Medallic History of the War of 1812

Catalyst for Destruction of the American Indian Nations

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Haansberg 19
4874NJ Etten-Leur
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t. +31-(0)76-50 32 797
f. +31-(0)76-50 32 540
w. www.kunstpedia.org

Text : Benjamin Weiss
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> "*Brothers, we all belong to one family; we are all children of the Great Spirit; we walk in the same path; slake our thirst at the same spring; and now affairs of the greatest concern lead us to smoke the pipe around the same council fire!*"
>
> Tecumseh, in a speech to the Osages in 1811, urging the Indian nations to unite and to forewarn them of the calamities that were to come (As told by John Dunn Hunter).

Historical and commemorative medals can often be used to help illustrate the plight of a People. Such is the case with medals issued during the period of the War of 1812. As wars go, this war was fairly short and had relatively few casualties[1], but it had enormous impact on the future of the countries and inhabitants of the Northern Hemisphere. At the conclusion of this conflict, the geography, destiny and social structure of the newly-formed United States of America and Canada were forever and irrevocably altered.

From the standpoint of medallic history, the War of 1812 spawned a prodigious number of medals commemorating the battles and its army and naval commanders[2]. It will be through the lens of medals issued during this period that we will examine the causes, military encounters and long-term consequences of what historians have variously called the "Forgotten War" or a stalemate ending in a *status quo ante bellum* with no winners or losers. As we shall see, particularly for the American Indians, it was far from that.

Early History of the Indigenous People of North America

Although there is still active research in tracing how and when North America became populated, most now believe humans migrated from Eurasia at least 10,000 years ago by way of Beringia, a land bridge which formerly connected Asia and North America across what is now the Bering Strait. A number of Paleoindian cultures developed and settled throughout the Western Hemisphere, several of which became quite sophisticated in their social structure and evidenced remarkable scientific and architectural achievements, particularly those in Central and South America. Although relations were not always peaceful, these diverse Indian cultures flourished for centuries, the Native American nations ultimately comprising dozens of individual tribes, occupying vast territories of North America (**Figure 1**).

Figure 1. **Native American Nations in North America**

(Source: thehighlanderspoems.com)

1 According to Historyguy.com, the U.S. suffered 2260 deaths and 4505 wounded, while the British had 1160 deaths and 3679 wounded, with many more on both sides dying from diseases than from actual battle wounds.

2 Julian records some 11 medals given to 11 different army commanders (see Julian, MI-11 to MI-21, pp. 123-133) and 20 naval medals given to 16 different naval commanders (see Julian, NA-4 to NA-23, pp. 152-169), which were awarded by Congress and issued by the United States Mint for the War of 1812. See also Neuzil and Loubat.

First Encounters of Europeans with Native Americans

The arrival and subsequent colonization of Europeans to the Americas dramatically altered the lives and fortunes of the Native American nations. Beginning with the landing of Christopher Columbus on the islands off the North American coast in 1492, for the American Indians the die was cast. Columbus was followed by the Spanish explorer conquistador Juan Ponce de León to current-day Florida in 1513, and later by Sir Francis Drake, the English navigator from the Elizabethan period, who landed on the west coast of America, now California. Even though Drake found Native American tribes already living there (**Figure 2**), he christened the land Nova Albion (New Britain), a name still shown on a medallic Map of the World struck about 1820 (**Figure 3**). None of these explorers attempted to build lasting settlements, but they did set the stage for more significant interactions between Europeans and the Native Americans, which were soon to follow.

Figure 2. **Sir Francis Drake's Landing in California**
Francis Drake anchored in what is believed to be present-day San Francisco, California, in June, 1579, and was greeted by the Miwok Indians. The engraving shows these Native Americans approaching European soldiers and offering them gifts. When the chief of the natives gave a speech to the English and presented Drake with a crown, the English named the land New Albion, mistakenly believing that the ceremony gave the land to them, "Albion" being the archaic name for the island of Great Britain.
The title on the engraving: *Franciscvs Draco cvm in locvm qvendam venis set, à Rege istius regionis conuenitur* may be loosely translated as: "Francis Drake came to a certain place but is made king of that country."
Engraving by Theodor De Bry, published in Frankfurt am Main by Matthaeus Becker, 1599.

(Source: Paulus Swaen Old Map Auction and Galleries)

Figure 3. **World Map Medal**
by Thomas Halliday?: England, ca. 1820, White Metal, 74 mm
Obverse: Western hemisphere showing North and South America with continents and other land masses and bodies of water labeled as they were known in the early 19th century. These include New Albion (anachronistic for Great Britain) in the Western United States, New Saledonia (now New Caledonia), Jugo (much of the southern portion of South America), and the Sandwich Islands (now Hawaii).
Reverse: Eastern Hemisphere with continents and other land masses and bodies of water labeled as they were known in the early 19th century. These include, among others, New Holland (Australia), Van Dieman's Land (Tasmania), and Barbary in North Africa (now Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia and Libya)
Reference: Rulau E9; Eimer 1139a; Weiss 657

(Source: Weiss Collection)

The first attempt to establish a permanent colony of Europeans in the New World took place in 1584 when Sir Walter Raleigh sponsored an expedition to the American continent. The group, led by Arthur Barlowe and Philip Amadas, settled on Roanoke Island, North Carolina. There the English encountered the Algonquian people know as Roanoacs, who were living on the island and nearby mainland. This interaction between the cultures of different continents, chronicled by John White in writings and pictures, portrayed the natives relatively sympathetically, though quite primitive in their customs, at least by European standards. Currently, it is still a mystery what happened to this particular colony of Europeans, now known as The Lost Colony. A couple of decades later, in 1607, the English again made an attempt to establish a permanent colony in America. This time they succeeded, much to the ultimate misfortune of the native peoples.

Evidence from a variety of sources suggests that from their earliest interactions the European settlers considered the Native Americans to be inferior to themselves. When the English established their first permanent settlement in Jamestown, Virginia, in 1607, during the reign of James I of England (**Figure 4**), they required the Indians to display an Indian Treaty Badge (**Figure 5**) in order for them to visit English settlements. Engraved on the badge was the Indian town to which they belonged. The Europeans, on the other hand, could enter Native American tribal villages at will. This second-class citizenship, or more appropriately put, non-citizenship, continued up to and through the writing of the United States Constitution, which specifically excluded Indians from among those represented. In fact, although many treaties were agreed to in the interim, it was not until 1924 that full citizenship was granted to all Indians.

Figure 4. **James I of England, Naval Reward**
Unknown medallist: England, ca. 1620, Silver (cast), 42x49 mm
Obverse: Bust of James I, three quarters (r), with the George of the Garter suspended from a riband. **IACOBUS. D.G. MAG. BRITA. FR. ET. HI. REX.** (James, by the Grace of God, King of Great Britain, France and Ireland)
Reverse: Arc on waves with smoke emitting from chimney **STET. SALVIS. IN. VNDIS.** (May it Stand Safe Amid the Waves)
Reference: M.I. i, 233/96; Eimer 41/101A

(Image courtesy of Christopher Eimer)

Figure 5. **Virginia Indian Treaty Badge**
Unknown artist: USA, 1662, Copper alloy, irregular oval, 41 mm x 57 mm
Uniface: A flowering vine, inscribed **Appamattock** (in script)
Appamattock was the name of the Virginian Indian group once part of the Powhatan Paramount Chiefdom.
In 1662 the Virginia General Assembly passed an act requiring Indians visiting English settlements to display a copper or silver badge with the name of the Indian town to which they belonged. Twenty badges were made; four exist today.

(Image courtesy of The JamestownYorktown Foundation)

Not unlike the rationale given for the subjugation of other groups on other continents, these European colonists in the Americas often justified their expansion of empire by introducing Christianity to what they viewed as barbaric and pagan peoples. As an example of the religious nature of the bigotry visited upon the Native Americans, in 1631 the Puritan minister Increase Mather of Massachusetts said, "*God ended the controversy by sending smallpox among the Indians*". In the mid seventeenth century, Virginia's English governor Francis Wyatt declared, "*Our first work is the expulsion of the savages to gain the free range of the country for increase of cattle, swine etc. It is infinitely better to have no heathen among us, who at best were as thorns in our sides, than to be at peace and league with them*" (Gardner).

The religious character of the opposition to the Native Americans is supported further by some of the "Founding Fathers" of the United States of America. In a letter from George Washington to the President of Congress, he stated, in part, "*Towards the latter part of the year 1783 I was honored with a letter from the Countess of Huntington, briefly reciting her benevolent intention of spreading Christianity among the Tribes of Indians inhabiting our Western Territory; and*

expressing a desire of my advice and assistance to carry this charitable design into execution. I wrote her Ladyship...that it was my belief, there was no other way to effect her pious and benevolent designs, but by first reducing these people to a state of greater civilization, but that I would give every aid in my power...to devote the remainder of my life, to carry her plan into effect" (Allen).

Efforts to convert the Native Americans to Christianity continued for decades as church leaders and politicians alike believed that adopting Christianity would permanently solve the "Indian question". Indeed, in 1869 the Board of Indian Commissioners noted in its annual report that as far as assimilating Indians was concerned, "*the religion of our blessed Savior is . . . the most effective agent for the civilization of any people.*"

The perception that Native Americans belonged to an inferior race was reinforced by other statements of George Washington, who, as early as 1783, compared Indians with animals, proclaiming, "*Indians and wolves are both beast of prey, tho' they differ in shape*" (Stennard). Although during his presidency Thomas Jefferson believed that the Indians would share power in the West and should be treated as equals, by 1812, he said that America was obliged to push the backward Indians "*with the beasts of the forests into the Stony Mountains*", one year later adding that America must "*pursue [the Indians] to extermination, or drive them to new seats beyond our reach*" (Stennard).

Thus, besides introducing an alien religion to the Native Americans, the new settlers brought with them from Europe not only smallpox and other epidemic diseases but also enslavement and warfare, decimating the population and confiscating the ancestral lands of the native peoples. To site one specific example, at the time the Europeans colonized what is now the Commonwealth of Virginia, the indigenous peoples numbered about 50,000 and occupied almost 43,000 square miles of Virginia Indian Territory. Currently the American Indians number about 5000 and collectively own about three square miles of this land. Overall, the pre-Columbian population of Native Americans in North America, estimated by anthropologists to be as many as 30 million, had declined to about one million by the 1890s (Gardner).

Indian Peace Medals[3]

Medals were given to the Native Americans by several countries, beginning as early as 1693 by France, and continued, on and off, for about two centuries. Great Britain began to issue Indian peace medals as early as 1714 (see **Figure 6** for an Indian Chief Medal issued by the English about 1770); France, during the reign of Louis XIV and continuing to the reign of Louis XV; Spain, as early as 1765 (see **Figure 7** for an early example); and the newly-formed United States of America, starting with the administration of George Washington (1789-1797) (**Figure 8**) and continuing to that of Benjamin Harrison (1889-1893).

Figure 6. **George III Indian Peace Medal, ca 1770**
Unknown medallist: England, ca. 1770, Silver, 60 mm
Obverse: Bust of George III **GEORGIUS III DEI GRATIA** (George III, by the Grace of God)
Reverse: Royal arms, crest and motto
Reference: Eimer 736c; Betts 435
Several sizes and die varieties of this medal were struck. They were given to Native Americans as diplomatic offerings.

(Image courtesy of Christopher Eimer)

3 A number of fine books and treatises have been written devoted specifically to Indian peace medals, and the reader is urged to consult these for more information on the history of this important medallic subject (see Belden, 1966; Cutright, 1968; Prucha, 1971; Laws, 2005; Lopez, 2007; Fuld and Spiegel, 2011; Pickering, 2012).

Figure 7. **Carlos III Spanish Indian Peace Medal**
by Tomás Francisco Prieto: Spain, 1777, Silver, 56 mm
Obverse: Bust of Carlos III (r) wearing the ribbon of the Golden Fleece **CAROLVS III. REY DE ESP. EMP. DE LAS INDIAS** (Charles III, King of Spain, Emperor of the Indies)
Reverse: **AL MERITO** (To Merit) within a laurel wreath
Signed: **T. PRIETO**
Reference: Tayman, *et al.* p, 30, Fig 3.7.
After France ceded Louisiana to Spain in 1762, the Spanish government began using medals to consolidate their interests among Indians throughout the territory.
This medal was struck to "*... placate the Indian chiefs of the Province of Louisiana who believe themselves to be less esteemed than those to the neighboring English territory, due to the fact that the latter are given medals in the name of their sovereign for their actions or as an encouragement to them…*". It was struck in Madrid and given exclusively to the Native Americans.

(Image and description courtesy of Stack's Bowers)

Figure 8. **George Washington Indian Peace Medal**
by Joseph Richardson, Jr.: USA, 1793, Silver, 134 x 175 mm
Obverse: Indian receiving pipe from George Washington, farming scene in background.
Exergue: **GEORGE WASHINGTON PRESIDENT 1793** Hallmark of Joseph Richardson, Jr., *below*.
Reverse: Heraldic eagle, clutching olive branch and arrows.
Reference: Prucha 80/27 (obverse); 81/28 (reverse)

(From Prucha figs. 27, 28)

The reasons medals were presented to these native peoples were varied: as an act of genuine friendship; to persuade them to join the European countries in alliance against another European country or against the new colonies in America; or as rewards for their trade and military support. Some regard the issuance of Indian Peace Medals, often presented with great fanfare, as an important part of the deception perpetrated on the indigenous peoples by the Europeans on both sides of the Atlantic; both used them, often disingenuously, to try to convince the Native Americans

to ally themselves for one and against the other, while at the same time, at least in the case of the Americans, usurping their lands and destroying their culture.

In general, medals made of precious metals were valued by the Indians more than those made of base metals, and by-in-large, the larger the medal the more prestigious the awardee felt. The Washington peace medals were made in different sizes, the larger ones given to the Indian chief and smaller ones to those of lesser rank. The early ones were quite large (e.g., one dated 1793 was 134 x 175 mm), were hand engraved in silver, and oval in shape (Figure 8).

During the War of 1812, the Native American tribes were far more supportive of the English than they were of the Americans. This is not surprising as the Americans were perceived and, in many cases, were in fact their enemies. They encroached on their native lands, broke treaties and otherwise humiliated them. The English, on the other hand, offered the opportunity for the Indians to keep their lands and help defeat their American enemies.

The issuance of medals also played a role in the relative support the American Indians gave to the two belligerents. Although both sides recognized the importance of medals to the Native Americans in gaining their allegiance, the English were often more skillful at using them. For example, Lewis and Clark advised Indian chiefs "*to impress it on the minds of their nations*" that medals and flags were not to be accepted from British representatives, "*without they wished to incur the displeasure of their Great American Father*." However, British authorities in Canada often took away the medals previously given to the Indians by Lewis and Clark and replaced them with their own. They also issued peace medals in 1814 (**Figures 9, 10**), similar to those given to the Indians by the British during the War for Independence (**Figure 6**). Although several medals were given to Indian chiefs by the Americans in the earlier times, as far as this author could determine no such medals were specifically issued for the Native Americans during the War of 1812. For all these reasons it was not surprising that the American Indians fought vigorously on the side of the English against the Americans.

Figure 9. **George III Indian Peace Medal, 1814**
Unknown medallist: England, 1814, Silver, 60 mm
Obverse: Bust of George III, wearing collar of Great George. **GEORGIVS III DEI GRATIA BRITANNIARVM REX F. D.** (George III, by the Grace of God, King of Great Britain, Defender of the Faith)
Reverse: Unicorn and Lion on either side of royal arms, crest and motto. Inscribed on heraldic shield: **HONI SOIT QUI MAL Y PENSE** (Shamed Be He Who Thinks Evil of This). In banner: **DIEU ET MON DROIT** (God and My Right).
Reference: Eimer 1061b; Brown 844

(Image courtesy of Christopher Eimer)

Figure 10. **Indian Chief Medal**
by Thomas Wyon, Jr.: England, 1814, Bronze, 73 mm
Obverse: Britannia seated on a dias, presenting a medal to a North American Indian
Reference: Brown 843; Forrer VI, 649 (illustrated)
This piece exists only as a cliché of the reverse die which broke during hardening. It was intended as a reward to those Indian Chiefs who had been loyal to the British during the war with America, 1812-1814.

(Image courtesy of Laurence Brown, British Historical Medals; see also R. Sainthill, *Olla Podrida*, vol. I, p. 28).

This diplomatic omission of America not issuing a peace medal for the Native Americans during the War of 1812 was not due to a lack of an understanding of its importance, however. Rather, bureaucratic indecisions seemed to be responsible. During the administration of James Madison, in May, 1812, just a month before the conflict formally began, John Mason, the head of the Office of Indian Trade, tried to have a medal struck. Mason wrote as follows: "*It has long been the practice to give occasionally to the chiefs and warriors of the different tribes of Indians having relations with the Government, silver medals as marks of distinction, bearing the effigy of the President of the United States for the time being on one side--and on the reverse some attribute of friendship with appropriate legends &c. There have been none yet executed representing the present President... and it is desirable now to do so as soon as possible for the purpose of being furnished with the presents &c for this year*" (from Prucha, p.96). After the war started, there seemed to be more urgency in executing the medals, yet because of disagreements on the composition and finding an appropriate artist, there were many delays in its production. The immediate crisis was averted when it was decided to issue to the chiefs the older Jefferson peace medals (**Figure 11**), with the intent to exchange them at a later date with the Madison medals. It was not until December 17, 1814, that the first medals were available and not until January 6, 1815, were significant numbers ready for distribution. By that time the War of 1812 was over, the final agreement having been reached on December 24, 1814, when diplomats signed the Treaty of Ghent.

Figure 11. **Thomas Jefferson Indian Peace Medal**
by Robert Scot: USA, ca. 1870, Bronzed Copper, 75 mm
Obverse: Half-length bust of Jefferson (l). **TH. JEFFERSON PRESIDENT OF THE U.S. A.D. 1801.**
Reverse: Clasped hands, one with a metal wrist band commonly worn by Indian chiefs, and the other with a braided cuff worn by military officers. Above, a tomahawk and calumet (peace pipe) crossed. **PEACE AND FRIENDSHIP**
Reference: Julian 34/IP-3**;** Weiss 797

(Source: Weiss Collection)

Prelude to the War of 1812

The origins of the War of 1812 should be viewed in the context of the major battles fought in Europe between the long-standing and powerful political antagonists, France and Great Britain. These two European empires had been at war since 1793. Although America at that time was technically neutral, they were trading with France and were supplying them with war materiel. Further, some of the US sailors were also former British citizens or defectors from the British navy. As Britain needed more sailors for their ships, they began to intercept American vessels on the high seas, seize their cargo and kidnap British naval deserters and other able bodied sailors to man their own warships. One of the more egregious of these acts occurred in 1807 when the British warship *HMS Leopard* captured the American frigate *USS Chesapeake* off the coast of Virginia. (As an ignominious postscript to this affair, in 1813, the *Chesapeake*, then under the command of Captain James Lawrence, was defeated and captured by the British frigate *HMS Shannon* and was taken into service in the Royal Navy.) These continuous provocations, which had been ongoing for some 20 years, fueled increased dissension in the former British colonies. War fever was escalated further by some young congressional firebrands, like Henry Clay of Kentucky (**Figure 12**) and John C. Calhoun of South Carolina, both of whom wanted to expand westward into the Indian territories from the Western frontiers.

Figure 12. **Henry Clay**
by Charles Cushing Wright: USA , 1852, Bronze, 77 mm
Obverse: Bust of Clay **HENRY CLAY. BORN APRIL 12, 1777. DIED JUNE 29, 1852**
Reverse: Hand on Constitution **THE ELOQUENT DEFENDER OF NATIONAL RIGHTS AND NATIONAL INDEPENDENCE.**
Signed: **C.C. WRIGHT F.**
Reference: Julian 204/PE-8; Elder 26**;** Weiss 282

(Source: Weiss Collection)

In spite of these incitements, initially there was little enthusiasm for the war on either side. England was much too preoccupied fighting the French in Europe to be overly eager to engage its former colonies across the sea. In America, most realized it was ill prepared for war, although President James Madison thought, wrongly, that Upper Canada, being weakly defended and populated largely by American immigrants, would side with the United States. Opposition to the war also came from New England, which had a vibrant trade with Britain that it did not want to jeopardize. Nevertheless, in June 1812, Madison laid out to congress the grievances of the U.S. against the British, citing in particular: Britain's restriction of free passage of United States merchant vessels in the Atlantic; the impressment of American sailors into the Royal Navy; and the alliance of Britain with American Indians to deter American westward expansion. With propagandizing cartoons depicting the collaboration of the British with the Indians in the massacre of Americans (**Figure 13**) also playing a part in lowering congress's threshold for battle, within days, congress passed a declaration of war. Madison signed the measure into law, and the fledgling United States, having reached the end of its tether, declared war against the most powerful navy in the world. Henceforth, the War of 1812 would be referred to, often in derogatory terms, as "Mr. Madison's War".

Figure 13. **A Scene on the Frontiers as Practiced by the Humane British and Their Worthy Allies!**
Propaganda cartoon issued by United States during the War of 1812, suggesting the British were allied with the Indians in perpetrating atrocities against Americans.
Watercolor etching by William Charles, 1812

(Image courtesy of Library of Congress)

Over in Europe, by 1812, Napoleon Bonaparte, then at the height of his powers, had conquered much of North Africa and Europe and was about to invade Russia. The great Battle of Waterloo (**Figure 14**) was yet to be fought when hostilities broke out in the New World. France was only too eager to aid the United States against its implacable foe, the English, but neither of these great European sovereignties had the inclination at that time to engage in a battle across the sea. The impending end of the war between England and France, however, was to greatly influence how the War of 1812 ultimately played out.

Figure 14. **Battle of Waterloo**
by Benedetto Pistrucci: England, 1815, Bronze Electrotype, 134 mm
Obverse: Conjoined busts (l) of King George IV of England, Emperor Francis I of Austria, Emperor Alexander I of Russia, and King Friederich Wilhelm III of Prussia.
Around: Allegorical and mythological allusions to the treaty of peace which resulted from the Battle of Waterloo.
Reverse: The two horsemen in the center of the reverse represent Blucher and Wellington. They are accompanied by Nike, the winged goddess of victory. Over them is the chariot of Zeus (the Thunderer), and below are twelve serpent-legged figures of titans personifying Europe's twelve-year struggle against Napoleon.
Signed: **PISTRUCCI** on both obverse and reverse
Reference: Brown, 208/870; Hocking 207210; Eimer, 133/1067; Forrer IV, p. 594598; Bramsen, 2317; D'Essling 1588; Weiss 361

(Source: Weiss Collection)

Theaters in the War of 1812

Historians have described the War of 1812 as having distinct theaters, although, as is so often the case, not necessarily agreeing on exactly what those theaters comprise. For our part, we will divide the war into three geographic areas: the Northern Theater (The Great Lakes and its environs); at sea, along the Atlantic Ocean; and the Southern theater. Medals commemorating the major American victories in each of these theaters were issued by congress both during the war and afterwards.

I. Northern Theater, Including the Great Lakes, Western Territories and Upper and Lower Canada (**Figure 15**): At the beginning, the war fought on the Great Lakes was a disaster for American forces. At Fort Mackinac, situated on a small island on the northern tips of Lakes Huron and Michigan, Lieutenant Porter Hanks was unexpectedly attacked by British and Native American forces. Hanks surrendered in short order.

Figure 15. **Map of Northern Theater of War of 1812: Great Lakes and Canadian Territories**

(Source: Anglo_American_War_1812_Locations_mapen.svg)

In one of its earlier offensive campaigns, the United States decided to invade Canada in an area around the eastern Great Lakes, near Detroit. The British were led by Sir George Provost and General Isaac Brock, the U.S. by General William Hull. At this **Battle of Detroit** the English got major support from the Native Americans, who decided to place their allegiance with the British, in large part because of the great Shawnee[4] warrior Tecumseh (**Figure 16**). Tecumseh, who suffered an early emotional trauma as his father was murdered when Tecumseh was still a child, had as his overriding goal the prevention of the westward expansion of the Americans into Indian tribal lands. He felt he could more readily accomplish this objective by forming a federation of Indian nations and to side with the British against the U.S., believing that a British victory might mean an end to such an incursion into their territories. In addition, the Americans had earlier attacked Prophetstown, Indiana. Prophetstown was the site of the 1811 Battle of Tippecanoe (**Figure 17**) between William Henry Harrison (**Figure 18**) and Native American warriors led by Tecumseh (**Figure 19**) and his brother Tenskwatawa (Ten-sqúat-a-way) (**Figure 20**), an incendiary political and religious leader of the Shawnee, who became commonly known as The Prophet.

4 The original English spelling and pronunciation was as the three sylable *Shawanese* (Repsher, personal communication).

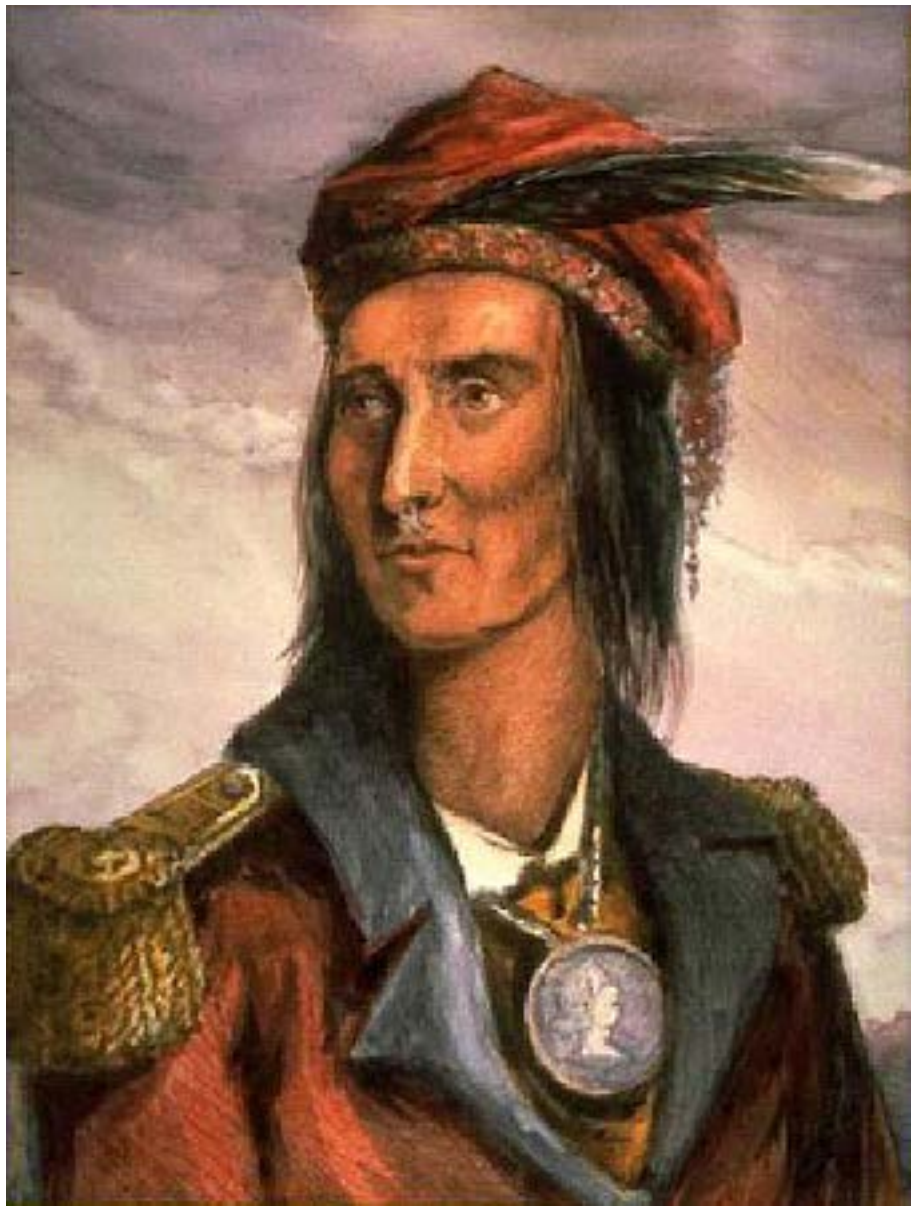

Figure 16. **Tecumseh**

Tecumseh (properly Tecumthe) (March 1768? - October 5, 1813) was a Native American warrior and military leader of the Shawnee, whose goal was to form a large tribal confederacy that opposed the United States' encroachment of Indian land during Tecumseh's War and the War of 1812. He was the leader of Britain's Indian allies until his death at Moraviantown in 1813. This engraving by Benson John Lossing is based on a sketch made about 1808 by Pierre Le Dru. The artist attired Tecumseh in a uniform coat in the mistaken belief that he held the rank of brigadier general in the British army.
Note the medal around Tecumseh's neck. Although it is impossible to positively identify this medal, it is likely supposed to represent that of George III depicted on the obverse of the British Indian Peace Medal struck about 1770 (**see figure 6**).

(Source: Benson John Lossing, *The Pictorial Field-Book of the War of 1812,* 1868.)

Figure 17. **Battle of Tippecanoe**
Nineteenth-century depiction of the final charge that dispersed the Natives in the Battle of Tippecanoe in the Indiana Territory.
Original painting by Alonzo Chappel, ca. 1879.

(Source: http://www.acw70indiana.com/stroudisham.htm)

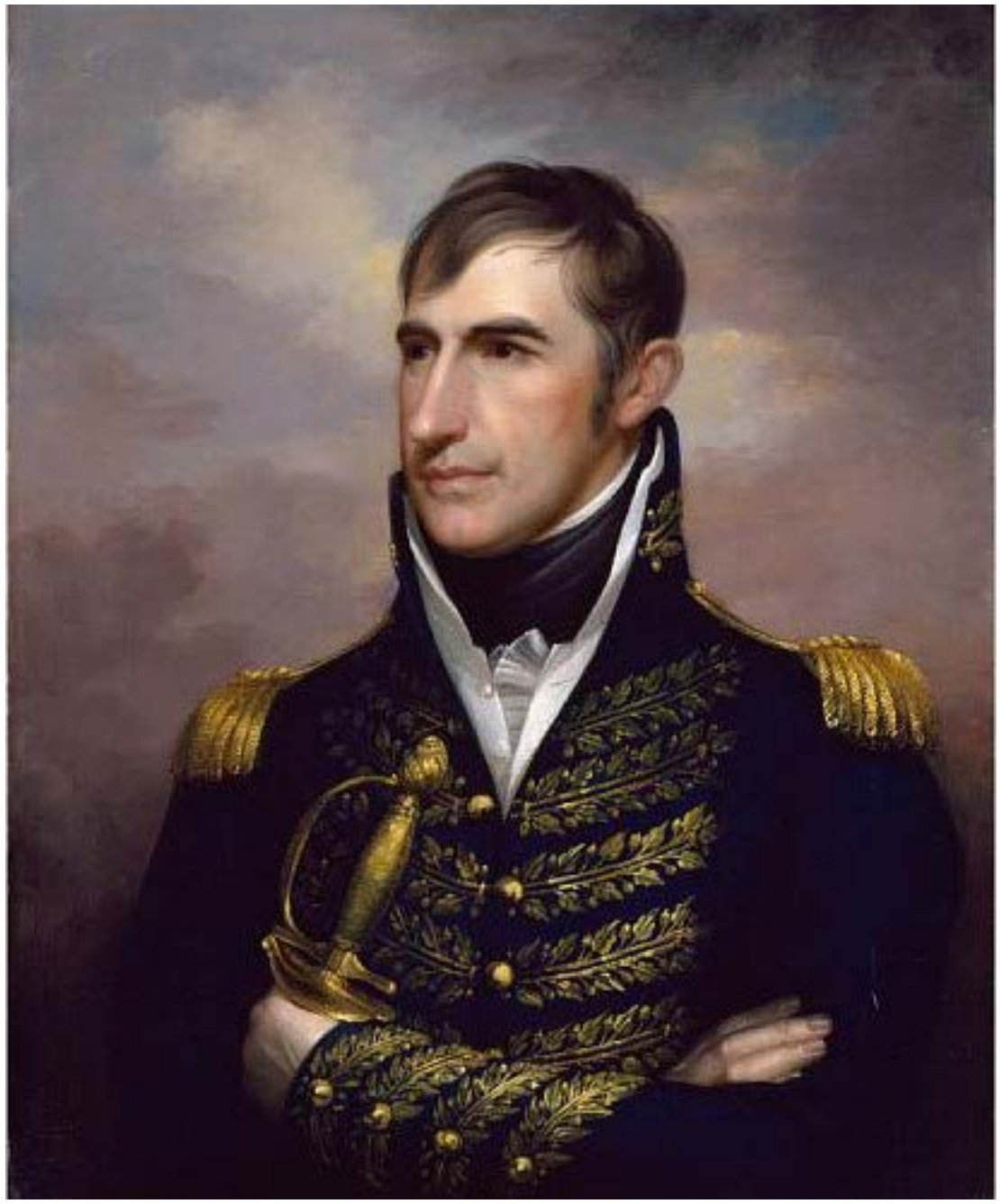

Figure 18. **William Henry Harrison**
Oil on canvas by Rembrandt Peale, ca. 1813
Harrison was originally painted in civilian clothes; the uniform was added later to stress his military roles in the Battle of Tippecanoe and commander of the American forces at the Battle of the Thames, where Tecumseh was killed.
In 1840, under the slogan "Tippecanoe and Tyler too!" Harrison was elected ninth President of the United States.

(Source: National Portrait Gallery, Smithsonian Institution)

Figure 19. **Tecumseh Saving the Lives of Prisoners**
"*Tecumseh Saving Prisoners*" (in 1812) engraved by G.C.Armytage after a picture by Chapin, published in *The Battles of America by Land & Sea*, 1878. Steel engraved print.

(Source: http://ushistoryimages.com/tecumseh-indian-chief.shtm)

Figure 20. **Ten-squát-a-way (the Prophet)**
Image of Ten-squát-a-way (Tenskwatawa) (The Open Door), known as The Prophet, was painted by George Catlin (1796-1872) in 1830.
"The 'Shawnee Prophet' is perhaps one of the most remarkable men, who has flourished on these frontiers for some time past. This man is brother of the famous Tecumseh, and quite equal in his medicines or mysteries, to what his brother was in arms; he was blind in his left eye, and in his right hand he was holding his 'medicine fire,' and his 'sacred string of beads' in the other. With these mysteries he made his way through most of the North Western tribes, enlisting warriors wherever he went, to assist Tecumseh in effecting his great scheme, of forming a confederacy of all the Indians on the frontier, to drive back the whites and defend the Indians' rights; which he told them could never in any other way be protected . . . [he] had actually enlisted some eight or ten thousand, who were sworn to follow him home; and in a few days would have been on their way with him, had not a couple of his political enemies from his own tribe... defeated his plans, by pronouncing him an imposter . . . This, no doubt, has been a very shrewd and influential man, but circumstances have destroyed him . . . and he now lives respected, but silent and melancholy in his tribe." (from Catlin, Letters and Notes, vol. 2, no. 49, 1841, reprint 1973; Truettner, The Natural Man Observed, 1979).

(Source: http://americanart.si.edu/search/search_artworks1.cfm?StartRow=1&format=long&db=all&LastName=&FirstName=&Title=&Accession=1985.66.279&Keyword= (from Wikipedia)

The Battle of Detroit was no contest. Hull surrendered without firing a shot, declaring himself a hero because he prevented what he feared would be a massacre by people he referred to as Indian "savages".

In the **Battle of Queenston Heights** in the present-day province of Ontario, the Americans again tried to take the offensive in what many call the first major battle of the War of 1812. The American forces were led by Major General Stephen Van Rensselaer, and the British forces, Canadian

militia and Mohawks were led by Major General Isaac Brock. The U.S. troops stationed at Lewiston, New York, which was situated on the Niagara River near Niagara Falls, just across from Canada, invaded Canada, crossing the Niagara River. Although Brock was killed, again the Americans lost. In retaliation for the attack, the British burned Lewiston to the ground.

In another attempt to conquer Canada, the Americans, led by Major General Henry Dearborn, tried to invade Canadian territory. The attack was called off as the American troops refused to cross the border.

II. War at Sea, along the Atlantic Ocean and East Coast of North America: With regard to the naval vessels each side had at its disposal, the relative strengths of the two protagonists were markedly skewed in favor of England. The British had 200 frigates and 100 ships-of-the-line while the Americans had eight frigates and no ships-of-the-line. Despite this disadvantage in numbers, the American vessels were remarkably successful, particularly when compared with their failure to make any headway into Canada. A few examples, for which medals were awarded to their commanders, will serve to illustrate their successes at sea.

In one of the first of several encounters between the United States warships and those of Britain, several of which occurred in 1812, the United States frigate *Constitution* had a fierce battle with *HMS Guerrière* (**Figure 21**), led by Captain James Richard Dacres. The *Constitution,* under the command of Captain Isaac Hull, was triumphant, an action for which Hull was awarded a congressional gold medal (**Figure 22**). As may be seen, the reverse of the medal accurately shows the *Guerrière* almost completely dismasted.

Figure 21. USS Constitution **Defeats** HMS Guerrière
Painting depicting the first victory at sea by *USS Constitution* over *HMS Guerrière* by Anton Otto Fischer
Source: Department Of The Navy -- Naval Historical Center

(Source: history.navy.mil)

Figure 22. **Captain Isaac Hull (Victory over the Guerrière)**
by John Reich: USA, 1812, Gold, 65 mm
Obverse: Bust of Hull (l) **ISAACUS HULL PERITOS ARTE SUPERAT JUL. MDCCCXII AUG. CERTAMINE FORTES** (Isaac Hull conquers in July, 1812, the skilled by stratagem, and in August, the powerful in battle.)
Reverse: USS Constitution (Old Ironsides) firing her starboard batteries at *HMS Guerrière* shown with her mainmast collapsing. Surrounding, **HORAE MOMENTO VICTORIA** (Victory in the Space of an Hour)
Exergue: **INTER CONST. NAV. AMER. ET GUER. ANGL.** (Between the American Vessel *Constitution* and the English Vessel *Guerrière*).
Signed: **R** (Reich)
Reference: Julian 160/NA-12; Loubat 153/25
This gold Congressional Medal, presented to Captain Isaac Hull, was likely struck in 1816. (Julian).

(Image courtesy USS Constitution Museum, Boston.)

Later in the same year, Captain Stephen Decatur, who had gained prominence years earlier in naval engagements fighting the Barbary pirates off Tripoli, engaged the British frigate *HMS Macedonian*, commanded by captain John Surnam Carden. Decatur, while commanding the frigate *USS United States* about 500 miles south of the Azores, forced the *Macedonian* to surrender, a victory for which he was awarded a gold medal by congress (Julian, NA-9). The reverse of this medal, shown in **Figure 23,** was based on a painting by Thomas Birch) (see also Wells).

Figure 23. **Naval Battle between** USS United States **and** HMS Macedonian
by Thomas Birch, 1813
This naval battle between the United States and British warships took place on Oct. 30, 1812.
(Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:BirchBattleBetweenTheUnitedStatesAndTheMacedonian.jpg)

Just a couple months later, in December 1812, Captain William Bainbridge, then in command of the United States frigate *Constitution*, engaged the British frigate *HMS Java* off the coast of Brazil. Bainbridge, though wounded, continued his command, and after inflicting heavy losses on his adversary, forced the *Java* to surrender, burning it at sea (**Figure 24**). For this heroic and successful encounter, congress awarded Bainbridge a gold medal (**Figure 25**), the resolution stating, "*...in testimony of the high sense entertained by Congress of the gallantry, good conduct and services of Captain Bainbridge, his officers, and crew, in the capture of the British frigate Java, after a brave and skillful combat"* (Loubat). In all, the *USS Constitution* defeated five British warships during the War of 1812: *HMS Guerrière, Java, Pictou, Cyane and Levant*. For her early defeat of the *Guerrière*, the *Constitution* earned the nickname of "Old Ironsides". As another interesting aside, *HMS Cyane*, upon her surrender, was re-named *USS Cyane* and was used by the United States from 1819-1821 to suppress piracy and the slave trade off the west coast of Africa and in the West Indies.

Figure 24. USS Constitution **Defeats** HMS Java
Painting in oils by Charles Robert Patterson, depicting the frigate *Constitution* (at left), commanded by Captain William Bainbridge, exchanging broadsides with the British Frigate *Java* off Brazil on December 29, 1812. During nearly two hours of battle, *Java* was dismasted and had to surrender. Her damage was so severe that she had to be burned.

(Source: www.history.navy.mil)

Figure 25. **Captain William Bainbridge (Capture of the Java)**
by Muritz Furst: USA, 1812, Bronze, 65 mm
Obverse: Bust of Bainbridge **GULIELMUS BAINBRIDGE PATRIA VICTISQUE LAUDATUS** (William Bainbridge, Praised by His Country and by the Vanquished Foe)
Reverse: Naval battle, showing the *Java* completely dismasted **PUGNANDO** (In Fighting)
Exergue: **INTER CONST. NAV. AMERI. ET JAV. NAV. ANGL. DIE XXIX DECEM. MDCCCXII** (Between the American Warship *Constitution* and the English Warship *Java*, December 29, 1812)
Signed: **FURST. F.**
Mintage: 150 struck in bronze. Struck from original dies
Reference: Julian 152/ NA-4; Failor 215/ 507; Loubat 166/28; Jaeger and Bowers 54/43; Neuzil 24; Weiss 127

(Source: Weiss Collection)

In February, 1813, the sloop-of-war *USS Hornet*, under the leadership of Master Commandant James Lawrence, encountered the sloop-of-war *HMS Peacock* off the northern coast of South America. The *Hornet*'s superior gunnery forced Captain William Peake to surrender the *Peacock* within fifteen minutes. Later in 1813, while commanding the *USS Chesapeake* in an engagement with the British ship *Shannon*, Lawrence was mortally wounded. His last words, when carried below, were, "*Don't give up the ship!*" These iconic words were later used on the battle flag of Captain Oliver Perry in his victories on Lake Erie (see below).

For Lawrence's defeat of the *Peacock*, congress, in 1814, passed a resolution stating that, "*The President of the United States be requested to present to the nearest male relative of Captain James Lawrence, a gold medal...*". The reverse of this medal shows the *Hornet* sending her boats to rescue the crew of the *Peacock* as the defeated ship sinks; the inscription, alluding to the rescue mission, is translated as *Clemency Greater than Victory* (**Figure 26**).

Figure 26. **Captain James Lawrence (Capture of the Peacock)**
by Moritz Furst: USA, 1813, Bronze, 64 mm
Obverse: Bust of Lawrence **JAC. LAWRENCE DULCE ET DECORUM EST PRO PATRIA MORI** (James Lawrence. It Is Sweet and Becoming to Die for One's Country)
Reverse: The *USS Hornet* sending boat to rescue crew of *HMS Peacock*, which has lost her mainmast and is sinking.
MANSUETUD MAJ QUAM VICTORIA (Clemency Greater than Victory)
Exergue: **INTER HORNET NAV. AMERI. ET PEACOCK NAV. ANG. DIE XXIV. FEB. MDCCCXIII** (Between the American Vessel *Hornet* and English Warship *Peacock* February 24, 1813)
Signed: **FURST F**
Mintage: 45 struck in bronze. Struck in 1821 from original dies
Reference: Julian 162/NA-14; Loubat 185/33; see Jaeger and Bowers 54/43; Neuzil 33; Weiss 130

(Source: Weiss Collection)

In March, 1815, Captain James Biddle, in command of the *Hornet*, met and captured Captain James Dickenson and the British *HMS Penguin* off Tristan d'Acunha in the South Atlantic (**Figure 27**). As with the other naval officers, Biddle was awarded a medal by congress for "*the gallantry, good conduct, and services…in capturing the British sloop-of-war Penguin, after a brave and skillful combat*" (Loubat). The reverse of the medal shows the *Hornet* raking the *Penguin*, with the masts of the defeated vessel severely damaged; in the distance is the peak of Tristan d'Acunha (**Figure 28**). It may be noted that this battle, which was the last warship action in the War of 1812, took place after the Treaty of Ghent had already been signed, the news not yet having reached the combatants.

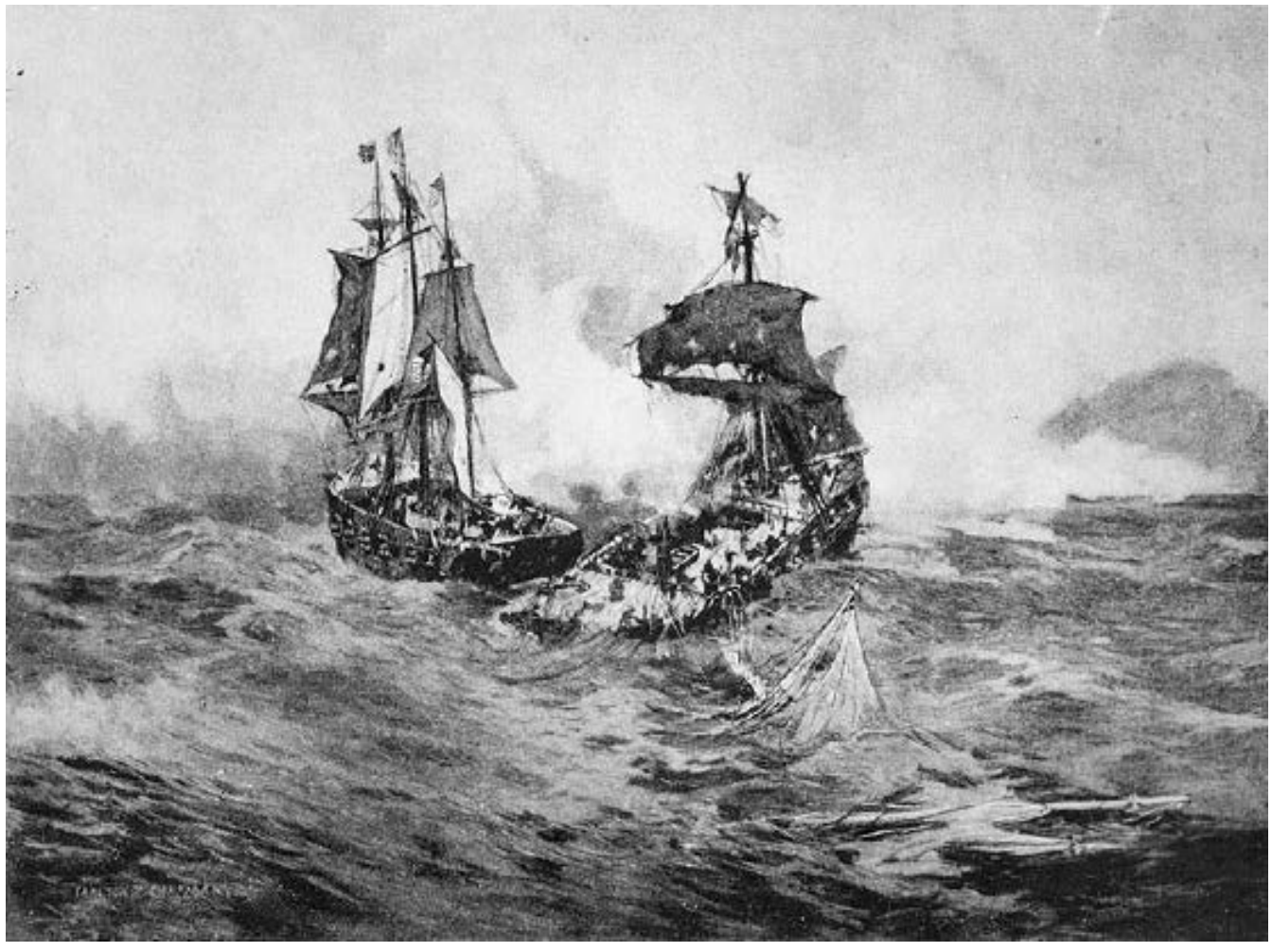

Figure 27. USS Hornet **Defeats** HMS Penguin
Halftone reproduction of an artwork by Carlton T. Chapman, depicting the capture of *HMS Penguin* by *USS Hornet* off Tristan da Cunha, in the South Atlantic, on March 23, 1815.

(Source: www.history.navy.mil)

Figure 28. **Captain James Biddle (Capture of the Penguin)**
By Moritz Furst: USA, 1815, Bronze, 65 mm
Obverse: Bust of James Biddle **THE CONGRESS OF THE U.S. TO CAPT. JAMES BIDDLE. FOR HIS GALLANTRY GOOD CONDUCT AND SERVICES.**
Reverse: Naval battle showing the *Hornet* raking the *Penguin*. The British vessel has lost a good portion of her masts. In the distance is the peak of Tristan d'Acunha **CAPTURE OF THE BRITISH SHIP PENGUIN BY THE U.S. SHIP HORNET.**
Exergue: **OFF TRISTAN D'ACUNHA MARCH XXIII MDCCCXV**
Signed: **FURST. F.**
Mintage: 98 struck in bronze. Struck from original dies.
Reference: Julian 153/ NA-5; Failor 226/518; Loubat 249/48; see Jaeger and Bowers 54/43; Neuzil 25; Weiss 128

(Source: Weiss Collection)

In all, congress authorized 20 medals for some 16 naval commanders, the most famous of whom was probably Master Commandant Oliver Hazard Perry (**Figure 29**), who led American forces in a decisive naval victory at the **Battle of Lake Erie** (**Figure 30**) and whose brilliant strategic leadership influenced the outcomes of all of the Lake Erie campaigns.

Figure 29. **Oliver Hazard Perry**
Captain Oliver Hazard Perry, USN (1785-1819), portrait in oils by Edward L. Mooney (1813-1887) after John Wesley Jarvis (1839). Painting in the U.S. Naval Academy Museum Collection.

(Source: http://www.history.navy.mil/photos/hires/KN%2000001/KN2783.jpg)

Figure 30. **Battle of Lake Erie**
Mural of the Battle of Lake Erie, which took place on September 10, 1813, was made by Charles Robert Patterson and Howard B. French. It depicts the U.S. Brig *Niagara*, flagship of Master Commandant Oliver Hazard Perry, raking the British warships *Queen Charlotte* and *Detroit*, which are afoul of each other after colliding. Flying on *Niagara's* mainmast is Perry's battle flag on which is the motto "Don't Give Up the Ship".

(Source: U.S. Naval History and Heritage Command)

The Battle of Lake Erie, fought in 1813, was one of the most memorable for the Americans. Here British Lieutenant Robert Barclay, with a fleet led by his flagship *HMS Detroit*, tried to secure what was then the major supply line for the British. However, Captain Perry, commanding his Flagship *USS Lawrence*, engaged Barclay and decisively defeated and captured his squadron, prompting the now-famous saying attributed to Perry, "*We have met the enemy and they are ours*". The British supply line was severed and the British were forced to retreat up the Thames River for Canada. Soon after the war congress awarded Perry a gold medal (**Figure 31**) *"for the decisive and glorious victory gained on Lake Erie...over a British squadron of superior force*" (Loubat).

Figure 31. **Master Commandant Oliver H. Perry (Victory of Lake Erie)**
by Moritz Furst: USA, 1813*, Bronze, 65 mm
Obverse: Bust of Perry (r) **OLIVERUS H. PERRY. PRINCEPS STAGNO ERIENSE. CLASSIM** (sic) **TOTAM CONTUDIT** (Oliver H. Perry, Commander-In-Chief, Destroyed an Entire Fleet on Lake Erie)
Reverse: Detailed view of naval engagement between British and American ships **VIAM INVENIT VIRTUS AUT FACIT** (Virtue Finds or Makes a Way)
Exergue: **INTER CLASS. AMERI. ET BRIT. DIE X SEP. MDCCCXIII** (Between the Fleets of America and Britain, September 10, 1813).
Signed: **FURST. F.**
Reference: Julian NA-17; Loubat 176/31
CLASSIM in the obverse legend should be spelled CLASSEM.
* The dies for this medal were probably finished about 1818, the reverse die being similar to that of the medal issued for Master Commandant Jesse D. Elliott (Julian NA-10).

(Source of image: Heritage Auction)

These military victories on Lake Erie are thought to be a major turning point in the contest for the West in the War of 1812.

Campaign in the West: In the campaign west of Lake Erie, William Henry Harrison directed the American forces while Henry Procter (seen also as Proctor) commanded the combined British and Native American forces. The campaign was brutal on both sides, though as noted by Tecumseh's brother, Ten-squát-a-way, it was only called a massacre when the Americans were killed; when the Native warriors were killed, it was called a great triumph.

The Battle at Fort Stephenson took place in August, 1813, at Fort Stephenson near Sandusky, Ohio. It pitted British Brigadier General Henry Procter, who was intent on dividing the western portion of the United States, against Colonel George Croghan, commanding the American forces. The contest was decidedly one-sided with Procter having several pieces of artillery and 1300 troops, including 800 Indians, with another 2000 Indians in reserve. By contrast, Croghan had just one piece of artillery and barely 200 men. Refusing to surrender, Croghan and his forces prevailed, killing more than 150 of the British. England never again seriously threatened the northwestern portion of the United States.

Although Croghan was not recognized for a medal during the war, in a belated recognition of his bravery, congressional legislators did approve a gold medal for Colonel George Croghan's defense of Fort Stephenson in 1835, the last War of 1812 medal to be awarded (**Figure 32**). As an interesting aside for numismatists, although many naval medals had Latin inscriptions, this is the only army medal issued during this period that has a Latin inscription (PARS MAGNA FUIT), translated as "*His Share Was Great*".[5]

5 For more on this battle and the medal issued to Colonel Croghan see: http://www.numismaticnews.net/article/croghanmedallastforwarof1812

Figure 32. **Colonel George Croghan (Defense of Fort Stephenson)**
by Moritz Furst: USA, 1835, Bronze, 65 mm
Obverse: Bust of Colonel Croghan (r) **PRESENTED BY CONGRESS TO COLONEL GEORGE CROGHAN 1835**
Reverse: Croghan defending against the English troops attacking the American Fort Stephenson. Three gunboats on Lake Erie in background. **PARS MAGNA FUIT** (His Share Was Great)
Exergue: **SANDUSKY 2: AUGUST. 1813**
Signed: **FURST. F.**
Mintage: 100 struck in bronze
Reference: Julian 124/MI-12; Failor 197/420; Loubat 272/55; Jaeger and Bowers 54/43; Neuzil 14; Weiss 132

(Source: Weiss Collection)

The Battle of the Thames, which was fought in Moraviantown, Canada, in October, 1813, less than a month after the Battle of Lake Erie, was perhaps the most momentous for the aspirations of the Native Nations. On the one side was British Colonel Henry Procter, allied with Tecumseh and his Indian warriors, and on the other side were William Henry Harrison and his American troops, with Governor Isaac Shelby leading the Kentucky militia. Procter made many tactical errors, among which was his retreat from the battlefield, for which he later was issued a court martial. This left Tecumseh and his Native warriors essentially on their own. Greatly outmanned and outgunned by Harrison and his force of 3500 infantry and cavalry, Tecumseh and his 500 warriors were routed, and Tecumseh was killed (**Figures 33, 34**). The withdrawal of the British, combined with the death of Tecumseh, broke the power of Britain's Indian allies and gave the Americans control of the Great Lakes.

Figure 33. **Tecumseh's Death**
Although the person who actually killed Tecumseh is still in dispute, some believe that he was shot to death by Colonel Richard M. Johnson* on October 5, 1813, during the Battle of the Thames. There are several artistic renditions of Tecumseh's death (**see figure 34**), but this is one of the few showing the Shawnee wearing a medal, presumably meant to represent an Indian Peace medal given to him by the British.
*Johnson later served as Vice President of the United States serving in the administration of Martin Van Buren.

(Image from http://www.americanindianshistory.blogspot.com/)

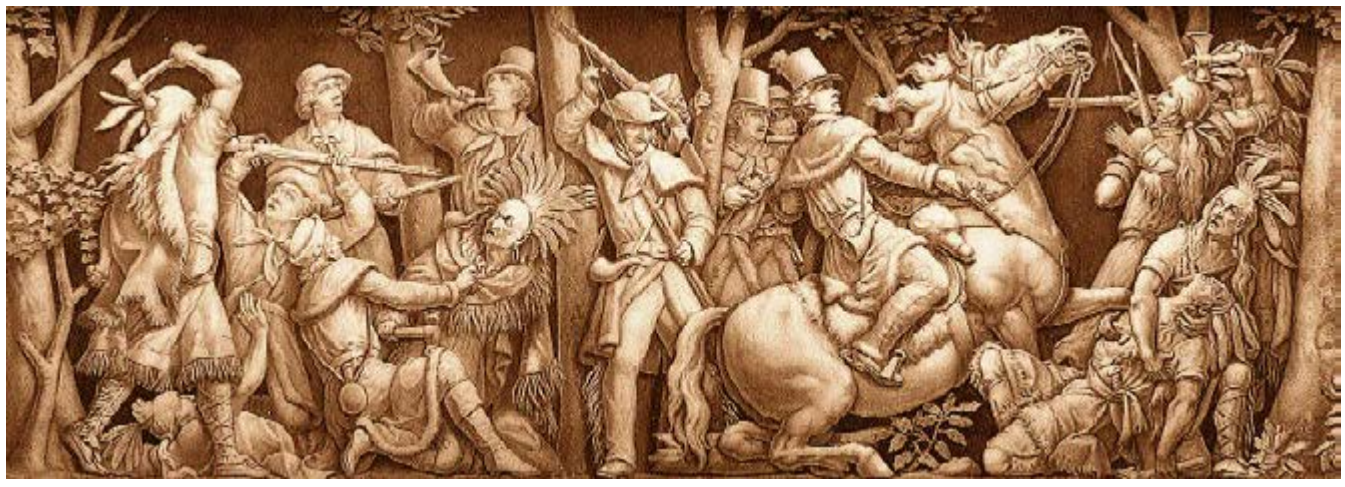

Figure 34. **Death of Tecumseh**
Frieze, "Death of Tecumseh", in the Rotunda of the United States Capitol. Tecumseh, the brilliant Shawnee chief, warrior, and orator, is shown being fatally shot by Colonel Johnson at the Battle of the Thames in Upper Canada during the War of 1812. Tecumseh and his followers joined forces with the British to resist the encroachment of settlers on Indian territory. With Tecumseh's death, the momentum and power of the Indian confederacy was broken.

(Image from Architect of the Capitol in Wikipedia)

The battle of the Thames at Moraviantown is historically important for several nations. It marked the first important breakthrough for the Americans against the British in the War of 1812, although it did not lead to their ultimate goal--the control and eventual annexation of Canada. It was significant for both the Americans and the British, as Moraviantown marked the end of major military operations west of Lake Ontario; both sides now concentrated their efforts on the battles further east. For Canada, it is considered sufficiently important for them to have celebrated "*Tecumseh Day*" on the centenary of Moraviantown. For the Indian nations, it also was a watershed event. As the Ottawa leader Naiwish, who fought with Tecumseh at Moraviantown, put it: "*Since our great chief Tecumtha [sic] has been killed, we do not listen to one another. We do not rise together.*" A similar sentiment was echoed by the historian Reginald Horsman who wrote, Moraviantown was "…*the decisive battle of the war on the Detroit frontier, and the decisive battle for the Indians of the whole region. It meant more to them than the loss of a single battle, for this was also their last great battle in defense of the Old*

Northwest". Indeed, with the death of Tecumseh, from that point on the Native Americans were no longer a force in the war nor would they ever again have a say in who would hold power in North America.

For their distinguished conduct in the Battle of the Thames, congress awarded gold medals to Governor Isaac Shelby (**Figure 35**), and to Major General William Henry Harrison, the latter for "*gallantry and good conduct in defeating the combined British and Indian forces under Major-General Proctor, on the Thames, in Upper Canada [in1813]...capturing the British army, with their baggage, camp equipment and artillery*" (Loubat). That the Indians played an important role for the British in this battle is supported by the letter from General Harrison to the Secretary of War, General John Armstrong, in which he makes numerous references to the Indian warriors: "*...the contest was more severe with the Indians*"; and "*...General Proctor had at his disposal upwards of three thousand Indian warriors...*"; and still later in the report, "*The Indians suffered most...*" (Loubat, pp. 256-261).

Figure 35. **Governor Isaac Shelby (Battle of the Thames)**
by Moritz Furst: USA, 1818, White Metal, 65 mm
Obverse: Bust of Shelby (r) **GOVERNOR ISAAC SHELBY.**
Reverse: Scene from Battle of the Thames showing mounted riflemen charging the enemy. **BATTLE OF THE THAMES. OCTO. 5. 1813.**
Exergue: **RESOLUTION OF CONGRESS APRIL 4, 1818.**
Signed: **FURST F.**
Reference: Julian MI-21; Loubat 265/51
Isaac Shelby led the Kentucky militia in the Battle of the Thames, an action that was rewarded with a Congressional Gold Medal.

(Image courtesy of Stacks' Bowers)

The Niagara Theater of 1813 was one of the most bloody of the war as U.S. forces burned the town of Newark (now Niagara). This action was unusual for the time, for generally civilian homes were not attacked indiscriminately. There were atrocities on both sides; the British retaliated by burning Buffalo and the Americans by burning York (now Toronto), then the provincial capital of Upper Canada. This latter action set the stage for the British burning of Washington, D.C.

Burning of Washington, D.C. and the Battle of Baltimore. Although the final defeat of Napoleon at the Battle of Waterloo, in June, 1815, had not yet taken place, by April, 1814, the French Emperor had abdicated his throne, and was banished to the Mediterranean island of Elba, freeing up British troops and ships for their war with the United States. The British, aided by liberated black slaves, who were offered freedom by the British, sailed up the Chesapeake toward a relatively undefended Washington, D.C., and in August, 1814, famously burned the Capital, the President's Palace (later called The White House), and several other public buildings (**Figure 36**). Fortunately, just hours before the British arrived in Washington, Dolly Madison, wife of the President, escaped the White House, carrying with her a copy of the Declaration of Independence and the renowned *Lansdowne* portrait of George Washington by Gilbert Stuart (**Figure 37**).

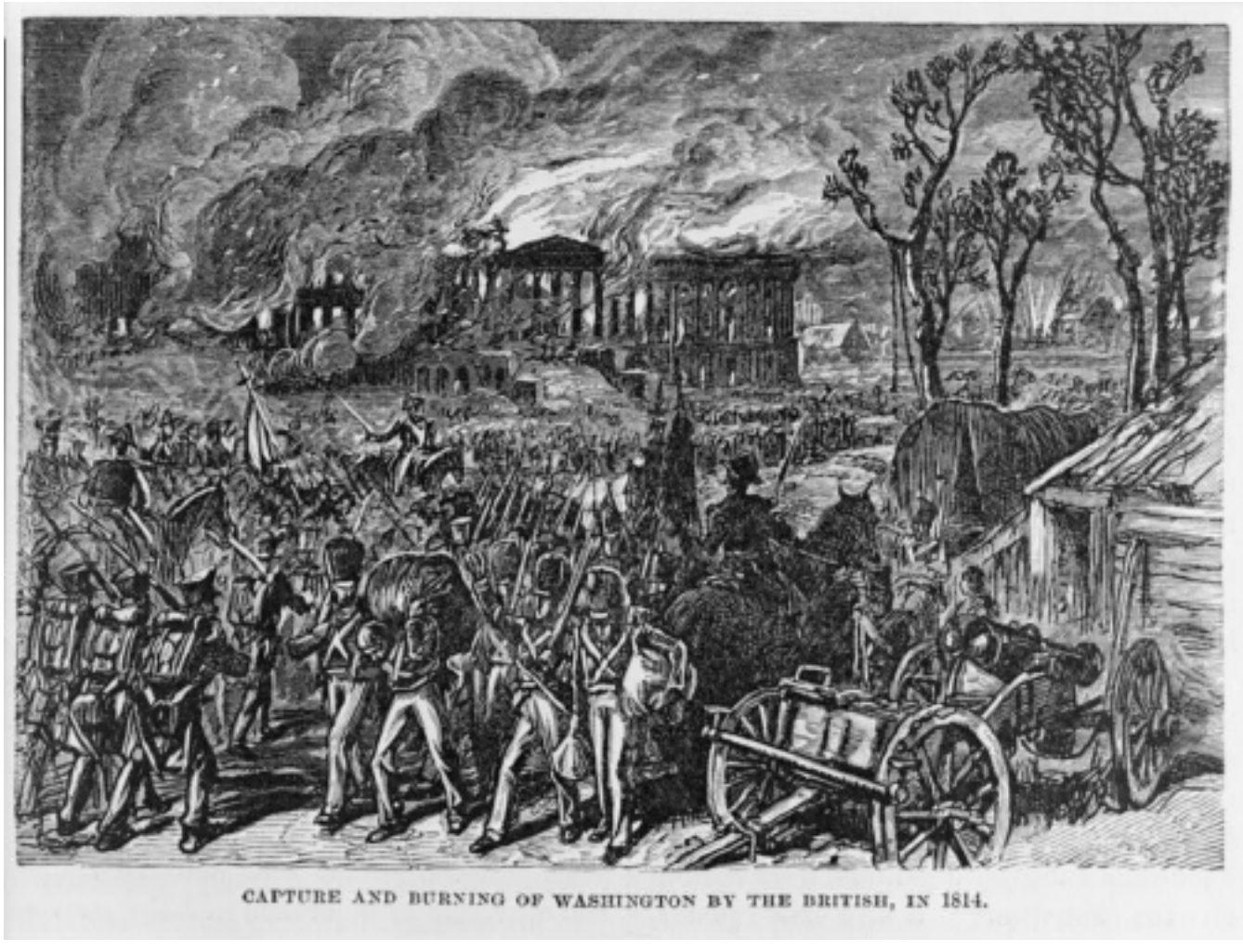

Figure 36. **Capture and Burning of Washington by the British, in 1814.**
Drawing published in 1876. The drawing apparently is a somewhat inaccurate rendering of the United States Capitol as there was no center building or pediment in 1814.

(Source: Library of Congress)

Figure 37. **George Washington "Lansdowne" Portrait**
by Gilbert Stuart, 1796, National Portrait Gallery, Smithsonian Institute, Washington D.C.

(Image from Wikipedia)

To capitalize on their demoralizing attack of Washington, the British then went north to Baltimore with land and sea forces, laying siege to Fort McHenry, the major defense of Baltimore Harbor. However, in what many consider to be one of the turning points of the war, American forces repulsed the British. The bombardment by the British of Fort McHenry (**Figure 38**) and its defense by the Americans inspired Francis Scott Key, who saw the United States flag still flying over the fort (**Figure 39**), to compose the poem *Defense of Fort McHenry*, which later, somewhat modified,

would become the lyrics for the American National Anthem, *The StarSpangled Banner*, put to the tune of an old English drinking song *Anacreon in Heaven*.

Figure 38. **Bombardment of Ft McHenry**
A view of the bombardment of Fort McHenry, near Baltimore, by the British fleet, taken from the observatory under the command of Admirals Cochrane & Cockburn, on the morning of the 13th of September, 1814. Aquatint with hand coloring by John Bower.

(Source: Arthistory.about.com)

Figure 39. **US Flag That Flew Over Fort McHenry**
This flag, which inspired Francis Scott Key to write the song that would become the national anthem of the United States of America, was made by Baltimore flagmaker Mary Pickersgill in July-August, 1813. She was assisted in its construction by her daughter, two nieces and an indentured African-American girl. The flag was raised over Fort McHenry on the morning of September 14, 1814, to signal the American victory over the British in the Battle of Baltimore. The original garrison flag was 30 feet by 42 feet, with each star about two feet in diameter and each stripe about 24 inches wide. It was stitched from a combination of dyed English wool bunting (red and white stripes and blue union) and white cotton (stars).

Image and description from website of the Smithsonian's National Museum of American History in Washington, D.C. (http://www.si.edu)

That Baltimore did not fall gave the Americans a stronger position in the ongoing peace negotiations then being held in Ghent, this ancient and important city in the Flemish region of present-day Belgium, then neutral in the conflict between America and England. There the British had demanded an Indian state for the American Indians. Now, with their hands strengthened, the Americans rejected this proposal. Henceforth, the ultimate fate of the Native Indian Nations would be decided by European Americans.

During the same time period that British forces were engaging Baltimore, the English invaded the town of Plattsburgh at the western boundary of Lake Champlain, again with land and sea personnel (**Figure 40**). The British army was under Lieutenant General Sir George Prévost and their naval squadron under Captain George Downie. The American troops were led by Brigadier General Alexander Macomb and their ships commanded by Master Commandant Thomas Macdonough. Macomb prevented the British forces from crossing the Saranac River at Plattsburgh, and Macdonough and his men were victorious in the **Battle of Lake Champlain**, forcing the English to relinquish the strategic lake and withdraw their army. For his actions at Plattsburgh, Alexander Macomb was promoted to Major General and was awarded a congressional gold medal, the reverse of this medal showing the American army repulsing the British troops, who are attempting to cross the Saranac River (**Figure 41**). Likewise, Thomas Macdonough was presented a gold medal by congress (Julian NA-15) "*for the decisive and splendid victory gained on Lake Champlain...over a British squadron of superior force*" (Loubat). Also involved in the Battle of Lake Champlain was Lieutenant Stephen Cassin, who, while commanding the sloop *Ticonderoga*, contributed decisively to victory over the British, for which he similarly received a congressional gold medal (**Figure 42**).

Figure 40. **Naval Battle on Lake Champlain near Plattsburgh**
Engraving by B. Tanner, 1816.

(Source: Wikipedia)

Figure 41. **Major General Alexander Macomb (Victory of Plattsburg)**
by Moritz Furst: USA, 1814, Bronze, 65 mm
Obverse: Bust of Major General Alexander Macomb (r). *Around:* **MAJOR GENERAL ALEXANDER MACOMB**
Reverse: The American troops are shown preventing the British from crossing the Saranac River. To the left is Plattsburgh in flames and to the right the naval battle on Lake Champlain[6]. In the distance is Cumberland Head. *Around:* **RESOLUTION OF CONGRESS NOVEMBER 3. 1814.**
Exergue: **BATTLE OF PLATTSBURGH SEPT. 11. 1814.**
Signed: **FURST. F.**
Reference: Julian MI-16; Loubat 233/45

(Source: Image courtesy of Stacks' Bowers)

6 Identified in Julian (NA-16), incorrectly, as Lake Erie.

Figure 42. **Lieutenant Stephen Cassin (Victory of Lake Champlain)**
by Moritz Furst: USA, 1814, Gold, 65 mm
Obverse: Bust of Cassin (r). **STEP. CASSIN TICONDEROGA PRÆFECT. QUÆ REGIO IN TERRIS NOS. NON PLENA LAB.** (Stephen Cassin, Commander of the *Ticonderoga*. What Region of the Earth Is Not Full of Our Works: *From Virgil, Aeneid, Book I, 464*)
Reverse: Naval action on Lake Champlain. To right is city of Plattsburgh in flames. **UNO LATERE PERCUSSO. ALTERUM IMPAVIDE VERTIT.** (Beaten on One Side, He Fearlessly Turns the Other).
Exergue: **INTER CLASS. AMERI. ET BRIT. DIE XI SEPT. MDCCCXIIII** (Between the American and British Fleets, September 11, 1814)
Signed: **FURST. F.**
Reference: Julian NA-8; Loubat 195/36

(Image courtesy, Winterthur, Naval medal, bequest of Henry Francis du Pont, 1964.145)

The **Battles at Chippewa** (also seen as Chippawa) and geographically related sites along the Niagara River were also fought in 1814. As Napoleon was seen to be soon defeated in Europe, the American forces were eager to win a victory in Canada before British reinforcements arrived there. Led by Major Generals Winfield Scott and Jacob Brown, and aided by a force of Iroquois warriors under Seneca Chief Sagoyewatha (Red Jacket) (**Figure 43**), the U.S. troops, won successive victories at Chippewa, Niagara and Erie, in Upper Canada[7] (at Erie the battle was fought without Scott, who was severely wounded at Niagara), inflicting significant casualties on British regulars, Canadian militiamen and Indian warriors fighting on the British side. Indeed, the Battle of Niagara Falls (also called the Battle of Lundy's Lane) was one of the bloodiest battles of the war and one of the deadliest ever fought on Canadian soil. Although successful for the Americans, these were the last major attempts by the U.S. forces to conquer Upper Canada.

7 For more on the Battles for Upper Canada with maps, see: http://www.napoleonseries.org/military/Warof1812/2006/Issue1/c_ccuc.html

Figure 43. **Sagoyewatha (Red Jacket)**
Red Jacket (Sagoyewatha, or Keeper Awake), by Charles Bird King, ca. 1828.
Oil on wood panel.
The Seneca Chief Sagoyewatha, one of the period's great Native American orators, is shown wearing a large, oval, silver Washington Peace Medal frequently given to Indian Chiefs. Unlike many other Native Americans, Sagoyewatha sided with and fought alongside the Americans against the British. Nevertheless, like so many of the other Indians, after the war he and his people were driven westward away from their ancestral homeland by the same European Americans he befriended.

(Source: The Lunder Collection, Colby College Museum of Art)

For their triumphs in these battles, both Brown (**Figure 44**) and Scott (Julian MI-20) were awarded Congressional Gold Medals.

Figure 44. **Major General Jacob Brown (Victories at Chippewa, Niagara and Erie)**
by Moritz Furst: USA, 1814, Bronze, 65 mm
Obverse: Bust (r) **MAJOR GENERAL JACOB BROWN.**
Reverse: A trophy with fasces, wreaths, eagle, flags, trumpets, rifle, swords and cannonballs. Hanging from the wreath are shields bearing the names of the three victories: **NIAGARA, ERIE, CHIPPEWA.** At the foot of the trophy is the American eagle holding in its talons a British standard. *Around*, **RESOLUTION OF CONGRESS NOVEMBER 3, 1814.**
Exergue: **BATTLES OF CHIPPEWA. JULY 5. 1814. NIAGARA. JULY 25. 1814. ERIE. SEP. 14. 1814**
Signed: **FURST. F.**
Reference: Julian MI-11; Loubat 203/39

At about the same time, in August, 1814, there was a land battle at Fort Erie, situated on the Niagara River at the eastern tip of Lake Erie. There, Brigadier General Edmund Gaines successfully repulsed the British assault (**Figure 45**). General Gaines was seriously wounded in this battle, ending his active field career. For this victory Gaines was awarded the thanks of Congress, promotion to major general and a gold medal (**Figure 46**).

Figure 45. **British Forces Repulsed by Edmund Gaines at Fort Erie**
Painting of *Repulsion of the British at Fort Erie, 15th August, 1814,* by E. C. Watmough. Chicago History Museum / The Bridgeman Art Library
(Source: neh.gov)

Figure 46. **Major General Edmund Pendleton Gaines (Victory of Erie)**
by Moritz Furst: USA, 1814, Bronze, 65 mm
Obverse: Bust of General Gaines (r) **MAJOR GENERAL EDMUND P. GAINES.**
Reverse: Trophy of enemy's arms and cannon, labeled **ERIE**, crowned by Victory who stands upon a fallen British shield.
RESOLUTION OF CONGRESS NOVEMBER 3. 1814.
Exergue: **BATTLE OF ERIE AUG. 15, 1814.**
Signed: **FURST F.**
Mintage: 125 struck from the original dies which were cut by Furst in 1821. Inscriptions were punched into the dies in 1822.
Reference: Julian 125/MI-13; Neuzil 15; Loubat 226/44; Jaeger and Bowers 54/43; Weiss 648

(Source: Weiss Collection)

Although the Iroquois warriors played a significant role in these battles on both sides and suffered significant casualties, no mention was made of them either as allies or opponents in the official citation of the medals awarded by Congress to Major General Jacob Brown or Major General Peter Porter for their victories in the Battles of Chippewa, Niagara and Erie. This was in spite of the fact that Porter, in a correspondence to Brown, stated that "*Captain Fleming, who commanded the Indians, was, as he always is, in the front of the Battle*." The resolutions of Congress in voting medals to Generals Brown, Scott, Porter, Gaines, Macomb, Ripley, and Miller state, in part, "*That thanks of Congress be, and they are hereby, presented to Major General Brown, and through him to the officers and men of the regular army, and of the militia under his command, for their gallantry and good conduct in the successive battles of Chippewa, Niagara, and Erie, in Upper Canada, in which British veteran troops were beaten and repulsed by equal or inferior numbers*:..". Thus, the commanders, regular army and militia are cited, but not the Indians, who made up a significant proportion of the fighters and casualties both for the Americans and British. For example, Brigadier General Peter Porter commanded a brigade of 753 volunteers from the militia, together with 600 Iroquois. For the British, Major General Phineas Riall had 1,500 regulars and 300 Indians and militia.

III. Southern Theater: The major battles in the South took place late in the war, and indeed, even after the treaty ending the war had been concluded. In 1814, Andrew Jackson and his forces defeated the Creek Nation at the **Battle of Horseshoe Bend**, forcing them to cede to the United States Government half of central Alabama and part of southern Georgia. In January, 1815, as negotiations at Ghent were underway, a massive British fleet headed for New Orleans, the gateway to the Louisiana Territory, half of continental United States. To meet them was Andrew Jackson with his regular army, militia and black recruits. Also aiding Jackson was the French pirate and privateer, Jean Lafitte, who had been granted the promise of clemency for him and his men in exchange for his joining Jackson against the British. The **Battle of New Orleans** was brief and decisive in favor of the American forces. It was not until after the battle that news reached the belligerents, indicating that a peace treaty had already been signed at Ghent. Nevertheless, for this victory at the Battle of New Orleans, congress awarded Jackson a medal in 1815 (**Figure 47**).

Figure 47. **Major General Andrew Jackson (Battle of New Orleans)**
by Moritz Furst: USA, 1815, Bronze, 65 mm
Obverse: Military bust (r) of "Old Hickory," with braid and epaulets. *Around:* **MAJOR GENERAL ANDREW JACKSON.**
Reverse: Fame, writing **ORLEANS** on a tablet is halted by Peace *Around*, **RESOLUTION OF CONGRESS FEBRUARY 27. 1815.**
Exergue: **BATTLE OF NEW-ORLEANS JANUARY 8. 1815.**
Signed: **FURST F.**
Reference: Julian 127/MI-15; Loubat 238/46

(Image courtesy of Stacks' Bowers)

Conclusion of the War

The War of 1812 was formally concluded with the ratification of the Treaty of Ghent between Great Britain and the United States (**Figure 48**), an event memorialized by the issuance of a medal commemorating this occasion (**Figure 49**). Although the treaty was signed in December 24, 1814, because of slow communications at that time, hostilities, such as the Battle of New Orleans, which took place on January 8, 1815, continued past this time.

Figure 48. **Signing of the Treaty of Ghent, 1814**
by Amédée Forestier, in Smithsonian American Art Museum
Admiral of the Fleet James Gambier is shaking hands with United States Ambassador to Russia John Quincy Adams. British UnderSecretary of State for War and the Colonies Henry Goulburn is carrying a red folder.
The treaty was signed on December 24, 1814, in Ghent (modern-day Belgium), ending the War of 1812 between the United States and Great Britain. However, it was not put into effect until it was ratified by both sides in February, 1815, a month after the Battle of New Orleans had taken place.

(Source: Wikipedia)

Figure 49. **Treaty of Ghent**
by John Gregory Hancock: England, 1814, Bronze, 46 mm
Obverse: Peace standing on a terrestrial globe holding and olive branch and cornucopia. **ON EARTH PEACE GOOD WILL TO MEN**
Reverse: Inscription within open wreath. **TREATY OF PEACE & AMITY BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA SIGNED AT GHENT DEC. 24. 1814**
Reference: Brown 841

(Image courtesy of The British Museum)

As far as the British and Americans were concerned, little was changed by the treaty, the document essentially restoring each country's territory to the boundaries that existed before the war. The war's effect on the so-called minority populations was mixed. During the war, thousands of black enslaved Americans went over to the British side, fighting with them against the Americans, but although the Treaty of Ghent stipulated that Britain return to the United States the black slaves who had escaped to British territories during the war, the British, in fact, reimbursed the slave owners and freed the slaves, many of whom settled in what is now Canada. The Indian nations, who were not even represented at the negotiations, did not fare as well; the Americans even inserted as part of the treaty a promise from the British not to arm the Indians nor even trade with them. To quote one source: "*By its end American fear and hatred escalated into a merciless determination to exterminate all Indians and seize their lands--and the withdrawal of British protection gave the Americans a free hand. In that sense, the final victory at New Orleans had enduring and massive consequences. It gave the Americans continental predominance while it left the Indians dispossessed, powerless, and vulnerable*" (Taylor, 2011).

With the conclusion of the War of 1812, the plight of the Native American Tribes became more acute. In fairness, there were those who made an attempt to mitigate the fate of the native peoples. In 1816, President James Madison appointed as Superintendent of Indian Trade Thomas McKenney, who had a sincere interest in the culture and artifacts of American Indians. An examination of his statements, however, clearly suggests that he viewed them as less civilized than the Euro-Americans. In 1817, McKenny urged that, "*Indians be looked upon as human beings, having bodies and souls like ours, possessed of sensibilities and capacities as keen and large as ours, that their misery be inspected and held up to the view of our citizens, that their trophies of reform be pointed to. I say, it needs only this to enlist into their favor the whole civilized population of our country.*" In 1824, McKenney even went so far as to embark on a program designed to accumulate definitive information about the Indians, "*with the view of preserving in the archives of the Government whatever of the aboriginal man can be rescued from the destruction which awaits his race.*" Despite these attempts at understanding of the Native American cultures, the end result for the American Indian Nations was an unequivocal disaster.

One particular series of events serves as an example of the hardships the Native Americans endured following the War of 1812. In 1830, congress, with the support of President Andrew Jackson, passed the Indian Removal Act, which claimed the native lands of the Cherokee and other Indian Nations in parts of Southeastern United States for the European Americans. In 1831, the Choctaw were forced to leave, then the Seminole in 1832 and Creek in 1837. By 1837, more than 46,000 Native Americans from these southeastern states had been wrenched from their homelands, thereby opening 25 million acres of land, previously occupied by Native Americans, for predominantly white settlement (**Figure 50**). The Cherokee, however, fought this ruling and won their case before the U.S. Supreme Court. Nevertheless, Jackson, who had territorial interests of his own, famously said, "*[Chief Justice] John Marshall has made his decision; let him enforce it now if he can*". The path was now clear for one of the most deplorable episodes in early U.S. history, for in 1838, about 14,000 Cherokee were evicted from their homelands in the Appalachian Mountains and forced to walk to a newly-formed Indian Territory in what is now eastern Oklahoma, a journey of some 900 miles. During this infamous **Trail of Tears**, as many as 4000 Cherokee died of exposure, disease and starvation. Their plight has been recorded from a Cherokee account from *The Oklahoman*, 1929, cited by John Ehle: "*Long time we travel on way to new land. People feel bad when they leave Old Nation. Women cry and made sad wails. Children cry and many men cry, and all look sad like when friends die, but they say nothing and just put heads down and keep on go towards West. Many days pass and people die very much.*"

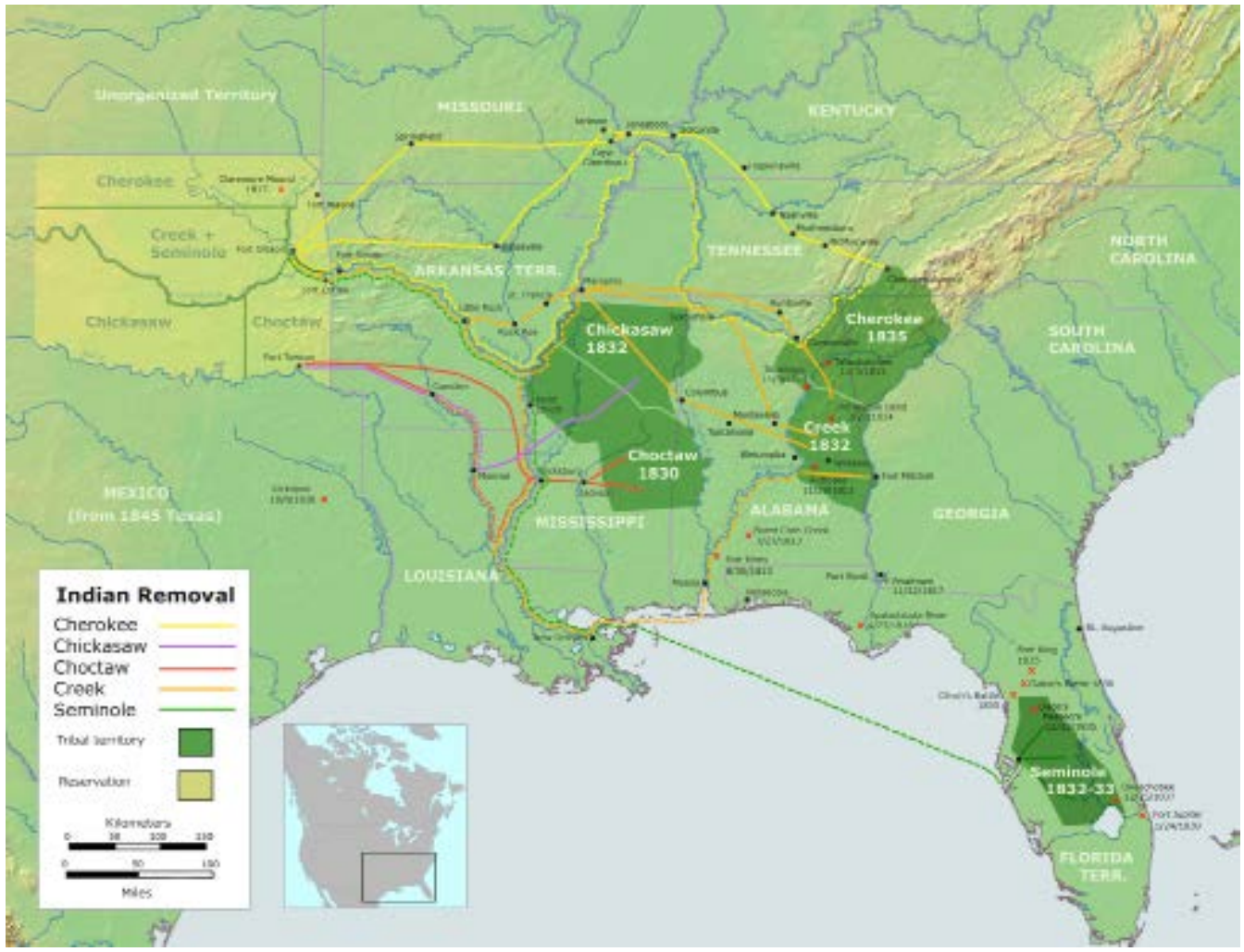

Figure 50. **Trail of Tears**
Map describing the forced relocation of Native American nations from their homelands in southeastern parts of the United States to Indian Territory in eastern sections of the present-day state of Oklahoma.

(Source: Own work by Nikater. Background map courtesy of Demis, www.demis.nl and Wilcomb E. Washburn, Handbook of North American Indians. Vol. 4: History of Indian-White Relations. Smithsonian Institution Press, Washington D.C. 1988.)

Subsequent to the displacement of American Indians in the 1830s, there were many other "Trails of Tears", among which were: the massacre at the unarmed Cheyenne village of Sand Creek, Colorado, in 1864, at which time Colonel John Chivington ordered his troops to, "*Kill them all, little and big, because nits make lice*"; and at Wounded Knee, South Dakota, in 1890, where there was another forced removal and mass killing, a massacre which effectively ended 300 years of North American Indian wars (Gardner).

It may be noted that this forced expulsion of the Native Americans from their tribal lands occurred even with those Indians who adopted some of the traditions of Christianity or who were otherwise friendly toward the European Americans. A prime example is the case of Keokuk, a chief of the Sauk and Musquakee tribes (also called the Sacs and Foxes) in central North America, an image of whom is shown with his young son in **Figure 51**, each proudly sporting an Indian peace medal. Keokuk sided with the United States government in their conflict with Black Hawk, another warrior and leader of the Sauk and Fox Indians[8]. During the War of 1812, Black Hawk and his Sauk warriors had fought with the British against the Americans in several engagements along the borders of Lake Erie, including that at Fort Stephenson. Black Hawk's stated rationale for supporting the British, according to Dickey, was, "*I had not made up my mind whether to join the British or remain neutral. I had not discovered one good trait in the character of the Americans that had come to the country. They made fair promises but never fulfilled them. Whilst the British made few but we could always rely on their word*".

8 The Sauk (also Sac, Sacque, Sox and Sawkee) and Fox were two closely related Algonquin speaking tribes. In their native language the Sauk are also called Osakawak or Asakawaki, meaning People of the Outlet, referring to their former home around Saginaw Bay in present day Michigan. The proper name for Fox is Meskwakie (also spelled Muskwakee or Mesquakie), meaning Red-Earth People. The main portion of this group of warriors was led by Chief Black Hawk [Ma-ka-tai-me-she-kia-kiak, Black Sparrow Hawk (1767-1838)], who fought on the side of the British in the War of 1812. Others, led by Keokuk, sided with the Americans.

Figure 51. **Keokuk, Chief of the Sauk and Foxes, and His Son**
Keokuk or Watchful Fox (ca. 1767-1848), a leader of the Sauk and Fox Indians, was one of the Native Americans who sided with the Americans against the English. He negotiated with the United States Government, ceding thousands of acres of native land, only to be pushed further and further west.

Keokuk is pictured here with his young son. Hanging prominently around their necks are American Indian Peace Medals, the father wearing a larger version than the son. Although it is difficult to say with certainty exactly which of the Indian Peace Medals they are wearing, it appears that King Keokuk's is similar to the large size medal of Andrew Jackson (76 mm), dated 1829 (Julian IP-14), while his son's appears to be a smaller (62 mm) medal struck at a later date.
Figure 52 shows such an Indian Peace Medal issued by the U.S. Mint while Andrew Jackson was president. Note that on the reverse of this medal are the words and symbols of PEACE AND FRIENDSHIP with the Indians, a duplicitous irony, given what Jackson actually did to them.
The painting is oil on canvas by Charles Bird King, 1837, published by F.W. Greenough, etc. 1838-44.

(Image from Wikipedia http://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/0/0e/Keokuk%2CKing.jpg)

Figure 52. **Andrew Jackson, President of the United States (Indian Peace Medal)**
by Moritz Furst and John Reich: USA, 1829, Bronze, 76 mm
Obverse: Bust of Jackson (r) **ANDREW JACKSON PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES A.D. 1829**
Reverse: Clasped hands, one is bare, representing that of an Indian, and the other is wearing a braided cuff worn by military officers. *Above*, a tomahawk and calumet (peace pipe), crossed. **PEACE AND FRIENDSHIP**
Signed: **FURST F.**
Reference: Julian 41/ IP-14

(Image courtesy of Heritage Auctions)

Despite his past allegiance with the Americans, in 1830, while Andrew Jackson was president, Keokuk, representing the Sauk and Foxes, was forced to cede to the government of the United States more than 26 million acres of Sauk land east of the Mississippi, causing the resettlement of the Sauk to territory west of the Mississippi. Not long thereafter, Keokuk was again induced to enter into negotiations, this time leading to the relinquishing of an additional six million acres of land in what is now the state of Iowa. Two small areas were reserved for the Sauk as a reward for his neutrality in battles between the Americans and Sauk. One of these areas was a four hundred square mile strip surrounding the village of Keokuk. The Sauk did not keep even this parcel of land for long, however, for in 1845 Keokuk and the Sauk were relocated still further west to Kansas.

Prophetically, Tecumseh had seen it all coming. In 1811, in a speech before a joint council of the Choctaw and Chickasaw nations, he ominously predicted:

> "*The annihilation of our race is at hand unless we unite in one common cause against the common foe. Think not, brave Choctaws and Chickasaws, that you can remain passive and indifferent to the common danger, and thus escape the common fate. Your people, too, will soon be as falling leaves and scattering clouds before their blighting breath. You, too, will be driven away from your native land and ancient domains as leaves are driven before the wintry storms. Sleep not longer, O Choctaws and Chickasaws, in false security and delusive hopes. Our broad domains are fast escaping from our grasp. Every year our white intruders become more greedy, exacting, oppressive and overbearing. Every year contentions spring up between them and our people, and when blood is shed we have to make atonement whether right or wrong, at the cost of the lives of our greatest chiefs, and the yielding up of large tracts of our lands.*" (Hunter)

Consequences of the War

Although the War of 1812 does not stand out as memorably as others, some consider it as the Second War of American Independence. It certainly was largely responsible for the election of two of the U.S. presidents: Andrew Jackson, the seventh president of the United States and the hero of the Battle of New Orleans, and William Henry Harrison, the ninth president, who made his mark earlier in the Battle of Tippecanoe and later, in 1813, at the Battle of the Thames, where he defeated the combined British and Indian forces led by their legendary Shawnee Indian Chief, Tecumseh. It is remembered by most Americans as the time when the British burned several of the public buildings in Washington, including the White House; about the *U.S.S. Constitution* and its nickname "Old Ironsides"; and as the inspiration for Francis Scott Key, while witnessing the bombarding by the British of the American forces at Fort McHenry during the Battle of Baltimore in 1814, to write the lyrics to what became known as the *Star Spangled Banner*, the National Anthem of the United States.

The war may also be remembered as being responsible for, on the one hand, the writing of the definitive chapter in the story of Canada's quest to become a sovereign and independent country, but on the other hand, the virtual end of Tecumseh's dream of a confederated Native American Nation and the end of the American Indians as a people free to control their own destiny.

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Biographical Sketches of Medallists

Furst, Moritz: Moritz Furst was born in Hungary in 1782 and studied at Vienna and Milan. In 1807 he went to the United States and was appointed Engraver at the Mint of Philadelphia, where he served from 1808 until 1838. His series of 27 medals, commemorating American successes during the war between England and the United States from 1812 to 1815, was struck by special resolution of Congress.

Halliday, Thomas: Halliday was born in England about 1780 and worked in Birmingham between 1810 and 1842. He engraved and manufactured tokens and medals for his own works and others. He had a number of apprentices, among whom was Peter Wyon, father of William Wyon. Halliday executed some of the finest racing, truck, society and school tickets.

Hancock, John Gregory: Hancock was a British medallist and die sinker who worked from about 1775-1815. He was employed by Matthew Boulton at the Soho Mint, and later by P. Kempson, for whom he executed the dies of prize medals, badges and tokens as well as a series of medals commemorating British victories over the French.

Pistrucci, Benedetto: Benedetto Pistrucci (Italian) (1784-1855) was a distinguished Italian gem engraver, medallist and coin engraver, and for the first half of the 19th century, he was one of the most influential engravers in Europe. Besides medals and large sculptures, he was also known for a variety of smaller cameos, coins, and jetons. He first reached prominence in Rome, then moved to Florence for a short period of time and then in 1815, he moved to London, where he remained until his death. His talents were well recognized in England but he soon came into competition and conflict with the dominant family of the English medallists of the period, the famous and influential Wyons. After a long dispute, in 1828 it was decided that William Wyon be appointed as chief engraver to the mint and Pistrucci was given the designation of Chief Medallist of the Royal Mint, bringing consternation amongst many of the British engravers - especially those within the Wyon family.

Pistrucci spent some thirty years making medals in commemoration of the victories of Europe's combined forces over Napoleon. Included among these is Pistrucci's masterpiece, the Waterloo Medallion, which took him over thirty years to complete. Gold examples were to be presented to the four allied monarchs and two silver examples to Field Marshal Blucher and the Duke of Wellington. Due to his many other commissions, Pistrucci was only able to finish engraving the dies in 1849, by which time all those for whom the medal was intended, with the exception of Wellington, had already died. This medallion, the dies of which were so large that they were never hardened for fear of breaking when used to strike copies, were employed to make only impressions in soft metal and to make a few electrotypes. One such example is in the Hermitage which states "The Waterloo medal is considered one of the rarest and most important pieces in the history of medallic art".

Prieto, Tomás Francisco: Prieto was a painter, line-engraver and medallist. He was born in Salamanca in 1716. He was the pupil of Lorenzo Monteman and Cuzens, went to Madrid to continue his studies, and was appointed Engraver at the Mint of Madrid in 1747. In 1752 King Charles III appointed him Chief Engraver to superintend all the mints of the kingdom with a view to improve the coinage. In 1772 he became Director of the School for the Improvement of Coinage. He died in 1782.

Reich, John: John Reich was a German born die-sinker who had come to the United States in 1800 at the age of thirty-two with hopes of finding gainful employment. Shortly after Jefferson became President in 1801, Reich appealed to him for help, and with his appeal he sent samples of his work. Jefferson suggested that Reich present himself to the Director of the Mint, Elias Boudinot. Boudinot was impressed with Reich's work and hired him to work at the Mint.

Richardson, Joseph, Jr.: Joseph Richardson, Jr. (17521831), was a Philadelphia Quaker, who served as Assayer of the United States Mint in Philadelphia from 1795 until his death. Several of the large, silver Washington Indian Peace medals bear his hallmark. Richardson employed James Smither, Jr., as an engraver so some of the work bearing Richardson's mark may have been done by Smither. His father, Joseph Richardson, Sr. is thought to have made the first Indian Peace Medal made in America; it is dated 1757, and is said to have been presented by the "*Friendly Association for Regaining and Preserving Peace with the Indians by Pacific Means*."

Scot, Robert: Robert Scot (Scott) (1740 1823), born in the British Isles, was trained first as a watchmaker in England, then learned the art of engraving. He came to the United States in 1777, was appointed as the state engraver of Virginia and moved to Philadelphia sometime in 1781. In 1793, Scot was commissioned as Chief Engraver of the United States Mint in Philadelphia by Mint Director Rittenhouse to replace the recently deceased Joseph Wright. He remained in that post until his death in 1823.

Wright, Charles Cushing: Charles Cushing Wright (1796-1854) was an American draftsman and medallist of the nineteenth century and probably the finest die engraver the country has produced. He engraved the three medals struck at the United States mint by the American Art Union honoring prominent artists. He is also responsible for medals depicting a number of eminent American political and military figures and important historic events, the most noteworthy of which is his portrait of Washington, after the French sculptor and portraitist Jean Antoine Houdon (1741-1828), and the reverse of this medal illustrating the presentation of the Declaration of Independence to the Continental Congress (both are part of the Weiss Collection)

Wyon, Thomas (II), Jr.: Thomas Wyon II (1792-1817), eldest son on Thomas Wyon, the elder, was a member of the family of Wyons, one of the most celebrated and talented coin and medal engravers in England. Their period of activity extends from before the middle of the eighteenth century to almost the end of the nineteenth century. Tradition has it that Peter George (II) Wyon came to England from Cologne, Germany, during the reign of King George II. He brought with him a boy who grew up to be George (III) Wyon. George (III) Wyon has two sons, Thomas (I) and Peter, both of whom distinguished themselves as medallists and engravers of dies for coinage. Both Thomas (I) and Peter fathered eminent medalists; Peter was the father of William Wyon, the most famous of the Wyon family of artists.

Thomas II Wyon apprenticed to his father. In 1811 Wyon was appointed Probationer Engraver of the Mint, then at the age of 23 as Chief Engraver of the Mint. During this time he engraved many excellent coins and medals.

Biographical Sketch of Benjamin Weiss

Born in the Bronx and raised on a chicken farm in New Jersey, Ben received his undergraduate and graduate training at the Philadelphia College of Pharmacy and Science, where he earned a Ph.D. in Pharmacology in 1963. His postdoctoral training included a Postdoctoral Fellowship at the National Heart Institute, National Institute of Health and a Research Associate position at Columbia University. Since then he worked at the National Institute of Mental Health, where he held the position of Chief of the Section on Neuroendocrinology, and the Medical College of Pennsylvania, where he held the positions of Professor of Pharmacology and Psychiatry, and Chief of the Division of Neuropsychopharmacology. He was also a Visiting Scientist at the Mario Negri Institute in Milan, Italy, and a Visiting Scientist at the Weitzman Institute in Israel. He currently is Emeritus Professor of Pharmacology and Physiology at Drexel University College of Medicine.

During his scientific career Dr. Weiss has edited two books and has published over 300 scientific articles on his research in the fields of Molecular Biology and Molecular Pharmacology. He has received several honors and awards, including a MERIT Award from the National Institute of Mental Health, a Research Medal awarded by the University of Milan, Milan, Italy, and an Outstanding Scientist Award from the China Bureau of Foreign Experts Affairs, Suzhou, China. He was also named as one of the Top One Thousand Most Quoted Contemporary Scientists in the World.

Ben was introduced to the field of medal collecting in 1972, and since then has been an avid collector of Historical and Commemorative Medals, a collection that is published on his website (www.historicalartmedals.com). He is currently a Board Member of the Medal Collectors of America and the Webmaster of the Medal Collectors of America website. His recently published works relate to the history and art of commemorative medals and explore the role medals play in illustrating religious and racial intolerance.

Published Works Related to Medals

Web site: HISTORICAL AND COMMEMORATIVE MEDALS: Collection of Benjamin Weiss 2003 http://www.historicalartmedals.com/

Weiss, B. : *Medallic History of Religious and Racial Intolerance: Medals as Instruments for Promoting Bigotry.* www.Kunstpedia.com 2008.

Weiss, B.: *Badge of Intolerance*, The Numismatist, Vol. 124, no. 5: 48-51, 2011.

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LIST OF FIGURES

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