

MAPPING 1812

A teaching guide by the Association for Canadian Studies



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The Association for Canadian Studies acknowledges the financial support of the Government of Canada through the Canadian Studies Program of the Department of Canadian Heritage for this project.

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James FitzGibbon's 1820 testimonial regarding Laura Secord, public domain

Sir Isaac Brock, painting by George Theodore Berthon (1883), public domain

Map of Upper Canada, Library and Archives Canada

Québec from above, Library and Archives Canada / Acc. No. 1996-288-1

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BIOGRAPHIES

J.I. LITTLE is a University Professor and member of the History Department at Simon Fraser University, as well as a Fellow of the Royal Society of Canada. His most recent book was *Loyalties in Conflict: A Canadian Borderland in War and Rebellion, 1812-1840* (University of Toronto Press, 2008), and forthcoming this year with co-author Peter Gossage is *An Illustrated History of Québec: Tradition and Modernity* (Oxford University Press).

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BARBARA J. MESSAMORE teaches Canadian history at University of the Fraser Valley in Abbotsford, B.C., and has a special interest in political and constitutional topics. She is co-author of *Narrating a Nation: Canadian History Pre-Confederation* (McGraw Hill Ryerson, 2011). She has also published *Canada's Governors General, 1847-1878: Biography and Constitutional Evolution* (University of Toronto Press, 2006), along with several articles, and is the editor-in-chief of the *Journal of Historical Biography*, an international peer-reviewed online journal (www.ufv.ca/jhb).

CECILIA MORGAN is a Professor in History of Education at OISE/UT. Co-authored with Colin M. Coates, her book *Heroines and History: Representations of Madeleine de Verchères and Laura Secord* (University of Toronto Press, 2002) was awarded the Prix Lionel Groulx – Yves Saint Germain by the Institut d'histoire de l'Amérique française (2003) and Honourable Mention for the Sir John A. Macdonald prize by the Canadian Historical Association (2003). She also has published work on English-Canadians' tourism in Britain and Europe, 1870-1930, and is currently writing a book on Aboriginal and Métis peoples' travel to Britain, Europe, and other parts of the British Empire, 1800-1914. Dr. Morgan also is co-editor of the *Canadian Historical Review*.

LUC LÉPINE received his Ph.D. in military history from Université du Québec à Montréal in 2005. He has a M.A. History from Université de Montréal, 1987, and a B.A. Honours History from Concordia University, 1982. He worked on the Montcalm Project, the French soldiers in America during the Conquest. He is preparing many publications about War of 1812 in Lower Canada. From 2007 to 2009, Luc Lépine was a Pedagogical consultant for the Lester B. Pearson school board. He helped the teachers implement the reform in History at grade 9 and 10.

HECTOR MACKENZIE is the Senior Departmental Historian of the Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade of Canada (a position he has held since 1991). Educated at the University of Toronto and Oxford University (from which he received his doctorate), he taught at the University of Toronto and the University of Western Ontario before joining the Department of External Affairs as a historian in 1989. He has edited two volumes in the series *Documents on Canadian External Relations* and he has published numerous articles and reviews on the history of Canada's international relations. Dr. Mackenzie is an Adjunct Research Professor in the Department of History of Carleton University, where he has taught courses on the history of Canada and its international relations.

THE WAR OF 1812 AND THE CANADIAN- AMERICAN BORDERLAND

LEARNING OUTCOMES

After completing this lesson, students will be able to:

- Describe the consequences of the War of 1812 on the Canadian-American border.
- Identify the major border cities and the cross-border interactions during the war.
- Appraise the significance of the war in identity building in Canada and the United States.

LESSON SUMMARY

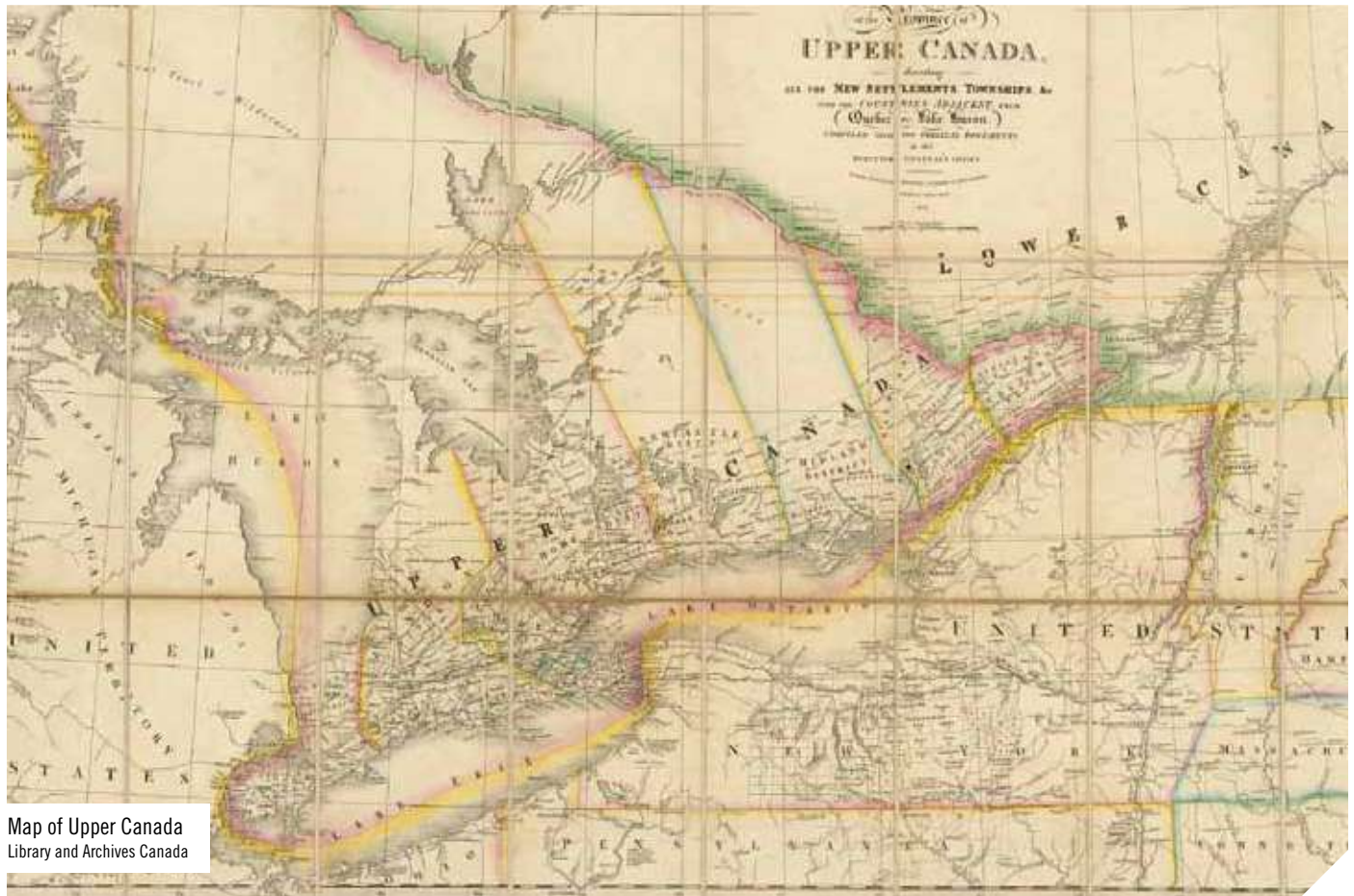
The War of 1812 was fought largely on the western borderland between Upper Canada and New York because the American authorities felt that they lacked the strength to challenge British military might in the more strategically important St Lawrence valley. Expecting to have significant support from the majority of settlers in Upper Canada who had recently moved there from the United States, the poorly trained and supplied American invaders instead alienated that population by engaging in looting and arson. The British officers found it difficult in turn to restrain the First Nations allies who were their main source of strength, not least because of the terror they struck in the hearts of the American soldiers and militia. As a result, the border conflict deteriorated into one of attrition that threatened to bankrupt the United States government without offering any chance of achieving its primary goal of conquering British North America.

The story was very different for the border region between New England and Lower Canada for there were no significant battles east of Lake Champlain and American attempts at incursion to the west of the lake were quickly repulsed. The settlers of the Eastern Townships, most

of whom were post-Loyalist Americans, consequently profited from the war because New Englanders smuggled herds of livestock across the border to feed the growing numbers of British soldiers in the Montréal and Richelieu areas. As in Upper Canada, the loyalty of the Eastern Townships settlers was primarily to their homes and families rather than to a broader 'imagined community'. They responded to the call to muster to the militia in order to protect their local communities from



Martello Tower No. 4, Québec
Library and Archives Canada / Acc. No. R9266-478.1R
Peter Winkworth Collection of Canadiana



Map of Upper Canada
Library and Archives Canada

cross-border raids, but resisted conscription for service outside the region.

The fear and destruction caused by the war, nevertheless, fostered a new sense of patriotism on either side of the Canadian-American border. The American dream of welcoming the neighbouring British colonies into the federation was now abandoned, and, in order to maintain peace with Great Britain, the United States government would suppress the raids into the Canadas that followed the Rebellions of 1837-38 and the Civil War. Similarly, the Upper Canadian authorities abandoned Lord Simcoe's vision of providing a refuge for Americans who, it was assumed, would inevitably flock to the colony as their democratic nation disintegrated into bankruptcy and chaos.

Further contributing to the thickening of the border in Lower as well as Upper Canada was that the fact that it was no longer crossed by the American-based missionary circuits, allowing Anglican and increasingly conservative Methodist missionaries to fill the religious vacuum. While conversions to the Church of England in particular were often superficial, the strategy of moulding the younger generation through Sunday schools was

successful in the long term. The increasingly conservative religious and political culture on the Canadian side of the border was in sharp contrast to that of the 'burnt-over country' of northern New York and Vermont, so called because of the many revivals that swept through the region in the first half of the nineteenth century. Even if the United States had not declared war on Great Britain in 1812, the completion of the Erie Canal in 1825 would have shifted the settlement flow westward to the Ohio country, and British immigration would have changed the cultural composition of Upper Canada in particular, but the war did play a major role in the development of a distinctive Anglo-American identity north of the border.

ADDITIONAL READINGS

LITTLE, J.I. *Loyalties in Conflict: A Canadian Borderland in War and Rebellion, 1812-1840*. Toronto, University of Toronto Press, 2008.

TAYLOR, Alan. *The Civil War of 1812: American Citizens, British Subjects, Irish Rebels, and Indian Allies*. New York, Alfred A. Knopf, 2010.

CRITICAL THINKING ASSIGNMENTS

SITUATE THE EVENTS HISTORICALLY

Warm-up activity

Ask the students to talk about instances in which they themselves crossed the border between Canada and the United States. Discuss the different reasons why Canadians cross the border (travel, work, shopping) and the experience of the border itself.

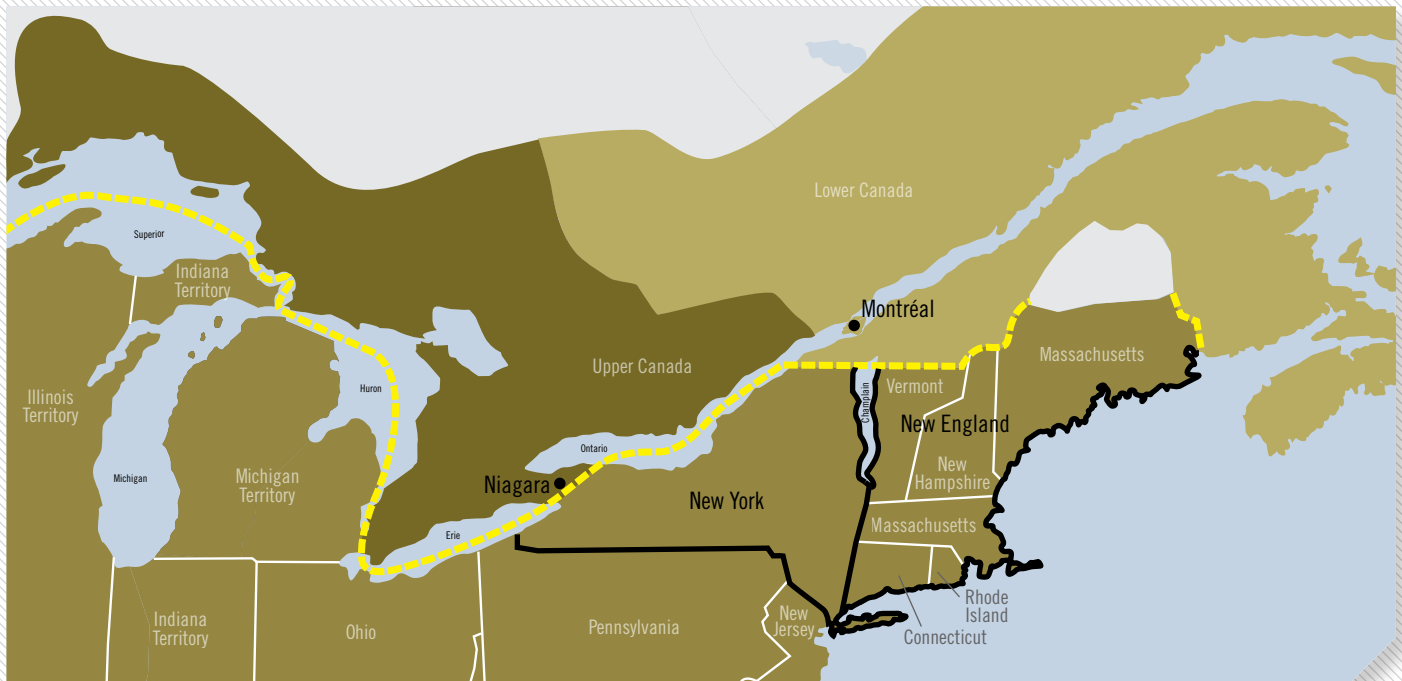
Discussion question

Ask the students to identify what defines a Canadian and an American. Many stereotypes will come up, on the one hand illustrating what makes up the Canadian (and American) identity and, on the other hand, underlining perhaps a tendency towards anti-Americanism.

SITUATE THE EVENTS GEOGRAPHICALLY

Identify some of the geographical and political reasons why the war evolved differently on the Upper Canada/New York stage and the Lower Canada/New England stage.

Canada-United States border and vicinity



FRENCH CANADIAN PARTICIPATION IN THE WAR OF 1812

LEARNING OUTCOMES

After completing this lesson, students will be able to:

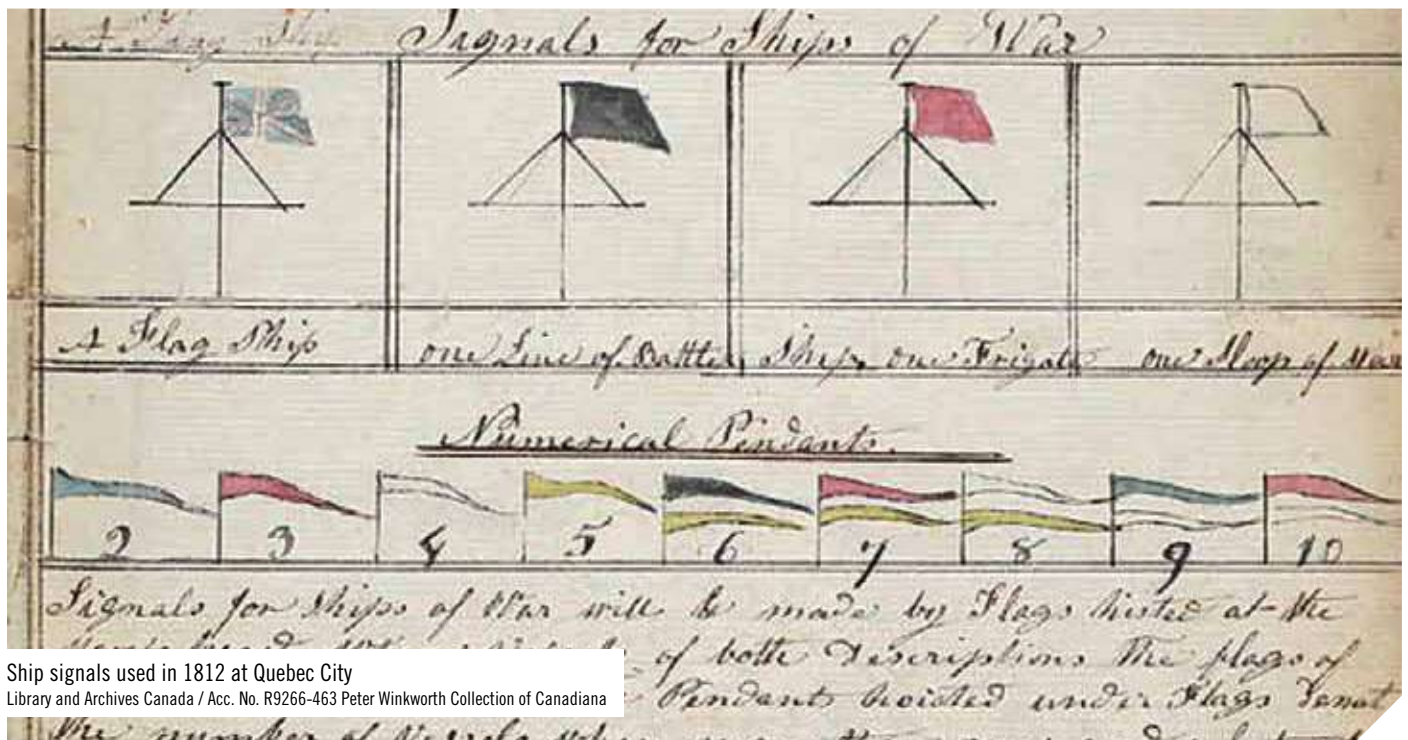
- Describe French Canadians' attitudes towards the British and the Americans.
- Assess why French Canadians did not want to participate in the war.

LESSON SUMMARY

During the American Revolutionary War, the rebel army occupied the Richelieu Valley and Montréal for most of the winter months of 1776, much to the delight of the French Canadian people. Actually 500 joined the American attack on Quebec City. French Canadians, contrary to the Catholic Church and the new rising bourgeois merchant class, did not see the Americans as invaders but as liberators. At the end of the 18th century, around 1790, American colonists loyal to Britain started to occupy lands along the southern border of Lower Canada, because the British needed a buffer zone occupied by loyalists to the British crown, between Lower Canada and the young American republic to the south. This all added to French Canadians' feeling of mistrust of the British governor and the British forces, who were seen as giving preferential treatment to their English speaking allies. Even with threats of excommunication by the Catholic Church, who were closely aligned with the British, plus the constant harassment by the 'seigneurs', the French Canadians, who were the working poor, rural peasants, small artisans and very poor farmers, never supported the British. If they did it was out of fear.



Lower Canada Sedentary Militia, 1813, Gerald A. Embleton
© Parks Canada



Under these circumstances, it is no wonder that there is a lack of participation and there is not a sudden rush to defend British interests, not Canadian interests. A good example of this hesitation to participate in the conflict is the Lachine riot of 1812. On 1 July 1812, one month after the war was declared, the British forces started to enforce the Militia Law passed in 1798 to conscript French Canadians into the provincial militia. Already there were rumours that the French Canadian population wanted no part of this war. The Catholic Church urged French Canadians to join up, for God, the protection of their culture and their country. Similarly Judge Panet, a spokesperson for the new French Canadian bourgeoisie, questioned the masculinity of French Canadians, if they did not join the provincial militia, to protect the British who had given them prosperity and good government. But the masses did not respond to these threats, and showed the disconnect between the elites and the Church and the French Canadian population. They did not join up but instead 500 armed French Canadians marched from Pointe-Claire to Lachine to confront the British troops and demand the release of one of them, who had been taken prisoner the day before. Another group of armed civilians wanted to invade La Prairie on the south shore of Montréal to liberate the community that was taken hostage by the British troops. Parishes across southern Québec voted against participation in the war and challenged the Militia Law of 1798. In Lachine, shots were fired on both sides killing and wounding two

of the resisters. Arrests were made, trials were held, with the 35 arrested condemned as 'traitors' to the British crown. During these incidents, the British authorities and the French Canadian elites were well aware of the anti-British feeling among the masses and feared the beginning of a civil war. The response of the British authorities was total repression and the use of fear to force the French Canadian masses to join the provincial militia.

French Canadians did not sense that their interests were at stake. On the contrary, the young American Republic was not seen as a menace to their cultural interests, as France and the United States were aligned as young republics and had in the past aided each other to accomplish their respective revolutions.

ADDITIONAL READINGS

AUGER, Martin F. *French Canadian Participation in the War of 1812: A Social History of the Voltigeurs Canadiens*, Canadian Military History, Vol. 10 No. 3, Summer 2001, p. 23-41.

MILLS, Sean. *French Canadians and the Beginning of the War of 1812: Revisiting the Lachine Riot*, Social History/Histoire sociale, Vol. 38 No. 75, 2005.

<http://www.galafilm.com/1812/f/events/lachine.html>

CRITICAL THINKING ASSIGNMENTS

SITUATE THE EVENTS HISTORICALLY

Warm-up activity

Ask students what they know about French Canadian perspective on other military events (ex: the battle of the Plains of Abraham, conscription during the war, etc). Discuss why English Canadians and French Canadians might have different perspectives.

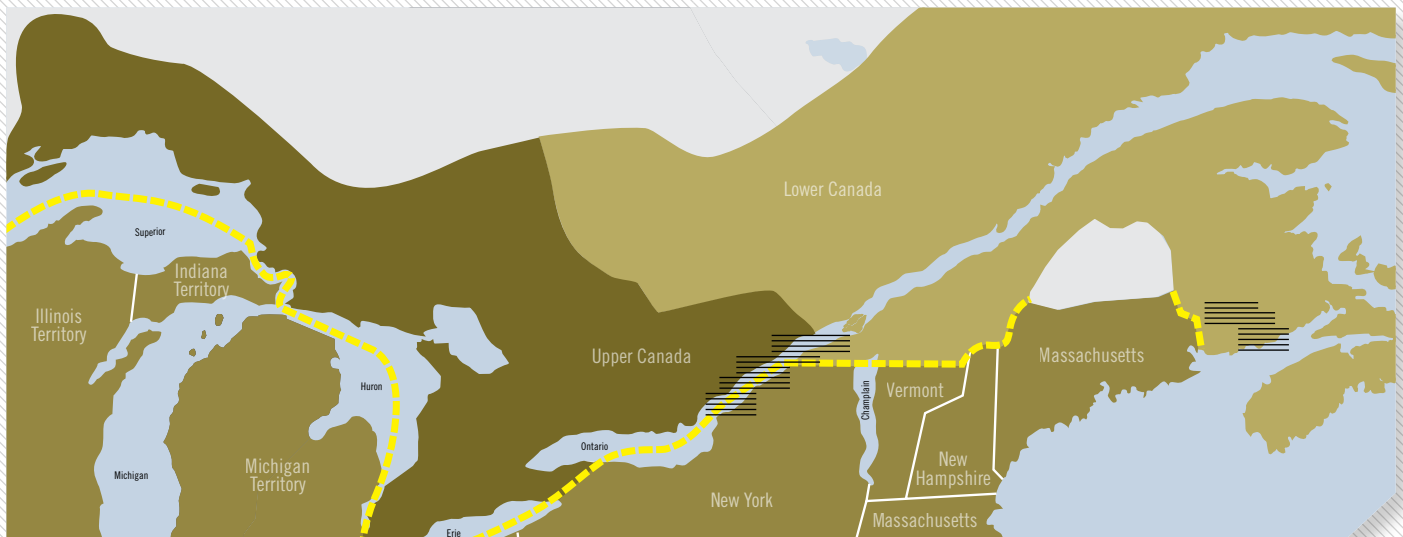
Discussion questions

- For what reasons were French Canadians uninterested in participating in the War of 1812?
- What is the significance of the War of 1812 in French Canadian history, does it play a role in defining the French Canadian identity as much as the Canadian identity?

SITUATE THE EVENTS GEOGRAPHICALLY

- Looking at those areas where the British permitted the settlement of American Loyalists, explain why these particular places were chosen.
- What were the attitudes of these Loyalists towards the war as compared with French Canadians?

Upper and Lower Canada



THE HOUDENOSAUNEE (IROQUOIS) CONFEDERACY: Neutrality and Allies in the War of 1812

LEARNING OUTCOMES

After completing this lesson, students will be able to:

- Describe the position of the Houdenosaunee Confederacy in the War of 1812, based on historical relationships and current interests.
- Identify the impacts of some First Nations' participation in the War of 1812 and the impact of the War on First Nations' history.
- Identify the impacts of the War of 1812 on the Houdenosaunee Confederacy.

LESSON SUMMARY

The Houdenosaunee Confederacy is composed of six Nations: The Mohawks (keepers of the Eastern Door), the Oneida, the Onondaga, the Cayuga, the Seneca and the Tuscarora. Their ancestral lands ran west of Lake Champlain, through all of the territory of Upper New York State, south to Albany (N.Y.), through the Adirondacks, to the shores of Lake Erie and Lake Ontario and the upper St-Lawrence River (around Cornwall and Montréal). Till this day the Schenectady River, which flows through western New York State, passes through what is called the Mohawk Valley and the many reserves of the other Houdenosaunee nations.

The Houdenosaunee Confederacy was formed, preceded by the League of the Houdenosaunee, in order to create a forum where conflicts between the six nations could be discussed and settle through negotiations. However this Confederacy permitted each nation to be semi-autonomous and to have an independent foreign policy towards the Europeans and Americans. The object of the Confederacy was to promote peace among the Six Nations. Yet because of the semi-autonomous nature of each nation, especially in dealing with the European explorers, British and American interests, lead to internal strife.



Meeting of Sir Isaac Brock and Tecumseh, 1812
Library and Archives Canada / Acc. No. 1972-26-1360



Major John Norton, Teyoninhokarawen, the Mohawk Chief
Library and Archives Canada / Acc. No. 1984-119-1

Their strategic location placed the Confederacy in the centre of hostilities between the French and English (Seven Years War), the British and the Revolutionary Army of the American colonists (the American Revolution), culminating with the confrontation between the British forces in the Canadian colonies and the young American nation in the War of 1812. During the Seven Years War, certain nations such as the Mohawks were British allies against the French, while others like the Senecas remained neutral. Because most of the six nations were fearful of being massacred by the American colonists, during the American Revolution, they sided with the British. But what was their position during the War of 1812? Did they participate, remain neutral or did both sides victimize them?

At the outbreak the war in June of 1812, the Confederacy remained neutral. This was the prevailing position among the six nations. The Grand Chief of the Seneca, Sagoyewatha (Red Jacket), defended this position. Sagoyewatha was well respected by the Houdenosaunee and other nations such as the Huron, the Abenakis, the Delaware, to name just a few. His eloquence and his analysis of the relationship between the Native population and the Europeans made him a sage and prophet in the eyes of the Native population. He was called a Peace Chief. His position since the end of the American Revolutionary War, which he witnessed as a young man, told him that the Houdenosaunee and other native nations had nothing to gain, but more loss of land, rights and even possibly complete annihilation, in a war that concerned the British and the Americans for the control of westward expansion.

However because of complete independence given by the Confederacy in matters of foreign concern, others wished to collaborate, namely the Mohawks. The Mohawks led by their Grand Chief Teyoninhokarawen (John Norton), gathered support from the Mohawk reserves of Grand River Tract (near Brantford, Ont.), Akwesasne (Cornwall, Ont.), Kanesatake (Oka, Québec), and Kahnawake (south of Montréal), and participated as British Allies for the duration of the war. Teyoninhokarawen, educated in England, felt that the Confederacy had more to gain by aligning itself with the British. He and his followers, not only Mohawks, participated in the battle of Queenston Heights, alongside Major General Brock, who credited Teyoninhokarawen and his Mohawk warriors as the decisive force in the victory. There were other battles, such as Beaver Dams, which became the most famous Mohawk action of the war. Chief Teyoninhokarawen's position was in direct opposition to the one held by Chief Sagoyewatha of the Seneca.



Red Jacket (Sagoyewatha), Aboriginal leader
Library and Archives Canada / Acc. No. 1970-189-20 W.H. Coverdale Collection of Canadiana

These two opposite positions profoundly divided the Confederacy. Chief Teyoninhokarawen's support came from the Mohawk reserves in the British Colonies; while Chief Sagoyewatha's support came from the other Houdenosaunee nations who were on American territory in upstate New York. In certain raids into American territory, Teyoninhokarawen's Mohawk army killed and captured many natives who were members of the other six nations. This added to the already deep divide between the two positions. Eventually Sagoyewatha reluctantly changed his position and campaigned for the other five Houdenosaunee nations on the American side to join the American army to combat the British and their allies.

With the end of the war in early 1815, the Houdenosaunee, though very happy for peace, nevertheless, experienced their continued decline as a diplomatic and military force. Promises to help re-establish agricultural communities, given by the British (to the Mohawks) and by the Americans to their Houdenosaunee allies, were slow in coming and in many cases never materialized.

Massive immigration to the British colonies put in peril the existing reserves. The Crown saw them as dying communities who should be assimilated into the white community. Similarly on the American side, the Iroquois, till this day, fought to keep their lands and resist deportation to the west, beyond their traditional lands. In the end the Houdenosaunee Confederacy was pulled into the War of 1812, beyond their basic interests and subsequently were victimized by both the British and the Americans.

ADDITIONAL READINGS

<http://www.thecanadianencyclopedia.com/articles/fr/les-premieres-nations-dans-la-guerre-de-1812>

http://www.biographi.ca/009004-119.01-f.php?id_nbr=3050

http://www.biographi.ca/009004-119.01-f.php?id_nbr=3126

CRITICAL THINKING ASSIGNMENTS

SITUATE THE EVENTS HISTORICALLY

Warm-up activity

Ask students to reflect on the following question: When there is a conflict (between students, political opponents, countries), what influences which side to take?

Discussion questions

- After reading the following lines written by Teyoninhokarawen: http://galafilm.com/1812/e/people/iroq_negos.html, evaluate how the Confederacy was treated in the negotiations with Britain and the United States and what could have been done differently.
- Invite the students to participate in a short role playing exercise, where they will get to explain in their own words the points of view of Sagoyewatha, Teyoninhokarawen, a British general and an American general.

SITUATE THE EVENTS GEOGRAPHICALLY

- Consider the zones where the Six Nations who were part of the Confederation lived and, using this information, determine which side of the conflict the Confederation was most likely to support.
- For what geographical and political reasons was the outcome of the war detrimental to the Confederacy and its territory?

Territories of the Confederacy



THE BURNING OF YORK AND WASHINGTON AND CANADIAN NATIONAL IDENTITY

LEARNING OUTCOMES

After completing this lesson, students will be able to:

- Understand the causes and long term impacts of the burning of York and Washington during the War of 1812.
- Recognize that the burnings in York helped launch Canadian national identity and also some of the long term feelings of anti-Americanism in Canada that linger today.

LESSON SUMMARY

The Burning of York

The city of York (Toronto), located on the northern shore of Lake Ontario, was the first provincial capital of Upper Canada. Its nearness to the lake made it easy prey for attack by the American militia during the War of 1812 since Lake Ontario was the front line between American and British forces and was also the supply route from Québec to the British armies and outposts to the west. After the U.S. Secretary of War made plans for an American attack on the Canadian port of Kingston and the Kingston Royal Navy Docks, the winter weather and inflated size of British troops in the area before the thaw of the St. Lawrence River occurred (that would allow British reinforcements to arrive in Upper Canada) ultimately caused American military leaders in Upper Canada to recommend attacking York instead of Kingston. Although York was the provincial capital, it was less important strategically than Kingston. After much

discussion, however, the U.S. War Department decided to change their plans and focus their attack on York.

Early on 27 April 1813, the first American wave of boats and infantrymen landed about 4 miles west of town where they soon encountered a great deal of British resistance.



Fort York
Library and Archives Canada / Acc. No. 1979-9-28

After a much greater loss of life and more injuries on both sides than expected, the British capitulated. However, without informing any of his senior military officers, one of the British leaders instructed an officer to blow up an American boat in the harbour. The explosion from this event mortally wounded a popular American leader and 38 of his soldiers and wounded 222 more. In retaliation, and also because they were unable to return to the U.S. due to their sloop being destroyed by this blast and missing the ship that had been sent to pick them up, the American then carried out many acts of plunder in York following this battle. Not only did they burn the Legislative Assembly building, the Americans also vandalized the national Printing Office, and burned or damaged a series of other buildings. One of the most important outcomes of the capture of York was felt later on in the war during the Battle of Lake Erie (since the capture of the British supplies destined for the British squadron there contributed eventually to their defeat in this later battle). Another significant outcome of this event was the birth of anti-Americanism in Canada and the creation of a unique national identity in British North America and later in Canada that differed from American identity.

The Burning of Washington, DC

Historians agree that the attack on Washington, DC in August, 1814 occurred in retaliation for the American burning and looting of York during the Battle of York in 1813. After U.S. President James Madison learned that about 4,000 British soldiers were entering Chesapeake Bay and threatening to attack Washington, he cancelled plans to visit his Virginia plantation home and met with his advisors at the White House. One hundred soldiers thereafter camped out in front of the President's house to protect him from the invasion while congress made plans for the defence of the U.S. capital.

On 24 August, Madison saw the first British troops entering the city. He immediately sent a message to his wife, Dolley, to warn her about the attack. Legend has it that although almost everyone in the city was soon in a state of panic, Dolley Madison and a slave named Paul Jennings remained calm as they gathered together the most important papers and a large portrait of George Washington to hide during the attack.



The British entered the White House in early evening and set it on fire (following their consumption of a meal that had been prepared by White House staff for the President and his family prior to the emergency). The White House was almost completely destroyed in the attack, as was the Library of Congress and the U.S. Treasury Building with smoke visible as far away as Baltimore. Some of the members of Congress suggested that the president's home be rebuilt in another city to keep him safe from future attacks. Madison insisted that the White House be rebuilt, however, and work began almost immediately to restore the building on the original site to "show the world that young America would not be scared off by threats from other nations".

ADDITIONAL READINGS

On the burning of York: <http://www.eighteenthelve.ca/?q=fra/Topic/172>

On the burning of Washington: <http://www.eighteenthelve.ca/?q=fra/Topic/177>

http://www.whitehousehistory.org/whha_classroom/classroom_4_8_history

CRITICAL THINKING ASSIGNMENTS

SITUATE THE EVENTS HISTORICALLY

Warm-up activity

Introduce a short clip of Rick Mercer's "Talking to Americans" (quick search on youtube.com) and ask students to discuss how Americans are represented in this clip. Ask them to describe how Canadians generally view Americans and vice versa, based on television programs, what they hear on the news, etc. This discussion should allow for links to be made to nationalism, and how we sometimes define ourselves in opposition to others.

Discussion questions

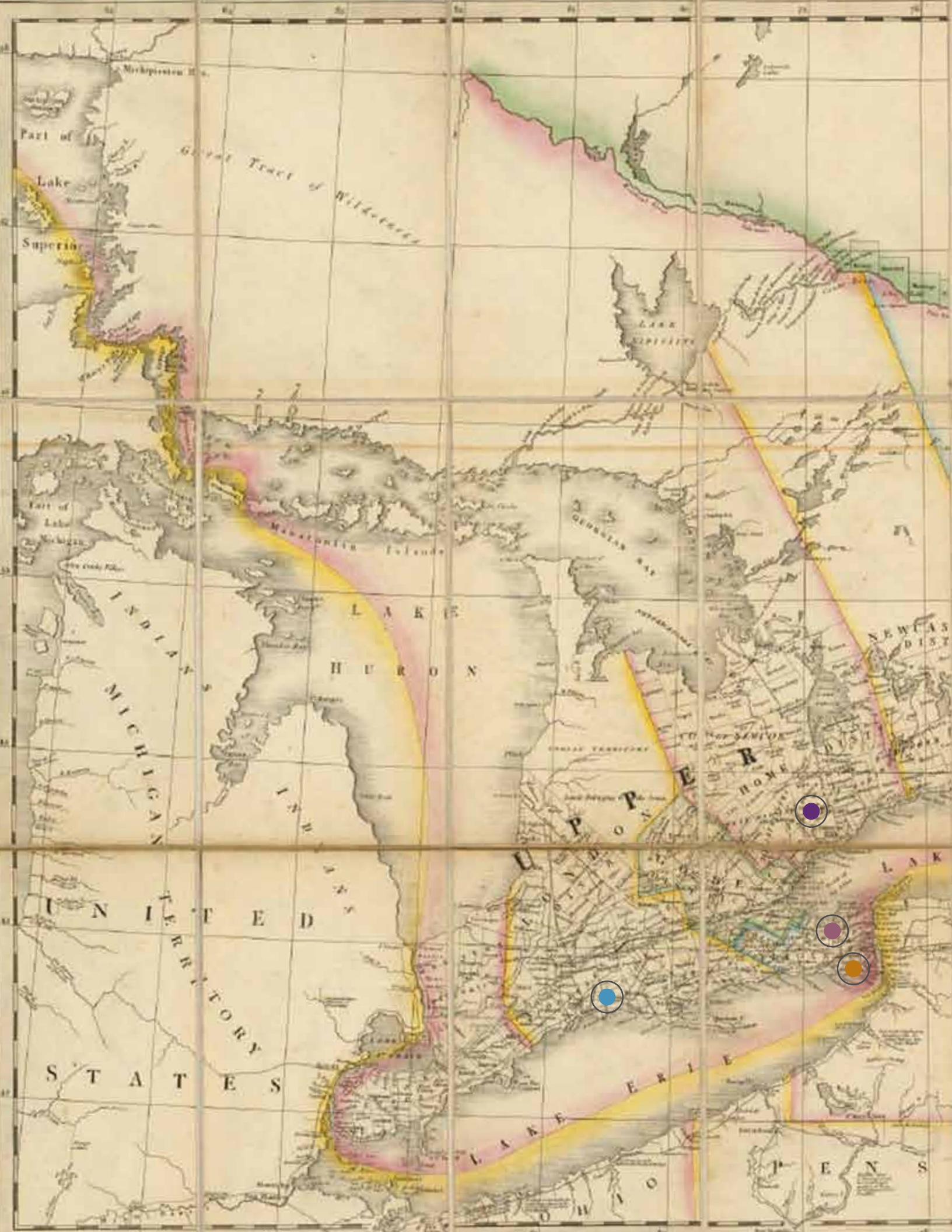
- What battles and military decisions led to the burnings of government buildings in York (Toronto) by the Americans and the subsequent burning of the White House and other American property in Washington by the British?
- What do you think Americans and British hoped to accomplish by burning the capitals and what evidence is there they did/did not achieve these goals?

SITUATE THE EVENTS GEOGRAPHICALLY

- Which of the five Great Lakes were most important to both the British and American forces during the War of 1812?
- Why do you think that the location of Kingston was more important strategically for the American war effort than the capital at York?

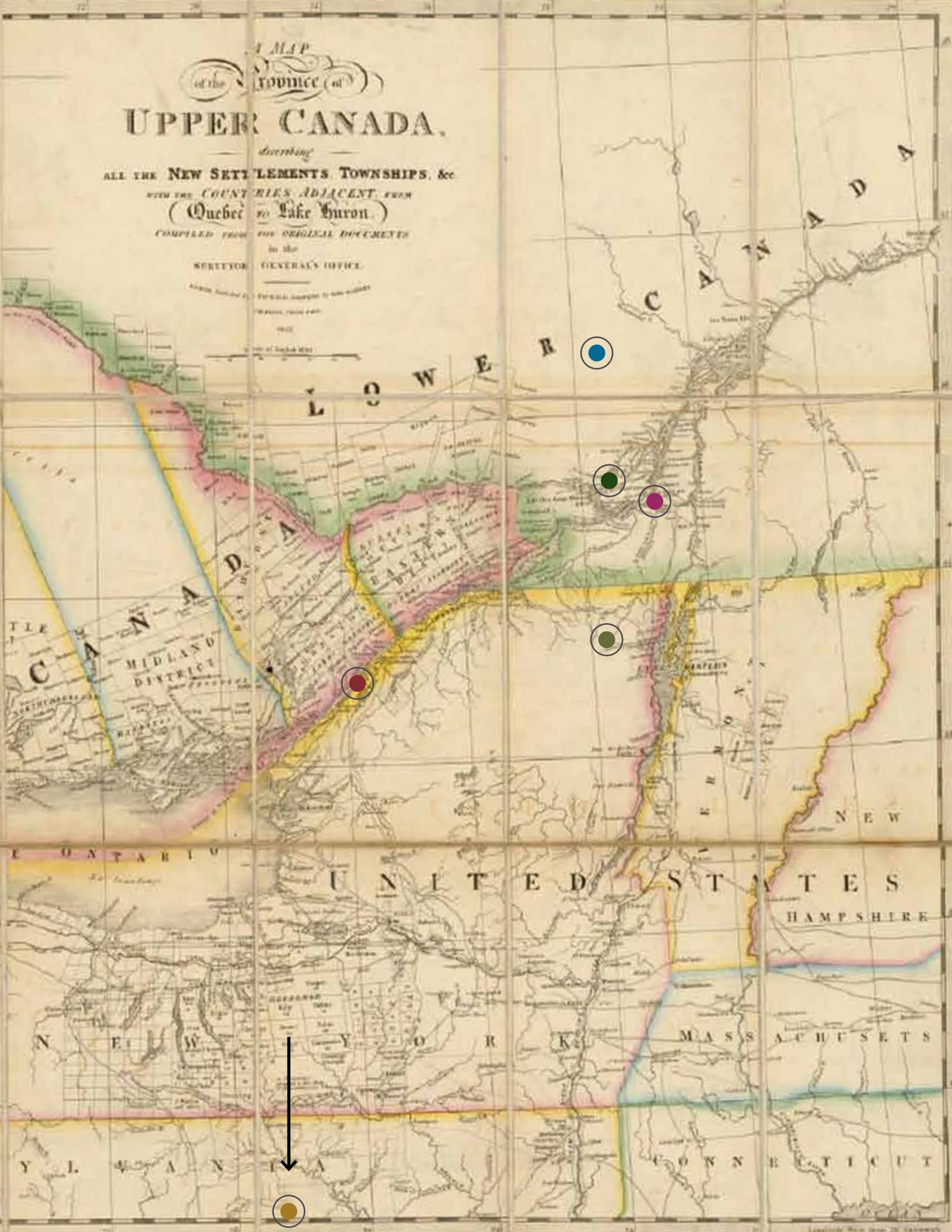
American and Canadian capitals





ALL THE NEW SETTLEMENTS TOWNSHIPS, &c.
WITH THE COUNTIES ADJACENT, FROM
(Quebec to Lake Huron.)
COMPILED FROM THE ORIGINAL DOCUMENTS
IN THE
SURVEYOR GENERAL'S OFFICE.

RECEIVED
JAN 10 1968



THE STORY OF THE STAR-SPANGLED BANNER

LEARNING OUTCOMES

After completing this lesson, students will be able to:

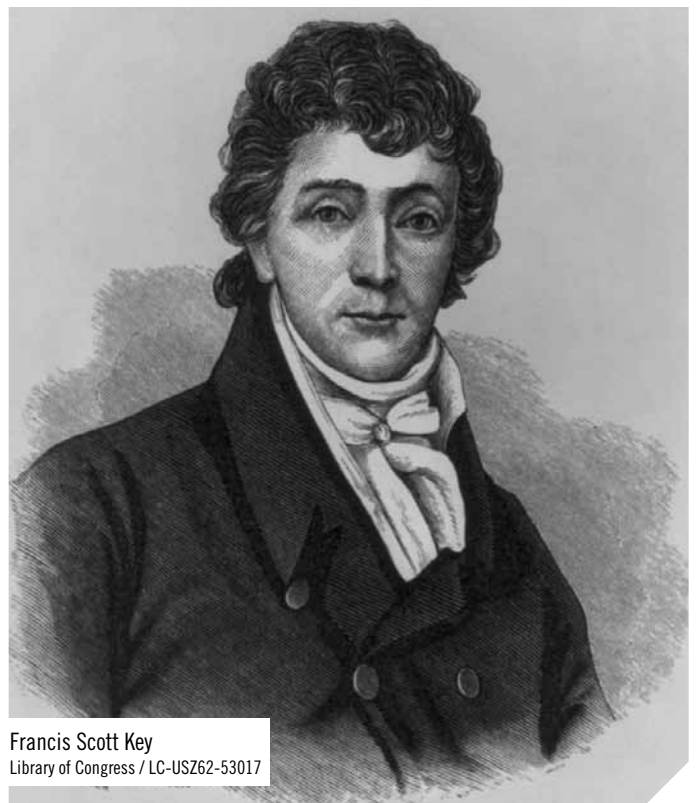
- Identify the major battles and geographic features related to the American anthem.
- Summarize the events leading up to the writing of “The Star-Spangled Banner” – a song that became the national anthem of the United States more than a century later.
- Appraise the value and importance of national songs and symbols for maintaining national unity, especially during times of war.

LESSON SUMMARY

Late in the evening of 13 September 1814, Maryland lawyer Francis Scott Key stood on the deck of the British naval vessel that had taken him prisoner earlier that day. This warship was anchored in Baltimore harbour following the British attack on Washington, D.C., a battle in the war that resulted in the burning of the White House, U.S. Treasury Building, and other government property. After finishing their work in Washington, the British military continued on to Baltimore, the largest city on Chesapeake Bay. Here they attacked Fort McHenry.

The shelling of Fort McHenry lasted all night as Francis Scott Key watched from the deck, shivering and depressed, thinking this battle would result in yet another victory for the British enemy. Bombs lit up the sky behind the American flag flying high over the fort and explosions continued throughout the night.

As the sun came up the next morning, an exhausted Francis Scott Key struggled to see if the flag was still visible to him from the deck of the ship. Amazed and excited to see that it was still there, this little known



Francis Scott Key
Library of Congress / LC-USZ62-53017



View of President's house in Washington after the 24 August 1814 bombardment
 Painting by William Strickland (1814), Library of Congress / LC-USZC4-405



Capture of the American Frigate Chesapeake by HMS Shannon
 Library and Archives Canada / Acc. No. 1970-188-1158

author of what would become the national anthem of the United States scribbled the following words onto the back of a letter crumpled in his pocket:

*Oh say can you see, by the dawn's early light,
 What so proudly we hailed at the twilight's last gleaming?
 Whose broad stripes and bright stars, through the
 perilous fight,
 O'er the ramparts we watched, were so gallantly streaming?
 And the rockets' red glare, the bombs bursting in air,
 Gave proof through the night that our flag was still there.
 Oh, say does that star spangled banner yet wave,
 O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave.*
 (First verse of The Star-Spangled Banner)

ADDITIONAL READING

Star-Spangled Banner and the War of 1812. Washington, DC, Smithsonian Institution (http://www.si.edu/Encyclopedia_SI/nmah/starflag.htm)

CRITICAL THINKING ASSIGNMENTS

SITUATE THE EVENTS HISTORICALLY

Warm-up activity

Introduce the lyrics of “O Canada” by asking students if they have heard the Canadian national anthem. Then, ask students to guess some of the cities in Canada where this song might have been performed during the past year.

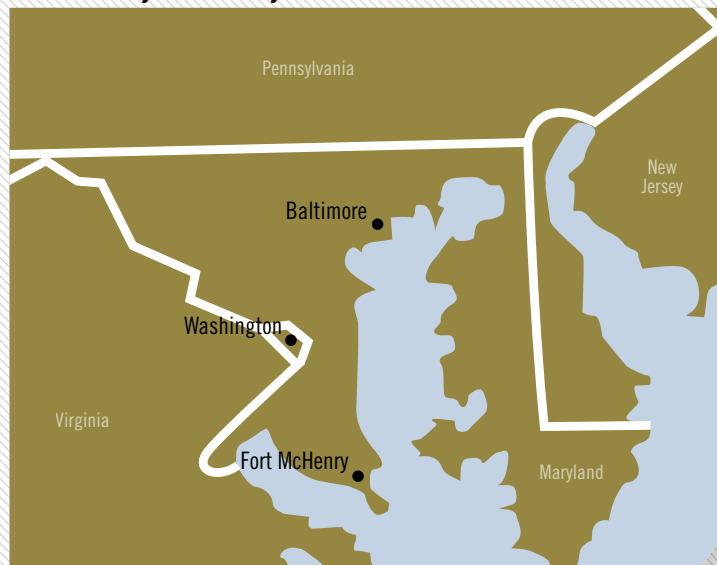
Discussion question

Lead students in a brief discussion centered in asking them to identify some of the reasons why patriotic songs and symbols are so important for the political unity of nations. Encourage students to discuss the lyrics of “O Canada” and “The Star-Spangled Banner” to share how they feel when they hear the national anthem performed in their country. Then ask students to delve more deeply into some of the more specific reasons why hearing patriotic songs like these helps foster national unity and pride in one's homeland.

SITUATE THE EVENTS GEOGRAPHICALLY

1. In your opinion, what are some of the geographical and political reasons why the British attacked Fort McHenry so intensely?
2. Where do you think Francis Scott Key was when he wrote the poem?

Fort McHenry and vicinity



SIR ISAAC BROCK AND THE WAR OF 1812

LEARNING OUTCOMES

After completing this lesson, students will be able to:

- Summarize the military career of Isaac Brock.
- Summarize the events leading up to the Battle of Queenston Heights (in which Brock participated).
- Appraise the importance of the successful defence of Queenston Heights and the significance of Isaac Brock and his role in the War of 1812.

LESSON SUMMARY

Born at St. Peter Port on the island of Guernsey on 6 October 1769, Sir Isaac Brock was administrator of Upper Canada and commander of the forces during the War of 1812. Perhaps more than anything else, his story illustrates the difficulties of defending Canada against American attack, and the remarkable nature of that success.

In the army since purchasing a commission at the age of fifteen, Brock first came to Canada in 1802 with his regiment, the 49th Regiment of Foot. He had only limited battle experience by this time, and indeed while stationed at York in Upper Canada his chief preoccupation was to stem the tide of deserters to the United States. Promoted to colonel in 1805, Brock assumed temporary command of all of Canada's troops in 1807 during the absence of a governor. Brock worked with energy to improve the state of Canada's defence preparations in light of deteriorating relations with the United States, and was appointed brigadier-general. In the summer of 1810, Brock was sent to Upper Canada, and he was promoted to the rank of major general in June 1811.

Brock lamented his enforced idleness in Upper Canada, complaining of being "buried in this inactive, remote corner, without the least mention being made of me"¹ while Britain was at war in Europe. Since the 1793 outbreak of war with revolutionary France, opportunities abounded



Sir Isaac Brock
Painting by George Theodore Berthon (1883), public domain

for an ambitious military man to distinguish himself in battle. Ironically, when at last he received word early in 1812 that he was to be deployed in Europe, Brock's views had changed, and facing the spectre of war with the United States, he asked permission to stay. Since October 1811, in the absence of lieutenant governor Francis Gore, Brock had been serving both as military commander and as administrator of Upper Canada.

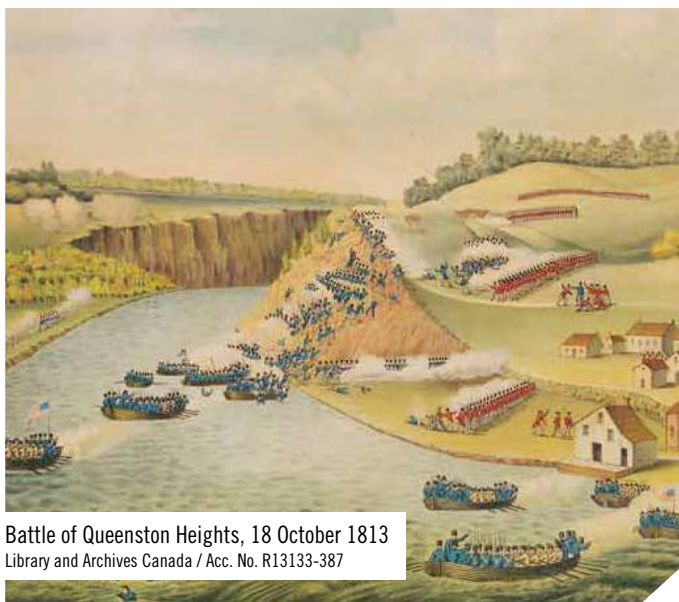
For the United States, Britain's preoccupation with war against Napoleon's forces offered the opportunity to seize the North American colonies that many Americans – and not a few Canadians – believed they were destined to possess. It would be “a mere matter of marching,” Thomas Jefferson maintained.² Such a territorial conquest would also put an end to the persistent alliance between Britain and the aboriginal nations that resisted American westward expansion. Some in the United States also saw the looming conflict as a second war for independence. Britain's mastery of the seas enabled them to blockade European ports held by the French, interfering with neutral American shipping. Even more provocatively, the British navy intercepted American merchant ships at sea to search for deserters, which the United States condemned as an illegal affront to their liberty. On 18 June 1812, President James Madison declared war on Britain.

Unsurprisingly, given the more pressing need in Europe where war with revolutionary France had been almost constant since 1793, Britain had committed few troops to the defence of the North American colonies, with only 10,000 regular troops spread from Newfoundland

to Amherstburg in southwestern Upper Canada. The population imbalance was also sobering: the American population had surged to 7.5 million, in contrast to the mere 500,000 in all of the British North American colonies. The vulnerable colony of Upper Canada stood at a mere 77,000. Equally worrisome was the fact that the colony's legislative assembly seemed disinclined to take the necessary steps to enhance the militia. Brock had been concerned about the loyalty of the French Canadians, and now his worries extended to the upper colony. Most of the population consisted of recent arrivals from the United States who had moved north to acquire farmland, and Brock doubted their willingness to wholeheartedly resist a determined invasion. “My situation is most critical,” he confided to Governor General Sir George Prevost, “not from anything the enemy can do but from the disposition of the people.” “Most of the people have lost all confidence,” he admitted, and believed that the province would inevitably fall to the Americans. “I however speak loud and look big.”³

In July 1812, the American General William Hull crossed the border from Detroit: his operation was part of a three-pronged attack against British North America, with offensives also planned on the Niagara frontier and at Montréal via the Lake Champlain corridor. Brock was dismayed at the number of deserters from Upper Canada's militia, and knew that a bold offensive would be necessary to bolster his position. Recognizing that the vulnerable western frontier was the key to a successful defence, Brock had already sent word to Captain Charles Roberts at St. Joseph that war had been declared, and authorizing an attack on the nearby American-held Fort Michilimackinac. Roberts's victory on 17 July 1812 at this strategic site at the straits between Lake Michigan and Lake Huron helped secure the alliance with the native nations of the Upper Great Lakes. Brock's related objective was Fort Detroit, and his bold plan for an offensive there won the approval of Tecumseh, the influential Ohio Valley Shawnee chief who had been growing weary of Britain's cautious unwillingness to provoke the Americans.

The alliance with Tecumseh's 600 warriors was a godsend to Brock at Detroit, and provided him with a much needed boost to his force of 700, most of whom were militia, rather than regular soldiers. But more than this was the psychological weapon these warriors provided against General Hull, who sheltered within Fort Detroit with a force of more than 2,000. Before crossing the river from Sandwich, Brock sent a note to his adversary. It was far from his inclination “to join in a war of extermination,” Brock insisted, “but you must be aware



Battle of Queenston Heights, 18 October 1813
Library and Archives Canada / Acc. No. R13133-387



American General William Hull
Painting by James Sharples Sr. (1795-1801), public domain

that the numerous body of Indians who have attached themselves to my troops will be beyond my power to control the moment the contest commences.”⁴ The terrifying spectacle of painted warriors dancing around bonfires in the night, and the chilling sound of war cries, heightened the effect. Tecumseh paraded the same braves repeatedly within sight of the garrison, creating the impression of thousands massing for attack, and Brock contributed his own device to the theatrical performance: he had some of the militia clad in surplus red tunics of a regular regiment, masquerading as professional soldiers to mislead the Americans. A cannonade from the battery on the Canadian side of the river found its mark, and an unnerved General Hull quickly surrendered. The unexpected victory over a superior enemy buoyed Upper Canadian morale.

He quickly turned his attention to Fort George on the Niagara frontier, spurred by rumours of an expected American invasion. In the early hours of 13 October 1812, Brock learned that the Americans had crossed the Niagara River from Lewiston, New York, and ascended the eighty-metre embankment to Queenston Heights. Convinced that the loss of the heights would be fatal to the British cause, Brock rushed to confront them with a force of 1,000 British regulars and 600 Upper Canadian militia. As he led his forces up the slope, the 6' 2" general, clad in a red tunic, was an easy target; he was felled by a sharpshooter's bullet to the heart. His second in command, Major General Roger Sheaffe, arrived with reinforcements, and with native forces led by Mohawk war chief John Norton (Teyoninhokarawen) firing from the right flank of the American enemies, the invaders were repelled, retreating down the cliff face. Almost one thousand were pinned on the banks of the fast-flowing Niagara River, unable to cross back to the American side, and were taken prisoner. The Americans lost some 300 to 500 casualties, the defenders fewer than one hundred.

The successful defence of Queenston Heights, following a similar victory at Detroit, swelled hopes that an American invasion could be repelled. The war was far from over, and before the final peace was signed at Ghent on Christmas Eve, 1814, many more lives would be lost in the defence of Canada's borders. For Brock, who had died in this cause, what had once been an unwelcome exile, a post far from the scene in which others were earning laurels, became instead the path to glorious immortality. Military historian C.P. Stacey describes Brock as “one of the people to whom it is given to change the course of history.” Brock's body lies under the soaring 56-metre monument that commands Queenston Heights. Today, the tunic Brock wore may be seen at Canada's War Museum, the hole that mars the garment a sombre reminder of the general's gallant death in the defence of Canada.

ADDITIONAL READING

http://www.biographi.ca/009004-119.01-f.php?&id_nbr=2288&interval=20&&PHPSESSID=q0nr2s7ltsmdni154hufjdju07

¹ Isaac Brock, 23 July 1807, *The Life and Correspondence of Major-General Sir Isaac Brock*, K.B., ed. Ferdinand Brock Tupper (London: Simpkin, Marshall & Co., 1845). Online at <http://www.archive.org/stream/thelifeandcorres14428gut/14428-8.txt>

² As quoted by Derek Hayes, *Historical Atlas of Canada* (Vancouver: Douglas & McIntyre, 2002), 172.

³ J. Mackay Hitsman, *The Incredible War of 1812: A Military History*. Revised edition (Toronto: Robin Brass Studio, 1999), 67.

⁴ As quoted by Lady Edgar, *General Brock* (Toronto: Morang & Co., 1911), 251.

CRITICAL THINKING ASSIGNMENTS

SITUATE THE EVENTS HISTORICALLY

Warm-up activity

Introduce the topic of the War of 1812 and ask the students what they know about the War of 1812, what names and places they have heard of. This list will most probably include Brock's name. This is just a short exercise in order to demonstrate to students that even though they might not know the entire story of the war, some details have emerged, either through textbooks, visits to historic sites, etc.

Discussion question

- (a) Ask students what are some of the ways we commemorate heroes (statues, monuments, films, celebrations) and what purpose it serves.
- (b) Ask them to reflect on Isaac Brock and on what aspects of him his commemoration focuses on. Link this discussion to the representation of a society's values in our commemoration of national heroes.

SITUATE THE EVENTS GEOGRAPHICALLY

Why were the victories at Queenston Heights and Detroit so important for the British? Try to imagine the geographical consequences of a loss at either one of these locations.

Queenston Heights and vicinity



TECUMSEH

LEARNING OUTCOMES

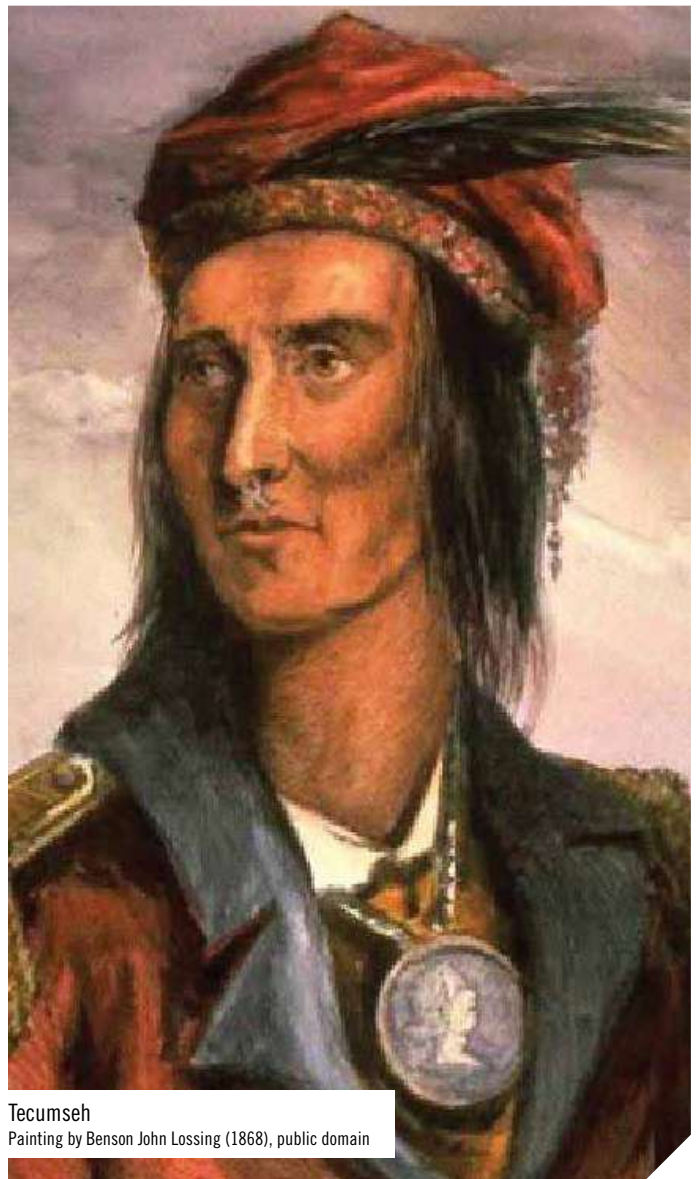
After completing this lesson, students will be able to:

- Summarize Tecumseh's objectives in participating in the War.
- Explain the changing relationship between First Nations, the British and the Americans.
- Identify the outcomes of the War of 1812 for First Nations.

LESSON SUMMARY

While Britain had important reasons for going to war with the United States in 1812 – disputes at sea, and the defence of Britain's North American colonies against American conquest – North American native nations had goals of their own. Since the United States had won its independence from Britain in 1783, Britain was no longer able to check American expansion westward into the Ohio Valley, and into the frontier between Lake Michigan and Lake Huron, what would today be the state of Michigan. Britain had tried to covertly support an Indian buffer state in this territory, in part to protect the frontiers of Upper Canada, but in 1794 an American victory at Fallen Timbers over a combined native force – warriors from the Shawnee, Mingo, Delaware, Wyandot, Miami, Ottawa, Ojibwe, and Pottawatomie nations – compelled the British to evacuate nearby Fort Miami at the southwestern tip of Lake Erie. By the terms of the 1794 Jay's Treaty, Britain surrendered any claim to forts in the interior of the United States. War with revolutionary France had broken out in 1793, and Britain was unwilling to risk a second war. Having endured a hungry winter, and not able to count on future British support, most aboriginal nations of the Ohio Valley signed the 1795 Treaty of Greenville with the United States, ceding the Ohio Valley. Tecumseh, a young Shawnee warrior who was a veteran of the Battle of Fallen Timbers, did not support the Greenville Treaty, and would later lead a new campaign of Indian resistance against the Americans. For the natives, then, the War of 1812 was an intensification of a long-running dispute over territory.

Tecumseh was probably born around 1768 on the Scioto River in what is today Ohio. He and his brother, Tenskwatawa, known as “the Prophet,” called on native



Tecumseh
Painting by Benson John Lossing (1868), public domain

nations to unite in a confederacy to resist the white man's ways. Guided by visions from the Great Spirit, Tenskwatawa insisted that the land was a gift that could not be ceded or sold. The two brothers urged individual nations not to enter into treaties without the consent of all the nations. Many who saw the Shawnee chief remarked upon his bearing, dignity, and eloquence in speech, and Tecumseh's success in drawing adherents to his cause from across Indian nations drew the concern of American authorities. In November of 1811, while Tecumseh was away visiting tribes to the south, his brother clashed with an American force led by the governor of Indiana Territory (and future American president) William Henry Harrison. Tecumseh's village of Tippecanoe was destroyed. But even Harrison grudgingly acknowledged the power of his adversary; Tecumseh was "one of those uncommon geniuses which spring up

occasionally to produce revolutions," he noted.¹ Tecumseh and his supporters took refuge in Upper Canada, and with renewed Anglo-American tensions threatening the peace, his presence was undoubtedly a welcome one. The Americans declared war on the British on 18 June 1812.

In August 1812 at Amherstburg, on Upper Canada's western frontier, Tecumseh met with Major General Sir Isaac Brock, commander of the forces and administrator of Upper Canada. After decades of British equivocation, Tecumseh was impressed by Brock's bold plan to attack the Americans at nearby Fort Detroit. Tecumseh led some 600 aboriginal warriors in support of Brock's force of 400 colonial militia and 300 regulars. An American force of more than 2,000 sheltered within the fort, under the command of General William Hull. Tecumseh's warriors, with painted faces and chilling war



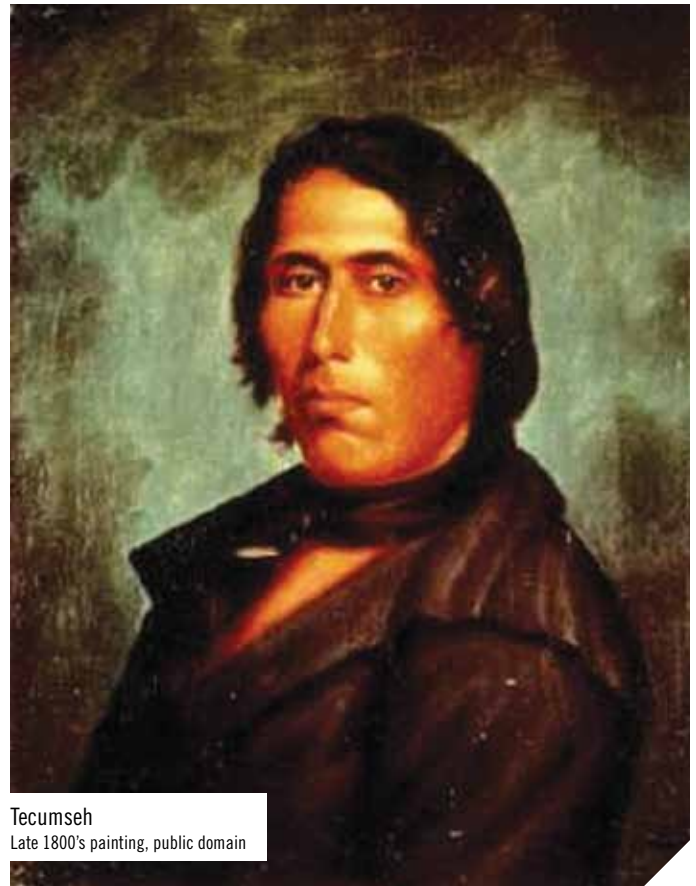
Tenskwatawa
Painting by George Catlin (1830), public domain

whoops, burned bonfires through the night, a scene one militiaman likened to hell. Tecumseh repeatedly marched the same warriors in front of the garrison to create the illusion of thousands massing for an attack. Playing upon Hull's fears of an Indian massacre, Brock sent a demand for surrender, warning him that the Indians would be beyond his power to control once the battle began. The British artillery bombardment at last broke Hull's nerves, and he ordered the white flag of surrender raised.

Brock praised Tecumseh as "the Wellington of the Indians," remarking that no more sagacious or gallant warrior existed.² Tecumseh is said to have presented Brock with an arrow sash, and to have accepted a sash from the British commander in exchange. But Tecumseh was to soon lose this trusted friend and ally: Brock was killed two months later in the defence of Queenston Heights.

The American naval victory at Put-in-Bay on Lake Erie on September 1813 forced the British to retreat from the indefensible Detroit frontier. Tecumseh, who had looked to the British alliance a means to regain control over the aboriginal homelands of the Ohio Valley, urged the British commander, Major General Henry Procter to stand his ground, or to at least help equip the natives with arms and ammunition. "Our lives are in the hands of the Great Spirit," he said. "We are determined to defend our lands, and if it is his will, we wish to leave our bones upon them." Recalling how the British had abandoned them at Fort Miami in 1794, Tecumseh likened Procter to "a fat animal that carries its tail upon its back, but when affrighted, it drops it between its legs and runs off."³ Procter knew that British interests lay in the defence of Canada rather than the conquest of territory prized by the Americans, but he was afraid to make this painful decision clear to his native allies. With William Henry Harrison and an army of more than 3,000 in pursuit, Procter's forces fled east in disarray. At last, on 5 October 1813, at Moraviantown on the Thames River, Procter made a doomed stand against the advancing Americans. As the battle raged, Tecumseh could be heard urging on his warriors, but his voice was suddenly silenced.

The manner of Tecumseh's death, and his final resting place, are shrouded in mystery. An American soldier claimed to have felled him with a musket ball, and souvenir hunters allegedly tore pieces from his skin to use as razor strops. During Harrison's later presidential campaign, his success as an "Indian fighter" was bolstered



Tecumseh
Late 1800's painting, public domain

by displays of what were said to be Tecumseh's bones at political rallies.

Tecumseh was not the first to dream of a pan-Indian nation to fight for possession of ancestral lands, and the War of 1812 offered an opportunity to further that goal. Tecumseh's death in battle cost the aboriginal nations a powerful advocate for their interests. Despite native successes during the war and British attempts to secure American recognition of an Indian territory, the December 1814 Treaty of Ghent offered only a vague affirmation of traditional native rights and privileges.

ADDITIONAL READINGS

http://www.biographi.ca/009004-119.01-f.php?id_nbr=2684

<http://www.thecanadianencyclopedia.com/articles/fr/tecumseh>

¹ Herbert C. W. Goltz, "Tecumseh (Tech-kum-thai)," *Dictionary of Canadian Biography* http://www.biographi.ca/009004-119.01-e.php?id_nbr=2684&interval=20&PHPSESID=ih6t0dkec01qco845snlug2642

² John Sugden, *Tecumseh: A Life* (New York: Henry Holt, 1997), 308; Goltz, "Tecumseh."

³ As quoted by John Sugden, *Tecumseh: A Life*, 360, 359.

CRITICAL THINKING ASSIGNMENTS

SITUATE THE EVENTS HISTORICALLY

Warm-up activity

Ask students if they know about events, recent or not, linked to territorial negotiations between Aboriginal peoples and government authorities. The few examples that will come out from this exercise should highlight the ongoing nature of the land claim process.

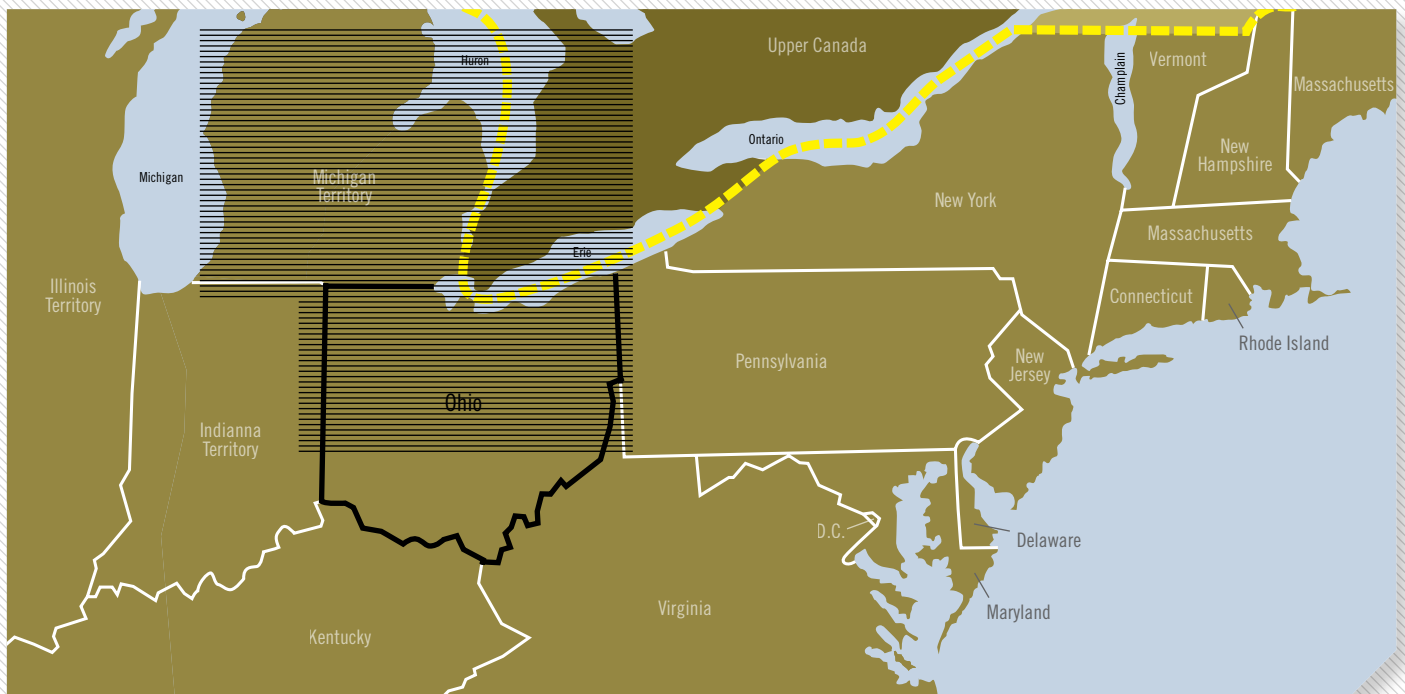
Discussion questions

- (a) Why may sources related to Tecumseh and his views be considered unreliable?
- (b) To what degree were Tecumseh's people treated fairly after the War of 1812?

SITUATE THE EVENTS GEOGRAPHICALLY

- 1. Tecumseh and his people were located in the areas of Lake Michigan and Lake Huron, as well as in the Ohio Valley. Given these locations, who would he likely have supported (the British or Americans)?
- 2. In looking at the map, explain why the British naval loss at Lake Erie was deemed detrimental by Tecumseh to his efforts in regaining power over the Ohio Valley territories.

Ohio Valley and Great Lakes



LAURA SECORD'S WALK

LEARNING OUTCOMES

After completing this lesson, students will be able to:

- Describe the outcome of Laura Secord's walk on the development of the War of 1812.
- Appraise the significance of the role of women during the war.
- Describe the effect of the war on the home front.
- Assess how citizens are rewarded and remembered when defending their countries.

LESSON SUMMARY

For those who lived in the British colony of Upper Canada, the War of 1812 affected their daily lives in a number of ways. The majority of Upper Canadians were farmers, so militia service meant leaving not just their families but also their crops and livestock. As well, the latter might also be requisitioned by the British troops and their Aboriginal allies for provisions or they might be taken by American soldiers. Moreover, in some cases Upper Canadians saw their homes occupied, and sometimes destroyed, by American troops.



Meeting between Laura Secord and Lieutenant FitzGibbon, June 1813
Library and Archives Canada / Acc. No. 1997-229-2, C-011053

Upper Canadian women, children, and those men unable to fight thus might find themselves forced to provide hospitality and provisions for an occupying force.

Laura Secord's story highlights these elements of the War's effects on the home front. It also demonstrates how Upper Canadian women, formally excluded from military service, might contribute to the colony's defence. We know from various accounts that women were not always bystanders during the events of 1812-1814: there are examples of women on both sides who acted as spies, decoys, or who took up weapons. However, in the years after the War it was Secord's walk which received the most attention and it was Secord who became a symbol of female loyalty to Britain and Canadian patriotism.

The Niagara peninsula saw some of the fiercest fighting on land; in 1813 it also was occupied by American soldiers. Laura, her husband James, and their seven children lived in the village of Queenston alongside the Niagara River (just north of Niagara Falls). Born in Great Barrington, Massachusetts in 1775, Laura Ingersoll and her family had come to Upper Canada in 1795, where she married James Secord, a merchant in Queenston. A sergeant in the 1st Lincoln militia, James had been badly wounded fighting at the Battle of Queenston Heights. Thus on June 21, 1813 when the Secords heard of an American plan to ambush the British at Beaverdams, an outpost approximately twelve miles west of Queenston, they decided that Laura, not her husband, should go.

Choosing a more circuitous route to avoid American troops, Laura walked twenty miles through fields and rough terrain in the summer heat. She first reached an encampment of Aboriginal allies; after convincing them of the legitimacy of her mission, they took her to Lieutenant-Colonel James FitzGibbon. Her news allowed FitzGibbon, working with the Aboriginal forces, to thwart the American attack.

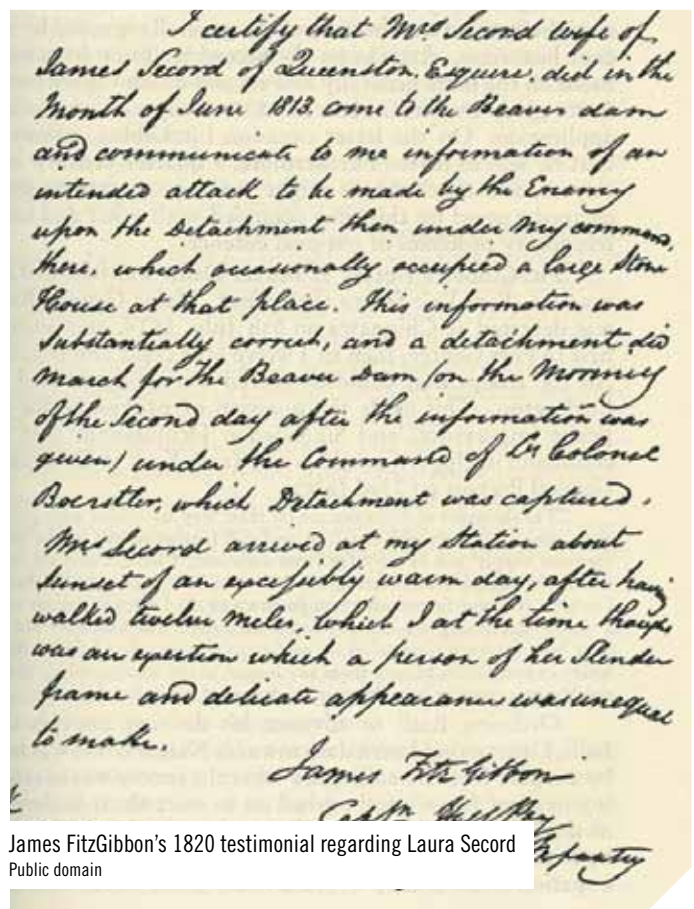
Laura Secord's walk and warning received no public attention during the War. Because of the continued American presence in the Niagara area, she and her family may well not have wished to draw attention to her contribution. In 1820 and 1840 she submitted two petitions to the colonial government, describing her



James FitzGibbon
McGill University Library

services to the Crown and asking for financial recognition for her family. However, it was not until the 1840s that her story became public knowledge; in 1860, during the Prince of Wales' tour of British North America, Secord was given an award of £100. After her death in 1868, Laura Secord's narrative story began to appear in histories of the War, both in Canada and in the United States.

Her status as a 'heroine' dates from the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, when the War of 1812 was commemorated with increasing frequency as an important milestone in Canadian loyalty to Britain and as a marker of Canadian nationhood. As well, a number of middle-class women, often members of the woman's suffrage movement, also began to promote



James FitzGibbon's 1820 testimonial regarding Laura Secord
Public domain

Secord's walk as a symbol of female bravery and women's ability to contribute to Canadian society. Laura Secord's narrative was remembered in school history texts and two separate monuments in Niagara; schools and, perhaps most famously, an Ontario-based candy company were named after her. These tributes emphasized her femininity, dedication to her husband and family, and stressed her physical fragility. All of these qualities were used to suggest that she was an 'ordinary' woman who was capable of displaying extraordinary commitment to Crown and country, qualities that her commemorators suggested also were possessed by many Canadian women.

ADDITIONAL READINGS

COATES, Colin & Cecilia Morgan. *Heroines and History: Representations of Madeleine de Verchères and Laura Secord*. Toronto, University of Toronto Press, 2001.

<http://www.thecanadianencyclopedia.com/articles/fr/laura-secord>

<http://www.thecanadianencyclopedia.com/articles/fr/bataille-de-beaver-dams>

CRITICAL THINKING ASSIGNMENTS

SITUATE THE EVENTS HISTORICALLY

Warm-up activity

Lead students in a brief discussion centered in asking them what the name Laura Secord means to them. Show evolving pictures of Secord as icon for the chocolate company (from C. Coates' and C. Morgan's book). Steer the discussion towards the role of women at that period and the particularity of Laura Secord's story. Ask the students what Laura Secord symbolized in the context of the War of 1812.

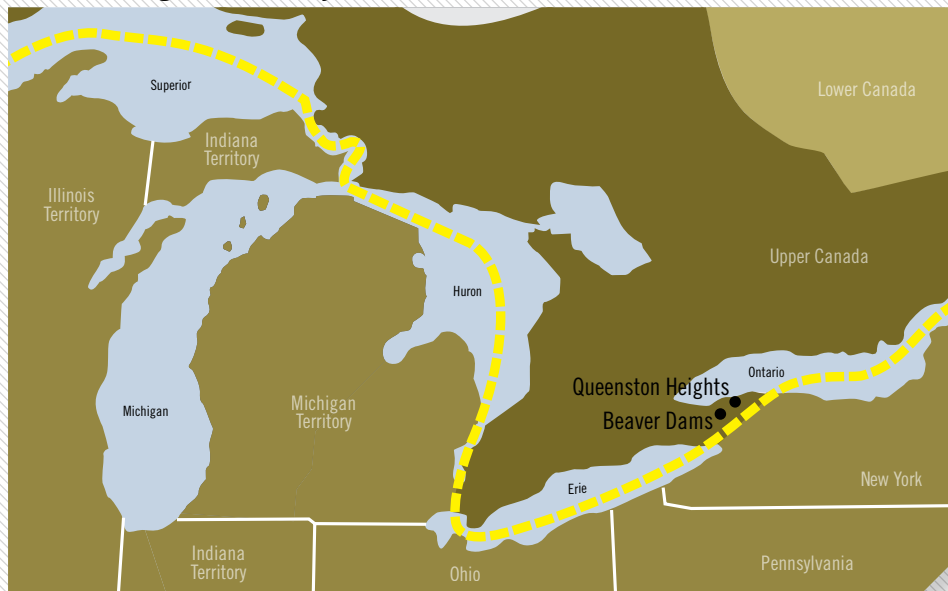
Discussion questions

- (a) Identify examples of how a war can affect the home front, like any issue related to rationing, changing social and family roles, etc.
- (b) Discuss the impact of the war on different populations.

SITUATE THE EVENTS GEOGRAPHICALLY

1. Look at the possible route that Laura Secord took to warn the British of an American attack; name some of the possible challenges she might have encountered during her trek.
2. In looking at the location of Beaver Dams, give reasons why the Americans would want to attack this outpost.

Queenston Heights and vicinity



THE FRENCH CANADIAN MILITIA

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After completing this lesson, students will be able to:

- Describe the different types of militia under which French Canadians could fight.
- Describe the recruitment methods used to get French Canadian soldiers and evaluate their success.
- Understand the reasons why many French Canadians did not want to participate in the War of 1812.

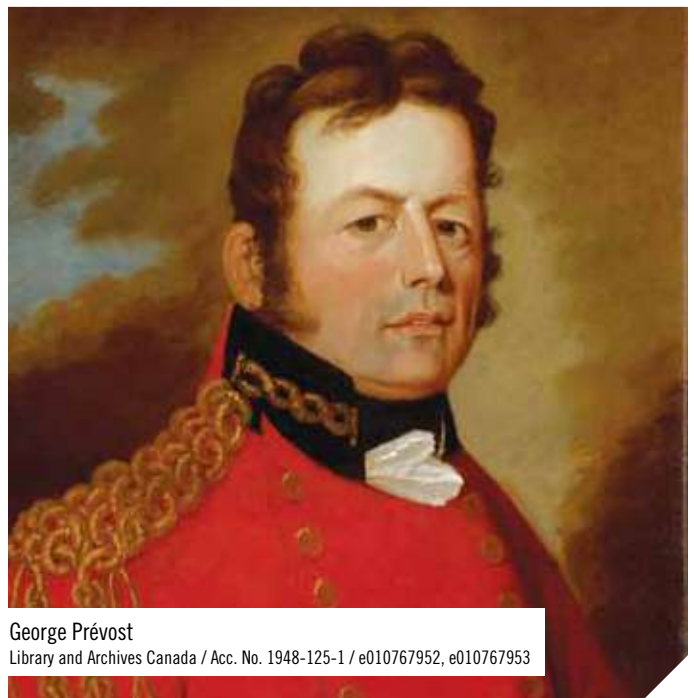
LESSON SUMMARY

In the spring of 1812, the governor of Lower Canada, George Prévost, feels that a U.S. invasion is imminent. Unfortunately, to defend the territory, he only has 5,600 British regulars and Fencibles including 1,200 stationed in Upper Canada. The militia of Lower Canada (now Québec) has 60,000 men on paper and that of Upper Canada (now Ontario) has 11,000 of which only 4,000 can be viewed as loyal to England. Other militiamen are newly arrived Americans whose loyalty still lies with the United States.

During the war, three types of militia will take part in the war operations: the sedentary militia, the Voltigeurs canadiens volunteer militia and the Select Embodied Militia.

All men aged 16 to 50 years old are part of the sedentary militia, or local militia. The law of 1803 states that the sedentary militia must enroll every year in April for a weekend in order to allow for an inventory of the number of soldiers, to check the weapons and to do a bit of drill. These training weekends usually ended at the local tavern. Supervised by local officers, this is the pool from which to draw the militia who will fight the Americans. In case of invasion, the militia is supposed to repel the enemy.

Military imperatives are forcing Prévost to use the French-Canadian Militia. On 25 April 1812, the recruitment of volunteers begins for the Voltigeurs canadiens led by Charles-Michel de Salaberry of the 60th Regiment, a native of Québec. This battalion is comprised of volunteers and must serve for the duration of the war against the United States.



George Prévost
Library and Archives Canada / Acc. No. 1948-125-1 / e010767952, e010767953



Voltigeurs canadiens
Library and Archives Canada / Acc. No. 1977-22-22

The walls of Québec, Montréal and Trois-Rivières are quickly covered with posters. All militiamen wishing to avoid conscription and ready to join the ranks of Canadian are offered 96 French pounds. The posters are also meant to reassure the militiamen, as they read: “you do not become soldiers, but you remain militiamen and will not be subject to any of the punishments which the troops are subject to.” It may be noted that whipping was abolished as corporal punishment for militiamen.

Posters also state that the battalion is reserved for native-born Canadians and that there will be no foreigners allowed. Emphasis is laid on the fact that premiums are paid immediately and pay calculation begins at enrollment.

In December 1812, another recruitment drive begins for the Voltigeurs. At that time, 50 acres of land are offered to all who join the militia battalion. This recruitment bonus seems very attractive because in less than a month, 120 men are welcomed in the battalion. Throughout the war, more than 900 militiamen will voluntarily join this elite corps. The Francophones represent 75% of militia recruits. Half of the officers were also Francophones.

During the war, the Voltigeurs canadiens took part in a dozen military engagements. The Battle of the Châteauguay River is certainly the most known of all of these. Salaberry and three hundred Voltigeurs canadiens supported by 1,200 soldiers and sedentary militia was successful in defeating 2,500 Americans.

Newspapers at the time were quick to publish a poem describing the Voltigeurs’ glorious actions:

*“La Trompette a sonné. L’éclair luit, l’airain gronde:
Salaberry paraît : la valeur le seconde,
Et trois cent Canadiens qui marchent sur ses pas
Comme lui, d’un air gai, vont braver le trépas.
Huit mille Américains s’avancent d’un air sombre.
Oui! Trois cents sur huit mille obtiennent la victoire.
Ce poème servira de base sur laquelle repose une
partie de la gloire des Voltigeurs canadiens”*

*(The trumpet has played. The lightning shines,
the brass growls:
Salaberry seems: valor follows him,
And three hundred Canadians who walk in his footsteps
Like him, gaily, will brave death.
Eight thousand Americans advance, gloomily.
Yes! Three hundred on eight thousand will obtain
the victory.
This poem will be the basis on which will rest the
glory of the Voltigeurs canadiens)*

In addition to recruiting volunteers, Governor George Prévost decides to introduce conscription to raise four Select Embodied battalions. In May 1812, they randomly draw the names of 2,000 single militiamen aged 18-30 years old. Each division of the sedentary militia must send a specific number of conscripts, approximately 20% of the single men within the militia division.



Battle of the Châteauguay River, 1813
Library and Archives Canada

These men are enlisted for a period of 90 days. In the event that the war with the United States continues, they may remain in service for two years.

Members of the clergy were involved in the conscription campaign. They act under the orders of the bishop who suggest to “make the militiamen feel like his religion is endangered by the presence of enemies without principles and without morals”.

Despite good planning, the conscription operation runs into some problems. In the Boucherville region, 138 militiamen are conscripted and must join their battalion in Montréal. Only 20 militiamen arrive at camp. The others are “lost” in the woods. Several militiamen refuse to enlist and become refractory. With a target of 2,000 men, the government succeeds in conscripting only 1,200. The militiamen who bow to the military requirement are not very well received. The First Battalion of the Select Embodied militia has to house 600 men in a barn on a small field. The battalion’s cook has no oven to bake bread. Men receive raw flour as a meal. Under such conditions, it is not surprising that young men who have never left home before are discouraged by these conditions and leave the camp illegally.

A few deserters are imprisoned in Lachine. Nearly 400 sedentary militiamen living in the Pointe-Claire area decide to go free their colleagues, whom they feel were unjustly imprisoned. The sedentary militiamen are intercepted by British regulars. A skirmish takes place and a militiaman is gunned down by the British. The militiamen flee quickly. This rapid and forceful government intervention convinces militiamen to do their duty and the 2,000 conscripts are quickly recruited.

In September 1812, the war continues and militiamen are now expected to serve for a period of two years. Another call is issued to create militias in the Montréal region, the Fifth Battalion of the Select Embodied militia. This battalion will soon be nicknamed Devil’s Own because many of its officers were lawyers. In February 1813, the Sixth Battalion is recruited to maintain the garrison in Quebec City.

The government will proceed with two other major conscriptions during the War of 1812. In January 1813, 2,108 militiamen will be conscripted and in January 1814, another 1,922 militiamen will join the war. During the 30 months of the war of 1812, 8,430 sedentary militiamen will be called up. 6,493 of them will actually join their battalion. Of these, 1,321 militiamen will, at one time or another, leave without permission. This will prompt newspapers to launch a propaganda campaign aiming to encourage militiamen not to desert.

Despite the few problems experienced during the course of the war, the use of the militia of Lower Canada resulted in a resounding success. The province was able to repel the invader.

ADDITIONAL READINGS

<http://www.pc.gc.ca/fra/lhn-nhs/qc/chateauguay/natcul/natcul1/natcul1e.aspx>

<http://www.thecanadianencyclopedia.com/articles/fr/les-voltigeurs-dans-la-guerre-de-1812>

CRITICAL THINKING ASSIGNMENTS

SITUATE THE EVENTS HISTORICALLY

Warm up activity

Ask the students to name wars in which Canada participated and to discuss the different reasons why Canada took part in these conflicts

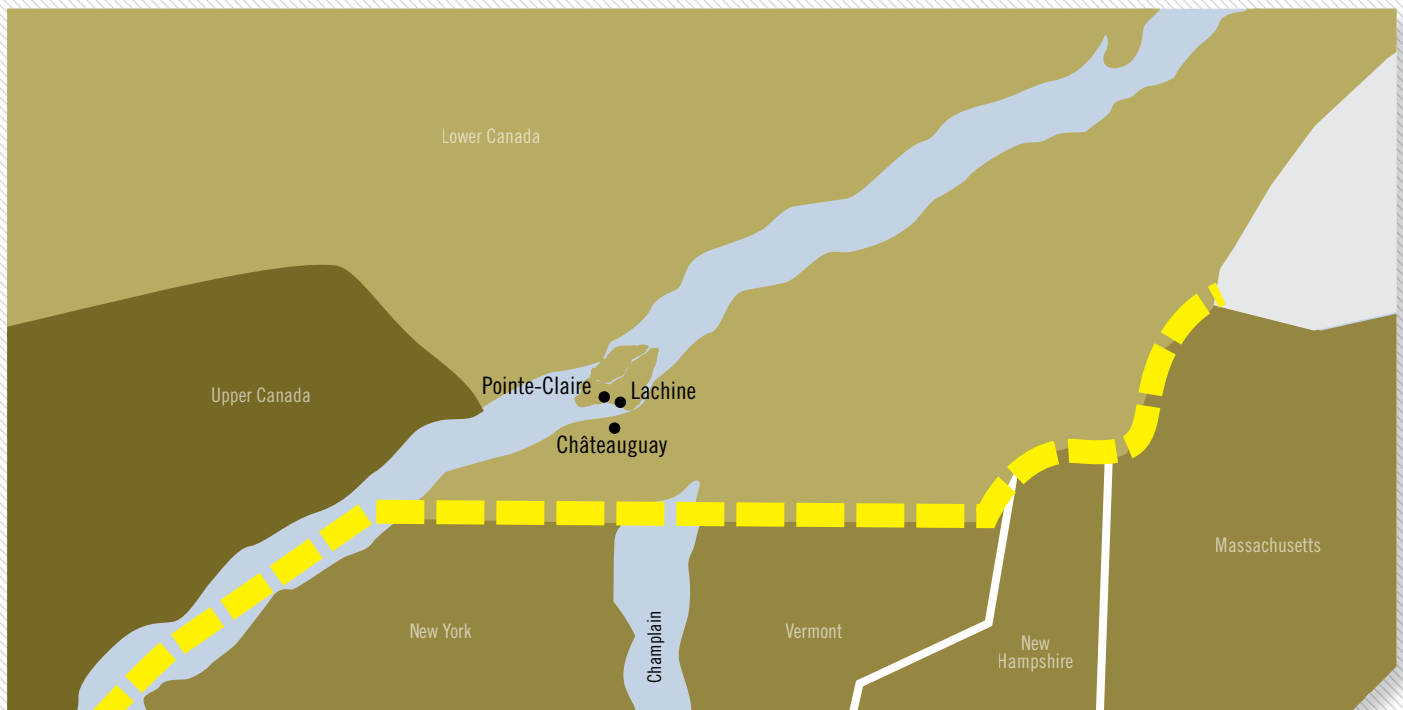
Discussion questions

- Why would people not want to fight in the war at this time?
- Guide your students toward a discussion seeking to identify the reasons why the creation of patriotic songs or poems is important in times of war. Encourage the students to examine the *Voltigeurs* poem and to determine why the poem was written, and what feelings it might have instigated in its readers.

SITUATE THE EVENTS GEOGRAPHICALLY

- Determine why the troops were at Châteauguay, Lachine and Pointe-Claire.
- Explain why were some of the cultural and geographical and political reasons French Canadians from Lower Canada were hesitant to participate in the war of 1812?

Montréal and vicinity



A DIPLOMATIC ENDING: The Treaty of Ghent and Other Measures to End the War of 1812

LEARNING OUTCOMES

After completing this lesson, students will be able to:

- Identify the reasons to go to war, the issues arising during the war and determine how the final treaty addressed these.
- Identify the geographical consequences of the War of 1812 on the Canadian-American border.
- Summarize the measures adopted in order to end the War of 1812.
- Appraise the significance of the idea of “undefended border”.

LESSON SUMMARY

Although later Canadian mythology would stress the role of local militia in the outcome, the War of 1812 was fundamentally a conflict between the armed forces of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, which governed British North America, and the United States of America. As there had been no decisive outcome on land or at sea, under the mediation of the Czar of Russia, the British and American governments began negotiations towards a peace treaty in Ghent, Belgium in August 1814. The former was weary from the Napoleonic Wars in Europe, while the latter was concerned about the negative economic impact of prolonged conflict in North America.

The determination of the United States to negotiate a conclusion to the war was evident from the quality of its delegation, which was headed by the American minister



Signing of the Treaty of Ghent between
Great Britain and the United States
Library and Archives Canada / Acc. No. 1993-275-1

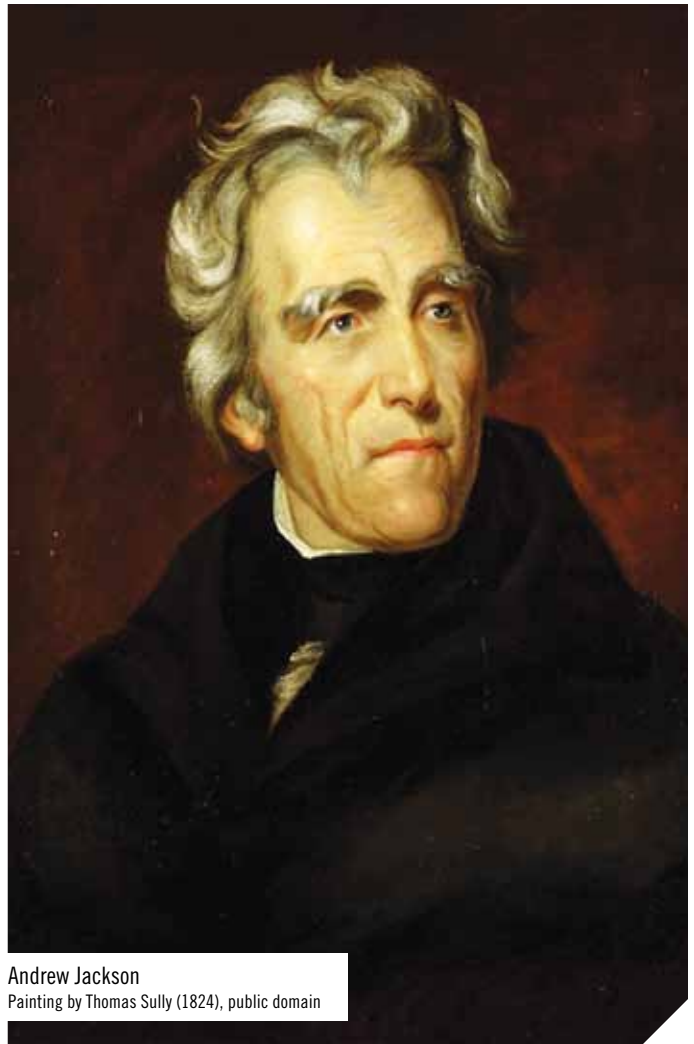
to London and future President, John Quincy Adams, who was ably assisted by James Bayard and Albert Gallatin. The British negotiators, Admiral Gambier, Henry Goulburn and William Adams, were less renowned, but the two sides were able to draft a treaty which was ultimately satisfactory to both countries.

Curiously, the issues which had led to war (particularly the naval questions that had provoked the United States) and those that arisen during it (including territorial conquests and the possibility of a homeland for First Nations in the interior) were all ignored in the final document. As both the British and the Americans desired, it was simplest to return to the *status quo ante bellum* than to stall the process by insistence on concessions. As a consequence the Treaty of Ghent, which consisted of nine articles, was signed on Christmas Eve, 1814. As a result of the slowness of communications, however, the Battle of New Orleans was fought on 8 January 1815 and won by American forces under the command of future President General Andrew Jackson, before news of peace was received.

From a British perspective, the war eased tensions and removed obstacles to friendly relations with its former colonies and thus reduced the need and consequent cost of defending British North America – a task that was problematic at best in any event. From an American perspective, an apparent challenge to its nationhood was rebuffed and some checks on its expansion into the interior of the continent were removed. From a Canadian perspective, the separate existence of British North America was preserved and the likelihood of annexation by its southern neighbour was diminished.

As a diplomatic conclusion to the war, the Treaty of Ghent was more notable for the questions it did not answer than for those it did, so that it was necessarily supplemented by less formal accords. The Rush-Bagot Agreement of 1817 effectively eliminated the rival naval fleets on the Great Lakes and Lake Champlain, so limiting the vessels and armaments that a nascent post-war shipbuilding race came to an abrupt end. The pact is named for its negotiators, American Acting Secretary of State Richard Rush and the British Minister to the United States, Charles Bagot. With some changes in interpretation since it was signed, the Agreement remains in force nearly 200 years later. Remarkably enough, it is not only one of the longest-lasting and successful disarmament agreements, but one of the shortest texts for that purpose.

Several, but certainly not all, boundary issues were resolved by joint British and American commissions, while others were left for later interpretation and



Andrew Jackson
Painting by Thomas Sully (1824), public domain

settlement – though incomplete, this treatment of the major points of contention helped to ease tensions considerably. The Convention of 1818 confirmed American fishing rights in the waters off Newfoundland and Labrador; redrew the boundary along the 49th parallel (to correct a geographical error in the Treaty of Paris), provided for joint occupation of the Oregon Territory, and dealt with commercial relations and claims in a mutually satisfactory manner.

ADDITIONAL READINGS

<http://www.thecanadianencyclopedia.com/articles/treaty-of-ghent>

<http://www.thecanadianencyclopedia.com/articles/rushbagot-agreement>

CRITICAL THINKING ASSIGNMENTS

SITUATE THE EVENTS HISTORICALLY

Warm-up activity

Ask students to think about the relationship between Canada and the United States and how it has evolved over time. Bring the discussion on the topic of 9/11 and have the students read this short article: http://www.huffingtonpost.ca/2011/09/09/911-anniversary-obama-tha_n_955881.html. Ask them to draw links between the diplomatic ending of the War of 1812 and the long standing positive relationship between the two countries.

Discussion questions

Lead students in a brief discussion centered in asking them:

- who won the War of 1812; and
- what is the significance of the treaties marking the end of the War of 1812 and tracing the official boundary between Canada and the United States?

SITUATE THE EVENTS GEOGRAPHICALLY

- In looking at the map, think of the clauses of the treaty and explain how they could have had an impact on the geography of Canada and the idea of the undefended border.
- Think about news stories you have heard related to the border between Canada and the United States and determine if the positive outcome of the War of 1812 is reflected in your story.

Canada-United States border and vicinity



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detachment
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