. James Webster Smith grew up in this shattered world, and he tried to obtain schooling whenever he could. This was a great contrast to his fellow students at West Point, many of whom had been educated in fine boarding schools up North.

Despite the challenge, James Webster Smith refused to quit. He remained enrolled at West Point even after being ordered to repeat a year for academic deficiencies. Smith had no way to argue the claim. He repeated the year, and after three more years of hard work, West Point officials told James Webster Smith that they were expelling him for academic failure. Once again, he had no way to appeal or dispute the decision. The faculty reserved the right to do as it pleased, regardless of the actual marks that Smith was receiving.

James Webster Smith arrived at West Point a few years too early, before the military institution was really ready to integrate its student body. He did, however, pave the way for others. From 1865 to 1900, over a dozen African Americans entered West Point, though only a handful actually graduated. The change was slow, but it did occur. Today, the college does not discriminate by race, gender, or color. In 1997, James Webster Smith was finally given his commission into the United States Army—121 years after his death.

**A Side Note...**

**A Few Famous West Point Graduates**

- **Buzz Aldrin**: Astronaut
- **Jefferson Davis**: President of the Confederacy
- **Dwight Eisenhower**: World War II General & U.S. President
- **Ulysses S. Grant**: Civil War General & U.S. President
- **Stonewall Jackson**: Civil War Commander
- **Robert E. Lee**: Civil War General
- **Douglas MacArthur**: World War II / Korean War General
- **George Patton**: World War II General
- **John Pershing**: World War I General
- **Norman Schwarzkopf**: Gulf War General
- **William Tecumseh Sherman**: Civil War General
The Election of 1876

Chamberlain and Hampton hold nothing back

By the early 1870s, things had gotten out of control in South Carolina. In 1874, the state elected Republican David Chamberlain as governor, though his party was on the decline. It had been marred by years of political corruption, high taxes, and mismanagement. Chamberlain hoped to fix all of that.

When he took office, Chamberlain immediately lowered taxes and abolished several of the welfare programs that weren’t working. He seemed to be getting the state back on track, and was even winning the support of a few Democratic voters. Unfortunately, his efforts proved to be too little too late.

The 1876 election for governor pitted Republican David Chamberlain against Democrat Wade Hampton III, a popular Civil War hero. The Democrats saw the election as an opportunity to finally dethrone the Republican Party, which had ruled the state since the end of the war. In previous years, the population of freed slaves (who were given the right to vote by Federal troops after the Civil War) had helped to secure a victory for the Republicans. However, the increasing taxes and corruption of state politics were certain to make the 1876 election more interesting.

In the months leading up to the election, Wade Hampton traveled the state and criticized the Republican Party for dishonoring the South Carolina government. He was supported by a group of Red Shirts (they usually wore red shirts in defiance of the northern “carpetbaggers” who held many of the state’s political offices) who resorted to radical methods. The Red Shirts used intimidation and violent rallies to help Hampton win votes.

The supporters of Governor Chamberlain were equally as vicious. Militia units, usually made up of black soldiers, trekked...
through the state and “strongly” encouraged voters to consider Chamberlain for re-election.

As expected, the election was very close. The first count of votes confirmed that Daniel Chamberlain had successfully defended his role as governor. Unfortunately, the first count didn’t include the entire state. Edgefield and Laurens County had been overlooked, and their votes showed that Wade Hampton was the winner.

In the midst of the confusion, both candidates declared victory and accused the other side of committing voter fraud. Neither was willing to concede. For the next five months, Chamberlain and Hampton each claimed to be the rightful governor of South Carolina, and there were two separate groups acting as the House of Representatives.

South Carolina’s controversial election of 1876 mirrored the national election of that year. With political corruption as the main issue, Rutherford Hayes and Samuel Tilden each viciously campaigned for the presidency. The election was so close that South Carolina’s electoral votes determined who the next president would be. South Carolina, in a state of political upheaval, couldn’t come to an agreement about which candidate it supported. Congress had to be brought in to settle the argument, and Hayes won the presidency in a narrow victory.

Rutherford Hayes promised to end Reconstruction, as did Wade Hampton in South Carolina. On April 10, 1877, Hayes removed federal troops from the state. With those troops went the protection of the Republicans, and Chamberlain was forced to recognize Hampton as the only governor. Wade Hampton took office without any dispute from the opposing party, marking the beginning of more than fifty years of Democratic control in the state government. It also marked the end of the Reconstruction Era.
“The fair flower of liberty planted by Jefferson in the immortal declaration of the 4th of July, 1776, watered by the blood of our revolutionary sires under Washington, cannot be uprooted or smothered by the noxious weeds of monopoly and class privilege...”

—Benjamin “Pitchfork” Tillman, Populist politician

Speech, February 1896

Raised in Edgefield County, Benjamin Tillman became the leader of South Carolina’s “Populist” movement, and was viewed as a hero to the small farmer.
Chapter 6

The history of South Carolina during The Late 19th Century
Returning to Normal
*South Carolina regroups after Reconstruction*

South Carolina found itself in a bit of an awkward position when Reconstruction officially ended in 1877. For the first time in its history, the state wasn’t at the center of national events. During colonial times, South Carolina had been one of the wealthiest and most important colonies. It had hosted key battles in the American Revolution, and had been at the forefront of the states’ rights issue before and during the Civil War. Even during the Reconstruction Era, South Carolina refused to let the dream of the Confederacy die.

When Reconstruction ended, South Carolina became just another state—there were no more highly controversial issues to thrust it onto center stage. Governor Wade Hampton saw this period of calmness as a great opportunity. It was a chance for the state to get back to normal.

The first order of business was to rid the state of the political corruption that had defined the Reconstruction Era. Hampton’s supporters referred to themselves as the “Redeemers,” claiming that they had freed the state from the fraud and dishonesty of the Republican Party.

Not everyone was convinced that Wade Hampton represented complete fairness and honesty. His critics rejected the term “Redeemers,” and instead referred to Hampton supporters as “Bourbons.” This term was the namesake of the monarch family that had ruled France before and after the French Revolution of the late 18th century. The purpose of the French Revolution had been to rid the nation of the monarchy, but that cause was forgotten when the Bourbon family was put back into power.

Critics used “Bourbon” to describe Wade Hampton’s administration because they felt that, like the French, Hampton had disregarded his original cause and was repeating the same mistakes all over again.

For the first few years, the Democrats did seem to want to make true progress. Wade Hampton was extremely careful to
protect the rights of the African American population, even if his motivation was only to win the support of black voters. Hampton also wanted to avoid interference from the federal government. He understood that, if South Carolina ignored the progress made during Reconstruction, national politicians would quickly step in.

Wade Hampton even went so far as to appoint Republicans, including black Republicans, into important positions. He knew that he had to live in peace with his political rivals if the state was ever going to return to normal. Hampton’s ultimate goal was to enable the white elite to return to power in South Carolina. First, however, he had to help the state recover from the damage suffered during the Civil War years.

For the first few years after the end of Reconstruction, it seemed that South Carolina might finally have a smooth recovery. The average white farmers were much more willing to cooperate with Wade Hampton’s administration than they were with the Republicans (who had been voted in by the black population and were not sympathetic to the white elite).

Unfortunately, the peace proved to be short-lived. In the early 1880s, as the Democratic Party gained more authority, the legend of the Confederacy seemed to be reborn. The success of certain African Americans created cultural tensions, and soon racial moderation disappeared completely. Instead of recovering and moving on with the times, South Carolinians decided that they wanted to return to the ideals of the Antebellum Era (pre-Civil War). This resulted in decades of anger and frustration for the state—all of which you can read about in the next two passages.

**A Side Note…**

**Long-Live the Confederacy**

Most of the supporters of Wade Hampton and the Democratic Party were ex-Confederate soldiers. During the early 1880s, there was a rebirth of Confederate pride.

Many South Carolinians referred to the Civil War as the *Lost Cause*, and statues were erected to Confederate heroes. The birthdays of Jefferson Davis and Robert E. Lee became official state holidays. The General Assembly even agreed to provide pensions for Confederate veterans and their widows. This legendary—even holy—status of the Confederate cause helped define South Carolina for the next century.
Back to Square One
Repression of African Americans begins again

The 1876 election of Wade Hampton as South Carolina’s governor marked the return of white power into state politics. The Democratic Party kept its stronghold on the state government for the next seventy-five years. This was not good news for African Americans.

While Wade Hampton was able to persuade a few blacks to support him, the majority remained loyal to the Republican Party (the Republicans had worked to end slavery and give blacks the right to vote). During the Reconstruction Era, the freed slaves had helped the Republicans gain control of state politics. Now that the Democrats had finally won it back, they were careful not to let it go away.

At first, Wade Hampton seemed to be trying to promote racial tolerance throughout the state. This ended in 1882, when a series of new elections threatened the Democratic hold on the government. Hampton’s supporters knew that they could not prevent African Americans from voting (the 15th amendment to the Constitution protected this right), so they had to be more subtle. What they came up with was the “eight-box law.”

The eight-box law required voters to place the ballots for each different office into a different box (there were eight boxes in all). If a vote was placed in the wrong box, it was disqualified. While this rule seemed insignificant at first glance, it actually had a widespread impact. Essentially, it required that all voters had to be able to read, or else their votes didn’t count. Most of the black population in South Carolina, still recovering from generations of slavery, could not read. That made their influence in the 1882 election much less significant—and secured another victory for the Democratic Party.

There were other tricks that helped prevent African Americans from returning to power. For example, requiring a poll tax prior to an election insured that struggling blacks couldn’t
The Late 19th Century

afford to vote. Complicated registering procedures also reduced the number of black voters, as did literacy tests.

Although it was illegal to deny blacks the right to vote in statewide elections, South Carolina decided that it was acceptable to prevent them from voting in the Democratic primaries. This decision meant that wealthy white voters determined who the Democratic candidate was going to be. It was significant because the most fierce political competition came in the Democratic election—the general election was merely a formality.

After the right to vote came under attack, it wasn’t long before other rights started to disappear. This happened to African Americans throughout the South in the mid-1890s. In 1895, South Carolina ratified a new constitution that forced African American children to attend separate schools from white children, which ultimately led to the general segregation of public facilities. It even became illegal for a black man to marry a white woman. The constitution also legalized the methods used to discourage African American voters.

During this time, African American rights were also damaged by a renewed interest in the Civil War, especially in the “lost cause” of the Confederates (read about this in the “Side Note” of the previous passage). Hard feelings still lingered about the way the North had forced the southern states to abolish slavery. This frustration became even more intense when freed slaves and Republicans gained political power during the years of Reconstruction.

In a couple of decades, the Democratic control of South Carolina virtually undid the progress made by African Americans during Reconstruction. In fact, blacks had more freedom in the years immediately following the Civil War than they did at the start of the 20th century—over thirty years later. It remained this way for another fifty years.
From Bad to Worse

*The economy suffers after Reconstruction ends*

In the late 1800s, South Carolina’s past came back to haunt it. The decisions made prior the Civil War—and even the American Revolution—paved the way for economic disaster. During colonial times, South Carolina plantation owners prided themselves on their ability to turn land into wealth. Many of the early settlers were from Barbados, and they brought with them the plantation techniques used to grow sugar cane. These same techniques were used in South Carolina to grow indigo, rice, and later cotton—and the planters made a fortune.

The plantation system had one major flaw, which was not so obvious at the time. It relied on slave labor. While the slaves were expensive to purchase and care for, they proved to be a profitable (and necessary) investment when thousands of acres of land had to be harvested. In fact, it was nearly impossible to run a plantation without slave labor.

Over the years, the plantation system became more than an economic necessity—it became a way of life. Being a planter was the only true occupation for a gentleman—merchants, manufacturers, and craftsmen all had lesser trades. This frame of mind existed through the American Revolution and into the Antebellum Era, when cotton revitalized the plantations.

During the plantation days, most South Carolinians resented the idea of bringing industry into the state. Doing that would be making the South more like the North, and that was something to avoid at all costs. South Carolina had always focused on agriculture, and the people weren’t interested in any other options.

Then came the Civil War—and everything changed. As they marched through the state, Union troops destroyed the plantations. All of the slaves were given their freedom, though many had already managed to escape during the war. Homes, businesses, and farms
all suffered a disastrous fate at the hands of enemy troops. Over seventy-five percent of South Carolinians—ex-slaves included—worked on small farms, struggling just to get by.

After the Reconstruction Era, the farms slowly recovered, though they never regained the glory of the plantation days. In the 1880s, South Carolina farms were producing more cotton than ever, but the planters weren’t making any money. As the competition increased, the price of cotton decreased. Without slave labor, harvesting large acres of cotton proved to be difficult and expensive. To add insult to injury, the continued planting of cotton over the years began to deplete the soil of nutrients.

There were still plenty of resources in the state to revive the economy, but South Carolinians from them. Instead, industrial companies from the North took advantage of minerals that existed along the coastline, and large rail companies built lines throughout the state. These railroads, of course, only ran routes that were in the best interest of the northern factories that sponsored them. In the end, it cost less money to ship a bale of cotton from Charleston to New York than it did from Charleston to Greenville.

It was obvious that the best way to repair the state from the damage of the Civil War was to develop it industrially. Unfortunately, South Carolina—as well as other states in the South—had rejected the new trends in manufacturing and development that had occurred before the war, and they were ill equipped to become competitive now. With no other skills, nearly four out of every five people in South Carolina remained on the farms.

It wasn’t until the 20th century that the growth of the textile industry began to ease this devastation. The textile industry, which had been introduced in South Carolina prior to the Civil War (read about that on pages 104-105), proved to be the future of the state.

As the South Carolina farmers struggled through the last decades of the 19th century, the wealthy politicians seemed oblivious. This paved the way for the Populist movement in the 1890s, in which the small farmer once again regained political power. More about this movement—and its leader, Benjamin Tillman—in the next passage.
Helping the Little Man

*Ben Tillman wins support of the small farmer*

The legendary plantation days of the Antebellum Era were long gone. In the late 1800s, the majority of South Carolina’s farmers owned just a few acres of land and were struggling to get by. The falling price of cotton in the 1880s didn’t help matters, nor did the indifference of the state politicians. The small farmers were looking for someone who understood their frustrations, and could offer help—they found Benjamin Robert Tillman.

In the 1870s, an aggressive organization known as the “Grange” was organized to look out for the interests of small farmers. The South Carolina Agricultural and Mechanical Society, intended to promote scientific farming, also extended a hand to help the struggling farmers. In 1885, Ben Tillman spoke before these two groups at a small gathering in Marlboro County (in the northeastern part of the state). In his speech, Tillman attacked the “clueless” politicians who were unwilling to take action against the declining agricultural industry. His speech was so convincing that it immediately circulated throughout the state. In a matter of days, the farmer from Edgefield County became a political force.

Ben Tillman became a leader of South Carolina’s Populist Movement. In short, he dedicated his efforts to looking out for the “little man.” He convinced the state legislature to use money for agricultural colleges throughout the state, and this eventually helped establish the curriculum of Clemson University. As his following increased, Tillman realized that small farmers could eventually wrestle political control away from the usual Democratic “aristocrats” who held the high offices.

The Democrats, under the leadership of Wade Hampton, had seized control of the state government in the 1870s by calling themselves “Redeemers.” They vowed to “redeem” the state from the corruption of the Republicans. By 1890, the “Redeemers” were
calling themselves “Conservatives,” and they were closely guarding the power that they had gained.

To nobody’s surprise, the “Tillmanites” chose their representative, Ben Tillman, to run for governor in 1890. The campaign was a brutal one. Both the Tillmanites and the Conservatives interfered with one another’s meetings, interrupted political speeches, and constantly slandered the other party.

During his campaign, Ben Tillman announced that the time had passed for Wade Hampton (who had moved onto United States Senator after his term as governor—it turned out that he was right. Tillman easily won the election of 1892. During his term, he continued to look out for the small farmer and the “little man.” He was extremely popular among the middle and lower class whites, which made up nearly forty percent of the state’s population. Though he had never held a public office before, Tillman and his followers managed to hold onto the state’s political power for the next ten years. Tillman also convinced his followers to vote Wade Hampton out of the national senate, thus ending Hampton’s longtime influence.

Not all of Tillman’s ideas were welcomed. To raise money, he started the “Dispensary” system of selling liquor, which gave the government a monopoly on the industry. This angered many residents, and even resulted in riots in Darlington County. Because of the monopoly (meaning there was no competition), the Dispensary officers easily became corrupt.

While Tillman vowed to protect the “little man,” he didn’t consider African Americans to be part of that group. In fact, they were his largest political threat. Blacks made up nearly sixty percent of the population, and usually sided with the Conservatives or Republicans. Ben Tillman made it a point to undermine African American participation in the political process, thus helping to create a segregated society that existed until the 1960s. His administration encouraged black codes or Jim Crow laws (see the previous chapter), and was very lenient on race riots and lynchings.

In 1894, South Carolina elected Tillman to the United States Senate. He served until his death in 1918.
Not all Bad

South Carolinians enjoy life away from politics

Most historians agree that the late 1800s were a tough time for South Carolina. Cotton prices were low, the economy was in the dumps, and political turmoil plagued the state. The people of South Carolina had their share of problems, but they certainly didn’t spend all of their time worrying about them. Just like in today’s society, people living in the 19th century made sure to find time to escape from the everyday worries.

One great way to have a little fun was to play the new sport that was spreading rapidly through the South—baseball. Union soldiers brought the game of baseball to the South during the Civil War, and it quickly spread throughout the country. By the turn of the century, it was being played in even the smallest towns, and there were several professional baseball teams.

For the people who weren’t baseball fans, there were still plenty of other ways to have fun. Annual county fairs took place in almost every area of the state and, on special occasions, the circus came to town. The widespread construction of railroads enabled professional circuses, such as P.T. Barnum’s “Greatest Show on Earth,” to tour the country. Variety shows, such as the Vaudeville Theater, also took their act on the road. By the 1880s, many South Carolina cities boasted that they had their own theaters or “opera houses.”

Churches also provided a way to put the hard times into perspective (just as they do today). Many South Carolinians, both white and black, were extremely involved in the church during the late 19th century. African American families, still recovering from generations of slavery, withdrew from the churches of their masters and created their own. This helped them to build a sense of community and develop a support system.
The white churches continued to thrive, and even began to shape entire communities. Several colleges (such as Furman, Wofford, and Voorhees) opened in the mid to late 1800s with ties to the church. Northern philanthropists often donated money to help with start-up costs, enabling these colleges to seriously rival the public schools of the time (the five public institutions that existed by 1900 were the University of South Carolina, the Citadel, Clemson, South Carolina State College, and Winthrop College). Of course, as more money went to the churches, the more influential they became in local and state politics.

Even during the hardest times of the late 1800s, South Carolinians still looked forward to the holidays. Not surprisingly, Christmas was a huge holiday for both blacks and whites. During this period, Christmas started to become more of a secular holiday (complete with Santa Clause and Christmas trees) than a purely religious one. There were also holidays that are not so common today, and these differed among blacks and whites.

The African American community celebrated January 1st, not as New Year’s Day, but as Emancipation Day (Abraham Lincoln officially ended slavery on January 1, 1863). Conversely, the white population in South Carolina recognized the Confederate Memorial Day, which was celebrated with parades, speeches, and other tributes the Confederate army. The Confederate Memorial Day took place on different days in different states throughout the South.

A number of other factors changed the lives of South Carolina residents as the 20th century approached. New inventions and technology helped improve the standard of living for nearly everybody, even in the midst of economic and political struggles. For example, the telegraph and telephone were widespread by the 1890s. Even early automobiles started to appear. While the average farmer couldn’t afford these items, they did enable manufacturers and entrepreneurs to do business faster and more efficiently. This ultimately helped more goods become available to even the lowest class citizens.

Historians will always focus on the economic problems and political differences of the period, but most people in South Carolina were too concerned about their daily lives to spend all of their time worrying about that. In fact, many small farmers and business owners didn’t even realize that such problems existed.
Founding Clemson

*Thomas Clemson sets up a college in his will*

John Calhoun was such an important part of South Carolina’s history that it only made since for his house and land to be restored and protected for future generations to enjoy. His son-in-law, Thomas Green Clemson, made sure of that, and he did a whole lot more.

While John Calhoun was fighting for states’ rights in the 1830s, his daughter was falling in love with a wealthy man from up north. She was only in her early twenties when she met Thomas Green Clemson, ten years her elder. Clemson had been educated in fine boarding schools in Philadelphia, and he had been exposed to science and academia during a massive Grand Tour of Europe in the 1820s.

Despite the fact that John Calhoun was a South Carolinian through and through, he supported his daughter, Anna Maria, when she married northerner Thomas Green Clemson in 1840. The two even lived at Calhoun’s estate, Fort Hill, for two of their first five years of marriage.

Over the next twenty years, Thomas Green Clemson gained a reputation for his expertise in science and engineering, especially in the field of mining. As a member of the Calhoun family, Clemson didn’t have a choice but to become interested in agriculture as well (*John Calhoun believed that planting was the only respectable occupation for a gentleman*). Thomas Clemson took a liking to the field, studying and growing crops of his own. His interest eventually earned him the position of Superintendent of Agricultural Affairs for the federal government.

Thomas Green Clemson grew up in the north, and even lived there several years with his wife, but he obviously fell in love with South Carolina and the plantation at Fort Hill. When the Civil War came, he turned his back to his home state and joined the Confederates. In fact, when the first shots of the Civil War were fired, Clemson and his wife were still living in...
Maryland—a Union state. They had to leave their home and travel south to get into Confederate territory.

Clemson and his wife eventually retired on the plantation at Fort Hill, which had been his famous father-in-law’s home for twenty-five years. Clemson lived there until his own death in 1888. During that time, he became an outstanding member of the community. South Carolina College even gave Clemson an honorary degree for his efforts in using science to further agriculture. The college was beginning to include agricultural studies into the curriculum, though the attempt was half-hearted at best.

Thomas Green Clemson lived an impressive life—but most people don’t remember him for it. Instead, he is remembered for something that he left behind after his death. In his will, Clemson gave Fort Hill and the surrounding 814 acres to South Carolina for the establishment of an institution of higher learning. He didn’t give much explanation beyond that.

The state accepted the generous gift and created Clemson Agricultural College. The Morris Funds (money that had been used in the meager attempt to add agriculture to the curriculum at South Carolina College) were transferred to Clemson, and a legitimate agricultural college was born.

Clemson officially opened its doors in July 1893, with an enrollment of 446 young men. It remained an all-male military college for over sixty years, until it was given “civilian” status in 1955. At that time, it began admitting both men and women.

In his will, Thomas Green Clemson requested that his house never be disturbed. He recognized its historical significance, mainly because John Calhoun had lived there prior to the Civil War (including the tense years while Calhoun served as vice-president under Andrew Jackson). Even as Clemson College grew into a huge university, the house remained unharmed. Today, it is visited regularly by students and tourists, and has been restored to look just as it did during the 19th century.

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I Bet You Didn’t Know...

Thomas Green Clemson outlived all of his children. His only adult son, John Clemson, died in a bizarre train wreck in 1871. John was 30 years old and unmarried, so the Clemson name did not carry on.

Thomas Green Clemson’s daughter did have one child before her death. In his will, Clemson gave his granddaughter $15,000 and 288 acres.
The Textile Boom

*South Carolina finally gets a hold on industry*

The problems of South Carolina weren’t all physical. It’s true that many of the thriving plantations had been destroyed during the Civil War years, along with homes, businesses, railroads, and farms. But these could all be repaired. South Carolina’s biggest problem was mental.

Prior to the Civil War, the state prided itself on its agricultural dominance. Unfortunately, part of that pride included fighting off any attempts to industrialize the state. The days of relying solely on agriculture had ended with the destruction of the Civil War and the realities of the industrial age. In order to survive, the state needed to attract new industry, and thrive on it. Even if planters managed to grow more cotton than ever, the increased competition and dropping prices made it impossible for the state to ever survive on farming alone.

In 1886, the South Carolina General Assembly took a major step in the right direction. For the first time in the state’s history, they passed a general incorporation law. This was a huge deal. Prior to this point, it was nearly impossible for large companies to gather investors and get the money to build factories or railroads. This new law strongly encouraged economic development.

The textile industry was the first to take advantage of South Carolina’s new outlook. It was no mystery that the state, which still produced an enormous amount of cotton, was well-suited for textile mills. A few were even built before the Civil War, though investors had to cut through the red tape and tolerate criticism from planters. In the late 19th century, people began to welcome the textile mills, and the growth was phenomenal. From 1880 to 1920, the number of mills in the state increased tenfold. By the end of that period, nearly 200 mills were up and running.

Naturally, this was a major boost for South Carolina’s economy. The textile mills employed about 2,000 people during the late 1870s, which made it an important industry for the state.
By 1920, the number of employees had increased to over 50,000—making it the most important industry in the state.

The sudden rise of the textile industry brought with it a few problems. Most of these problems already existed up north, where most states had industrial economies. Unfortunately, South Carolina wasn’t prepared for them. The first was the rough life of the factories. The textile mills employed men, women, and children of all ages. Employees were expected to work long hours with little pay, and not much emphasis was placed on safe working conditions.

Thousands of farm families migrated to the mill towns in search of work. Those who remained on the farms felt abandoned, and the tensions started to grow. In fact, for the first time in South Carolina’s history, a large working class existed whose interests did not completely agree with the interests of the average farmer.

During the 1890s, Governor Ben Tillman became a powerful politician by promising to defend the struggling farmer. His protégé, Coleman Blease, became governor in 1911 by appealing to the plight of the struggling textile worker. “Coley” Blease used the same methods as Tillman (he blamed wealthy aristocrats, and tried to prevent African Americans from gaining political power), but his audience had changed.

The growing industry in the “New South” did not mean the end of agriculture in South Carolina. In fact, it probably saved it. By the turn of the 20th century, generations of cotton harvests had depleted the soil in several parts of the state. This happened because there was a lack of scientific farming methods. The newly founded Clemson University—a purely agricultural college (read about it in the previous passage)—helped farmers incorporate industrial advances with their traditional farming practices. Planters started growing tobacco, which joined (and often replaced) cotton as an important cash crop.

In the early 1900s, the Coker Pedigreed Seed Company opened in Hartsville (in Darlington County) and used scientific methods to develop hybrid seeds suitable for southern farmers. Their innovations became extremely important after 1910, when a series of bad storms essentially ended rice production in the state.
South Carolina on the Move

Population shifts throughout the state

A few unwelcome visitors came to South Carolina following the Civil War. Hundreds of people from the northern states came to seek profit and political power in the midst of the destruction of the war. These “carpetbaggers,” as they were known (see page 155), were hated almost as much as the Union soldiers had been.

By the 1880s, South Carolina was getting back on its feet, and the local Democratic Party had wrestled control of the state government away from the Republicans. But that didn’t stop the northerners from coming. The late 19th century brought an influx of people into South Carolina from places like New York, Massachusetts, and Vermont. These “Yankees” weren’t coming for political gain, however. They just thought that South Carolina was a nice place to live.

Most of the states up north had one thing in common—they were cold. Hundreds of wealthy northerners built winter homes in the much milder climate of South Carolina. During the 1880s and 1890s, a few cities in the western part of the state—such as Aiken and Camden—became major winter resorts. In the lowcountry areas, northerners purchased homes and land on once-thriving plantations. They turned them into hunting grounds and family retreats.

When the northerners came south, they brought their money with them. Their heavy spending was a nice addition to a struggling economy, and it helped revive the areas where they settled. Nonetheless, the newcomers weren’t always welcomed with open arms. Many of the southern farmers referred to the arrival of wealthy northerners as the “Second Yankee Invasion” (with the Civil War being the first).

Not all of the arrivals to South Carolina came from up north. Some were from overseas. During the 19th century, millions of European immigrants came to America in search of a better life.
Their reasons for coming differed—sometimes it was to escape religious persecution (such as the Jews, who were not welcome in many European nations), sometimes it was to escape hunger (such as the Irish immigrants, who suffered a terrible famine in the 1850s), and sometimes it was to find a fortune (such as the prospectors who came during the Gold Rushes of the mid-1800s).

The majority of the time, foreign immigrants simply looked for steady work, and the United States had plenty of factories to provide it. Most newcomers settled in the larger cities, such as New York and Chicago, but a few migrated south to areas like South Carolina. The textile boom of the 1880s (read about it in the previous passage) provided thousands of job opportunities for immigrants to South Carolina. Of course, the state’s residents often resented this extra competition.

While people were moving into South Carolina from other areas, the people already living in the state were doing some of moving on their own. During the rise of the textile industry, hundreds of families left their farms and went to find jobs in the mills. Textile towns started to appear throughout the state, thus replacing thousands of acres of farmland.

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\textbf{A Side Note...}
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\textit{The City of Aiken—Horse Country}

During the 1880s, many wealthy northerners escaped the cold weather by coming to South Carolina during the winter months. One of the prized locations was the city of Aiken, which turned into a popular winter resort.

The Yankee visitors came to Aiken for recreation, so they brought their favorite hobby with them—\textbf{horses}. The city became a center for horseback riding and horse racing. When the sport of polo was first introduced to Americans in the late 1800s, wealthy New Yorkers quickly brought it to Aiken. Several of the world’s best players trained in the area during the winter.

The city of Aiken is still known for its association with horses. Horse riding, racing, and training are all common activities. In fact, Aiken houses its own Thoroughbred Racing Hall of Fame museum.
Beyond Human Control

Natural disasters plague Charleston

For the last two years of the Civil War, Union forces constantly bombarded the city of Charleston. When the smoke finally cleared, the residents realized that they were going to have to repair millions of dollars of property damage. Given the vast destruction of the Civil War, that didn’t come as a complete shock.

A much greater shock came in 1886, when the people of Charleston thought they were finally starting to forget about death and tragedy. On August 31, at about 9:50 PM, an earthquake struck the city and caused millions of dollars in damage in less than a minute. Dozens of innocent people died instantly, and scores more suffered injuries from which they never recovered.

The Charleston earthquake was one of the most powerful ever to strike North America, and certainly the strongest in the southeastern United States. It’s estimated that over 400 earthquakes have hit South Carolina over the past 250 years, but most of them do no damage at all. Even the strongest ten percent of those pale in comparison to the destruction of the 1886 quake.

Because the earthquake took place at night, people initially hoped that the damage was limited to broken dishes, fallen dressers, and cracked walls. It wasn’t until the next morning that residents realized how vastly the city had suffered. Almost all buildings had some degree of structural damage, usually in the form of a collapsed chimney or a weakened foundation. Many brick and stone buildings—which helped define Charleston’s landscape—had completely collapsed.

Over the next few years, the citizens of Charleston went on a mission to repair the destruction. Millions of dollars were spent on repairing the fallen structures and, by 1890, the city seemed more majestic than ever.

It was only natural for Charlestonians to imagine that the worst had passed. They were wrong. In 1893, a massive hurricane made a direct hit on the city. Heavy storms were nothing new to the area, but this one was different. It didn’t resemble the “brushes” with hurricanes that occurred every five
years or so, or even the usual direct hits that happened about every twenty years.

The hurricane of 1893 destroyed everything in its path, leaving behind over ten million dollars worth of property damage. Even worse, it killed over 1,500 people. No other hurricane to hit South Carolina—either before or after 1893—has resulted in even a tenth of the destruction.

When the winds died down and the water receded, people saw that the damage would take years to repair. Unfortunately, they could not foresee the long-term impact. Since colonial times, many South Carolinian farmers living in the area grew rice as their primary crop. Rice had brought great prosperity to the lowcountry during the early history of the state, and it enabled Charleston to become the home of the wealthy and elite.

The hurricane of 1893 destroyed the rice crops beyond repair. The flooding did not only ruin the harvest for that year, but it permanently damaged many rice fields. It didn’t help when, in 1894, another hurricane directly hit the lowcountry. In a two-year period, the city of Charleston fell victim to a century’s worth of bad weather.

The rice crop never completely recovered. In the early 1900s, following another season of unusually violent storms, it became virtually obsolete in South Carolina. The two crops which had once brought enormous wealth to the state—rice and indigo—were now both history.

A Little Extra

The most powerful hurricane to pass near Charleston was Hugo in 1989. With winds of over 130 miles per hour, Hugo left behind 7 billion dollars worth of property damage. It was the costliest hurricane in U.S. history up to that point.

Extra fact: Hurricanes were not given names until the 1950s.
“A political leader must keep looking over his shoulder all the time to see if the boys are still there. If they aren’t still there, he’s no longer a political leader.”

—Bernard Baruch, Economist
Attributed

Raised in Camden, South Carolina, Bernard Baruch served as an economic advisor to United States presidents during World War I, the Great Depression, and World War II.
Chapter 7

The history of South Carolina during World War I, The Great Depression, & World War II
When the 20th century began, the do-gooders of society didn’t have any trouble finding a cause—there were plenty to choose from. Employees in the textile mills still had to work long hours in dangerous conditions, the civil rights of African Americans were being infringed upon, women couldn’t vote, and children under the age of ten were often sent to work to help support the family. The list seemed to go on and on.

These problems weren’t isolated to South Carolina. They existed throughout the nation, especially as the cut-throat industrial economy continued to replace the more laid back agricultural one. Whenever there were problems, of course, there were always people trying to solve them. In the early 1900s, these citizens helped power the Progressive Movement, which sought to tackle all of the serious issues at once.

South Carolina Governor Duncan Heyward was the state’s first powerful political leader to fit the Progressive mold. He entered office in 1903, and soon after passed the state’s first child labor law. It prohibited any child under the age of ten from working in a mine, factory, or mill. While that restriction might seem like common sense today, many textile mills attacked the state government for overstepping its boundaries.

As the Progressive Movement gained momentum, Governor Martin Ansel took the baton from Governor Heyward. He continued to fight the issues of the day, aiming to extend the state’s control of the high schools, thus allowing the curriculums and finances to be closely monitored. Governors Heyward and Ansel had another thing in common. Like many Progressives, they were in favor of turning South Carolina into a “dry” state—in other words, they wanted to do away with alcohol. Many Progressives felt that alcohol did nothing but cause problems in
In South Carolina, the biggest victories for the Progressives came a decade later, under Governor Richard Manning. From 1915 to 1917, a number of hospitals received upgrades, jails were reorganized, schools were improved, and workman’s compensation was created. The government built libraries, poor houses, and more efficient highways (automobiles were starting to replace horse drawn carriages).

Throughout the state, Progressives urged their fellow citizens to uphold their civic duties and help the community.

It was hard to argue with the sentiment of Progressivism—but it had its flaws. For starters, it cost a lot of money to pay for all of the “good deeds.” Progressives were criticized throughout the country for their heavy—and often careless—spending. Governor Manning created South Carolina’s Tax Commission to help pay for his projects. The Tax Commission kept a close eye on the income tax of the state’s citizens, thus preventing anyone from cutting corners or avoiding the payment of their fair share.

The Progressive politicians prided themselves on displaying the good side of government. They despised the political “bosses,” who were common at the time. Bosses were powerful men who ran the political parties, often from behind the scenes. They had a reputation for being corrupt, ruthless, and self-absorbed.

In order to put an end to “bossism” in South Carolina, the Progressives wanted to reduce politics down to the lowest level possible. Instead of having cities and towns represented from a district level, they favored the system of mayors or city managers. This kept the average citizens more aware of who was making decisions for them.
Put Down the Bottle

Prohibition laws in South Carolina

Nothing good seemed to come from alcohol. That was the general feeling during the Progressive Movement, which was powered by church groups, philanthropists, and other model citizens. These people noticed that, whenever there was a disturbance, alcohol always seemed to be nearby.

It was impossible to argue that the sale of liquor was an honest and competitive industry in South Carolina during the early 1900s. It wasn’t. The “Dispensary,” a government agency with a reputation for corruption and graft, monitored all sales. The Progressives aimed to end dishonesty in government, and the sale of alcohol seemed a good place to start.

This became the rallying cry for the Temperance Movement (an effort to ban the sales of alcohol), which coincided with the Progressive Movement (discussed in the previous passage). A number of local women’s groups spearheaded the cause by convincing the general population that alcohol was an obvious evil. This was an impressive task, especially since women were not allowed to vote until 1920.

The first victory for the Temperance Movement came in 1907, with the closing of the Dispensary. Within two years, nearly half of the counties in South Carolina were “dry,” meaning that they didn’t allow the sale or consumption of alcohol. Finally, in 1915, a statewide referendum made it illegal to produce, sell, or consume alcohol anywhere in South Carolina.

Like the Progressive Movement, the Temperance Movement was a national campaign. A few states declared themselves “dry” as early as 1905. By the time South Carolina joined the ranks, half of the states in the country had legalized the sale and consumption of alcohol. This led to the ratification of the 18th amendment in 1919, which banned alcohol throughout the entire nation and marked the beginning of the “Prohibition” period.
Prohibition had one major problem. Just because it was illegal to drink alcohol didn’t mean that anyone really stopped drinking it. Instead, it turned the average citizen into a criminal whenever he or she enjoyed a casual drink. Many prominent politicians and citizens—even police officers—later confessed that they regularly drank alcoholic beverages during Prohibition. To young men and women, banning alcohol only made drinking it more exciting. This helped define the mood of the “Roaring Twenties” (which you can read about on pages 206-207).

There was another problem. Because alcohol was illegal, it was impossible to sell it through legitimate and competitive markets. Instead, the lawbreakers got rich. Organized crime skyrocketed, and huge networks were created to distill, smuggle, and sell alcohol. The most notorious of the organized criminals was Al Capone in Chicago. Between 1925 and 1930, it’s estimated that Capone made $100 million per year in illegal activities. Unable to link him to the smuggling of alcohol, police finally arrested Capone for tax evasion.

The under-the-table alcohol market thrived all over the country, including South Carolina. Because of its extensive coastline, the state became a haven for “rumrunners” who smuggled in foreign liquor. In the upcountry, people learned how to distill their own alcohol, and had little problem selling it. Of course, homemade liquor was usually stronger and more dangerous than liquor had been before Prohibition.

In 1933, the 21st amendment repealed the 18th amendment, ending national Prohibition. Most states, South Carolina included, recognized the failure of the movement and once again allowed the sale and consumption of alcohol.

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**A Side Note...**

**Bootlegging and Moonshining**

Two common terms during the Prohibition Movement were [bootlegging](#) and [moonshining](#). “Bootlegging” originally referred to the top part of a boot, which covers the leg and not the foot. Smugglers would often hide contraband—such as alcohol—in their bootleg. The term became synonymous with the smuggling of alcohol.

“Moonshining” referred to the secret manufacturing of alcohol, which often had to be done at night *(under the shine of the moon)* to avoid drawing the attention of law enforcement.
The Wilson Connection

Woodrow Wilson’s ties to South Carolina

South Carolina didn’t hesitate to rally behind Woodrow Wilson when he ran for president. The state considered Wilson one of its own, and the people believed that he could be the first southern president since the Reconstruction Era. That might seem odd considering that Wilson was born in Virginia, grew up in Georgia, and was a professor at Princeton in New Jersey. Yet his ties to South Carolina were strong.

Woodrow Wilson lived in South Carolina for a short time during his impressionable teenage years. The future president’s family arrived in Columbia in the early 1870s, when his father accepted a teaching position at the Presbyterian Theological Seminary.

Tommy (as Woodrow Wilson was called when he was a boy) lived in Columbia for only a couple of years, but they were critical years both in the state’s history and in his personal life. During the final years of Reconstruction, the Democrats attempted to wrestle power away from the Republicans in the state government. Living in the capital city, Wilson was able to hear and read about the political turmoil on a daily basis, and he formed many of his political views during that time. Throughout his political career, he often reminisced on the years he spent in the state.

The Wilson family had left South Carolina by the time Reconstruction officially ended in 1876, but they returned on a consistent basis to visit relatives and friends. Wilson’s relationship with the state continued throughout his teenage years, until he went up north to become a college law professor.

A Little Extra

Some interesting tidbits about President Woodrow Wilson:

- **Woodrow Wilson was the first, and remains the only, American president to hold a doctoral degree.**
- **When he went to Versailles for the World War I peace talks, Woodrow Wilson became the first American president to travel to Europe while in office.**
- **In 1934, a $100,000 bill was issued for federal transactions, and it featured the face of Woodrow Wilson.**
When Woodrow Wilson ran for president in 1912, his ties to South Carolina ran much deeper than just a place of his former residence. Wilson held many Progressive views, which were sweeping across the state during the early 1900s (read about the Progressive Movement on pages 192-193).

Not only did South Carolina support Wilson’s presidency, the state also stood behind him during the tough decisions. The most important decision, of course, was whether to enter into World War I in 1917. In South Carolina, Governor Richard Manning—a Progressive with ideals similar to Wilson’s—rallied the people behind the war effort. Manning even supported the controversial draft, which required randomly chosen young men to serve in the military.

Most South Carolinians supported the war effort, but Governor Manning and President Wilson also had their critics. The most outspoken critic was Cole Blease, who served as governor prior to Richard Manning. Blease argued that the blind support of the war—and especially the military draft—bordered on treason.

As the political arguments rolled on, South Carolina did what it could to help win the war. Nearly 65,000 young men served in uniform, and an impressive seven of the 123 Medal of Honor awards given during the war went to South Carolinians (the next passage tells more about the efforts of South Carolina during World War I).
The 20th century brought with it an enormous amount of change. New developments like the automobile, public electricity, and even the radio promised to lead the world into a modern era. Unfortunately, not everyone was ready for the change.

In the late 1800s, South Carolina’s farmers were finally starting to enjoy profit from their cotton crops, just as they had during the Antebellum Era. But there was one major difference. Prior to the Civil War, cotton farming looked like it was going to be the future. In 1900, it looked more like the past.

Most businessmen realized that, in order to survive in the changing world, South Carolinians needed to welcome industry into the state. The textile mills helped to a certain extent, though South Carolina still lagged behind any northern state when it came to industrial advances. In the midst of change, many South Carolinians—if not most—wanted to have nothing to do with replacing farms with factories.

South Carolina was an agricultural state. It had always been an agricultural state. As far as the people were concerned, it was always going to be an agricultural state. Unfortunately, this reluctant attitude plagued South Carolina for decades to come, stunting economic growth until after World War II (when Governor Strom Thurmond finally encouraged industry to come to the state—read about Thurmond on pages 220-221).

Ellison DuRant Smith was one of many who believed that South Carolina needed to do everything possible to protect the state’s agricultural interests. After serving as a United States senator, Smith turned his sights on organizing the Southern Cotton Association. He became a hero to the southern farmer during the first decade of the 1900s, earning the nickname “Cotton Ed.”
With a wide-ranging support throughout South Carolina, Senator Smith became a powerful politician. His reputation soared in the years preceding World War I, and he used that influence to help get Woodrow Wilson (a former South Carolina resident) elected as the President. By focusing his attention on the poor farmer, however, Cotton Ed ignored one of the most important issues of the time. South Carolina needed more factory workers, not farmers, in order to be competitive in the changing world.

By sticking to the “old ways,” South Carolina found itself lagging behind—even in agriculture. In 1920, a boll weevil infestation struck the state and destroyed nearly half of the state’s cotton crop. The people had nothing else to fall back on, and the economy suffered terribly. In 1930, only 2% of rural farmers had electricity, and many of them were still using mules instead of tractors. Even as the technological gap grew, the stubbornness to resist change remained.

There was another negative side effect to the “agricultural mindset.” Cotton Ed Smith was a supporter of segregation, as were many who resented the changing world. South Carolina had once thrived by using slave labor, and many believed that an agricultural economy could only function when there was a heavy African American population to work as cheap laborers. As agriculture declined, hundreds of thousands of African Americans fled South Carolina to find a better opportunity.

Cotton Ed Smith did his best to guide South Carolina through the changing times by serving as a senator for over thirty years. He started to fall out of national favor, however, when he openly criticized Franklin Roosevelt’s New Deal policies in the early 1930s. The proponents of the New Deal hoped to modernize the southern states, but Smith felt that they were trying to do so from a northern perspective. He continually fought for South Carolina’s interests and, despite a controversial career, became one of the most popular and influential senators in the state’s history.
The Great War

South Carolina’s involvement in World War I

European nations were battling one another in the most wide scale conflict that the world had ever seen. As the war raged on, the United States sat across the Atlantic Ocean and tried to maintain a neutral status. Finally, that became impossible.

When Woodrow Wilson announced that the United States was entering into World War I, the nation quickly rallied behind the decision. It was too late to argue about the political details—the only priority was to win the war. South Carolina, which had loyally stood by President Wilson from the beginning, helped lead the war effort.

The major contribution of the state came, of course, in the form of soldiers. Nearly 65,000 South Carolinians either volunteered or were drafted into military service. That number would have been even higher, but the poor diet and health conditions of the state forced the military to reject thousands of volunteers whom it deemed unfit to serve. This helped many residents realize just how much the troubled economy had taken its toll on the people.

While the young men went off to Europe to fight, those remaining in South Carolina also helped support the war. The rapidly growing military led to the creation of several new military bases. In 1915, as the threat of World War I started to loom, the Marine Corps built a training center on Parris Island. The marines who came to Parris Island were given a quick—but highly intense—orientation on how to be a soldier, and then they were usually shipped off to war. Parris Island remains a central training ground for the Marine Corps. Each year, roughly 19,000 new marines suffer
through three months of intense training infamously known as “boot camp.”

When the United States entered World War I, the citizens of Columbia donated over 1,000 acres to the federal government for military use. Within a few months, Fort Jackson was complete (named after President Andrew Jackson). By 1918, over 10,000 army soldiers were being trained at the camp. Fort Jackson was inactivated for a short time after World War I, but it reopened a few years later. Today, it is still being used for military training.

Other military bases also blossomed around the state in areas like Greenville, Spartanburg, and Charleston. The continual military presence in South Carolina served as a constant reminder of the war raging in Europe. This, in turn, furthered the state’s commitment to the war effort.

A Side Note…

Corporal Stowers and the Medal of Honor

The Medal of Honor is the highest military decoration that any American soldier can receive. Amazingly, seven soldiers from South Carolina were honored with the Medal during World War I—that’s one out of every eighteen Medal of Honor awards given (impressive considering that South Carolina made up just 1% of the nation’s population at the time).

No black soldier received the Medal of Honor for his services in World War I—until 1991. President George Bush awarded Corporal Freddie Stowers, a native of Anderson County, the Medal of Honor posthumously (the sisters of Corporal Stowers accepted the medal in his honor). In 1918, Corporal Stowers served in an all-black unit when he and several other soldiers came under fire from the Germans. Stowers rallied the soldiers and led an attack on the gunners.

His squad succeeded in overtaking the German machine gun squad, but Corporal Stowers was mortally wounded in the attack. Stowers was recommended for a Medal of Honor for his bravery, but the recommendation was “lost” for several years. Seventy-three years after his death, the heroics of Corporal Stowers were finally acknowledged in a public ceremony.
A Rough Homecoming

South Carolina adjusts after World War I

The term “Progressive” inspired people in the early 1900s. In South Carolina, communities rallied to build hospitals, roads, and libraries. Citizens spoke out against harsh working conditions, child labor, and the corruption of government. When Woodrow Wilson ran for president with a Progressive platform, South Carolinians rushed to support him. The state even stood behind him through the desperate times of World War I, becoming a leader in the war effort.

When World War I finally came to an end, the people of South Carolina seemed a little tired. Most residents cared little about the Treaty of Versailles or the League of Nations that it created. South Carolina’s economy still suffered, cotton prices were still falling, and the rapid spread of textile mills were destroying the character of the Old South. In short, the Progressive Movement had lost its fire.

When it was time for the soldiers to return home from France, many of them decided to restart their lives in other states rather than face South Carolina’s decline. Over 100,000 African Americans fled the state’s rural areas, often heading north. They had grown tired of the strong prejudices, especially the sudden revival of the Ku Klux Klan in the 1920s. When the agricultural opportunities decreased, African Americans found little reason to stay.

In 1920, South Carolina proved that the Progressive Movement was dead when the General Assembly overwhelmingly voted against the ratification of the 19th amendment. This amendment gave women the right to vote, something that they had been fighting to do for over seventy years. It was also a cause that any true Progressive would have rallied behind.

The mood of South Carolina changed after World War I, and there were many who didn’t want to be a part of it. Between
During the 1920s, as the tourism industry began to rise within the state, African American developers created Atlantic Beach, South Carolina, as a resort for other African Americans. The town earned the nickname, *The Black Pearl.*

A Little Extra

During the 1920s, as the tourism industry began to rise within the state, African American developers created Atlantic Beach, South Carolina, as a resort for other African Americans.

The town earned the nickname, *The Black Pearl.*

1920 and 1935, about 80% of male high school graduates left the state in search of opportunities elsewhere. The best and brightest weren’t interested in jumpstarting the state’s economy or leading by good example. They simply wanted to live in an area that was already on the rise and full of great prospects.

Fortunately, even as people left the state, the advancements of the 1920s made life better for those who remained. The automobile enabled people to travel between major cities in a matter of hours. This led to a major tourism industry along the coast of South Carolina, especially on the Grand Strand (*a stretch of coast that includes Myrtle Beach*) and the beaches of Charleston. Citizens soon found that catering to tourists was more profitable—and much easier—than trying to make a living on the farm or in the textile mills.

The spread of mass media in the “Roaring Twenties” also put an end to much of the isolation that existed in the rural areas. As industry continued to thrive, especially with the additions of the assembly line and mechanized parts, consumer goods became accessible to even the lowest class of citizens. Major retailers, of course, were anxious to advertise these new products on the most popular radio shows (read more about the “Roaring Twenties” on pages 206-207).

While everyone was moving forward, some areas of South Carolina seemed to moving forward a little more slowly. By the end of the 1920s, less than 2% of farms in the state had electricity. Most of them were also still using mules instead of tractors. Obviously, this put them at a huge disadvantage to farms that had already combined modern technology and agriculture.

In the cities, paved roads and sanitation systems became common during the 1920s. These improvements also came to the textile towns, where the mills continued to prosper and keep the local citizens employed. In the rural areas, however, it wasn’t uncommon to see outdoor privies—or outhouses—scattered along the farms, and the roads were very rarely paved.
Mary McLeod Bethune

*Bethune dedicates her life to education*

Mary McLeod Bethune wasn’t exactly born with a silver spoon in her mouth. Instead, she was the daughter of two former slaves, the fifteenth of seventeen children, and a worker on the family farm before she was even ten years old. This was not unusual for any African American girl growing up in Mayesville, South Carolina, in the late 1800s. Rarely, however, did this sort of childhood inspire a person to devote their life to the value of education. It did for Mary McLeod Bethune.

As a young child, Mary realized that her situation was not nearly as bleak as many other African Americans living in the United States and beyond. At age eleven, she enrolled in a nearby Presbyterian mission school, with the hopes of one day traveling to Africa. Soon after, she attended a Seminary school in North Carolina. With an education that far surpassed most of her neighbors, Mary McLeod Bethune returned home in 1896 and began teaching at her old school. Over the next few years, she worked at a number of schools in South Carolina and Georgia.

By the early 1900s, Mary McLeod Bethune was one of very few African American women living in the South with a respectable education. She raised even more eyebrows when she moved to Florida and opened a school to educate African American women. Many felt that this was a waste of time (remember, women—even high-class white women—weren’t even allowed to vote until two decades later), but Bethune wasn’t concerned with broad perceptions. She believed that the only way to bridge both the gender and racial gap was through education.

Her new school didn’t make waves right away. At first, there were only six students, and tuition was fifty cents a week.
Mary McLeod Bethune

(though Bethune didn’t enforce it if parents couldn’t afford to pay). Her students raised nickels and dimes by baking pies and cookies and selling them to nearby construction workers.

The enrollment and facilities at Bethune’s school improved over time. In 1912, she received financial backing from a northern businessman, which allowed her to reach a much larger audience. At this time, African American women were perhaps the most neglected group in America—especially in the South. Bethune continued to concentrate on these young women, though she eventually joined forces with the Cookman Institute, a nearby school for African American boys. By the 1950s, there were over 1,000 students enrolled at Bethune-Cookman College. Today, over 2,500 students attend the institution.

By dedicating herself to the small school in Florida, Mary McLeod Bethune single-handedly promoted education among African Americans in the South. Her contribution to the cause went well beyond the small school. Bethune’s positive reputation prompted Presidents Calvin Coolidge, Herbert Hoover, and Franklin Roosevelt to seek her as an advisor. She helped them form policies on difficult issues such as welfare, housing, employment, and—of course—education.

In 1924, Bethune became the president of the National Association of Colored Women, and, eight years later, she founded the National Council of Negro Women. By 1940, she was the Vice-president of the highly regarded National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP). Until her death in 1955, Mary McLeod Bethune continued to promote education and deal with racial issues on a national level.
The Roaring Twenties
*A fast-paced decade full of change*

The world got smaller in the 1920s. Two key factors—the automobile and the spread of mass media—helped average people look beyond their small town borders and realize that there was an entire world waiting to be discovered. The automobile instantly turned a week’s journey into a relaxing day trip. People could travel from rural areas to the city, or from one city to another. This led to the quick rise of the tourism industry, which really took off on the coastline of South Carolina, specifically along the Grand Strand and the beaches of Charleston.

Mass media had an equal impact. The circulation of newspapers, magazines, and even radio ended the complete isolation of the rural areas. The people living in these areas suddenly had immediate access to news from around the world, and they could follow current events as they unfolded.

Businesses, of course, used these popular forms of media to advertise their products. They instantly had an audience of millions, and the timing couldn’t have been better. With the advances in production and transportation, large companies were manufacturing huge amounts of consumer goods and distributing them throughout the nation.

The mood of the 1920s seemed to reflect the quick changes. The state, and the entire nation, was swept up in an attitude of optimism—and even mischievousness. In urban areas, young men and women took advantage of the automobile, taking frequent day trips and weekend getaways.

The laws of Prohibition *(read about them on pages 194-195)* made alcohol illegal during the 1920s, but these laws were widely ignored. In fact, Prohibition only seemed to make it more entertaining to drink alcohol, not to mention producing and selling it. The “Blue Laws” that had been put on the books during the Progressive Movement of the early 1900s *(for example, it was
illegal for businesses to be open on a Sunday, which was the Sabbath) were also ignored, and usually mocked, during the Roaring Twenties.

The Roaring Twenties weren’t all about fun and games. The availability of consumer products and a newfound confidence helped raise the standard of living for nearly everyone. This gave people time for other things, such as high culture. In South Carolina, notable writers flourished as part of the Southern Literacy Renaissance. Among them were novelists DuBose Heyward (most known for his novel Porgy in 1924) and Julia Peterkin (who won a Pulitzer prize for her 1929 novel Scarlet Sister Mary). The most famous writer from the movement was William Faulkner, who grew up in Mississippi.

Art and music also thrived during the Roaring Twenties. Mass media provided an outlet for these skills, allowing them to be seen and heard by wide audiences for the first time. This enabled jazz music to jump across the color lines. Prior to the period, African Americans were the only group to extensively perform and enjoy jazz music. During the Roaring Twenties, however, the “new” sound became extremely popular among blacks and whites.

The progress of the decade also prompted a full-scale effort to improve the state’s school system. South Carolinians suffered from illiteracy, even among working members of the community. Adult education programs were created to tackle this problem. Teachers were given salary raises, and curriculums were improved for the general school system. The most impressive piece of legislature was the 6-0-1 law, in which the state agreed to finance a six-month school term if the local area financed another month. This greatly improved the educational opportunities in the poorer areas.

**Fast Fact**
The optimistic years of the 1920s were marred for South Carolina farmers by the arrival of the **boll weevil**. In 1922, the small beetle destroyed over half of the state’s cotton crop.
The Roar is Silenced

*The Great Depression hits South Carolina*

On October 24, 1929—a day infamously known as “Black Thursday”—the New York Stock Exchange started to crash. Over the next few days, many people lost their fortunes, and the nation lost its confidence. It marked the beginning of the Great Depression.

For the people of South Carolina, the Great Depression came on a little more gradually. During the 1920s, most people enjoyed a steady increase in their standard of living. This good fortune came from the popularity of the automobile, the spread of mass media, and the availability of consumer goods. By no means, however, did the hard times ever completely disappear.

A decade into the 20th century, violent storms and soil erosion put South Carolina’s farmers in a predicament. The rice crop, which had been a staple of the state from the beginning, virtually disappeared. Other crops—such as tobacco, oats, and hay—were brought in to help fill the gap. Cotton, of course, remained a vital part of South Carolina’s economy, as it had been for a century.

In 1921, the boll weevil entered South Carolina. This small insect proved to be the cotton farmer’s worst nightmare. Boll weevils fed on the cotton plant—and they must have been hungry. By 1922, the beetles destroyed over half of the cotton crop in the state. While the rest of the nation enjoyed the optimism and strong economy of the Roaring Twenties, many southern farmers still struggled for survival.

The coming of the Great Depression didn’t help. The crash of the stock market prompted citizens to be very careful with their wallets. People were hesitant to purchase consumer goods, as well as new clothes or accessories. This, in turn, put the textile mills in a jam. There was no longer a strong market ready to buy their product, and the factories were forced to lay off employees. Those that remained continued to be subjected to harsh working conditions. In 1934, over 40,000 of the state’s
80,000 textile workers went on strike in response to what they felt was mistreatment by managers.

As the economy fell apart, another major industry in South Carolina took a fall—tourism. During the 1920s, an impressive number of tourists were visiting South Carolina’s beaches. There was no reason to believe that these numbers would not continue to increase into the 1930s. Unfortunately, they took a drastic turn in the opposite direction. With the uncertainty of the times, people decided to protect what little money they had rather than spend it on a frivolous vacation.

As the fear of the Great Depression spread, all occupations shared in the struggle—farmers, merchants, manufacturers, and service providers. This caused trouble for another group—government workers. The citizens of South Carolina weren’t making any money, so they weren’t paying any taxes. This left the government without an income. Hundreds of state employees had to be laid off. The government’s debt was so overwhelming that many employees were paid off with various “I.O.U.” arrangements rather than with real money.

Since the end of the Civil War, economic struggles had plagued the southern states more than those in the north. This was still true during the Great Depression, even though the entire nation struggled. The South went from “poor” to “poorer.” As a result, South Carolina earned the unwanted distinction of being one of the most poverty-stricken states in the nation.

The main problem of the Great Depression did not have to do with money. It had to do with fear. The people didn’t know when, or if, the nation would ever recover. People were looking for a leader to calm their nerves and instill confidence. They found that leader in Franklin Roosevelt. Roosevelt offered the American citizens a “New Deal,” in which the federal government would provide more aid for their personal struggles. In short, he promised to put an end to the Great Depression (read about the New Deal in the next passage).
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The New Deal

Roosevelt promises to end the Great Depression

Something had to change. The term “Great Depression” seemed to fit the mood of South Carolina in the 1930s. The struggling economy went from bad to worse, and nobody was able to escape it—not textile workers, not farmers, not even government employees.

As the problems continued, a man named Franklin Roosevelt came along and offered a “New Deal.” Roosevelt campaigned for the presidency in 1932 by promising that the federal government would take a more active role in pulling the nation out of the Depression. He won in a landslide. The American people were searching for a way to get out of financial turmoil, and they were willing to give Roosevelt and his New Deal a try.

Upon taking office, Roosevelt quickly put his plan in action. He started a number of federal programs in hopes of creating jobs and stabilizing the economy. His number one priority was the South, which was on the verge of complete collapse. During the early 1930s, South Carolina was one of the poorest states in the nation (at a time when no state was doing particularly well).

Not surprisingly, South Carolinians widely supported Roosevelt. Senator James F. Byrnes of South Carolina became one of Roosevelt’s main followers and advisors. The press—and even Roosevelt himself—referred to Byrnes as the “assistant president.”

With Byrnes working along side President Roosevelt, South Carolina was able to greatly benefit from the programs of the New Deal. The Rural Electrification Act (REA), for example, created cooperatives that brought electricity to a quarter of the state’s farms by 1940. A decade earlier, less than two percent of South Carolina’s farmers had electricity. Construction also began on the Santee Cooper electric facility (named after the Santee and
Cooper Rivers) during Roosevelt’s presidency. This huge federally funded project not only provided thousands of South Carolinians with jobs, but it also helped energize a state where over 90% of the residents were without electricity.

Several New Deal programs directly benefited South Carolina. The Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) employed young men in rural areas to build parks and protect forests. The Public Works Administration (PWA) focused more on the urban areas, hiring workers to build libraries, courthouses, state office buildings, and other community structures. Other programs employed writers, artists, and various trades (see the “Side Note” box at the bottom of the page for a listing of different New Deal programs that had an impact on South Carolina).

In reality, many of the New Deal programs were just “make work” projects designed to keep people employed during the Great Depression. Fortunately, the nation began to recover by the late 1930s, and the fighting of World War II in the early 1940s put the economy back on track. Aside from various construction projects and other programs, Roosevelt’s New Deal had another lasting effect—it completely transformed the role of the federal government. The idea of states’ rights (the leading cause of the Civil War) virtually disappeared. Instead, people began to expect the federal government to be involved in all walks of life.

A Side Note...

New Deal Legislation in South Carolina

**Rural Electrification Act (REA)**—created cooperatives to bring electricity to rural farmers.

**Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC)**—built state parks (many of which still exist) and led other environmentally focused programs.

**Publics Works Administration**—constructed state libraries, courthouses, government offices, and community buildings.

**Federal Writers’ Project**—employed writers across the state to publish various guides and transcribe historical documents.

**Works Progress Administration**—the largest New Deal agency, created construction projects throughout the nation.

**Social Security Act**—created disability and retirement benefits, which are now commonly offered to employees.
Another World War
South Carolina’s efforts in World War II

Imagine a man born in South Carolina in the year 1900. Almost certainly, his family did not have electricity or an automobile. This man probably grew up on a farm, or perhaps in a small community near a textile mill. When he was a teenager, it’s very likely that he joined the other 65,000 young men from South Carolina and traveled to Europe to fight in World War I.

In the 1920s — known as the “Roaring Twenties” — this same man probably bought his first car and subscribed to his first newspaper or magazine. During this decade, he probably listened to the radio for the first time and, like all Americans, was amazed by a score of new inventions (electric razors, talking movies, sliced bread, etc.).

The Great Depression hit the nation when this man was in his early thirties. Along with other South Carolinians, he endured years of economic hardship, perhaps finding work on one of Roosevelt’s New Deal projects. Somewhere at the end of that decade, he and the vast majority of other people in the state brought electricity into the home for the first time.

A person born in 1900 witnessed a lot of changes and major events during his first forty years. However, that person soon experienced one more — perhaps the most memorable of all. In December 1941, Japanese forces launched a surprise attack on the American naval base in Pearl Harbor, Hawaii. This event prompted the United States to enter World War II.

As they had during the First World War, South Carolinians assisted in the war effort both overseas and on the home front. The state sent over 150,000 young men to fight in either in Europe (against the Germans) or to the Pacific (against the Japanese). Several hundred thousand more were trained at Fort Jackson, near Columbia, and other military bases throughout the
I Bet You Didn’t Know...

At an airfield near Columbia, Colonel Jimmy Doolittle selected and trained the squadron that would join him on the legendary Doolittle Raid. On April 18, 1942, Jimmy Doolittle and his men flew through the defenses of Japan and dropped bombs directly on Tokyo. This raid helped boost the morale of Americans.

Just miles from the Columbia Airfield, British Prime Minister Winston Churchill made a secret visit to Fort Jackson in 1942. While at the base, Churchill witnessed the first demonstration of a paratrooper assault that was later used by American troops in the invasion of Normandy on D-Day.

South Carolina Senator James F. Byrnes became a strong supporter and trusted advisor of President Franklin D. Roosevelt. The President appointed Byrnes to serve on the United States Supreme Court, but he resigned when the war came. Byrnes was more interested in fulfilling other duties.

During World War II, Byrnes headed the Office of Economic Stabilization and he later directed the Office of War Mobilization. Both of these positions were critical in preparing the nation for war. The construction of Camp Croft in South Carolina was largely due to his efforts.

Even after the death of Roosevelt, Byrnes remained involved in national politics. He served as Secretary of State under President Harry Truman, which made him a key player during the post-war peace talks.

World War II did not only have an impact on soldiers and politicians. The fighting, even though it was taking place over 3,000 miles away, influenced all Americans—but you’ll get to read about the role of civilians in the war effort in the next passage.
Away from the Battle Field

Civilian efforts during World War II

World War II was a modern war. It was not fought with sticks and stones or bows and arrows; instead, it was fought with guns, ammunition, tanks, and airplanes. As soldiers struggled in Europe and the Pacific, many more civilians remained in America and worked diligently to keep the military properly supplied.

While the circumstances were tragic, the industrial needs of World War II worked wonders for the economy. This was especially true in South Carolina, where economic troubles had haunted the state since the Civil War. During the 1940s, the state finally got a grip on wide scale production and manufacturing.

By this time, the idea of running an efficient and competitive factory simply by using the power of a water wheel was virtually unthinkable. Yet, South Carolina had been operating that way for years. When World War II came, the state put its newly completed Santee Cooper electrical facility to good use. Aside from providing thousands of rural citizens with electricity, the plant brought power to factories, manufacturing plants, and other businesses. This enabled the state’s industrial facilities to compete with other areas of the nation. More importantly, South Carolina’s factories were able to provide American soldiers with needed supplies during the war.

These factories, of course, offered employment to a large number of South Carolinians, which helped boost the economy. The growing number of military bases throughout the state, all of which needed to be serviced and supplied, also created jobs.

Despite the benefits of the war on the economy, South Carolinians didn’t exactly welcome the violence. For starters, there was always the constant fear that the fighting in Europe and in the Pacific would one day work its way over to America. For several years, the allied victory seemed far from secure—at times, it even looked like it might be impossible to defeat the powerful German and Japanese armies.

Along the coast of South Carolina, “blackout conditions” existed due to the threat of German submarine attacks. During these periods, all lights had to be turned off or hidden from view.
This meant that the use of streetlights, flashlights, and sometimes even headlights, was forbidden.

South Carolinians also had to cooperate with rationing efforts. Food and gasoline—important items to the military—were offered in a limited supply to civilians. Each person was allotted a certain amount per week, and the supplies quickly disappeared from store shelves.

South Carolina didn’t sacrifice alone. Citizens throughout America were called upon to support the war effort. Surprisingly, these sacrifices helped unite the nation, and led to an overall rise in patriotism. This happened for several reasons. First, the American people had a common enemy—the axis powers (i.e. Germany, Japan, and Italy). Secondly, the average citizen was able to follow the war on a daily basis. People could get instant updates through radio broadcasts, and widely-circulated newspapers carried the latest news. This immediate access to information existed to a certain degree during World War I, but was much more universal by the early 1940s.

If Americans could get news from overseas in a matter of minutes, they certainly didn’t have any trouble communicating with others who lived within the United States. Telegraphs, telephones, and radio all helped citizens rally support for the war. This use of mass media overshadowed the differences between specific states or regions, and enabled the nation to unite on one solid front.

**A Little Extra**

The soldiers who went overseas during World War II helped bring the problems of *segregation* into the limelight. For starters, African Americans and whites often fought side by side on the front lines. Secondly, when soldiers tried to cast their absentee ballots in South Carolina’s elections, they were told that they could not vote. Politicians wanted to prevent African American soldiers from casting votes, so they attempted to disallow all absentee ballots. This outraged young white soldiers, who realized firsthand the injustice of not having voting rights.
“No generation of our people ever faced greater opportunities or more solemn responsibilities than we face as we meet here today.”

—Strom Thurmond, Long-time SC politician

_Inaugural Address as Governor, January 21, 1947_

With a Senate career that lasted over forty-one years, Strom Thurmond became one of South Carolina’s most influential politicians. His protection of state’s rights, and his support of segregation, made him a controversial figure.
Chapter 8

The history of

South Carolina

during

Modern Times
The Barnwell Ring

Powerful politicians stem from Barnwell County

The size of Barnwell County isn’t too impressive when you look at a map. Nestled in the southwestern part of the state (just below the much larger Aiken County), Barnwell was strictly a rural area prior to the Second World War. That made it an unlikely area to produce some of the most powerful politicians that South Carolina has ever seen—but that’s exactly what happened.

The first to move from the fields of Barnwell County to the halls of state government was a man named Edgar A. Brown. Brown became a member of the South Carolina House of Representatives in 1920, though he moved onto the state Senate by the end of the decade. He served in the Senate from 1929 to 1972, and acted as the Senate leader (known as the senate pro tempore) for thirty of those forty-three years.

Edgar Brown had experience, influence, and respect—all of the things you need to make waves in state politics. His power only increased, however, by the rise of fellow Barnwell natives. In the 1930s, Solomon Blatt entered the South Carolina House of Representatives, and ultimately held the position of Speaker of the House longer than any individual up to that point. With the exception of one term from 1947 to 1949, Blatt served as the House Speaker until the early 1970s.

For over thirty years, Barnwell County was the home of the most powerful men in the state Senate and the House of Representatives. When these two men worked together, they had the potential to make serious changes in the state government. They both shared conservative political views, honored states’ rights, and, of course, held a soft spot for the needs of rural Barnwell County. This created a bit of controversy. For starters, many felt that the “Barnwell Ring” was too powerful. In addition, the interests of those who lived in the rural areas often differed greatly from the interests of those living in more populated areas, such as Charleston.

As if featuring the state’s two most powerful politicians wasn’t enough, Barnwell County added a few more members to the “Barnwell Ring.” Hailing from the small town of Williston, a young
A Little Extra...

Barnwell County isn’t only known for its political history—it is also famous for its Healing Springs. During colonial times, Native Americans claimed that the waters in this area had healing powers. The water was even used during the American Revolution to treat wounded soldiers!

man named Windsor Smith won the 1930 election into the South Carolina House of Representatives. Smith became the chairman of the influential Ways and Means Committee (this committee finds ways to finance the actions of the state government—usually by levying taxes).

Growing up just a few miles away from Smith was Joseph Emile Harley. Like Smith, Harley got his start in the state House of Representatives. He later used the influence of the “Barnwell Ring” to move into the state capital. Harley served two terms as South Carolina’s lieutenant-governor, and also a short stint as the governor (Harley died after serving for only four months).

Senator Edgar Brown and House Speaker Sol Blatt both held power until the 1970s, but the overwhelming influence of the “Barnwell Ring” started to fade after World War II. The decline began when residents complained that the sparsely populated rural areas were grabbing more power than the crowded urban areas. This happened because each county was given the same representation, regardless of its population. As a result, politicians in small areas held power for a long time, while cities like Charleston and Columbia were far too competitive for politicians to last through several terms. To fix this, counties were broken down into smaller political districts based on population.

The rise of a two party system in South Carolina also helped diminish the power of the “Barnwell Ring.” In the early 20th century, the most popular Democrat in the state always won the election—no exceptions. The recovery of the Republican Party eventually started to keep powerful Democrats on their toes.

The rise of another powerful politician also threatened the “Barnwell Ring.” When Strom Thurmond ran for governor in 1947, he openly criticized the corruption of South Carolina’s most influential public officials. During his campaign, Thurmond declared, “South Carolina is under domination of a small ring of cunning, conniving men.” Ready for change, the state’s residents overwhelmingly elected Thurmond to office (read all about Strom Thurmond’s controversial political career in the next passage).
Strom Thurmond  
*A controversial South Carolina politician*

In the 1830s, Vice president John Calhoun rallied the people of South Carolina and helped define the political attitudes of an entire era. Senator Strom Thurmond did the same thing in the years following World War II. The colorful senator had a tremendous impact on the state for nearly half a century. In some areas, his actions had tremendously positive results. In other areas, he was extremely controversial. At no time, however, was Strom Thurmond boring.

Strom Thurmond began his political career as a South Carolina state senator during the Great Depression. After serving in World War II, he was elected as the state’s governor. Thurmond believed in the concept of states’ rights, an ideal that had defined South Carolina prior to the Civil War. He was also a strong supporter of segregation, a controversial issue that placed him on the national scene. Thurmond felt that the federal government was overstepping its boundaries by interfering with South Carolina’s—or any other southern state’s—right to uphold “Jim Crow” laws (*these were laws that restricted the civil rights of African Americans*).

In 1948, Thurmond and other southern Democrats found themselves at odds with the rest of the Democratic Party over the issue of segregation. Refusing to give in, the southern politicians split from the rest of the Democrats and formed the States’ Rights Party. The “Dixiecrats” — as the party was commonly called — immediately nominated Strom Thurmond as their presidential candidate. Though Thurmond had no real chance in winning the election, he did receive a remarkable thirty-nine electoral votes from South Carolina, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana.

Fully supporting his notorious reputation, South Carolina elected Strom Thurmond to the national Senate in 1954. This was especially surprising considering that he didn’t even officially run for the office. Thurmond became the only person to ever gain a
Senate seat as a write-in candidate. Shortly into his term, he
resigned so that others could challenge him in a more conventional
primary. Thurmond won easily, regaining the seat that he had left
open by his resignation. He kept that seat for nearly half a century.

Thurmond is most remembered for his Senate career.
While in office, he continued to denounce the laws that ultimately
ended segregation. In 1964, he switched from the Democratic
Party to the Republican Party in protest of President Johnson’s
support for the Civil Rights Act. Despite his efforts, the Act did
pass, segregation officially ended, and African Americans gained
all civil rights under the law.

Contrary to his reputation, however, Thurmond was not
only concerned about segregation. His largest contribution
(and, in hindsight, more significant than his campaign against segregation) was
his ability to recognize the need of South Carolina and other
southern states to focus on industrialization. Thurmond worked
to help these states grow less dependent on their agricultural roots,
and more prepared to face the future. His success in attracting
industry to the area created jobs, revived the economy, and
enabled the south to compete with the already-established
industrial centers of the north.

Strom Thurmond had a few other remarkable
achievements in Senate. For starters, he served in the office for
forty-nine years, longer than any other member. He gave up his
seat at the age of 100, making him the oldest Senator in history.
During his entire career, Thurmond remained enormously popular
in South Carolina and throughout the southern states.

A Side Note…

Random Strom Thurmond Trivia

- Thurmond was a highly decorated soldier during World War II
  who helped storm the beaches of Normandy on D-Day (he was
  already 41 years old at the time).
- Thurmond protested the Civil Rights Act of 1957 by filibustering for
  24 hours and 18 minutes—the longest filibuster in Senate history.
- Thurmond was the only person to be a United States senator past
  the age of 100.
- Thurmond married his last wife when he was 66 years old. She was
  23 years old.
A Revived Economy

_Industry continues to soar after World War II_

The need to supply the troops during World War II created an abundance of economic opportunities in South Carolina. When the war ended, and the demand for heavy industry decreased, South Carolinians did not intend to revert to the sluggish pre-war economy. They planned to continue to develop the state into an industrial powerhouse.

Governor Strom Thurmond, elected in 1946, made it one of his top priorities to attract industrial investors to South Carolina (Strom Thurmond had an extremely interesting political career — read the previous passage). Under the leadership of Thurmond, who went on to become a United States Senator and a presidential candidate, the mentality of South Carolinians began to shift. For the first time, there was a widespread acceptance of industry. A return to the agricultural roots of the state was no longer viewed as the only respectable option.

Thurmond’s attempts to attract investors to the state were amazingly successful. He started by organizing the State Development Board in 1954. This office heavily recruited already-established industry into South Carolina. It wasn’t a hard sell — there were a number of obvious advantages for northern companies to move to South Carolina.

For starters, South Carolina had virtually no labor unions. These unions had plagued northern industry since the turn of the century by forcing companies to pay employees high wages (sometimes these wages were fair, sometimes they were unreasonable), and by restricting management’s ability to make quick changes or adjustments. South Carolina also had a large work force that was thankful for the arrival of northern companies. These workers were more willing to accept the offered wages and less likely to interfere in the decision-making.

The workers in South Carolina proved to be up to the task. Over the course of several decades, the state established a network of technical colleges to increase the value of the work force. This program was one of the first in the nation, and it succeeded in producing skilled workers for industrial businesses. Aside from
able-bodied workers, South Carolina also had much needed road, railway, and water systems. These had originally been established to serve facilities in the port of Charleston and to operate the network of textile mills that existed across the state. The rise of the factories wasn’t the only key to revitalizing South Carolina’s economy. The tourism industry, which began in the 1920s, flourished after World War II. This came after the standard of living improved across the nation, an elaborate interstate system was constructed, and commercial airlines were introduced (read about all of this in the next passage). By the 1960s, the beaches of South Carolina had become—and still remain—some of the top tourist hotspots in the nation.

While a number of markets drastically grew after World War II, there was one that seriously declined—agriculture. Ironically, it had once been the dream of South Carolina’s prominent citizens to ignore industry and focus solely on agriculture. After the Civil War, it slowly started to become clear that this attitude wouldn’t work. By the end of World War II, residents began to welcome the rise of industry and the reduced dependence on farming.

The transformation happened fast. In 1945, over two million acres in South Carolina were used for farming. By 1970, that number had decreased by more than half. Likewise, there were far less farmers, with more and more people finding new occupations. To put it simply, South Carolina didn’t need as many people working the fields. Increased mechanization (mainly tractors) allowed farmers to use the land more efficiently, and the introduction of fertilizers and pesticides increased crop yields (making it possible for less farmers to serve a larger group). Cotton, which had been the staple crop of South Carolina for generations, also began to decline (due to increased competition and the introduction of synthetic fibers). Many farmers left the state, especially African American farmers. Already subject to segregation and racism in South Carolina, hundreds of thousands of African Americans left South Carolina between the 1920s and 1960s.
Great Place to Visit

Tourism thrives along South Carolina’s beaches

Almost everyone enjoys a good vacation at the beach—it just isn’t always easy to get there. Since its existence, the coastline of South Carolina has always been filled with beautiful and inviting beaches. Unfortunately, prior to the 20th century, not many tourists enjoyed these areas. For starters, it was extremely difficult to get to most of the beaches in South Carolina. Because the state had very little heavy industry, there was not an elaborate railway or road network along the coast. While the historic port of Charleston had a number of railroads leading to it, it was still quite difficult to leisurely travel to the nearby beaches (many of which were on their own small islands).

For many years, these great beaches sat virtually uninhabited. Few recognized it at the time, but there was a definite potential for a major tourism industry to develop along South Carolina’s coast. One of the few men who saw this potential prior to 1900 was named F.G. Burroughs. A resident of nearby Conway, Burroughs shipped timber and other goods through the swamps of Horry County. He believed that an area along the coast, known as the Grand Strand, could easily be turned into a vacation spot that rivaled the northern resorts of Coney Island and Atlantic City. There was one major problem—nobody could get there.

Burroughs planned to build a railroad to connect the beaches of the area with the rest of the world. He began the project in the 1890s, but died before it was complete. Fortunately, his sons shared their father’s vision, and they worked to finish the railroad. The realization of the goal came in the early 1900s, as “New Town” was connected to the rest of the state. With the construction of a small hotel on the beach, the tourism industry along the Grand Strand was born. The widow of F.D. Burroughs later renamed “New Town” to the more familiar “Myrtle Beach.”

By the 1920s, people were coming from all over the state—and bringing their wallets with them—to the developing
tourist towns along the Grand Strand and near Charleston. Unfortunately, the Great Depression brought tourism to a virtual stand still. The entire population of South Carolina suffered from the Depression. Needless to say, when people have no money, they don’t take vacations.

The troubles proved to be short-lived. The efforts to keep soldiers supplied during World War II spawned industry across South Carolina, and the economy grew strong and stable. As a result, tourism returned in major fashion. The Grand Strand (especially Myrtle Beach) and Charleston became more than vacation secrets for the people of North and South Carolina. They became hotspots for vacationers across the nation.

By the 1960s, South Carolina beaches had solidified their reputation as some of the leading tourist destinations in the entire country. For the first time, many people were “discovering” what the area had to offer, but there were several other factors that brought in the tourists. First and foremost, people had more money than ever. This led to more free time, which led to more family vacations. Tourism in South Carolina thrived as a result of this improved standard of living.

Another deciding factor was the development of an elaborate interstate system. Even if people had the money, they couldn’t take a vacation unless they had a means of getting to there. The vast network of roads provided this means. The islands along the coast of South Carolina, which were once nearly impossible to reach, could now be visited in a simple day trip. The ease of transportation was further increased by the introduction of air travel. Commercial airlines began to appear in the 1950s, making anywhere in the United States—or the world—accessible to anyone willing to purchase the ticket.

The influx of vacationers to South Carolina created an enormous amount of jobs for the local residents. Workers were needed for the construction and operation of hotels, restaurants, historic sites, and golf courses. In fact, entire markets opened up as entrepreneurs found better ways to service new facilities and to manage the vast number of tourists.

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**Fast Fact**

Because South Carolina’s beaches are notoriously hot and humid, the tourist industry would not have thrived without the invention of the air conditioner (early 1900s).
Sumter and Francis Marion
The history of two national forests

A highlight of South Carolina has always been its forests. European explorers were fascinated by the different species of trees, the abundant wildlife, and the steadily flowing streams. Unfortunately, the vast majority of this wilderness has been removed over the years to gather timber, create farms, or to make room for development.

Over 600,000 acres of forests are still standing today in South Carolina, and that forest is going to be protected for years to come. This is the result of a proclamation signed by President Franklin D. Roosevelt in July 1936. Roosevelt created Sumter and Francis Marion National Forests, which currently occupy huge chunks of land throughout the state.

Prior to the arrival of the Europeans, Native Americans routinely to hunt, fish, and build villages throughout the state’s forestland. They never concerned themselves with “protecting” the areas. For starters, the population of Native American tribes wasn’t overwhelming, and the technology of the time didn’t exactly lend itself to vast development. Furthermore, most of the Native Americans respected the land they lived on, and understood that they had to care for it.

The European settlement of the state changed everything. The population of certain areas quickly went from a few hundred to a few thousand to a few hundred thousand. With that many people, it became necessary to cut down huge portions of woodlands to build farms, cities, and gather resources. By 1900, South Carolina—and other areas of the nation—had large portions of forestland that were being seriously threatened by advancing industry and continuing development. It was becoming obvious that something needed to be done.

During the first decade of the 1900s, President Theodore Roosevelt stressed the need for conservation, and specifically the importance of creating national forests. A survey crew was sent to South Carolina to evaluate the wilderness areas. The state had far more forests and undeveloped areas than other states (especially the
states on the east coast). Nonetheless, many wanted to take early precautions to insure that certain areas stayed protected.

Unfortunately, it turned out to be a little more complicated. During World War I, the need for timber and other resources skyrocketed. The desire to win the war far outweighed the desire to protect wilderness. Forests were leveled to collect timber, build military bases, and create airfields and roads. Residents agreed that the quest for a national forest had to wait.

During the Great Depression, President Franklin Roosevelt saw the environment as an opportunity. As part of his “New Deal,” he created the Civilian Conservation Corps. This program offered jobs to the thousands of unemployed citizens in South Carolina. The workers went into the deteriorating forests and stopped soil erosion, planted more trees, and controlled stream flows.

After a tremendous amount of work had gone into upgrading the forests, Roosevelt signed two separate pieces of legislation. One created Sumter National Forest and the other created Francis Marion National Forest—he signed the bills in 1936, both within a few days of one another.

As it was intended, large portions of South Carolina’s wilderness have been protected since that time. Each year, people come to camp, fish, hunt, hike, and even bird watch in the designated areas. Meanwhile, reasonable development continues throughout the state without threatening these forests.

**A Side Note…**

**South Carolina’s National Forests**

There are approximately 618,000 acres of national forest in the state of South Carolina. The adjacent map shows the location of these protected forests.
Jim Crow Rules the South

In theory, the abolition of slavery after the Civil War should have resulted in full civil rights for the freed slaves. It didn’t work that way. The first signs of trouble were during the Reconstruction Era, when Union forces first granted African Americans the right to vote. In South Carolina, the blacks outnumbered the whites, enabling them to take control of state government.

After a decade of high tension, the white Democrats finally wrested political power away from the black-supported Republicans. Once in control, these Democrats made it a top priority to keep African Americans from ever being able to regain control. They made this unspoken vow in spite of the ratification of the 15th amendment (1870), which guaranteed African American men the right to vote. The Democrats managed to confuse the voting process (i.e. literacy tests, poll taxes, etc.), thus making it difficult for African Americans to take part in the democratic process. They also found a loophole to prevent blacks from voting in the Democratic primaries, which had become the most important election in the state.

In 1895, a new constitution in South Carolina put the finishing touches on the suppression of African Americans. This constitution introduced “segregation,” or the enforced separation of blacks and whites. African Americans had to attend different schools, use different bathrooms, and drink out of different water fountains. It was even illegal for a black man to marry a white woman. These laws became known as “Jim Crow” laws (see the “A Little Extra…” box on page 102 about the origin of this name).

Over the next half-century, South Carolina strictly adhered to the rules of segregation, even as it grew out of favor with the rest of the nation. When the Democratic Party officially opposed the practice, southern politicians broke away and created their own party. Officially known as the States’ Rights Party, the members of this group were usually referred to as “Dixiecrats” (South Carolina native Strom Thurmond became a leader of the Dixiecrats, which you can read about on page 220).
By the mid-1900s, it was becoming increasingly more difficult to rationalize segregation. Blacks and whites had, after all, fought side by side in both World Wars, and many blacks had become decorated soldiers. There were also a number of African Americans who had achieved high education, owned a successful business, or held a respectable place in the community. Most importantly, African Americans had become a crucial part of the democratic system—yet they still had to sit at the back of the bus.

As early as 1896, there were attempts to make segregation more “reasonable.” The *Plessy v. Ferguson* Supreme Court case ruled that schools could be “separate but equal.” In other words, it was acceptable to force black and white children to attend different schools, so long as the facilities were of the same quality. In truth, black schools were almost always under funded, and black teachers did not get the same pay as their white counterparts.

After World War II, the African American community organized and launched a wide scale protest against segregation and other Jim Crow laws. This was the beginning of the Civil Rights Movement, which finally ended the rule of Jim Crow in the South—but you can read about that in the next passage.

### A Side Note...

**Briggs v. Elliot Supreme Court Case**

One of the most significant court cases in American history is the 1954 *Briggs v. Elliot* case, though it never achieved a great deal of national fame. This case was named for Harry Briggs, one of twenty parents who sued R.W. Elliott, the president of the school board in Clarendon County, South Carolina.

Briggs and the other parents petitioned the school system to provide the black schools with the same school bus service provided to the white schools. When the petition was ignored, the parents sued the county over the entire segregation issue.

This case made it to the Supreme Court after being grouped in with several similar cases, most notably *Brown v. Board of Education*. The *Brown* case, which became famous throughout the nation, featured a young black girl who had to walk a mile to school despite the fact that there was an all white school just blocks away. The lawyer for these cases was the legendary Thurgood Marshall (*later a Supreme Court Justice*), and the final ruling ended segregation in schools.
The Civil Rights Movement

Organized protests help end segregation

The Brown v. Board of Education ruling of 1954 was a major victory for African Americans. The ruling ended segregation in schools and, just as importantly, proved that the federal government was willing to come in and abolish the Jim Crow laws that had been widely accepted in the South for generations (read about the details of the case in the “Side Note” box on the previous page).

Despite the Supreme Court victory, the South did not immediately comply. The states were instructed to integrate their schools with “all deliberate speed.” A decade later, South Carolina had done very little to cooperate. In fact, the General Assembly created the School Segregation Committee to figure out ways to avoid the integration process.

Meanwhile, the African American community began attacking segregation wherever it occurred. In 1955, a small black woman named Rosa Parks refused to give up her seat on the front of a Montgomery city bus to go sit in the “colored section.” She was arrested for her protest, but it inspired the Montgomery Bus Boycott. For over a year, the large African American community in Montgomery, Alabama, refused to ride on public buses, resulting in a huge loss of income for the city. This boycott helped end the segregation of public transportation, but it also introduced a new leader. Martin Luther King, Jr., who organized the Montgomery Bus Boycott, became a national campaigner for Civil Rights.

Over the next several years, King and other leaders led protests, rallies, and boycotts to bring attention to the cause of Civil Rights and promote national change. In 1963, the movement fell into the national spotlight with the legendary March on Washington. Martin Luther King, Jr. topped off this enormous rally with his famous “I Have a Dream” speech.

One year later, President Lyndon Johnson signed the Civil Rights Act of 1964. This Act ended segregation in all public places.
(i.e. schools, city buses, restaurants, hotels, theaters, etc.) and it outlawed discrimination in employment. Officially, this should have ended the African American struggle for equality—but not everyone was so eager to accept it.

The southern states, which had already been instructed to desegregate schools, continued to find ways to avoid the process. In 1965, federal marshals had to be brought into South Carolina to enforce the Voting Rights Act. This act prohibited the use of literary tests and other confusing methods to screen out black voters.

Occasionally, the disgust over the Civil Rights Act resulted in violence. In 1968, the All-Star Bowling Alley in Orangeburg County, South Carolina, made national news by refusing to remove the “Whites Only” sign from the door. Even after heavy persuasion from local black leaders, and repeated appeals from the Justice Department, the bowling alley didn’t budge. On February 6, 1968, a group of black students from nearby South Carolina State College entered the establishment with hopes of going bowling.

When asked to leave, the students refused. This started a riot that left three black men dead and twenty-eight other students wounded. Two years later, in Lamar, South Carolina, a violent mob overturned a school bus in protest of integrated schools.

This put the state government in an awkward situation. Fearing that the result would be a violent protest, politicians were reluctant to place too much pressure on local governments to comply with Civil Rights Laws. On the other hand, there was an increasing demand from the rest of the nation to repair race relations, and many people in South Carolina worried that the state was reverting back to the “lynching” days of the Reconstruction Era.

The turning point came in 1970, when South Carolina’s elections were dominated by candidates who favored moderate race relations. The state’s residents were tired of violence and protest, and most finally realized that the days of segregation were gone. That same year, the General Assembly forced schools to complete the desegregation process. In a matter of moths, all black and white schools were merged with surprisingly little incident.
232—South Carolina

Educational Opportunities

Strengths and weaknesses of SC schools

South Carolina’s history has been an up-and-down roller coaster—and so has its commitment to education. Prior to the Civil War, the state was an agricultural powerhouse, and the people were proud of it. Unfortunately, most farmers weren’t concerned about sending their children to school to learn obscure facts and figures. They wanted them to grow up to be farmers, so it only made sense for children to work on the farms at an early age.

As a result of this mentality, there were virtually no public schools in South Carolina prior to the Civil War. The one exception to this was in Charleston, where there was an abundance of wealth. Even in this bustling port city, most of the elite families chose to send their children off to Europe for a “proper” education. During this time, one group of South Carolinians was always left out of the schooling process. It was illegal for African slaves to receive an education, or even learn to read, because it was feared that knowledge would lead to rebellion.

After the Civil War, there remained a lack of public schools, but for a different reason. It wasn’t that the average farmer didn’t value a formal education—he couldn’t afford it. The war left South Carolina in such a state of destruction that most people were more concerned with survival than with schoolwork. The Constitution of 1868 attempted to establish a public school system, but the majority of the state was too poor to take any real action.

By 1900, the urban areas of the state (i.e. Columbia, Greenville, Charleston, Florence, etc.) had taken the initiative to build public schools, but the rural areas were still lacking. There was another snag in the educational system. A Supreme Court ruling in 1896 allowed blacks and whites to attend separate schools, so long as the facilities and quality of teaching were the same. In reality, this “separate but equal” clause was never achieved. The black schools were notoriously under funded and under staffed.

Ironically, while South Carolina’s prep schools were lacking in both number and opportunity, the college system was among the

Fast Fact
There are currently 85 school districts in South Carolina.
best in the nation. By the 20th century, there were five public schools in the state (The Citadel, Clemson, South Carolina State College, the University of South Carolina, and Winthrop College), and a number of church colleges. Those who attended these institutions could often expect to move onto successful and lucrative careers. Unfortunately, the average South Carolinian did not have nearly the education or financial means to succeed at the collegiate level.

The true state of South Carolina’s educational system was revealed during World War I. Many citizens volunteered for the military, but had to be turned down due to illiteracy and ill-health. In 1924, the General Assembly decided to take serious action. It worked to establish minimum school standards, create a scale for teacher’s salaries, and provide more financial assistance to the school systems.

Most of the new money went to white schools, and the black schools continued to struggle. Officially, segregation ended in 1954, with a Supreme Court victory in the Brown v. Board of Education trial (read the “Side Note” box on page 229). In reality, most black and white public schools didn’t merge until 1970.

Desegregation enabled South Carolina to start over with a clean slate. In 1984, the General Assembly passed the Education Improvement Act (EIA), which was considered a major step in the right direction. This Act raised the attendance requirements of students, provided financial incentives for teachers, and increased the criteria for student graduation and promotion. It also encouraged businesses in local communities to get involved with the school system.

The South Carolina Education Accountability Act, created in 1998, furthered the goals of the Education Improvement Act. This Act focused on the core subjects (language arts, math, science, social studies), and established ways to monitor students at all levels. There continues to be a constant focus on improving education in South Carolina and the rest of the nation. In 2001, a major piece of legislation known as the “No Child Left Behind” Act was passed with the intention of making all states accountable for the performance of their students.
Start Your Engines

The history of the Darlington Speedway

Harold Brasington believed that this “NASCAR thing” might just catch on. In fact, he banked on it. In 1949, Brasington invested his fortune and reputation in the construction of an enormous racetrack, solely dedicated to stock cars.

It all started in 1933, when Brasington attended the legendary Indianapolis 500. This 500 mile race had become a longstanding tradition, and people piled into the stands (and paid good money) to watch it.

Brasington believed that the potential of car racing went well beyond Indianapolis. He had grown up in the south, where the love of cars—especially fast cars—had existed for years. Brasington dreamed of starting his own track, though the Great Depression and World War II put that dream on hold for nearly twenty years.

In 1948, another risk-taker named Bill France started the National Association for Stock Car Auto Racing (NASCAR). This car racing league catered to the average working-man, who liked to tweak his car engine and go racing on the weekends (prior to this, most organized racing was reserved for the wealthy). Brasington shared Bill France’s vision, and chose the small, textile town of Darlington, South Carolina, to build a track solely for stock-car racing. In 1950, dozens of drivers fired up their engines for the first time on the newly constructed track (the ribbon cutting ceremony featured none other than legendary Governor Strom Thurmond). Twenty-five thousand car-racing fans filled the stands—those who organized the event had expected only 10,000 people.

The potential market for stock-cars suddenly became clear. Over the next few decades, NASCAR skyrocketed as one of America’s new favorite pastimes. Several more “super-speedways” popped up throughout the nation, though the Darlington International Speedway held the reputation as being
the first of its kind. Even as NASCAR expanded across the country, there were one or two races reserved each year for Darlington. Drivers such as Cale Yarborough, Richard Petty, and Dale Earnhardt all passed through the small town on their way to victory lane.

Of course, as NASCAR grew, so did the racetracks. The original design for the Darlington Speedway accommodated only about 10,000 fans, which was not nearly enough to meet the market demands of the 1990s. As a result, two major grandstands were constructed, raising the seating capacity to 90,000. The track surface also underwent major improvements, all of which kept Darlington from becoming extinct in the sea of new competition.

Today, the Darlington International Speedway hosts a major NASCAR race each year, though it does have a few disadvantages compared to other tracks. In the 1950s, Darlington was a booming textile town located in the heart of the racing world. In recent years, the “racing world” has expanded far beyond the borders of South Carolina. While the newer tracks are usually located near big cities and popular attractions (such as St. Louis or Las Vegas), the Darlington Speedway is still in the middle of a rural area. For the most part, the textile industry has moved away, and local residents fill very few seats at the race. Racing purists worry that, without any other attractions in the area, modern racing fans won’t travel hours to Darlington only to watch a four-hour race.

Nonetheless, the future of the Darlington Speedway is secure for the moment, and its historical significance helps convince NASCAR and the fans to keep it alive and well.

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<td><strong>Darlington International Raceway Statistics</strong></td>
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South of the Border
*A tourist trap created at the NC and SC border*

Alan Schafer opened a beer stand in 1949. Its location wasn’t too special, except for the fact that it was in Dillon County and right on the border of North and South Carolina. Business was steady, but a few things happened over the next decade that turned Alan Schafer’s beer stand into a wild tourist retreat.

It started when the local laws required Schafer to serve food in order to legally obtain a full liquor license. To abide by the rule, he opened a small sandwich shop beside his beer stand. Within a few years, Interstate-95 was built directly beside his property. This drastically increased his business almost overnight.

Because the highway was new, Schafer heard a lot of truck drivers complain that there were no good places to stop off and spend the night between Washington, DC, and Florida. He decided to add a hotel to his now bustling restaurant and bar. It didn’t take long before the visitors needed a gas station, as well.

Regardless of whether it was skill or just dumb luck, everything that Alan Schafer touched seemed to turn to gold. By this time, Schafer’s property had become known as “South of the Border” — the name referred to its location just south of the North Carolina border. Keeping with that premise, Schafer built an entire tourist pit stop with a Mexican theme (*The term “South of the Border” had previously been reserved for Mexico*).

The next few decades saw the addition of several souvenir shops, firecracker stands, retail stores, and other tourist attractions. There was even a building shaped like a sombrero! When it was complete, the “South of the Border” complex covered well over 100 acres. Billboards ran up and down Interstate-95 advertising
the facilities, until it became the true definition of a “tourist trap.”
Every year, millions of people stop at “South of the Border” to pump up on gas, grab a bite to eat, or just find out what it’s all about.

Because it’s been around for fifty years, “South of the Border” has become an icon of South Carolina. Each year, tens of millions of people travel on I-95 between Florida and New Jersey. Very few of them can ignore the 250 billboards urging them to stop at “South of the Border.”
Many of the billboards feature the South of the Border mascot, Pedro. Pedro is a friendly-looking, Mexican caricature who sports a sombrero and a dark moustache. On the advertisements he makes claims like, “You’re always a WEINER at Pedro’s.”

To most people, “South of the Border” is a harmless and somewhat amusing roadside attraction. It hasn’t been without its share of controversy, however. In the early 1990s, “South of the Border” was criticized for its racy advertisements and its blatant stereotyping of Mexico. In order to avoid offending anyone, many of the billboards have been toned down over the past few years.

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<tr>
<td><strong>South of the Border</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Here are a few of the facilities you would have access to if you ever stop at South of the Border on a road trip:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Firecracker Stands</td>
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The Savannah River Site

Controversial plant fabricates nuclear material

The Cold War was an international problem. As the world’s two greatest superpowers—the United States and the Soviet Union—faced off, the specific problems of South Carolina should have seemed insignificant. However, as it had so many other times in history, the small state found itself right in the middle of world changing events.

The Cold War was defined by a growing threat of nuclear weapons. In 1945, the United States ended World War II by dropping an atomic bomb on Japan, thus forcing the Japanese army to surrender. At that time, no other nation had access to the powerful weapon. By the early 1950s, nuclear power was no longer a secret. America’s most dangerous enemy, the Soviet Union (ironically, the Soviets had been allies of the United States during World War II), was working to build its own nuclear weapons. In preparation for this inevitable atomic age, the United States decided that it needed to stay one-step ahead of all of its opponents in the field of nuclear weaponry.

To maintain the advantage, the United States needed a state-of-the-art facility to fabricate nuclear material. The government set its sights on South Carolina. The state had plenty of rural land that could hold a large factory. There were also a number of rivers and lakes for energy and transportation. Lastly, in the mid-20th century, South Carolina had its share of frustrated farm and textile workers who would be more than willing to become cheap factory labor.

In 1950, the Atomic Energy Commission announced that it was going to purchase over 200,000 acres of land in Aiken and Barnwell Counties to construct the Savannah River Plant. The purpose of this plant was to produce tritium and plutonium-239 for the nation’s defense programs. These were two of the essential ingredients in nuclear weapons.

Not surprisingly, there was a mixed reaction to the announcement of the Savannah River Plant. Many South Carolinians were angered that the national government made such a major decision without consulting the state’s residents.
Furthermore, building a nuclear plant wasn’t exactly the same as building a textile factory. There was always the potential for a major disaster (nuclear energy was still very new in 1950).

The announcement struck a few other South Carolinians a little closer to home. About 6,000 citizens were living on the plot of land where the Savannah River Site was to be constructed. These people—about 1,500 different families—were told that they had to vacate their homes over the next year and a half to make way for the construction crews. The federal government spent nineteen million dollars buying the land, and completely relocating seven small towns. The vast majority of the people who were forced to move felt that the compensation was not satisfactory.

Despite the protests, the Savannah River Site project continued as expected. In 1952, the plant employed over 30,000 workers. The employees came from across South Carolina and beyond. In fact, many of the residents who were already living in Aiken and Barnwell counties signed up for work. As a result, many in the area who had once denounced the plant’s existence suddenly became dedicated supporters of national defense.

Over the next forty years, the Savannah River Site stayed busy creating the material for nuclear weapons. Fortunately, the demand for the weapons dropped dramatically in 1991. That year, the Soviet Union broke apart, thus ending the Cold War. To adjust to the more peaceful world (at least temporarily), the employment at the Savannah River Site decreased from 25,000 people to 14,000.
A Country within a State

SC houses the Oyotunji African Village

South Carolina isn’t a huge state. With only 30,111 square miles of land, it’s the eleventh smallest state in the entire nation. For that reason, it probably surprises most people to learn that there is actually an entire country functioning within the borders of South Carolina. Of course, it’s not a very large country.

In 1970, a man named Walter King purchased a few acres of land in Sheldon, South Carolina (about sixty-five miles southwest of Charleston). He declared that the land was the new Oyotunji African Village, a completely separate entity from the rest of the United States. Walter King also changed his name to Oseijeman Ofuntola Adefumni, King of Oyotunji. The village was established as a Yoruba religious community. With its roots in western Africa, specifically Nigeria, Yoruba is a religion that combines the practices of voodoo and the worshiping of ancestral Gods.

The vision of the Oyotunji village formed in the early 1960s, in the midst of a greater national movement. African Americans across the country worked to recapture their African heritage, much of which had disappeared when the first Africans were brought over as slaves. It was believed that the harmony and confidence of the entire African American community would improve if people got in touch with their heritage. Furthermore, many African Americans hoped to completely liberate themselves from mainstream America.

In New York, many African Americans began to study and practice Yoruba, an old Nigerian religion. Unfortunately,
parts of this religion didn’t exactly fit in with American culture—particularly the practice of polygamy. New York’s officials strongly “encouraged” the Yoruban followers to adjust their practices or to leave the state. They took the second option, founding a religious community to rural South Carolina.

Upon its creation, the Oyotunji became the first Yoruba village outside of Africa. It was designed not only to be a haven for Yoruba, but also a place to recapture the living styles of Western Africa. The name “Oyotunji” was chosen because it is Yoruban for “rises again.”

Oyotunji expanded quickly. By the late 1970s, it had nearly 200 residents. The population has steadily decreased since that time, but several families still claim to be residents of the Oyotunji nation—not the United States.

Obviously, a few logistical issues arise when forming a nation right in the middle of a state. Fortunately, the residents of Oyotunji have made it a smooth transition. For example, their children attend a local school in the village, which teaches the practices of Yoruba. It also teaches the requirements listed on the South Carolina educational standards.

The people of Oyotunji have not fought against the South Carolinians who surround them—in fact, they have embraced them. The village opens itself up to tourists who happen to be crossing the state. Anyone is welcome to come in and witness traditional Yoruba ceremonies, as well as the living environment. Of course, there is a small entry fee.

Those who have grown up in Oyotunji are free to leave it any time that they want—and many have. Many Yoruban children leave when they become adults, and find work in other areas of America. Even after leaving, most continue to keep ties with the Oyotunji community and practice the Yoruba religion.
The Giant Peach

Gaffney’s famous “Peachoid” water tower

It’s hard to miss the Giant Peach. Just ask anyone who has ever driven up and down I-85 between Charlotte and Greenville. When the road passes through Gaffney, traffic starts to slow as people turn their heads to get a look at the “Peachoid,” a giant water tower shaped and painted to look exactly like a peach. It’s the roadside attraction that many visitors talk about for years after leaving South Carolina.

The history of the Peachoid began in 1980, just as the city of Gaffney realized it needed another freestanding water tower to support the city’s growing water supply. When the members of the Gaffney Board of Public Works met to discuss the issue, they decided to have a little fun with the project—and possibly convince the federal government to help with the bill. One Board member suggested that the new water tower could be an opportunity to remind everyone that South Carolina is the largest peach producing state in the south—not Georgia (as most people think). What better way to do this than to build a one million gallon water tower in the shape of a giant peach?

The citizens of Gaffney soon got excited about the new idea, and construction on the “Peachoid” began later that year. Not surprisingly, there weren’t too many steel companies that were prepared to take on the bizarre task of designing a giant peach. Bids for construction were taken, and the award was given to the Chicago Bridge and Iron Company.

Five months were spent designing and molding the steel for the project. In the meantime, workers poured a foundation consisting of 10 million pounds of concrete. When the steel arrived,
it took more than one and a half miles of continuous welding to erect it. A huge leaf—sixty feet long, sixteen feet wide, and seven tons—was added next. Even the tiny stem at the very top of the peach was eighteen inches in diameter and twelve feet long.

The erection of the steel was only half of the job. Somebody had to come in and paint the water tower to look like a peach. A basic orange wasn’t going to do the trick. Instead, over twenty colors of paint were used to represent a peach’s fuzz and natural textural. A bright green was used for the leaf, and the result was a water tower capable of catching any driver off guard.

There couldn’t have been a better home for the Peachoid. Every year, Gaffney hosts the South Carolina Peach Festival, started in 1976 to celebrate the state’s booming peach industry. The event features the typical parades, barbecues, and shows—but it usually goes a step further. In 1978, for example, residents baked the world’s largest peach pie. In 1989, a world record was broken for the number of guitarists (over 400 of them) and vocalists simultaneously performing a single song, “Louie! Louie!” In a more talented display of singing, country artists such as Reba McEntire and Garth Brooks have also performed at the festival.

Even with its interesting history, the highlight of the Peach Festival was undoubtedly in 1981, during the dedication of the giant “Peachoid.” At the time, there was no other water tower quite like it. In fact, the Chicago Bridge & Iron Company had to sign an agreement stating that it would not build another “Peachoid” for at least fifteen years. Eleven years later, the city of Clanton, Alabama, expressed its desire to have its own giant peach. At that point, the state of South Carolina decided to let the Chicago Bridge & Iron Company out of its contract so that it could assist in the project (of course, the tower in Alabama is only about half the size as the one in South Carolina).
The Hurricane is Coming!

_Hurricane Hugo and others strike SC coast_

If you’re going to live near the coast of South Carolina, you’d better be prepared for a little excitement every few years. In the past century, over fifty hurricanes have either made a direct hit on South Carolina, or have at least brushed the coastline. A person living in Charleston, Myrtle Beach, or Hilton Head Island should expect to be disturbed by a hurricane at least once every five years. That same person should be prepared for a direct hit about once every twenty years.

The truth is, nobody knows exactly when or where a hurricane is going to hit. Every year, meteorologists follow the major storm systems that form in the middle of the Atlantic Ocean. Residents of coastal towns hold their breath as the hurricane travels closer, and every “expert” starts to make predictions about where it will make landfall. Fortunately, most people are relieved when the hurricane takes a different path, or makes a last minute turn, and misses their home. Unfortunately, the hurricane does have to hit _somewhere._

In 1989, the people of Charleston never had a chance to breathe that sigh of relief. They watched as Hurricane Hugo ripped through Puerto Rico, and then turned up the American coastline. On September 21, the massive category 4 hurricane made landfall just north of Charleston. The intense winds and heavy flooding wreaked havoc in the downtown of the historic city—and it wasn’t even a direct hit. The eye of Hugo passed north of Charleston, between the small towns of Awendaw and McClellanville. Other coastal cities like Mt. Pleasant and Sullivan’s Island bore the brunt of the storm.

_A Little Extra…_

In 1953, the United States began naming hurricanes. If a hurricane is particularly destructive or costly, its name is “retired”, and never used again.

A few of the “retired” hurricanes to strike South Carolina are Hazel (1954), Gracie (1959), Hugo (1989), and Floyd (1999).
It only took a few hours for Hugo to pass through, but it didn’t end when the winds died down and the water level dropped. In fact, that’s when people actually had a chance to walk outside and survey the damage for the first time. Hurricane Hugo destroyed seven billion dollars of property, making it the costliest hurricane in history to that point (three years later, Hurricane Andrew took over the title as the costliest hurricane when it shattered southern Florida).

Statistically, Charleston is brushed by a hurricane every 4.92 years, and it suffers a direct hit every 18.57 years. While these numbers are astounding, they also show that Charleston gets off easy compared to other coastal cities in South Carolina. Myrtle Beach, for example, is brushed by a hurricane every 3.91 years on average. On the other side of Charleston, residents of Hilton Head Island can expect a hurricane to come close every 3.69 years. They can expect a direct hit every 12.09 years. In other words, there aren’t too many long-time residents of Hilton Head Island who don’t have an exciting hurricane story.

Fortunately, Hurricane Hugo remains the most destructive hurricane to hit South Carolina, and it will hopefully keep that title for many years to come. That’s not to say that the South Carolina coast has gotten off easy. In more recent years, hurricanes such as Bertha (1996), Floyd (1997), and Charley (2004) have all caused substantial damage.

**A Side Note…**

**South Carolina Hurricanes**

Here are just a few of the hurricanes that have hit or brushed South Carolina since 1950:

| Able (1952) | David (1979) |
| Connie (1955) | Bob (1985) |
| Helene (1958) | Kate (1985) |
| Dora (1964) | Bertha (1996) |
Running a State
The workings of SC’s state government

Things have changed over the past 300 years. In 1663, a group of wealthy “Lord Proprietors” — men appointed directly by the King of England — owned and operated the lands of Carolina. Unfortunately, the rule of the Lord Proprietors didn’t last long. The settlers grew frustrated by the Proprietors’ lack of concern and motivation, and they demanded change.

In the 1720s, the Lord Proprietors were forced to step down and South Carolina became a Royal Colony. This meant that the people in the area reported directly to the English King — it didn’t work so well, either. Tensions began to rise between the King and the colonists, which eventually resulted in the American Revolution. In 1776, the colonies banned together and declared independence from Britain.

The birth of the United States meant that South Carolina had to once again change the organization of its state government. The people created a constitution, and got everything in working order. Of course, they didn’t realize that South Carolina was going to secede from the Union prior to the Civil War. This meant that, when the war was finally over, the South Carolina government had to start again from scratch.

Finally, in 1895, South Carolina established a constitution that would last. In fact, it is still in use today, though there have been several changes and amendments. The basic principles of South Carolina’s constitution are similar to those in the Constitution of the United States (i.e. everyone is entitled to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness). In a way, the entire state government mirrors the federal government, though on a smaller scale.

The highest elected office in the United States is the President. In South Carolina, it is the governor. In the federal government, the Vice-president assists the President. In South Carolina, the job goes to the lieutenant-governor. Likewise, offices...
such as Attorney General, Treasurer, and Secretary of State exist at both the state and national levels.

The similarity between South Carolina’s state government and the federal government goes much beyond the titles of individual offices. The democracy in the United States thrives through a series of “checks and balances,” which keep individual politicians or offices from ever gaining too much power. The checks and balances exist through three branches of government—the executive branch, legislative branch, and judicial branch. Each branch has its own responsibilities, but it also evaluates and gives its approval (or disapproval) of the actions of the other branches of government.

Like the federal government, South Carolina uses this system of checks and balances. Its executive branch, which includes the governor, also houses various departments of government (Department of Education, Department of Agriculture, Department of Revenue, Department of Transportation, etc.). The legislative branch includes the General Assembly, where representatives meet to create laws for the state. Just as on the national level, the General Assembly is divided into a House of Representatives and a Senate.

Lastly, the judicial branch evaluates and enforces the laws set forth by the legislature. There are a series of circuit courts throughout the state, with the highest court being the South Carolina Supreme Court. Of course, federal laws and the federal courts all apply in South Carolina, but many laws are unique to the state.

Most of the offices in South Carolina’s state government are located in the capital city of Columbia. It’s difficult, however, for all of the decisions that have an impact on the upstate or the lowcountry to be made in one location. For that reason, most cities and towns in South Carolina have their own local governments. It becomes a delicate balancing act to decide which decisions and laws should be made by the local, state, or the federal government. The answer often changes depending on the situation, and there is always plenty of debate on the issue.
The Catawba Become Official

South Carolina recognizes the Catawba Indians

There is no doubt that Native Americans have played a tremendous role in shaping the history of South Carolina. Unfortunately, that role has been severely limited since the early 1800s. It was at that time that the rapidly growing population of white settlers strongly “encouraged” the Native Americans to move elsewhere. The settlers did not want the Natives to interfere with the rapid expansion of new farms and towns.

During colonial times, the most influential tribes in South Carolina were the Cherokee, Yamasee, and the Catawba. Today, the Catawba tribe is the only one officially recognized by the state. On November 29, 1993, South Carolina and the United States issued a formal recognition of the Catawba Indians, accompanied by a grant of $50 million to help the tribe with land purchases, social and economic development, and education. Make no mistake, however. It hasn’t been an easy road for the Catawba Indians.

When the Spanish explorers first came to the interior of South Carolina in the late 1500s, the Catawba Indians were there waiting for them. They had migrated to the area centuries earlier, and a strong population of over 5,000 existed when the first Europeans arrived.

The population of the Catawba Indians rapidly decreased after interacting with the Europeans. It wasn’t war that proved to be their greatest threat—it was disease. The Europeans brought with them germs and viruses that the Native Americans had never been exposed to. Diseases such as smallpox ripped through the tribe, causing several widespread epidemics. In 1690, there were over 5,000 members of the tribe. By 1760, there were less than 500.

The Catawba Indians managed to avoid extinction by joining forces with other small tribes (i.e. the Waterees, Cheraws, Saponies, Pedees, etc.). In the early 1800s, the continued expansion of settlers
continued to threaten their existence. In 1840, the tribesmen had little choice but to sign the Treaty of Nation Ford, which turned over all remaining Catawba lands to the state of South Carolina. In return, the state agreed to give the Catawba Indians a certain amount of cash, as well as set aside new land for them to resettle. The state did not fulfill its promise to the Indians.

Not surprisingly, the few Catawba Indians that remained became a bitter towards South Carolinians. In the late 1800s, missionaries from the Church of Latter Day Saints (commonly known as Mormons) came to the state in hopes of recruiting the Native Americans. The Catawba Indians received the Mormons with open arms. For starters, the Mormons had a great deal of respect for the Natives. Also, the people of South Carolina had a strong dislike for Mormonism, which only added an extra incentive for the rebellious Catawba Indians.

Ironically, the greatest challenge for the Catawba Indians came in the 20th century, after the feud with the state of South Carolina began to disappear. This new threat came from a loss of heritage. Most of the young Catawba children grew up knowing only English, and most went on to marry someone outside of the tribe. By the mid-1960s, no full-blooded Catawba Indians were still alive. In fact, there was nobody left who could speak the native Catawba language.

Amazingly, just as it had been doing for 300 years, the Catawba tribe refused to disappear. Today, there are about 1,400 Catawba Indians living in South Carolina, many of which still live in York County. The government officially recognized the tribe in 1993 after the Catawbas agreed to give up their claims of land that stemmed from the Treaty of Nation Ford in 1840.

In the last few years, the Catawba Indians and South Carolina have developed a more peaceful relationship. While the members of the tribe live and work as prominent members of South Carolina’s society, they also hope to recapture their heritage and teach young children about the long history of the Catawbas.
**Football Country**  
*The history of the Clemson – USC rivalry*

Every year, thousands of South Carolinians look forward to the coming of autumn with great anticipation. They aren’t concerned about the changing weather, falling leaves, or striking colors. There is something much more intense on their minds—football. South Carolina has a longstanding tradition of football players and football fans. It can be seen at the high school and college levels, and many of the state’s athletes have carried the tradition onto the professional ranks.

In nearly every town across the state, excitement builds around the annual meeting of two high school rival teams. This game determines bragging rights for the next year. The biggest rivalry in South Carolina—one that has lasted for over 100 years—is not at the high school level. It is between the University of South Carolina and Clemson, two teams with a long history of academics and *(often more importantly)* football.

The first football contest between these two universities took place on November 12, 1896. Both schools had been claiming for years to be superior to the other. A football game seemed like an appropriate way to decide the issue in true “gladiator-like” fashion. South Carolina College defeated Clemson Agricultural College on that day by a score of 12 to 6. The victory was short lived. Clemson won the next four meetings, and the rivalry has gone back and forth numerous times since.

When the two teams first met on “Big Thursday” in 1896, over 2,000 fans piled into a small stadium to watch the game. The rivalry became a fan favorite, and the number of spectators increased drastically over the first few decades. At the time, the game revolved around the state fair, so it was always played in Columbia near the fairgrounds. In 1959, the venue started to rotate between the two colleges, and Saturday replaced Thursday.
as game night. Today, it’s not uncommon for over 80,000 fans to fill Clemson’s “Death Valley” stadium to watch the two teams battle it out on the football field.

Like any great rivalry, the Clemson – USC match up has had its share of nail biters, and its share of blowouts. In the early 1930s, the University of South Carolina rallied behind running back Earl Clary – known as the “Gaffney Ghost” — to dominate the series. Clemson returned the favor in 1976 when its 28-9 victory kept USC from earning a spot in the Peach Bowl. In 1981, Clemson managed to hold off South Carolina and earn the highest honors in college football. The Tigers went undefeated that year and became national champions.

The Clemson – USC rivalry has especially sizzled in recent years. Throughout the 1990s, renowned coaches Bobby Bowden (Clemson) and Lou Holtz (South Carolina) have placed their teams in the national spotlight. In 2002, the two teams faced off for the 100th time in the longstanding competition (Clemson won the game 27 to 20).

There has been another interesting development in the Clemson – USC football rivalry. The intensity of the competition has spilled over into other sports. When Clemson faces off against South Carolina in baseball, basketball, or even volleyball, it is always easy to fill up the stands. Because these rivalries are so intense, they have improved the programs in all sports—not just football.

Clemson and South Carolina frequently have nationally ranked baseball teams, and the basketball teams can compete with nearly any in the country. Clemson sprinter Shaun Crawford won gold in the 200 meters at the 2004 Olympic Games in Athens. South Carolina also sent a sprinter to the Olympics. Lashinda Demus competed in the 400 meter hurdles after finishing her junior year at USC. Other South Carolina colleges — such as Furman and the Citadel — also have developed respected sports programs.
Operation Lost Trust
*Scandal plagues the state government*

In the late 1800s, South Carolina's state government was plagued with corruption. Officials took bribes, made underhanded deals, and frequently worked above and beyond the law. Fortunately, as the citizens of South Carolina recovered from the hard times of Reconstruction, they demanded that their government straighten up, as well. The 20th century began with a new respect for ethics in political offices.

South Carolina had its share of struggles throughout the 1900s, but there was every reason to be optimistic. The Civil Rights Movement put an end to “Jim Crow” laws, and the schools were integrated by the early 1970s. New companies continually moved into South Carolina to escape the heavy regulation of the big cities, and industrial development consistently improved the economy. It seemed that South Carolina had finally turned the corner.

Unfortunately, there was a major setback. While the rest of the state was making progress, corruption managed to sneak back into South Carolina’s politics. In most cases, it was relatively innocent. A lobbyist might sway a legislator on a certain issue by taking him out to a local bar and buying him several drinks. On more desperate occasions, the free drinks might give way to an all expenses paid golfing trip. Or even a trip to Las Vegas.

It wasn’t always so subtle. Sometimes, decisions in Columbia were purchased through outright bribes. Some politicians even used drugs, making themselves extremely open to persuasion. In short, South Carolina’s politics had grown out of control.

In 1989, the FBI decided to put an end to the political corruption by launching “Operation Lost Trust.” This undercover sting was designed to catch legislators in the act of taking bribes, making crooked deals, and participating in other illegal activity. Ronald Cobb was chosen to expose the dirty politicians. Cobb was a former lobbyist who had been caught years earlier trying to purchase cocaine. The FBI persuaded him to cooperate by agreeing to lighten his own punishment.
Cobb began Operation Lost Trust by arriving in Columbia disguised as an ambitious lobbyist ready to make changes in South Carolina’s government—by any means necessary. He began offering bribes to “buy” support for a new bill, while the FBI sat back and waited for takers.

In the end, the undercover operation proved that there were plenty of legislators who were willing to put ethics aside. Nearly thirty politicians and lobbyists pleaded guilty to corruption charges. Many of these charges even dealt with drug abuse within the state offices.

The illegal acts exposed through Operation Lost Trust took years to prosecute and amend. The residents of South Carolina were angered, and a distrust of the General Assembly lasted throughout the early 1990s. However, the sting operation did not necessarily leave the state with a black eye. After the corruption was exposed, new rules were created to keep government officials honest. More importantly, South Carolinians started to pay more attention to the interactions of legislators and lobbyists, as well as possible misuses of government.

A Side Note…

**Operation Lost Trust**

Below are a few of the reforms passed after Operation Lost Trust exposed abuses in state government:

- Lobbyists cannot give campaign contributions or gifts (i.e. paying for food, drinks, or entertainment) to legislators.
- Legislators have to report any business dealings with lobbyists.
- Legislators who have practiced law for an agency prior to taking office must report that activity, and cannot vote on legislation concerning that agency.
- Certain limits exist for campaign contributions, and those contributions cannot be used for personal expenses.
Today’s Politics

Current politics in South Carolina

At several points in American history, South Carolina has found itself in the center stage of controversial issues and heated debates. Fortunately, things have calmed down a little. Elected politicians still represent the state on various issues, arguing and voting in the interests of the people. It’s been a long time, however, since a South Carolina Senator has been so inspired as to beat another senator over the head with the cane (Preston Brooks did this back in the 1830s – read about it on pages 120-121).

Throughout the federal occupation of South Carolina after the Civil War, the Republican Party controlled state politics (thousands of freed slaves, able to vote for the first time, supported the Republican Party). In the 1870s, the white Democrats were able to recapture control of the state government, and they held onto it for the next half-century. South Carolina’s politics are no longer so one-sided. Both parties—Democrat and Republican—have strong representation and have ample opportunities to share their views.

It’s easy to see a healthy balance of power in the state by looking over the past twenty years. In 2003, Republican Mark Sanford was elected as the state’s governor. Sanford came into the office already carrying a reputation for cutting taxes and limiting the size of government. Prior to Sanford, Democrat James Hodges was South Carolina’s governor. Hodges won the election over David Beasley—a Republican—who had held the office the previous term.

Obviously, the people of South Carolina no longer dwell on whether a candidate is a “Democrat” or a “Republican.” In fact, there have been four Democratic governors and four Republican governors to hold office since 1970—an even split (see the “Side Note” box at the end of the passage). Each election has been unique, with the candidates focusing on the issues that seem important at the time.
In the most recent elections, South Carolina residents have favored more Conservative candidates. In 2004, the state backed Republican President George W. Bush for re-election. The people also elected Republican Jim Demint into the Senate, filling the seat left open by Democrat Fritz Hollings.

South Carolina doesn’t always favor Republicans and Conservatives, however. One politician who has helped define the state’s modern era is Congressman James E. Clyburn. A proud Democrat, Clyburn entered into politics at an interesting time in South Carolina’s history. In 1971, the integration of schools was finally becoming a reality and racial tensions were beginning to die down. James Clyburn, an African American, was selected by Governor John West to serve on his staff, and he later became South Carolina Human Affairs Commissioner.

James Clyburn retired from this position and was elected to the United States Congress in 1992. He has held the seat ever since. Clyburn has openly supported the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), and he has gained praise for being a humanitarian. Of course, his most important job is to represent the people of the 6th district of South Carolina (southeastern part of the state, including Charleston).

Prior to the Civil Rights movement of the 1960s, South Carolina was never considered to be the best example of fair play in politics. Since that time, the state’s residents have elected many African Americans to offices on both the state and national levels. Both political parties—Republicans and Democrats—also have a strong presence in the state, which creates a healthy political climate.

### Fast Fact
Congressman James Clyburn has received an honorary doctorate from over twelve colleges.
Spanish explorers land at Winyah Bay (present day Georgetown). Attempts to settle the area are foiled by bad weather and Native American attacks.

The French establish a settlement on Parris Island—it lasts only a few years. The Spanish build a fort in virtually the same area, but it also fails.

English King Charles II issues the Carolina Charter. This charter gives the American territory known as Carolina to eight Lord Proprietors (these men are chosen because they are friends of the king or have given him financial support).

The English establish the first permanent settlement at Albemarle Point. Ten years later, it is moved to the site of present-day Charlestown (just a few miles away from the original site).

Rice is introduced to the colonies, which marks the beginning of the plantation system. Settlers from Barbados, who are familiar with running plantations and using slave labor, help make South Carolina one of the wealthiest areas in the New World.

Frustrated by the growing number of European settlers, Native Americans attempt a revolt in the Yamassee War. They are unsuccessful in stopping European expansion.

South Carolina becomes a Royal Colony after the settlers become frustrated with the halfhearted rule of the Lord Proprietors. Prior to this, the province had been officially divided into North and South Carolina.
1739  A violent slave uprising known as Stono’s Rebellion takes place near Charleston. After nearly twenty slaves are killed and the rebellion is ended, the plantation owners regroup to establish more control over the slaves. A series of Black Codes are created to limit the rights of slaves.

1754  The French and Indian War begins in the colonies. In South Carolina, most of the violence occurs when Cherokee Indians attack white settlers. In the northern parts of the nation, English and American troops battle French soldiers and Native Americans.

1776  On June 28th, the fighting of the American Revolution comes to South Carolina through Sullivan’s Island. British troops attack Fort Moultrie, and the South Carolinians courageously ward them off. This victory is a major confidence builder for the American troops (palmetto logs are used to defend the fort, inspiring the palmetto tree on the South Carolina flag).

1780-1781  The Southern Campaign of the American Revolution is fought in South Carolina. It begins with the siege of Charleston in 1780. When the city falls, the British successfully march across the state until American victories at the Battle of Kings Mountain and the Battle of Cowpens. These battles shift the momentum, thus marking the beginning of the end for the British in the war.

1788  On May 23rd, South Carolina ratifies the Federal Constitution, becoming the eighth state to enter the United States of America.

1811  Newly elected Congressman and South Carolina native John Calhoun begins to support going to war with the British. This leads to the War of 1812. Calhoun earns a reputation as a War Hawk, and becomes respected on the national political scene.
Early 1800s  South Carolina’s plantation system continues to thrive during the Antebellum Era. Working as a planter or farmer is considered the most respectable occupation. Cotton replaces rice and indigo as the major cash crop.

1832  The South Carolina legislature issues the Ordinance of Nullification, which declares certain national tariffs to be null and void. This results in a showdown between the federal government (which feels that South Carolina is trying to destroy the Union) and the state government (which feels that the federal government has abused its authority). In the end, a compromise is reached and both sides declare victory.

1845  William Gregg builds a textile mill in South Carolina near Aiken. Over the next century, the textile industry becomes a huge part of South Carolina’s economy. When agricultural workers suffer through hard times after the Civil War, thousands leave the farms to find work in the mills.

1860  On December 20th, South Carolina issues the Ordinance of Secession, becoming the first state to break from the Union prior to the Civil War. The decision is made in response to the election of President Abraham Lincoln, though tensions over state’s rights and slavery have been building for years.

1861  On April 12th, Fort Sumter is fired upon by the Confederates. This marks the beginning of the Civil War.

1864-1865  After four years of brutal fighting, General William Sherman breaks the back of the South by marching his army through towns and cities. He destroys everything in his path (i.e. homes, plantations, offices, railroads, livestock, etc.). On February 18th, he burns Columbia to the ground. On April 9th, General Robert E. Lee surrenders the Confederate Army to Union General Ulysses S. Grant.
After the devastation of the Civil War, South Carolina struggles through the Reconstruction Period. Aside from the death of thousands of soldiers on the battlefield, residents also have to deal with the ruins of houses, farms, plantations, businesses, and railroads. The morale of the state is extremely low. Federal troops remain within South Carolina and extend the right to vote to freed slaves. This creates violent racial tensions.

In a controversial election, Wade Hampton and Daniel Chamberlain both declare themselves to be the rightful governor of South Carolina. Eventually, President Rutherford B. Hayes steps in to declare Hampton the winner. This marks the end of Reconstruction and a return of power for the Democratic Party.

After the Democratic Party returns to power, measures are taken to restrict the freedom of African Americans (which make up the majority of South Carolina’s population). A major effort is made to confuse voting procedures, which prevents a high number of illiterate African Americans from voting. South Carolina approves a constitution in 1895 that favors Jim Crow laws (legal restrictions on African Americans).

“Pitchfork” Ben Tillman is elected governor of South Carolina. As the leader of the Populist Movement, Tillman breaks the chain of “elite” rule in South Carolina politics. He is seen as a champion of the small farmer.

South Carolina joins the rest of the nation in the Progressive Movement, which pushes for social reform. Governor Richard Manning defines the movement in the mid-1910s.
South Carolina supports the war effort in World War I. Nearly 65,000 residents serve in uniform, though the state’s main contribution is probably the establishment of several military bases. South Carolinians also support their one-time resident, President Woodrow Wilson.

During the Roaring Twenties, the nation benefits from the spread of mass media, the automobile, and economic prosperity. Unfortunately, many South Carolinians do not get to enjoy the prosperous times. The boll weevil (a small insect) destroys nearly half of the state’s cotton crop in 1922, thus devastating the economy. Any hopes of a quick recovery are halted by the Great Depression of the early 1930s. South Carolina supports the 1932 election of Franklin Roosevelt, whose New Deal legislation helps revive the state’s economy.

South Carolinians once again rally to support the war effort. Nearly 150,000 residents fight in Europe or in the Pacific during World War II. South Carolina military bases are used to full capacity.

Strom Thurmond enters South Carolina politics. After being elected governor, he is nominated as a presidential candidate for the Dixiecrat Party (the party is established to defend state’s rights and protect the laws of segregation). In 1954, Thurmond is elected to the Senate as a write-in candidate. He serves as a senator for nearly 50 years. While Strom Thurmond becomes a widely respected politician, his strong views supporting segregation make him controversial.

South Carolina makes national news during the Cold War when the Savannah River Plant is built near Aiken. The plant is part of the Atomic Energy Commission, and is designed to fabricate material used in nuclear weapons.
1954 The *Briggs vs. Elliot* case begins in South Carolina to oppose the laws of segregation. The case is combined with similar cases, and taken to the Supreme Court. It becomes a key element in the *Brown vs. Board of Education* ruling that ends segregation in public schools. Unfortunately, South Carolina’s schools do not become fully integrated until the 1970s.

1960s The major issue in South Carolina becomes the quality of the public education system. Steps are taken to integrate the public schools, and grants are provided to improve overall education. Huge improvements are made, though progress often seems slow. Today, South Carolina is still below the national averages in academic performance, but the public school systems continue to improve and make proper adjustments.

1989 *Hurricane Hugo* makes a direct hit just north of Charleston. Dozens of people are killed by the storm, and nearly seven billion dollars of property is destroyed. At the time, it is the costliest hurricane to hit the nation (*Hurricane Andrew surpasses the record when it hits southern Florida in 1993*).

1990 The FBI launches *Operation Lost Trust* to expose corruption in South Carolina’s state government. Nearly thirty legislators and lobbyists plead guilty to bribery, drugs, and other offenses. The result of the controversy is a widespread movement to clean up the state government.

1995 *The Citadel* makes national headlines when it accepts Shannon Faulkner as a new cadet. She becomes the first female to enter the previously all-male military college.

2002 The ongoing *Clemson / University of South Carolina* rivalry is highlighted when the 100th football game is played between the two colleges. Clemson edges out USC by a score of 27 to 20.
James Butler Bonham  Defender of the Alamo. Bonham was enrolled in South Carolina College in the 1820s, but was expelled for leading the senior class in a rebellion against school authorities. He traveled to Texas to join in the territory’s fight for independence from Mexico. In March 1836, Bonham became one of the last men to join the fight against Mexican troops at the Alamo, where he lost his life.

Mary Chestnut  Civil War diarist, born in Statesboro, SC. As the daughter of a South Carolina governor and the wife of a general, Mary Chestnut had a front row seat to the fighting of the Civil War. She recorded her experiences in a detailed diary, which is now considered the finest literary work of the Confederacy.

Henry Laurens  Patriot, born in Charleston, SC. Laurens served briefly as the President of the Continental Congress in 1777, and became a prized target for the British. He was captured in 1780 and held in the Tower of London. After the war, the American troops refused to turn over Lord Cornwallis until Laurens was set free.

Francis Marion  Soldier, born near Georgetown, SC. Marion was nicknamed the “Swamp Fox” because of his guerrilla tactics during the American Revolution. His ability to frustrate and maneuver around the British proved vital to America’s victory in the war.
Thomas Sumter  Soldier. Known as the “Gamecock,” Sumter proved to be a vicious military commander during the American Revolution, and he was a key part of the colonist victory.

William Barret Travis  Soldier, raised in Saluda, SC. While he was still in his twenties, Travis left South Carolina to join the Texans in their fight for independence. He became a military commander, and is best remembered for leading the Texan troops in the Battle of the Alamo. Travis was killed in the battle, as were the 180 other soldiers who fought at the Alamo.

William Westmoreland  Military commander, born in Spartanburg, SC. Westmoreland underwent national scrutiny as the commander of military forces in Vietnam from 1964 to 1968. His military strategy was often hindered by politics. Later, he served as the Army’s Chief of Staff.

Politics

Edgar A. Brown  State politician. In the 1920s, Brown became part of the “Barnwell Ring,” a group of powerful politicians from Barnwell County. He served in the state legislature for nearly fifty years, and built an impressive record. Among other accomplishments, Brown is credited with improving South Carolina’s highway and education systems.

John C. Calhoun  Politician, born in Abbeville, SC. A firm believer in state’s rights, Calhoun defined the attitude of South Carolina prior to the Civil War. He served as vice-president under Andrew Jackson, though the two were political enemies. The Nullification Crisis of 1832, in which South Carolina ignored a tariff passed by the Federal government, highlighted Calhoun’s career. This event paved the way for South Carolina’s secession from the Union nearly thirty years later.
William Henry Drayton  Political leader. Drayton was a wealthy plantation owner who became one of the leading political thinkers during the American Revolution. He helped write South Carolina’s constitution in 1778, and represented the state at the Constitutional Congress from 1778 to 1779.

Thomas Heyward  Statesman. In 1775, Heyward was elected to represent South Carolina at the Continental Congress, where he signed the Declaration of Independence. He was later captured by the British and, after being released, served as a South Carolina judge.

Andrew Jackson  American President, born on the Waxhaw Indian settlement. Both North and South Carolina claim Andrew Jackson as a native (he was born on the border of the two states). Jackson was the seventh president of the United States, serving from 1828 to 1836.

Thomas Lynch  Politician. As a member of the Continental Congress, Lynch signed the Declaration of Independence at the age of 26. He became sick shortly after, and died just one year later.

Arthur Middleton  Statesman, born near Charleston, SC. Several men in Arthur Middleton’s family were prominent citizens and important to South Carolina’s development. He carried on the family tradition by signing the Declaration of Independence in 1776.

Charles Pinckney  Statesman, born in Charleston, SC. As a young man, Pinckney became a hero in the American Revolution. He was only 27 when he was selected as a delegate to the Constitutional Convention, but Pinckney played a key role in framing the historical document.

Charles C. Pinckney  Statesman. Charles Cotesworth Pinckney was one of four men during the Revolutionary years to share the name “Charles Pinckney” (they were all related). He joined his cousin—Charles Pinckney—in signing the Constitution.
Edward Rutledge  Statesman, born in Charleston, SC. Following in the political footsteps of his older brother, John, Edward Rutledge signed the Declaration of Independence.

John Rutledge  Statesman, born in Charleston, SC. Rutledge may have been South Carolina’s leading patriot during the American Revolution. He left the Continental Congress in 1776 to serve as South Carolina’s president, and guided the actions of the state throughout the war.

Strom Thurmond  Politician, born in Edgefield, SC. Thurmond was elected as South Carolina’s governor in 1947. He then became the national candidate for the Dixiecrat Party (the party defended state’s rights and the laws of segregation), and was elected to the U.S. Senate in 1954 as a write in candidate. Thurmond served as senator for nearly 50 years. His support of segregation made him a controversial figure.

Civil Rights & Social Issues

Mary McLeod Bethune  Educator, born in Mayesville, SC. In the early 1900s, Bethune started a school for African American girls, and later became a national spokesperson and presidential advisor on education and other social issues.

Jesse Jackson  Reverend and political activist, born in Greenville. Reverend Jesse Jackson gained national attention during the Civil Rights movement in the 1960s. Since that time, he has continued to battle social issues, specifically focusing on African Americans.

Charlayne Hunter-Gault  Journalist, born in Due West, SC. In 1962, Charlayne Hunter-Gault became the first African American woman to be admitted to and to graduate from the University of Georgia. She majored in journalism, and eventually became a news correspondent for CNN.
Bill Anderson  
*Songwriter, born in Columbia, SC.*

“Whispering” Bill Anderson is one of country music’s most successful songwriters. He wrote a string of number one hits in the 1970s, and his services have been requested in more recent years with the rise of country music radio.

Joe Frazier  
*Professional boxer, born in Beaufort, SC.*  
After capturing the Olympic gold medal in 1964, Frazier went on to have a sensational pro boxing career. He is most remembered for battling Muhammad Ali for the heavyweight title on several different occasions.

Peter Boulware  
*Professional football player, born in Columbia, SC, graduated from Spring Valley High School.*

After a stellar high school career, Boulware went to play football at Florida State University. He was picked in the first round of the 1997 NFL draft, and has enjoyed a spectacular career with the Baltimore Ravens.

Beth Daniel  
*Professional golfer, born in Charleston, SC.*  
After joining the LPGA tour in 1979, Daniel became only the third woman to make over five million dollars in earnings. Her golf career spans over thirty years.

James Dickey  
*Novelist and Poet.*  
Dickey first achieved national fame as a poet, but he is perhaps most remembered for his 1970 novel, *Deliverance*, which was made into a blockbuster movie.

Alex English  
*Professional basketball player, born in Columbia, SC, and graduate of Dreher High School.*

Playing for the Denver Nuggets, English was one of the NBA’s best scorers during the 1980s. He was selected to eight straight All-Star games.
Kevin Garnett  Professional basketball player, raised in Mauldin, SC. Garnett turned several heads in 1995 when he jumped straight from high school to the NBA. He has since become an All-Star in the competitive league, and was named as MVP for the 2004 season.

“Shoeless” Joe Jackson  Professional baseball player, born in Brandon Mills, SC. Jackson was a dominant baseball player in the 1910s. He became a controversial figure when he was accused of throwing the 1919 World Series as part of the infamous “Black Sox.” As a result, he was banned from the game.

Leeza Gibbons  Journalist. Gibbons became a television personality in the 1990s as the host for “Entertainment Tonight,” and through her own talk show, “Leeza.”

Althea Gibson  Tennis champion, born in Silver, SC. Gibson excelled in professional tennis throughout the 1950s. She was the first African American woman to participate on the tour. In 1971, she was inducted into the Tennis Hall of Fame.

“Dizzy” Gillespie  Jazz musician, born in Cheraw, SC. After teaching himself to play the trumpet, “Dizzy” Gillespie launched a musical career that spanned over five decades. He is often regarded as one of the best jazz musicians in history.

DuBose Heyward  Novelist. Heyward was one of several novelists who helped draw a picture of the South during the Southern Literary Renaissance of the 1920s. His most famous work, Porgy, is known for being one of the first novels to give an accurate view of African Americans living in the South.

Jasper Johns  Artist, raised in Allendale, SC. Johns became famous in the 1950s for his paintings, which focused on simple subjects like flags, maps, letters, and numbers. He helped inspire the “Pop Art” movement of the 1960s.
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**Orlando Jones**  Actor. Jones became a recognizable face by starring in several “7-Up” commercials. He has since landed cameos and roles in several popular movies.

**Eartha Kitt**  Singer and actor. Kitt began her career as a successful singer, and then moved onto television and film in the 1950s and 1960s. She is one of only a few performers to be nominated for a Tony, Grammy, and Emmy award.

**Edwin McCain**  Musician, born in Greenville, SC. In 1995, McCain’s singing career took off, and he has recorded several albums since.

**Andie McDowell**  Actress, born in Gaffney, SC. McDowell has starred in several popular movies since the 1980s, such as *Groundhog Day* (1993) and *Multiplicity* (1999).

**William Perry**  Professional football player, born in Aiken, SC. Weighing over 300 pounds, Perry earned the name “Refrigerator” Perry. He was a star at Clemson University, and later helped lead the Chicago Bears to a Superbowl victory.

**Bobby Richardson**  Professional baseball player. As a longtime member of the New York Yankees, Richardson was named MVP of the 1960 World Series.

**Darius Rucker**  Musician, born in Charleston, SC. As the front man of the rock group, “Hootie and the Blowfish,” Rucker gained national fame in the 1990s.

**Aaron Tippin**  Musician, born in Greenville, SC. Tippin became a popular country singer in the 1990s, and continues to record popular songs.

**Vanna White**  TV hostess, raised near Myrtle Beach, SC. Since 1982, Vanna White has turned letters for the popular game show, *Wheel of Fortune.*
Science & Technology

Charles F. Bolden  Military leader and astronaut, born in Columbia, SC. After graduating from the U.S. Naval Academy, Bolden joined the Marines and served in Vietnam. In the 1980s, he worked as an astronaut with NASA, traveling into space on four different missions. He later rejoined the Marines and rose to the rank of Brigadier General.

Joseph Burckhalter  Inventor, born in Columbia, SC. Burckhalter revolutionized the medical world by inventing a dye that runs through the blood and detects infectious diseases (such as AIDS or leukemia).

Charles Duke  Astronaut, raised in Lancaster, SC. Duke joined NASA in 1966 and worked closely on the Apollo 10 and Apollo 16 missions, both of which studied the moon.

Ronald McNair  Astronaut, born in Lake City, SC. Dr. McNair joined NASA in 1978, and became only the second African American to fly into space. In 1986, he was one of seven astronauts killed in the tragic Challenger explosion.

Robert Mills  Architect, born in Charleston, SC. As Thomas Jefferson’s official federal architect, Mills designed several longstanding government buildings. His most recognizable project is undoubtedly the Washington Monument.

Charles Hard Townes  Physicist, born in Greenville, SC. During World War II, Townes worked to design radar bombing systems. After the war, his skills went in a more peaceful direction. He began to study microwaves, which led to the invention of the laser.
South Carolina has survived a long and distinguished history, and its current residents are determined to keep that history alive. Museums, battlefields, state parks, and historical markers exist throughout the state, all of which help visitors piece together 400 years of wealth and poverty, war and peace, and change and tradition.

When creating this book, the members of the Research Team found that these historical sites were diamonds in the rough. An amazing amount of questions could be answered by walking the land, viewing the exhibits, and simply talking with South Carolinians who were proud to share their past.

Of course, there came a time for the heavy research. Once again, there was no shortage of material. Below are several of the resources that the Research Team found to be extremely helpful and interesting. With this book, the Team did its best to provide an attention-grabbing and “painless” history of the Palmetto State. If you’re ready to really dive in and explore the history for yourself, then you will certainly enjoy these titles:


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