

〈일반논문〉

## How Did the War of 1812 Contribute to Expansion of Slavery in Post-War of 1812?

하 성 호 \*

〈목차〉

- I. Introduction
- II. The Cotton Boom of Post-War of 1812
- III. The War of 1812 and Slavery
- IV. Conclusion

[국문초록]

‘1812년 전쟁’은 미국사에 있어 ‘잊혀진 전쟁(Forgotten War)’이라는 조금은 아이러니한 별명을 가지고 있다. 왜냐하면 이 전쟁은 독립전쟁, 남북전쟁, 또는 제 2차 세계 대전과 비교해 볼 때, 1815년 1월의 뉴올리언스 전투(Battle of New Orleans)를 제외하고는 전쟁의 규모나 진행 상황과 과정이 그렇게 매력적이지 않았기 때문이다. 그래서 미국 역사 교과서에서 ‘1812년 전쟁’을 기술할 때는 주로 이 전쟁 이후 미국의 정치, 경제, 인종 문제에 어떤 변화가 생겼는지를 서술하는 과정에서 잠깐 언급되는 수준이다. 본 저자는 이 발표문에서 ‘1812년 전쟁’이 전후 노예제의 팽창에 중요한 역할을 하였다고 주장한다. 즉, ‘1812년 전쟁’ 과정에서 인디언과의 전투가 벌어졌는데, 이때 미국 정부가 인디언 땅을 강제로 빼앗아서 소위 ‘목화 왕국(Cotton Kingdom)’의 기반을 조성하였다. 더욱이 이 전쟁에서 남

\* Professor, Department of History, University of Alaska Anchorage

부 인디언들의 저항을 막아내면서 이들과 흑인 노예들이 공동으로 백인에 반기를 들 수 있는 기회를 원천 봉쇄하여 남부 노예제 안착에도 기여하였다고 본다. 결론적으로 '1812년 전쟁'은 남부 농장주들에게는 위기이면서도 동시에 그들이 정치적, 사회적, 경제적 이득을 얻게 되는 계기가 되었다.

□ 주제어

1812년의 전쟁, 노예제, 크리크 전쟁(1813-1814), 제1차 세미놀 전쟁(1816-1818), 앤드류 잭슨

---

## I. Introduction

The War of 1812 is infamous for being a *Forgotten War* in American history. Historian Nicole Eustace even characterized the War of 1812 as, “the one least likely remembered.”<sup>1)</sup> Compared to the Revolutionary War, Civil War, or WWII, the War of 1812 has not enough charms in terms of scale of the war or the spectacles of major battles. It has not attracted the attention of both historians and the general public for its own sake. The War of 1812 is either forgot-

---

1) Donad R. Hickey, *The War of 1812: A Forgotten Conflict* (Urbana, IL: University of Illinois Press, 1989); Christina Barron, “1812: Forgotten War,” *Washington Post*, June 8, 2012. [https://www.washingtonpost.com/lifestyle/kidspost/the-war-of-1812-for-kids/2012/06/07/gJQAHWKcNV\\_story.html](https://www.washingtonpost.com/lifestyle/kidspost/the-war-of-1812-for-kids/2012/06/07/gJQAHWKcNV_story.html) (accessed October 5, 2019); Rachel Hope Cleves, et.al., “Interchange: The War of 1812,” *The Journal of American History* Vol. 99, No. 2 (September 2012), p.520, 523, 524.

ten in American historiography, or only discussed in the context of the what happened before or after the war.<sup>2)</sup> In discussing pre-war developments, scholars have focused on the conflict with both Britain and France over new trade rights of the United States as the main cause of the War of 1812. In terms of the post-war developments, scholars pointed to a score of developments, including growth of nationalism and domestic manufacture, expansion of transportation and communication infrastructure such as roads, canals, and telegraphs, and expansion of slavery westward.<sup>3)</sup> Recently, scholars have focused on the study of the expansion of slavery and Cotton Kingdom in American South post-War of 1812 as their research topic.<sup>4)</sup>

In this article, I will discuss the War of 1812 itself as a cause for the expansion of slavery and Cotton Kingdom in the South. My argument is that the War of 1812 prepared for the conditions for the expansion of 1812. Without the devastation inflicted upon Native Americans during the War of 1812, the expansion of southern slavery into the Deep South could not have happened. That is, the violence of the war burst open the door to the Cotton Kingdom. In

---

2) Rachel Hope Cleves, et.al., "Interchange: The War of 1812," pp.525–526.

3) George Dangerfield, *The Awakening of American Nationalism, 1815–1828* (New York: Harper & Row, 1965).

4) Walter Johnson, *River of Dark Dreams* (Cambridge, MA, The Belknap Press of Harvard University Press: 2013); Sven Beckert, *Empire of Cotton: A Global History* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 2015); Edward E. Baptist, *The Half Has Never Been Told: Slavery and the Making of American Capitalism* (New York: Basic Books, reprint edition, 2016); Sven Beckert and Seth Rockman, *Slavery's Capitalism: A New History of American Economic Development* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, reprint edition, 2018).

this article, I will discuss, first, the cotton boom of post-War of 1812; second, how the War of 1812 contributed to expansion of slavery in post-War of 1812. I will argue that the War of 1812 proved an important boost for the expansion of Southern slavery by breaking the potential and real alliance of blacks and indigenous peoples in the South.

## II. The Cotton Boom of Post-War of 1812

In 1810, the number of slaves in the United States was slightly under one million. The number reached one and a quarter million in 1820. It surpassed the two million mark in 1840. Eventually, the number reached four million in 1860. Southwestern states experienced a much faster increase of slave population than South Atlantic states, since the Southwest became the center of cotton production and utilized an increasingly larger number of slaves. Almost one in three slaves lived in present-day Deep South of Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana in 1860.<sup>5)</sup> The increase in slave population was helped by immigration of about 1.1 million slaves through domestic slave trade from the Upper South such as Virginia and Maryland. More than half of them went to the Deep South.<sup>6)</sup>

---

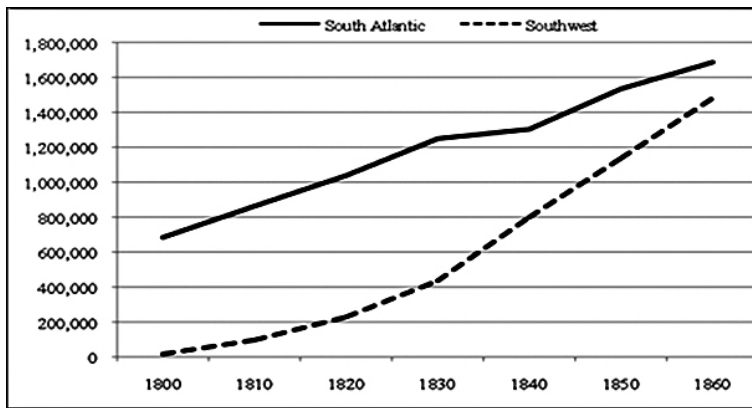
5) Adam Rothman, *Slave Country: American Expansion and the Origins of the Deep South*(Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 2005), p.221.

6) Ibid., pp.220-221.

Table 1. Slave Population in Southern States from 1800 to 1860, in Thousands.

	1800	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860
South Atlantic	684	863	1,038	1,249	1,303	1,534	1,686
Southwest	17	97	229	436	800	1,137	1,480
Total	701	960	1,267	1,685	2,103	2,671	3,166

Source: R. Sutch and S. B. Carter(eds), *Historical Statistics of the United States: Earliest Times to the Present, Millennial Edition*, 5 vols(New York: Cambridge University Press, 2006), 2: 375-7.



As a result, slavery-based cotton export drove the economic development of ante bellum United States. The value of cotton export in 1815 was 17.5 million dollars. It increased to 22.3 million in 1820, 29.7 million in 1830, 63.9 million in 1840, 72.0 million in 1850 and 191.8 million in 1860. Notably, the value of United States cotton export exceeded 100 million dollars each year between 1856 and 1860.<sup>7)</sup>

7) Tble A-VIII, Douglass C. North, *The Economic Growth of the United States 1790-1860*(New York: W. W. Norton & Company, Inc., 1966), p.233.

Historians usually attribute this expansion of slavery-based cotton industry to two factors: invention of the cotton gin and success of the Industrial Revolution in Britain. The narrative is that Eli Whitney's invention of the cotton gin in 1793 enabled the planters in the lower South to profitably grow short-staple cottons, increasing the productivity of cotton industry in the South. Also, the almost insatiable demand for American cotton in British factories induced the westward expansion of slave-based cotton plantations, thus, resulting into a dramatic increase in demand for labor in the form of African slaves.<sup>8)</sup>

### III. The War of 1812 and Slavery

It was, however, the War of 1812 that paved the way for the expansion of Southern slavery and the cotton boom, by destroying the resistance of Native Americans and appropriating their lands, and more importantly, by removing the possibility for cooperation between Native Americans and African slaves, thus, providing safety to the slave system. In this sense, American government and military turned the crisis of the War of 1812 to an opportunity that prepared for the expansion of slavery post-War of 1812.

---

8) Songho Ha, *Rise and Fall of the American System: Nationalism and the Development of the American Economy, 1790-1837*(London: Pickering & Chatto, 2009), pp.58-59; Rothman, *Slave Country*, pp.217-218, 223.

The War of 1812 was a war fought between the United States and Britain, from June 1812 to January 1815. The War of 1812 prepared for this slave expansion in two ways. First, the United States acquired vast amounts of Native land during the war that was later sold to white farmers for cotton production. This acquisition of Native land was a result of the Creek War that was fought between the Red Stick Creek Indians and United States military and western militia in 1813 and 1814. The war originally started as a civil war between Red Stick Cheeks and traditional leaders of the Creek Nation. Red Sticks were known with that name for their antagonistic attitude and the red-painted war clubs they wielded. Ideologically, the Red Sticks were influenced by a Shawnee Indian Chief Tecumseh's urging to return to traditional Indian ways of life and to remove white settlers in the west.<sup>9)</sup> Local Creek prophets such as Josiah Francis (or Hillis Hadjo), Captain Isaacs, Paddy Carr, and High Head Jim (or Cusseta Hadjo) also led the Red Stick Creeks.<sup>10)</sup> Ignoring opposition from the Chiefs of the Creek Nation, the Red Creeks wanted to join the revolts against whites that Tecumseh had been instigating. In early 1813, old leaders of the Creek tribe tried to hunt down Red Sticks as a dangerous element to their tribe. Red Sticks, however, counterattacked and chased out old chiefs. This Creek civil war eventually transitioned to a war with the American army in July 1813 when a Red Creek band

---

9) Angela Pulley Hudson, *Creek Paths and Federal Road*(Chapel, NC: The University of North Carolina Press, 2010), pp.93-94.

10) Angela Pulley Hudson, *Creek Paths and Federal Road*(Chapel, NC: The University of North Carolina Press, 2010), p.93.

clashed with a Mississippi militia. Subsequently, Red Sticks attacked Fort Mims, about 40 miles from Mobile on August 30, killing about 250 of white men, women, and children.<sup>11)</sup>

The Fort Mims massacre galvanized the West. Tennessee governor dispatched 2500 militia soldiers in fall 1813 with Andrew Jackson, a major general of the Tennessee militia, in charge.<sup>12)</sup> Jackson and his Tennessee militia successfully engaged Red Stick Indians in several battles from November 1813 through January 1814, but without being able to destroy the Red Sticks. Reinforced by arrival of fresh soldiers in February 1814, Jackson attacked and killed about 800 Red Stick Creeks at the Battle of Horseshoe Bend on the Tallapoosa River in present-day Alabama on March 27, 1814 while losing about 200 of his men. This victory concluded Red Sticks' resistance in the Southwest. Soon after, Jackson triumphantly proclaimed: "The friends of the Tallapoosa will, no longer murder our women & children, or disturb the quiet of our borders. Their midnight flame will no more illumine their council-house, or shine upon the victim of their infernal orgies. They have disappeared from the face of the Earth."<sup>13)</sup> Subsequently, Jackson forced the Treaty of Fort Jackson signed on August 9, 1814 on Creeks, by which the Creeks ceded 23 million areas of lands in central Alabama and southwest Georgia, to the US government.<sup>14)</sup> In addition, Jackson also negotiated three additional cessions from

---

11) Hickey, *The War of 1812*, pp.146-148.

12) *Ibid.*, p.148.

13) Address of Jackson, April 2, 1814, *Papers of Andrew Jackson*, v.3, p.58.

14) Hickey, *The War of 1812*, pp.148-151.



the Creeks, Chickasaws, and Choctaws in the fall of 1816 in the Mississippi Territory and acquired several more million acres. Further, Jackson negotiated the Treaty of Doak's Stand in the fall of 1820 by which the Choctaws ceded five million acres of very fertile land.<sup>15)</sup> Jackson recommended that the ceded Natives' land be speedily populated by immigrants to bring security to the region and revenue to the federal treasury.<sup>16)</sup> These ceded Native lands became the basis of the growth of Cotton Kingdom. Below is the amount of land sales from 1800 to 1820. From 1814 to 1819, United States government sold over 2 million acres to American farmers each year. The table and graph below show a dramatic increase of land sales after 1814.

Table 2. Land Sales from 1800 to 1820

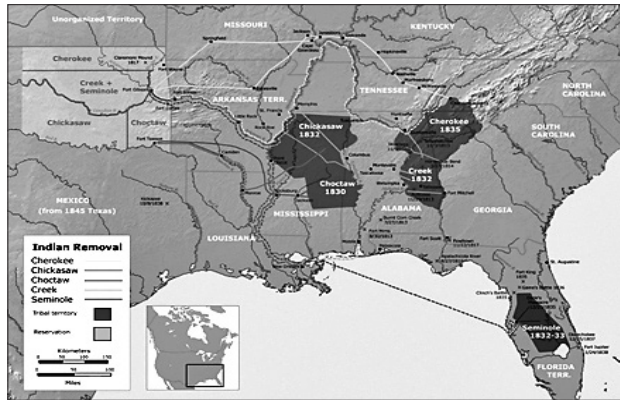
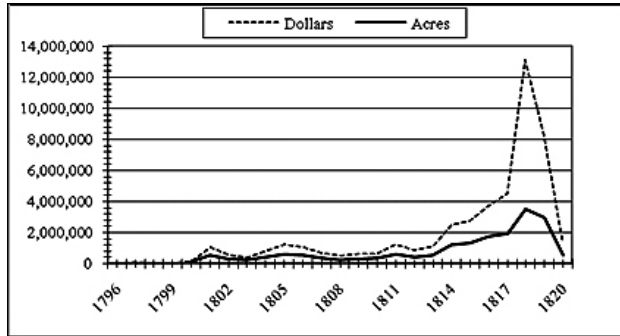
Year	Acres Sold	Total Revenue (\$)	Average Price/Acre
1800	67,750.93	133,501.86	1.97
1801	497,939.36	1,031,893.26	2.07
1802	271,080.77	532,160.74	1.96
1803	174,156.04	349,292.18	2.01
1804	398,155.99	817,270.50	2.05
1805	581,971.91	1,186,562.09	2.04
1806	506,018.67	1,053,792.34	2.08

15) Rothman, *Slave Country*, p.168.

16) Andrew Jackson to John Williams, May 18, 1814, *Papers of Andrew Jackson*, v.3, 74; Andrew Jackson to James Monroe, October 23, 1816, *Papers of Andrew Jackson*, v.4, 69–70; Jackson to Monroe, March 4, 1817, *Papers of Andrew Jackson*, v.6, pp.93–94.

1807	320,945.79	659,709.17	2.06
1808	209,167.34	490,080.35	2.34
1809	275,004.09	605,970.20	2.20
1810	285,795.55	607,867.77	2.13
1811	575,067.18	1,216,447.28	2.12
1812	386,077.36	829,404.10	2.15
1813	505,647.82	1,066,372.33	2.11
1814	1,176,141.67	2,462,914.88	2.09
1815	1,306,368.33	2,713,414.36	2.08
1816	1,742,523.63	3,692,738.39	2.12
1817	1,886,163.96	4,478,820.40	2.37
1818	3,491,014.79	13,122,836.41	3.76
1819	2,968,390.80	8,238,309.21	2.78
1820	491,916.46	1,348,119.84	2.74

Sources: The data from 1796 to 1799 are from *American State Papers: Finance* 2:919. The data from 1800 to 1820 are from *Senate Document*, No. 246, 27th Cong., 3rd sess., p. 6. The figures for the year 1820 are land sales until 30 June 1820. A caution is in order in using the data of land sales in the antebellum period. Some figures are during fiscal years, while some are during calendar years. In addition, the fiscal years were not uniform. That is why the figures in this table are not identical with the figures in the table in Paul Gates, *History of Public Land Law Development* (Washington D.C., 1968), p. 132. Gates developed his table by compiling data from the Reports of the Secretary of the Treasury in *American State Papers: Finance* 2. It is difficult to tell which ones are more accurate. On this issue of the reliability of the land sales data, see S. W. Schoene, 'The Economics of U.S. Public Land Policy Prior to 1860', (Unpublished PhD Dissertation, The University of North Carolina, 1981), p. 62. Schoene critically examines land sales data used by historians and presents his own data sets by using manuscript materials compiled by Arthur N. Cole. See the chapter 3 of his dissertation for the discussions and new data sets. I chose not to use Schoene's data because it starts from 1806, thus leaving out the period before 1806, which is a very important period for this chapter. Moreover, as Schoene readily acknowledges, the errors in other data sets might not be so serious as long as they are used to argue "more qualitatively derived conclusions," which is my purpose in using this data.



Second, the defeat of the Creeks and land cessions from several Native tribes provided slave system in the South more security, by denying a potential ally for slave rebellion and by denying the possibility for a marron society of runaway slaves. Historically the Natives in the South provided protection to runaway slaves. For example, the Seminoles in Florida provided protection to runaway slaves and slaves often organized themselves as marooned societies. On September 10, 1739, about 80 slaves attacked a local store on Stono River, about 20 miles southwest of Charleston, South Carolina, and seized weapons and killed 20–25 local planters. After arming themselves, they marched toward Spanish Florida. South Carolina militia and local planters captured most of these slaves and executed them. Some slaves, however, escaped and joined blacks and Natives at the Fort Mose in Florida. The Fort Mose (Gracia Real de Santa Teresa de Mose) established by the Spanish authorities in Florida just two–miles north of St. Augustin was a garrison manned by former black slaves and Native Americans from North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, and provided protection for them from 1738 to 1820.<sup>17)</sup> As late as April 1821, Andrew Jackson reported that runaway slaves resided in Florida under the protection of the Creek Indians that moved thereto after the War of 1812.<sup>18)</sup>

---

17) Ira Berlin, *Many Thousands Gone: the First Two Centuries of Slavery in North America*(Cambridge, MA: The Belknap Press of Harvard University Press, 1998), pp.74–75.

18) Andrew Jackson to John Quincy Adams, April 2, 1821, *Papers of Andrew Jackson*, v.5, p.26.

The slaves also used the vast Indian territory in the Deep South for protection and freedom. As Andrew Jackson's classic biographer James Parton said in his biography of Jackson, the areas between Nashville and the Mississippi River, and between Nashville and the Gulf of Mexico was thinly populated and Native Indians swarmed the region. This Indian territory provided protection to runaway slaves. The US government countered this by including a section in an act of Congress regulating trade and intercourse with Indian tribes passed on March 30, 1802 that required all persons going through the Indian country should carry a passport.<sup>19)</sup> This act was used to stop runaway slaves from seeking protection in Indian country. Indian agents who represented the interests of the United States in Indian country was required to enforce this law in the Indian country. For example, Silas Dinsmore, an Indian agent in the territory of Choctaw Indians, had a board erected in front of his agency building with the following notice in April 1811:

Whereas complaints are made that runaway negroes effect their

---

19) The exact wording is as follows: "if any such citizen or other person, shall go into any country which is allotted, or secured by treaty as aforesaid, to any of the Indian tribes south of the river Ohio, without a passport first had and obtained from the governor of some one of the United States, or the officer of the troops of the United States, commanding at the nearest post on the frontiers, or such other person as the President of the United States may, from time to time, authorize to grant the same, shall forfeit a sum not exceeding fifty dollars, or be imprisoned not exceeding three months." *An Act to regulate trade and intercourse with the Indian tribes, and to preserve peace on the frontiers*, March 30, 1802, *Statutes at Large*, v.2, p.141.

escape through the Indian countries, under the protection of pretended masters, I hereby give notice that I shall arrest and detain every negro found traveling in the Choctaw country whose master has not a passport as the law requires, and also evidence of property in such negro.<sup>20)</sup>

Ultimately the law enhanced security to the slave property of Southern planters. A Resolution of the Legislative Council and House of Representatives of the Mississippi Territory passed on December 18th, 1811, made this point very clear. It stated that the third section of the law “has been productive of many beneficial consequences to the citizens of this Territory, preserving to the proper owners a great deal of valuable property which would otherwise have been irrevocably lost.”<sup>21)</sup> Writing to the Secretary of War on November 13, 1811, Dinsmore stated that “I have also received the thanks of every man of property in the Mississippi Territory … for the security my vigilance has given to their property by intercepting fugitive slaves, and rendering their escape, through the wilderness, almost an impossibility.”<sup>22)</sup> Late in December 1811, Dinsmore wrote the Secretary of War again and stated therein that “I hope you will … pardon … my zeal, as I verily believe nothing less will secure the property of

---

20) James Parton, *Life of Andrew Jackson*, v.1 (New York: Mason Brothers, 1861), pp.349–350; Robert Remini, *Andrew Jackson and His Indian Wars* (New York: Penguin Books, 2001), p.51.

21) Parton, *Life of Andrew Jackson*, v.1, p.352.

22) Parton, *Life of Andrew Jackson*, v.1, p.351.

this country.”<sup>23)</sup>

This threats to slavery regime posed by the Indian territory before the War of 1812 was eradicated by the end of the war. For slave masters, the War of 1812 initially posed a real threat to the safety of their slave property. In particular, the masters in the Southwestern region feared “a triple alliance of British soldiers, Indian warriors, and slave rebels” during the War of 1812.<sup>24)</sup> Particularly, the masters in Lower Louisiana feared that slaves might stage rebellions against them or assist the British army when American authority was very weakened. Louisiana Governor William Claiborne feared such a slave rebellion in Louisiana during the War of 1812. In his letter to Andrew Jackson dated September 20, 1814, Claiborne wrote: “Louisiana has at this moment much to apprehend from Domestic Insurrection; We have every reason to believe that the Enemy has been intriguing with *our slaves*, and from a variety of circumstances, we have much cause to suspect that *they* on their part, meditate mischief.”<sup>25)</sup> To prepare for a possible slave rebellion, the residents of New Orleans organized a Committee of Safety on September 14, 1814. In a letter sent to Jackson dated September 18, the committee reported to Jackson that the city is “extremely weak from the nature of its population.” The committee pointed out that the ratio of black slaves to white inhab-

---

23) Parton, *Life of Andrew Jackson*, v.1, p.353.

24) Rothman, *Slave Country*, p.122.

25) William Claiborne to Andrew Jackson, September 20, 1814, *Papers of Andrew Jackson* v.3, p.143. Ed. Harold D. Moser, (Knoxville, TN: The University of Tennessee Press, 1991). Italicization by Claiborne.

itants on large sugar plantations was 25 to 1. The committee warned that “attempts have already ... been detected to excite insurrection [of slaves].”<sup>26)</sup> In mid-October, Jacques Villeré wrote in his letter to Louisiana Senator Eligius Fromentin: “You know how much we have to fear about the ‘domestic enemy,’ ...Add to this, agents of the English Government found everywhere, and who by the most infamous methods incite our slaves to revolt, murder, pilfering and you will have an idea of our anxiety.”<sup>27)</sup>

Indeed blacks fought alongside with British army and Native Americans against the United States military during the War of 1812. British military recruited Red Sticks, Seminoles, and black slaves to Royal Marines in Pensacola.<sup>28)</sup> At the Red Creeks’ attack to Fort Mims, black slaves guided the Red Sticks to the fort and helped them to occupy the port.<sup>29)</sup> Shortly afterwards, a Washington County resident, Edmund Andrew, wrote in his letter that “it is at present very doubtful whether the Choctaws will remain friendly with us---this added to the danger amongst ourselves---namely the revolt of the negroes whenever opportunity offers, makes our situation rather critical.”<sup>30)</sup>

---

26) John Spencer Bassett, ed., *Correspondence of Andrew Jackson*(Washington D.C.: The Carnegie Institution, 1926), v.2, p.51.

27) Villeré to Fromentin, October 19, 1814, Villeré Papers, Williams Research Center, Historic New Orleans Collection, New Orleans, cited in Rothman, *Slave Country*, p.144.

28) *Ibid.*, p.143.

29) *Ibid.*, p.127.

30) *Ibid.*, p.128.



The War of 1812 destroyed the possibility for further uprising by the allied force of Native Americans and black slaves by breaking the power of the Native tribes in the Northwest and Southwest, and thus came to provide security to the slave regime. Native tribes in the South lost any ability to fight whites after the war. For example, many Red Stick Creeks and former slaves ran away to Florida after the Creek War. They occupied Fort Gadsden on the Apalachicola River in 1815 with the help of Seminole Indians. Encouraged by Georgia and Southern planters, and authorized by the Congress, Jackson's army invaded Florida and destroyed Red Stick villages, forced the Seminoles to flee to interior Florida and recaptured many former slaves, which is called the First Seminole War (1816–1818).<sup>31)</sup> John C. Calhoun, in the capacity of the Secretary of War, commented in his report to the House of Representatives dated December 5, 1818 that, "the neighboring tribes are becoming daily less warlike, and more helpless and dependent on us ... They have ... ceased to be an object of terror, and have become that of commiseration."<sup>32)</sup> Once the threat of the Native Americans in the West and South was out of picture, white planters could now focus all their efforts on the expansion and management of their plantations. Southern slavery was now secured and thriving. In 1819–1820, the three states of Al-

---

31) Andrew K. Frank, "Native American Removal," in *A Companion to the Era of Andrew Jackson*, Sean Patrick Adams, ed. (Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell, 2013), p.398.

32) John C. Calhoun to House of Representatives, December 5, 1818, *American State Papers: Indian Affairs*, v.2, p.183.

abama, Mississippi, and Louisiana produced just over 600,000 bales of cotton, which was about one-fourth of the total national cotton production. By 1859–60, they produced almost 5 million bales of cotton, which was more than 60% of the total national cotton production.<sup>33)</sup>

#### IV. Conclusion

The United States government and military turned the crisis of the War of 1812 into opportunities for white farmers and planters by destroying the resistance of Native tribes and forcing cessions of huge masses of their lands, that became the basis for a dramatic expansion of slavery into the Southwest post-War of 1812. In addition, this destroyed the possibility for a potential alliance of Native tribes and African slaves against whites. The fear of slave rebellion was real during the War of 1812. However, slaves needed an ally and place to run away to stage successful rebellions. Native tribes, particularly in Florida, used to provide this protection. The Natives' defeats at various clashes with the United States army led by Andrew Jackson during the war made this impossible, minimizing threats to the security of the slave regime in the United States as it expanded further west and south.

---

33) Rothman, *Slave Country*, p.221.

This was similar to the consequences of the Nathaniel Bacon's Rebellion of 1676. The failure of the rebellion, that was precipitated by an alliance of lower-class whites and blacks in Virginia, resulted in the hardening of the racial divide in Virginia and enhancing slave regime.<sup>34)</sup> The War of 1812, like the Bacon's Rebellion, resulted in the strengthening of Southern slavery by breaking the potential and real alliance of indigenous peoples and black slaves. The evidence presented in this article begs for further research into this direction as an important theme in American history.

(2022.06.14. 투고 / 2022.07.04. 심사완료 / 2022.07.18. 게재확정)

---

34) Edmund S. Morgan, *American Slavery, American Freedom*(New York: W.W. Norton, 1975).

[Abstract]

### **How Did the War of 1812 Contribute to Expansion of Slavery in Post-War of 1812?**

Ha, Songho

The 'War of 1812' has an ironic nickname for a 'Forgotten War.' In contrast to the American War of Independence, the Civil War, or the First and Second World Wars, the War of 1812 is not as glamorous in terms of its size or the number of battles won, except being notable for the victory at the Battle of New Orleans. Therefore, American college textbooks mention the War of 1812 very briefly only as a prelude to a more extensive discussion of the changes that occurred post-War of 1812 to the politics, economy, and racial relations in the United States. I argue that the War of 1812 played a critical role in the expansion of slavery post-War of 1812. First, the US government and military acquired huge territories from various indigenous tribes by force during the war, and the land became an important element for the emerging Cotton Kingdom. Second, more importantly, by breaking the resistance of various native tribes during the war, the US government preempted potential alliances between native tribes and African slaves against white farmers and masters, enhancing the security of the Southern slave system. In this sense, the War of 1812 resulted in a significant political, social, and political boost to Southern slavery after having posed a serious threat to its safety.

□ Keyword

The War of 1812, Southern slavery, The Creek War(1813-1814), The First Seminole War(1816-1818), Andrew Jackson

[참고문헌]

- Baptist, Edward E. *The Half Has Never Been Told: Slavery and the Making of American Capitalism*. New York: Basic Book, reprint edition, 2016.
- Bassett, John Spencer. Ed. *Correspondence of Andrew Jackson*. v.2. Washington D.C.: The Carnegie Institution, 1926.
- Beckert, Sven. *Empire of Cotton: A Global History*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 2015.
- Beckert, Sven and Seth Rockman. *Slavery's Capitalism: A New History of American Economic Development*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, reprint edition, 2018.
- Berlin, Ira. *Many Thousands Gone: the First Two Centuries of Slavery in North America*. Cambridge, MA: The Belknap Press of Harvard University Press, 1998.
- Frank, Andrew K. "Native American Removal," in *A Companion to the Era of Andrew Jackson*. Sean Patrick Adams. Ed. Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell, 2013.
- Ha, Songho. *Rise and Fall of the American System: Nationalism and the Development of the American Economy, 1790-1837*. London: Pickering & Chatto, 2009.
- Hickey, Donad R. *The War of 1812: A Forgotten Conflict* Urbana, IL: University of Illinois Press, 1989.
- Hudson, Angela Pulley. *Creek Paths and Federal Roads*. Chapel, NC: The University of North Carolina Press, 2010.
- Johnson, Walter. *River of Dark Dreams*. Cambridge, MA, The

Belknap Press of Harvard University Press: 2013.

Morgan, Edmund S. *American Slavery, American Freedom*. New York: W.W.Norton, 1975.

North, Douglass C. *The Economic Growth of the United States 1790–1860*. New York: W. W. Norton & Company, Inc., 1966.

Parton, James. *Life of Andrew Jackson*. v.1. New York: Mason Brothers, 1861.

Remini, Robert. *Andrew Jackson and His Indian Wars*. New York: Penguin Books, 2001.

Rothman, Adam. *Slave Country: American Expansion and the Origins of the Deep South*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 2005.