Mapping the Washington-Rochambeau Route
Flintlock & Powderhorn

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CONTENTS

Message from General President Lunney ...........................................3

Putting the Washington-Rochambeau Trail on the Map.
Historian Robert A. Selig, Ph.D. explains the importance of
obtaining federal recognition of the route that French and
American troops traveled on their way to the historic victory at
Yorktown in 1781 .................................................................4

Finding a Treasure at Fraunces Tavern: A Lost Letter
from George Washington Comes to Light. As the Fraunces
Tavern building manager searched a storage area for glassware
used in the Turtle Feast of 1883, he came upon a letter apparently
written by George Washington a century before. .......................16

One of My Favorites. In this new occasional feature, a member
of the Society discusses a favorite work about the Revolution.
Here Larry Nathan Burns offers excerpts from a long out-of-
print book about Commodore John Barry .................................18

Doing Time at Dartmoor Prison. Illinois Society Past President
Burton L. Showers writes of his experience helping coordinate
and raise funds for a project to restore a neglected English
cemetery for U.S. prisoners of the War of 1812 .........................28

The next issue of Flintlock & Powderhorn will be published

COVER: A Lauzun hussar from Uniformes militaires (Paris: Chez-Juillet, 1780).
The Lauzun hussars were an important component of Rochambeau’s
forces during the Battle of Yorktown.
The swift ouster of the Saddam Hussein regime by the U.S.-led military coalition has brought the welcome promise of political freedom to the Iraqi people. They have never had a true democracy, but comments from the growing cadre of Iraqi leaders—civic, religious and tribal—and from the ordinary people as well, make it clear that representative government is what they want. They want to have their say and do it their way, which is, by definition, democracy. Whatever the ultimate governmental and social structure, it is hoped that it will serve the Iraqi people better than the oppressive reign they have endured for nearly 30 years. What the Iraqi people need are basic human services to allow them to survive until they make the transition to a democratically elected government. In the meantime, however, the most important thing is security for the people. The great challenge of Iraq now is no longer about winning the war but securing the peace.

Iraq did not use weapons of mass destruction and fortunately there was never prolonged street fighting in Baghdad. We will continue to look to the dedicated men and women of our armed forces who ensured a quick end to active hostilities. However, as ADM James J. Carey recently wrote in The Washington Times, we are entering a new debate about the economy and our domestic priorities. There may be a clamor to dismantle the same military that is successfully implementing our new strategic mission. The argument to let down our guard is a dangerous threat to our nation, as we continue to ferret out terrorist cells and engage rogue nations.

We cannot allow the military success in Iraq to lull us into a false sense of security whereby we go back to the failed policy of cyclical military and intelligence funding. America has remained a free nation for more than 200 years because of the countless sacrifices of the men and women in uniform who protect her. We continue to pray for the continued success and safety of our troops who defend freedom around the world. As a people we know and accept the words attributed to Thomas Jefferson, that “the condition upon which God hath given liberty to man is eternal vigilance.” Now is not the time to let down our guard.

Message from
General President Lunney

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J. Robert Lunney
Putting the Washington-Rochambeau Trail on the Map

by Robert A. Selig, Ph.D.

On July 11, 1780, an army of 450 officers and 5,300 men arrived in Narragansett Bay off Newport, Rhode Island. These French forces were under the command of 55-year-old General Jean Baptiste Donatien de Vimeur, comte de Rochambeau.

The ensuing Franco-American military collaboration, culminating in the defeat of British forces under Cornwallis at Yorktown in October 1781, was crucial for the success of the Revolutionary War and the achievement of American independence. It laid the foundation for two centuries of Franco-American brotherhood-in-arms that was renewed and strengthened in two World Wars.

In 2006 we will celebrate the 225th anniversary of that victory at Yorktown. One of the foremost projects in that commemoration is reflected in Public Law 106–473, an “Act to require the Secretary of the Interior to complete a resource study of the 600-mile route through Connecticut, Delaware, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Virginia, used by George Washington and General Rochambeau during the American Revolutionary War.”

Unlike most other projects in the Yorktown anniversary celebrations, this project focuses not on a climactic battle but on the experience of the march. The law instructs the National Park Service to collect and submit to Congress reports with historical
information, data and supporting evidence on the march to victory. Based on these reports, Congress will decide whether to designate the route taken by thousands of American and French troops from Newport to Yorktown and back to Boston a National Historic Trail in time for the 2006 celebration.

The research now underway in response to the Congressional request is examining the contributions of the local populations, male and female, slave and free; drawing the portraits of the soldiers, white and black, young and old; recalling the many Franco-American encounters at hundreds of taverns, campsites and farmhouses along the way; and remembering the victory celebrations that greeted the armies on their march north in the winter of 1781 and the summer of 1782. It aims to tell the story of the campaign of 1781 in an inclusive and localized way—yet within the greater framework of the war—as no individual site by itself ever could.

What then is the story of Franco-American cooperation, what is the story of the march, what are the federal and state governments doing to support this project, and what can you, the Sons of the Revolution, do to make this trail a reality?
In retrospect, it is hard to imagine two allies more diverse than France and the United States in 1781. What formed the basis of their alliance and what held it together was neither shared ideology and ideals nor common territorial or financial interests. France maintained a bankrupt, reluctant ally, and in the very treaty creating the alliance renounced all territorial gain in the New World. The one and only reason why the France of Louis XVI would so generously share her resources with American rebels was a passion to defeat and to humiliate a common enemy, the desire for revenge, the urge to destroy the British tyrannie des mers which threatened to swallow the final remnants of France’s once powerful colonial empire that had survived the humiliation of 1763. It was for this goal that France spent over one billion livres between 1775 and 1783. It was for this goal that the fleurs-de-lis flew on the ramparts of Yorktown. And it was for this goal that His Most Christian Majesty threw all ideological considerations overboard and provided the United States with the military, financial and economic support she needed to win her independence.

As early as the fall of 1775, the playwright Pierre Augustin Caron de Beaumarchais, author of The Barber of Seville, had approached French foreign minister the comte de Vergennes with a plan to support the American rebels. In January 1776 Vergennes submitted his proposals to Louis XVI, informing him that his plan was “not so much to terminate the war between America and England, as to sustain and keep it alive to the detriment of the English, our natural and pronounced enemies.” After some hesitation, Louis told Vergennes that he “disliked the precedent of one monarchy giving support to a republican insurrection against a legitimate monarchy,” but agreed to let Beaumarchais act as the secret agent of the crown. In April 1776, military supplies were made available to Beaumarchais, who set up the trading company of Roderigue Hortalez & Co. as a front to channel aid to the Americans. In June, Louis granted Beaumarchais, i.e. the American rebels, a loan of one million livres. Spain added another million in August. By September of 1777, France had dispatched clothing for 30,000 men, 4,000 tents, 30,000 muskets with bayonets, over 100 tons of gunpowder, 216 (mostly four-pound) cannons and gun carriages, 27 mortars, almost 13,000 shells and more than 50,000 round shot.

“The one and only reason why the France of Louis XVI would so generously share her resources with American rebels was a passion to defeat and to humiliate a common enemy. . .”
The Continental Army put Beaumarchais' supplies to good use. The defeat of General Johnny Burgoyne and his army in October 1777 by General Horatio Gates at Saratoga was a major turning point in the American Revolutionary War. It was won by American soldiers, even if 90 percent of their gunpowder had been supplied by and paid for by France, and was used in Charleville M 1763-66 pattern muskets, which had become standard in the Continental Army.

The victory at Saratoga convinced France that the American rebellion had a possibility of success. News of Burgoyne's surrender reached Paris on the evening of December 4, 1777. Two months later Conrad Alexandre Gérard signed the “Treaty of Amity and Commerce” and a secret “Treaty of Alliance,” while Silas Deane, Benjamin Franklin and Arthur Lee signed for the United States. By these treaties France offered “to maintain...the liberty, sovereignty, and independence” of the United States in case of war between her and Britain. France promised to fight until the independence of the United States was guaranteed in a peace treaty. In return, the United States promised not to “conclude either truce or peace with Great Britain without the formal consent of the other first obtained.”

A treaty of military alliance is not a declaration of war; but on hearing the news, the Court of St. James recalled its ambassador from France, which in turn expelled the British commissioners at Dunkerque. In early June, British ships chased the Belle Poule off the coast of Normandy. The frigate held her ground and limped, badly damaged and with half of her crew dead or wounded, into Brest. King Louis XVI responded by ordering his navy on July 10 to give chase to Royal Navy vessels. The war was on.

Though France had begun supporting the colonies in the fall of 1775, well before their final break with the motherland on July 4, 1776, and had formalized her relationship with the United States in the two treaties of February 1778, the initial military cooperation did not go well. The year 1778 saw a failed amphibious assault on British strongholds at Newport, Rhode Island. The failed assault on Savannah, Georgia, in September and October 1779 came hard on the heels of an equally disastrous attempt at a cross-channel invasion of England in the summer of the same year. Though the king and Vergennes had placed no high hopes in the invasion scheme, the inability of France to lighten the pressure on the Continental Army was straining the alliance with the United States. In the fall of 1779, the voices calling for the dispatch across the Atlantic and stationing of ground forces on the American mainland could no longer be ignored.

The shift in favor of sending troops to America came in late January of 1780. On February 2 the king approved the plan, code-named “expédition particulière.” The king appointed Charles Louis d' Arsac chevalier de Ternay, an officer with 40 years experience, to command the naval forces. For the land
forces he chose 55-year-old Jean Baptiste Donatien de Vimeur, comte de Rochambeau, a professional soldier with 37 years of experience. The king promoted Rochambeau to lieutenant general and placed him at the head of the expedition.

Rochambeau spent much of March trying to have his force increased, and succeeded in adding the 2nd battalion of the Auxonne artillery, some 500 men, a few dozen engineers and mineurs (minelayers), and 600 men from the Légion de Lauzun as a light cavalry and infantry force, to the four regiments of infantry (the Bourbonnais, Soissonnais, Saintonge and the German-speaking Royal Deux-Ponts, totaling some 4,000 men) he would be able to take. A quartermaster staff, a medical department of about 100, a commissary department, a provost department and dozens of domestiques brought what was supposed to be the first division of the expédition particulière to almost 6,000 officers and men.

In May a fleet consisting of 32 transports, seven ships of the line, two frigates and two smaller warships set sail from Brest. Arrival in Newport was anxiously awaited, and joy was universal when the convoy sailed into Narragansett Bay on July 11, 1780. Without having fired a single shot, the troops went into winter quarters on November 1.

After a long New England winter, Washington and Rochambeau met at Wethersfield, Connecticut in late May and decided to move their forces outside New York for a possible attack on that center of British power in America. While keeping an eye on Cornwallis in Virginia, they decided to join their forces on the North [Hudson] River for an attack on New York “as the only practicable object under present circumstances,” as Washington wrote to Rochambeau on June 13, 1781. A march to the southward was ruled out since the summer heat would badly affect the troops.
From his headquarters in Newburgh, Washington implored the various states to fill up their quotas and to gather supplies for man and beast for the coming campaign. Chief Engineer Louis le Begue de Presle du Portail requisitioned an initial allotment of 3,106 horses and 2,132 draft oxen for the main American army's summer campaign. In Newport, Quartermaster-General Pierre François de Béville's assistants started drawing maps and picking campsites while their purchasing agent, Jeremiah Wadsworth, began buying the vast amounts of provisions needed to feed the thousands of men, their 2,000 or so horses and over 600 oxen. On June 11 a convoy carrying 592 infantry and 68 artillery replacements arrived in Boston, but only about 400 were healthy enough for duty. Since Rochambeau had to leave 400 men behind as garrisons in Newport and Providence and detach 700 men to the navy, he had around 450 officers and 3,000 enlisted men plus at least 500 servants, 239 wagon conductors and 15 cooks in his columns.

On June 18 the First Division of the French forces set out from Providence for Waterman's Tavern. Three days later the volontaires étrangers de Lauzun, a 600-strong contingent of cavalry and light infantry, left Lebanon, Connecticut, where the hussars had spent the winter. They followed a route some 10 to 15 miles to the south of the infantry, protecting its flank. Rochambeau, who rode in the First Division, had established this order for the march:

- The regiment Bourbonnais under the vicomte de Rochambeau, to leave on June 18;
- The regiment Royal Deux-Ponts under baron de Vioménil, to leave on June 19;
- The regiment Soissonnais under comte de Vioménil, to leave on June 20; and
- The regiment Saintonge under comte de Custine, to leave on June 21.

Each division was led by an assistant quartermaster general and preceded by workmen who filled potholes and removed obstacles. Then came the division proper. In the case of the First Division, this meant that Rochambeau's son led the column, followed by the officers and men of the Bourbonnais. Dressed in gaiters, wigs and tight-fitting woolen underwear, each man, besides his musket, carried equipment weighing almost 60 pounds. Next came the horse-drawn carriages of the field artillery. The seven wagons of Rochambeau's baggage headed the baggage train, followed by the ten regimental wagons, one per company, with the tents of the soldiers and the luggage of the

"[In May, 1781 Washington and Rochambeau] decided to join their forces on the North River for an attack on New York..."
officers: 300 pounds for a captain, 150 pounds for a lieutenant. The staff had its own wagon, and a wagon for stragglers completed the regimental assignment. Behind them followed the hospital wagons, eight wagons carrying the military chest of the army treasurer, wagons for butchers, others loaded with bread, fodder, the King's stock ("magasin des effects du Roy"). Wheelwrights and farriers brought up the rear. The make-up of the other three divisions followed the same pattern.

In order to avoid having to march in the heat of the day, the regiments got up early. Reveille was usually around 2:00 a.m., and by 4:00 a.m. the regiments were on their way. Captain Samuel Richards of the Connecticut Line, on leave at home in Farmington, Connecticut, in June 1781, recorded that "They marched on the road in open order, until the music struck up, they then closed into close order. On the march—a quarter master preceded and at the forking of the road would be stuck a pole with a bunch of straw at top to shew the road they were to take." The next campsite, 12 to 15 miles away, was reached between 8:00 a.m. and noon, where the soldiers set up tents according to their eight-man chambrées. Here they received meat, bread and other supplies for dinner. While general officers lodged in taverns, company-grade officers slept two to a tent near the men. This order was maintained with variations for the march to Head of Elk, Maryland.

On July 2 the duc de Lauzun joined Rochambeau's infantry on its march toward Bedford across the New York State line and on to White Plains, where, four days later, the French met up with the 4,000-man-strong Continental Army. They were in for a surprise. Baron von Closen, a captain in the Royal Deux-Ponts, reported: "I had a chance to see the American army, man for man. It was really painful to see these brave men, almost naked with only some trousers and little linen jackets, most of them without stockings, but, would you believe it? Very cheerful and healthy in appearance. A quarter of them were negroes, merry, confident, and sturdy. . . . Three quarters of the Rhode Island regiment consists of negroes, and that regiment is the most neatly dressed, the best under arms, and the most precise in its manoeuvres."
“In beholding this army,” the comte de Clermont-Crèvecœur “was struck, not by its smart appearance, but by its destitution: the men were without uniforms and covered with rags; most of them were barefoot. They were of all sizes, down to children who could not have been over 14.” The comte de Lauberdière found the Continental Army “lined up in the order of battle in front of their camp. It was not a very pleasant sight, not because of the attire and the uniform of the regiments, because at present, and ever since they have been in the war, they are pretty much naked. But I remember their great accomplishments and I can not see without a certain admiration that it was with these same men that General Washington had so gloriously defended his country.” What bothered him even more was that the Americans “lined up in the ranks according to seniority. This method infinitely hurts the eye and the beautiful appearance of the troops because it often places a tall man between two short ones and a short one between two tall ones.” What a difference to the French line, which was “well lined up, of an equal height, well dressed.”

The attack on New York never materialized. When the frigate Concorde brought news on August 14 that French Admiral de Grasse was headed for the Chesapeake with all the ships and troops he had gathered, Washington and Rochambeau quickly
shifted gears. On August 18 the two armies headed south for Virginia, for Lord Cornwallis and Yorktown. The left column of the French army, the artillery and military chest, left Philppsburg for Pines Bridge on the 18th, the right column, i.e., the infantry, departed on the 19th. The Americans formed the left flank, and the two armies only met to cross rivers: the Croton at Pines Bridge on August 21, the Hudson at King’s Ferry on the 24th, the Delaware at Trenton on September 2.

Not until September 1, when the troops had already reached Princeton, did Sir Henry Clinton suspect that he might not be targeted for an attack after all. The following day he surmised: “By intelligence which I have this day received, it would seem that Mr. Washington is moving an army to the southward with an appearance of haste, and gives out that he expects the cooperation of a considerable French armament,” i.e., a fleet.

From Princeton southward the routes of the American and French armies converged on the main colonial post road (roughly U.S. Route 1), with the Americans preceding the French by a day. As the French paraded through Philadelphia the Free-man’s Journal of September 5 reported that “the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regiment</th>
<th>Commanding Officer</th>
<th>Strength</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Commander-in-Chief’s Guard</td>
<td>Captain Caleb Gibbs</td>
<td>70 officers and men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhode Island Regiment</td>
<td>Lt.-Col. Jeremiah Olney</td>
<td>360 officers and men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First New York Regiment</td>
<td>Colonel George Van Schaick</td>
<td>390 officers and men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second New York Regiment</td>
<td>Colonel Philip Van Cortlandt</td>
<td>420 officers and men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combined New Jersey Regiment</td>
<td>Colonel Mathias Ogden</td>
<td>330 officers and men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canadian Regiment (Congress’ Own)</td>
<td>Brevet Brigadier Moses Hazen</td>
<td>270 officers and men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Light Infantry Regiment</td>
<td>Lt.-Col. Alexander Scammel</td>
<td>380 officers and men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Continental Artillery</td>
<td>Colonel John Lamb</td>
<td>200 officers and men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corps of Sappers and Miners</td>
<td>Captain James Gilliland</td>
<td>50 officers and men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artificer Regiment</td>
<td>Lt.-Col. Ebenezer Stevens</td>
<td>unknown</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fusilier of the Saintonge from Gabriel Nicholas Ruspe, *Uniformes des armées françai* (Nuremberg, ca. 1773).
appearance of these troops far exceeds any thing of the kind seen on this continent, and presages the happiest success to the cause of America." By September 8 they had reached Head of Elk, still more than 200 miles from Williamsburg. The plan had been for the allied forces to embark and sail down the Chesapeake to Yorktown, but there were only enough boats for Lauzun’s infantry, some 270 men, and Rochambeau’s grenadiers and chasseurs.

The main body of Rochambeau’s and Washington’s armies forded the Susquehanna at Bald Friar’s Ferry, Maryland, and advanced south via Baltimore to Annapolis. Here the troops and field artillery embarked on September 21 for Archer’s Hope at the mouth of College Creek. By September 26 the combined armies were gathering in Williamsburg—albeit without their luggage. There had been no space for the artillery horses or the 220 some wagons, 1,500 horses and 800 oxen of the train in Baltimore. The train covered the 230 miles to Williamsburg in 17 days, arriving on October 6, the day the first trench opened.

On October 19, 1781, Cornwallis surrendered. The march to victory had come to an end.

Not many taverns, meeting houses and campsites of this era are left today along the roads these armies traveled. What does remain is threatened by land-devouring development as farms become subdivisions, campsites disappear under asphalt, playgrounds and front lawns, and taverns and homes are replaced by strip malls. The road itself is all but gone: only short sections have survived in rural sections of eastern Connecticut and other states or because they are protected from the outside world by barbed wire, such as parts of the old York Road that pass through the U.S. Naval Weapons Station along the final 12-mile stage from Williamsburg to Yorktown.

Public Law 106-473, signed by President Clinton on December 4, 2000, aims to preserve for future generations what is left of the sites connected with the 1781-82 march along America’s east coast that culminated in the victory at Yorktown. The legislation allocated federal funds to conduct a study to determine whether this route meets the requirements of the National Trails System Act of 1968. Section 5 of this Act declares that in order to qualify for designation as a national historic
trail, a trail must meet all three of the following criteria:

- It must be a trail or route established by historic use and must be historically significant as a result of that use. The route need not currently exist as a discernible trail to qualify, but its location must be sufficiently known to permit evaluation of public recreation and historical interest potential.
- It must be of national significance with respect to any of several broad facets of American history, such as trade and commerce, exploration, migration and settlement, or military campaigns. To qualify as nationally significant, historic use of the trail must have had a far-reaching effect on broad patterns of American culture.
- It must have significant potential for public recreational use or historical interest based on historic interpretation and appreciation.

Phase 1 of this process, required under the National Trails System Act, was the compilation of Statements of National and Historic Significance. Earlier this winter, the draft Statement of National Significance for the trail study cleared National Park Service (NPS) internal review, an important step towards designation as a National Historic Trail. On April 8, 2003, the Landmarks Committee of the NPS Advisory Board reviewed and approved the draft statement.

What lies ahead in Phase 2 is determining the other two criteria, feasibility and desirability of a National Historic Trail designation. This will require planning to measure the impacts of different management strategies on the natural and cultural resources, the socio-economic environments, the visitor experience and a host of other pieces of the "affected environment."

Above all, the planning process, how the NPS comes to make what decision, has to be documented and in compliance with the national Environmental Protection Agency. The structure of the study—what issues were looked at, what outreach was done—has to follow the structure and requirements of an environmental impact study. The big challenges are (1) the geographic scale of the route, (2) intensity of development and (3) concentration of population along the way, all of which are unprecedented among trail studies. The outcome is not a foregone conclusion: legal challenges can come from within the NPS as well as from the public. Historians, property rights advocates, fiscal conservatives and others may want to derail the study for whatever reason, or adversely affect Congress’ decision, since designation as a National Historic Trail takes an Act of Congress.

Assuming that all continues to go according to plan, Phase 2 will

“This may well be the last chance to preserve what is left of America’s Revolutionary road to victory.”
be completed in the fall of 2004. In Phase 3, we’ll be looking for a congressman or congresswoman and a senator to introduce National Historic Trail legislation.

While work is proceeding on the federal level, individual states along the route are taking inventory of their resources. Funded either by the state (Connecticut), private foundations (New York), or a combination of state and heritage-based organizations such as the Sons of the American Revolution (Delaware), work on the W3R continues on many levels. There is no need to wait for Congress’ designation of the W3R as a National Historic Trail—if and when it comes. By the summer of 2005, much of the work should be done already in preparation for 2006. While Connecticut already has a guidebook ready for publication and is placing signs and markers along the route, the Daughters of the American Revolution in New York has begun a program to replace missing markers. Stakeholder groups such as the Alliance Française and Souvenir Française and enthusiastic individuals in states such as Delaware are gathering funds to publish the findings of their research. In Rhode Island a committee has been formed in the state legislature. Pennsylvania is joining the national effort while in Maryland and in Virginia, where the Society of the Cincinnati has taken the lead, resource inventories will soon be compiled. Much remains to be done in Massachusetts and New Jersey.

There are many opportunities for the Sons of the Revolution to become involved, either by themselves or in cooperation with other heritage-based organizations. This could be by conducting or funding a resource inventory, by underwriting the publication of educational materials for our schools that commemorate and celebrate the sacrifices and successes of the Founding Fathers, or even by just letting representatives on the state and federal levels know that they support the project.

These efforts to create a Washington-Rochambeau Revolutionary Route National Historic Trail by 2006 must not fail. This may well be the last chance to preserve what is left of America’s Revolutionary road to victory. Given the current pace of development, there may be nothing left by the time the 250th anniversary comes around in 2031.

You’ll find a great amount of information about W3R activities and links to state organizations, sponsors and affiliates on its Web site, www.amrevandfrance.com. If you’re looking for an opportunity to help in the project, one suggestion is to contact Jack D. Warren Jr., director of history and education at The Society of the Cincinnati, Anderson House, 2118 Massachusetts Ave. NW, Washington, DC 20008 (e-mail Jdwjr1@aol.com). He’s trying to assemble funding for state-wide resource inventories and historical surveys in Virginia and Maryland.

Author Robert A. Selig welcomes your comments and inquiries about the W3R project. You can contact Dr. Selig on-line at rselig@remc7.mi.k12.mi.us.
Finding a Treasure at Fraunces Tavern
A Lost Letter from George Washington

There was much excitement at Fraunces Tavern in late April when a search in the storage area for glass and pottery objects used in the 1883 “Turtle Feast,” at which the Society was reorganized, uncovered an apparent long-lost letter from George Washington. The letter, found by Building Manager Bruce Barraclough and reproduced at right, reads:

Annapolis
Dec 4 1783

Dear Westbrook

It was with deep regret I did not see you at Fraunces Tavern with our other friends. But all things must end. I most devoutly wish that your days now may be prosperous and happy as your former has been honorable. I can now but take this opportunity to wish you farewell.

I am Dr Sir
Yr Friend, etc.
G Washington

Dr. Laurence Simpson, past president of the New York Society, reports that “this letter is an enigma. We have so far not been able to locate a donor card or any other information on it other than the box we found it in.”

He adds, “The letter, besides being extremely valuable, is very significant in a number of ways:

- It was written on the same day as the famous Farewell in the Long Room;
- Fraunces Tavern is mentioned as the site of the gathering;
- The wording “day(s) has been honorable” is...
Washington Comes to Light

similar to that found in the description of the Farewell in the handwritten diary of Benjamin Tallmadge, which we also own:

Washington, being very formal, considered the Farewell a very significant event. It appears that Washington wrote at least one note—and maybe more—wishing his fond farewell in writing to individuals who couldn’t attend.

“Here’s my guess as to the origin of the letter: the estate of John Austin Stevens, founder of the New York Society and organizer of the Turtle Feast. He was a man of wealth, and given his connection to Fraunces Tavern it is very conceivable that he would have purchased something like this letter and ultimately bequeathed it to the New York Society. Whether this was by accident or design, and before or after he died in 1910, I cannot say.

“In a private letter to Stevens from James Mortimer Montgomery, an early founder of both the New York Society and the General Society, written in May 1904, Montgomery gives Stevens some details of how the Tavern was obtained. He also mentions that because the Society now would have a permanent home once restoration of the Tavern was complete, Montgomery would store any items that Stevens would forward to him until the work was finished.”

Dr. Simpson plans to seek authentication and an estimate of the letter’s value from experts in the field. He explained that the search for glassware and pottery used in the Turtle Feast—an effort that was quite successful, uncovering a number of interesting objects—is part of a project to enhance the permanent exhibit of the history of the Sons of the Revolution in Fraunces Tavern Museum.
One of My Favorites

In this issue we inaugurate “One of My Favorites,” which we hope will be an occasional feature of Flintlock & Powderhorn. It is an opportunity for members of the Sons of the Revolution to introduce their compatriots to works dealing with the American Revolution that they have found particularly interesting or compelling.

In most instances this feature will be a simple essay about the book (or motion picture, play, painting or historical site). But in this inaugural feature, Larry Nathan Burns of the Florida Society—who is an editor of the General Society publications—has chosen a slender volume from his personal library that is long out of print. While this means that members whose interest is piqued are unlikely to find a copy of Commodore John Barry: The Father of the American Navy in either a bookstore or library, it is also in the public domain, so we have the opportunity to present brief excerpts from the book in these pages.

Readers should be aware that there has long been a dispute among naval historians as to who should have possession of the title, “Father of the American Navy.” The contenders are John Paul Jones and John Barry. The author, William Barry Meany, was a descendant of John Barry and intended his book, subtitled “A Survey of Extraordinary Episodes in His Naval Career,” as a brief in the court of public opinion on the side of his ancestor.

John Barry (1745-1803) was a native of Ireland. Prior to the Revolution he was a successful commercial shipmaster, based in Philadelphia and conducting voyages first to South America and the West Indies, and then, on the eve of hostilities, to British ports.

Commodore John Barry: The Father of the American Navy

By William Barry Meany, M.D.

Published in 1911 by Harper & Brothers Publishers, New York & London

Selected and Introduced by Larry Nathan Burns

I was first shown this 75-page book about Commodore John Barry at a Common Sense Chapter luncheon meeting in Florida. The writer was William Barry Meany, M.D. The inside cover was inscribed as a gift to Missouri Governor John Barry O’Meara. It was a prized family possession of Common Sense Chapter and Florida Society member J. Barry McMeanamy, who
While Barry was in London with his ship, the Black Prince, much history was being made—and observing the trend of events, he, in September, 1775, hastily returned to Philadelphia. He arrived home on October 13, the very day Congress resolved to fit out two armed cruisers, one of fourteen guns, the other of ten guns. Barry at once offered his ship and services to Congress, which were accepted. His business affairs then were at the height of their prosperity, but his sympathies were so strongly and fervently with the cause of the colonies that he sacrificed his fortune and private interests and at once enlisted in the Continental navy.

I wrote a monthly Chapter newsletter for several years. Each issue contained a page or so about the American Revolution and, I am ashamed to admit, I had never heard of John Barry. I knew precious little about the naval history of the American Revolution. Oh, sure, I knew something about John Paul Jones and the Bonhomme Richard, but that about covered my knowledge.

Assuring Barry that I would use it with care I asked to borrow this small volume.

You might be charmed by the somewhat stiff, sometimes oracular, style of the author. And as you read, observe that Meany even becomes a little sententious recounting the often unrecognized merits of his subject. John Barry was self-effacing, modest, lacking the self-confident, self-aware posturing of John Paul Jones, whose feel for public relations has put his name on the lips of every student of American history.

Why, one wonders, has John Paul Jones gained pride of place at Annapolis? His remains, taken from a grave in Paris, were moved to the United States Naval Academy crypt there to be encased in a marble sarcophagus so grand as to be compared to the tomb of Napoleon. Where was John Barry, whose contributions to the history of the navy in the American Revolution were probably more worthy? The end of the book shows John Barry's statue in front of Independence Hall. A worthy site!

Reproduced in the book is Commission Number One naming John Barry commander-in-chief of all naval forces of the United States (to take rank from 4 June 1794). It was signed by President George Washington 22 February 1797.

With the return of the book to its owner, my bookshelves suffered a great loss. Finally, a virtually mint-condition copy was offered by an antiquarian book dealer on the Internet for $55. Later two other fine-to-good-condition copies were found at more reasonable prices. These were acquired for J. Barry McMenamy's large family.

For those unfamiliar with the career of Commodore John Barry, I hope these few excerpts will be of interest.

—Larry Nathan Burns

While Barry was in London with his ship, the Black Prince, much history was being made—and observing the trend of events, he, in September, 1775, hastily returned to Philadelphia. He arrived home on October 13, the very day Congress resolved to fit out two armed cruisers, one of fourteen guns, the other of ten guns. Barry at once offered his ship and services to Congress, which were accepted. His business affairs then were at the height of their prosperity, but his sympathies were so strongly and fervently with the cause of the colonies that he sacrificed his fortune and private interests and at once enlisted in the Continental navy.
From that day, October 13, 1775, to the end of his eventful career (by death) September 13, 1803, John Barry was the senior or ranking officer of his ship and squadrons, and at no time did he serve under the orders of a senior officer, reporting direct to Washington, Congress, or to the secret and marine committees.

The history that accompanies the data hereinafter to be given is taken from the Continental and United States Congressional Records; official and private letters of Washington, Robert Morris, Franklin, Benjamin Rush, McHenry, Stoddert, and others; papers of the marine and secret committees, and, therefore, is not subject to the distrust that accompanies all accounts of "history" made to order or taken from the memoirs or personal diaries of the actor himself or its direct beneficiaries. Unofficial records are entitled to respect, though like all authority of this nature, their facts should be received with caution.

It would seem meet, then, that measures should at once be taken by the proper governmental authorities for the accurate compilation of the official records of service and characteristics—as evidenced in such records, manuscripts, etc., as are in reach of and now in the possession of the government—of each distinguished officer of the early navy (known, perhaps, to the older officers of the navy, but unknown to the public), and arranged in alphabetical order and in chronological sequence as to be available in print for the use of midshipmen at Annapolis, and for distribution, either free or at a nominal fixed price, for public and semi-public libraries for the correct information of a generous public—so that he who runs may read and he who reads may know.

It was befittingly left to our immortal Washington to repose special trust and confidence in Barry's patriotism, valor, and abilities by rapid promotion, as evidenced by executive appointments and high commissions on special, hazardous, and most important voyages—and so recorded by trustworthy and dispas-
sionate commentators, such as James Fenimore Cooper, Dr. Benjamin Rush, Dennie, Preble, Abbot, Frost, Charles A. Dana, George Ripley, and others of high literary attainments—esteemed, respected, and supported by Washington, who attached Barry as his aide-in-chief at the very commencement of hostilities, showing clearly that Barry is justly entitled to the designation of father of the American navy.

On October 5, 1775, Washington directed a letter to Congress, with an urgent request to that body for the building, or purchasing and equipping, of two vessels, one of fourteen guns, the other of ten guns, to be placed at his disposal and under his orders, etc.

On October 13, 1775, Congress, taking into consideration the report of the committee—Deane, Langdon, and Gadsden—appointed to prepare a plan for intercepting vessels coming out with stores and ammunition, after some debate, Resolved: “That two vessels carrying, one fourteen, and the other ten guns, a proportionable number of swivels and men should be fitted out.”

This was the commencement of our American navy, and what became known as Washington's fleet. The heavier armed, the Lexington, 14 guns, was given to the command of Capt. John Barry. He was appointed captain (the highest rank attainable by authority of the Continental Congress) on December 7, 1775, though selected some time previous to that date by Washington.

The proposal of fitting out a fleet to combat the greatest and most powerful sea force of the world, that of Great Britain—said to be of a thousand ships—did, indeed, seem to be to the most resolute defenders aside from Washington, Morris, Barry, Rutledge, and a few others, a foolhardy undertaking, and when Rutledge, of South Carolina, moved the appointment of a committee to prepare a plan and estimate of a fleet, many made the proposition a subject of ridicule.

With the Lexington Barry put to sea, and with his light brig was enabled to pass through a narrow channel left open and free from heavy ice, the main channel of the then heavily ice-blocked Delaware River at that time being impassable; and in Preble’s Origin of the Flag it is declared that his (the Lexington) “was the first vessel that bore the Continental flag to victory on the ocean.”

“The proposal of fitting out a fleet to combat the greatest and most powerful sea force of the world...did, indeed, seem to be...a foolhardy undertaking...”
The incident of raising the first “American flag” on the Alfred in the earlier months of 1776 is always related with patriotic glamor, as though the stars and stripes, our national or American flag, was first hoisted by the then Lieut. John Paul Jones, as so often has been stated in public print.

In the Journals of the Continental Congress, Vol. 8, the following resolution was adopted on June 14, 1777: Resolved, “That the flag of the United States be thirteen stripes, alternate red and white; that the Union be a blue field, representing a new constellation.”

The first mention on the records of the nation presents the name of John Paul Jones to Congress on December 22, 1775, as first on the lists of lieutenants of the new navy reported by the marine committee for confirmation. He was appointed as a lieutenant to the Alfred, commanded by Captian Saltonstall. That the gallant Paul Jones served our country well, both as a lieutenant and afterward as a captain in the navy, is undisputed.

In the History of the United States Navy, by James Fenimore Cooper (himself a midshipman in the navy, attaining the rank of a lieutenant, and acquiring an experience which he found most useful in his literary career), published in 1839, the following appears in Vol. I: “For the first regular cruise that ever got to sea under the new government we must refer to the Lexington, 14 guns, a little brig, the command of which was given to Capt. John Barry, a ship-master of Philadelphia of credit and skill. The honor has long been claimed for Captain Barry, and, on as close examination of the facts as our means will allow, we believe it is his due. The Lexington must have left the Capes of the Delaware late in January or early in February, and her orders were to sail southward.”

“As an offset,” writes Cooper, “to the escape of the British ship Glasgow, 20 guns, after engaging Commodore Esek Hopkins’s squadron, consisting of the Alfred, 24 guns; Columbus, 20 guns; Andrea Doria, 14 guns; Cabot, 14 guns and the Providence, 12 guns, off the east end of Long Island, on the morning of April 6, 1776, the Lexington, Captain Barry, a small brig of 14 guns, fell in with the Edward, an armed tender of the Liverpool, on April 7, 1776, off the Capes of Virginia, and, after a close and spirited action of nearly an hour, captured her. The Lexington had four of her crew killed and wounded, while the Edward was cut nearly to pieces and met with a very heavy loss of men.”

Barry succeeded in entering Delaware Bay with his prize, though strongly blockaded by British war-ships, and arrived at Philadelphia on April 11, 1776, bringing the news direct to Congress of the first capture of an armed vessel taken in battle, and thus the honor of having the first British flag struck to him by a British war-vessel in battle under Continental authority, and rejoicing the hearts of the patriots so much that even John Adams gleefully wrote: “We begin to make some figure in the navy way.”

Richard Henry Lee, in a letter describing the event, narrated that the enemy did not submit until he was near sinking. . . .
Barry’s exploits were rewarded by his appointment to command the Effingham, a frigate of 28 guns, then being built under his supervision at Philadelphia. Before her completion she was taken up the Delaware River to escape the British army which then invested Philadelphia, and was afterward destroyed by order of Congress “to prevent it falling into the hands of the British forces,” though Barry, with violent emphasis, opposed her destruction, and left no doubt in the minds of the committee of his serious earnestness—and again time proved the correctness of Barry’s judgment.

Tiring of what he termed inactivity in awaiting to take command of the incompletely Effingham, Barry manned four small rowboats, having spied a large schooner mounting 10 guns and flying the British flag, with four armed transports, loaded with provisions and forage for the enemy’s forces, lying below Philadelphia, then invested by the British army; he rowed down the river, with muffled oar-locks, passing the guarded river-front of the city during the night and, at early daylight, succeeded in rowing his boats alongside of the armed schooner, and before the English suspected the presence of any enemy, Barry, at the head of his men, was clambering over the rail of the schooner, cutlass and pistol in hand. The astonished Englishmen threw down their arms and rushed below. The victorious Americans battened down the hatches. Barry ordered the soldiers and sailors on the four transports to surrender on penalty of being fired into, and triumphantly, and in sight of a heavily armed British war-ship lying below, carried all five prizes to the piers at Fort Penn, and put the four transports in charge of Captain Middleton, who had command of the fort. Then the hatches were removed, and the American sailors being drawn up in line, Barry ordered the prisoners to come on deck.
It was found that Barry with his twenty-seven American sailors had captured one major, two captains, three lieutenants, and one hundred and thirty armed soldiers, sailors, and marines.

That was the most brilliant feat of arms upon the seas, and it was the most far-reaching in its results. From that moment the British in Philadelphia became insecure. They felt their supplies in danger. Indeed, it hastened the withdrawal of the British forces from Philadelphia.

Frost, in his Naval Biography, said of this achievement: “For boldness of design and dexterity of execution it was not surpassed during the war”. . . .

Regarding the four prize vessels which Barry brought into the port of L'Orient and already mentioned in Barry's letter to La Fayette of October 28, 1782—it may be interesting to here mention that the sales of these four prize vessels with their cargoes, captured by Commodore Barry in the Alliance, and sold at public auction at a somewhat later period in the presence of the Judges of the Admiralty and King's Attorney in virtue of the condemnation of his Excellency, Benjamin Franklin, Esq., Plenipotentiary of the United States at Paris—amounted to the sum of $2,500,000 (gold).

Here we have an evidence of Barry's innate modesty, a characteristic which followed him throughout his entire career—so becoming a naval officer and a gentleman—who, after capturing nine prizes on this voyage, bringing four of the prizes into L'Orient, wrote to Franklin (see letter dated L'Orient, October 31, 1782, and heretofore made mention) at Paris, “Having nothing of importance to communicate of any consequence but my arrival here (L'Orient), and that Mr. Barclay promised me he would announce.” Evidently Barry was not afflicted with cacoethes scribendi, or, as Juvenal expresses it—insanabile scribendi cacoethes—an insane desire for scribbling.

Barry, with the Alliance, on a cruise in foreign waters, captured an English war vessel which had taken a Venetian ship as a prize, though Venice was at that time at peace with England; she was a valuable ship with a valuable cargo. Barry, with a prospect of prize money, could have claimed her as a prize to be disposed of in port and the results distributed among his crew. Barry, without hesitation, and acting entirely from the dictates of his own humanity and justice—ever zealous of the integrity and good name of his country above all considerations—denounced the English captain who had seized her as a pirate, set her free, and told the captain of the Venetian ship to go in peace.

There is every reason to believe that owing to this affair and actions of a similar nature taken by Barry in other cases, that a mutiny was planned among the crew on board ship, resulting from dissatisfaction (and also, no doubt, to the very irregular payment of wages by the government, owing to lack of funds, a
not unusual condition prevailing throughout the Revolution) with these acts of justice on the part of their commander, that cost the crew so much of their prize prospects. Barry assembled the crew, addressed them from the quarter-deck, took their word that they would thereafter be loyal, and dismissed them to their duty, putting only the three ringleaders in irons. When they reached home these ringleaders, instead of being executed (owing to Barry's pleas in their behalf before the court-martial for clemency) were permitted to enlist in the Continental forces.

Barry fought the last battle and fired the last shot of the Revolution, when, on the Alliance, in March, 1783, he left Havana, convoying to our shores the Continental ship, Luzerne, both the ships carrying a large amount of gold on Continental account. He encountered the Sybille (followed by two other English war-ships) which he almost sank, and would have done so had not her consorts hurried to her aid. That was the last shot fired in the Revolution. This was the last naval battle of the Revolutionary War. Peace was declared April 11, 1783 . . .
“He fought often, and once bled in the cause of freedom. His habits of war did not lessen his virtues as a man, nor his piety as a Christian.”
— From the original epitaph for John Barry, written by Benjamin Rush

The eminent Dr. Benjamin Rush, of Philadelphia, who was contemporary with Barry, asked the privilege of writing the epitaph of Commodore John Barry, which was inscribed upon the original tombstone placed over the grave in Saint Mary’s Catholic churchyard at Philadelphia. Dr. Rush was active in the pre-Revolutionary movements and, as a member of the provincial conference of 1776, moved the resolution declaring the expediency of a declaration of independence—of which he was a signer. He was surgeon in the Pennsylvania navy, 1775-76, and in 1777 was appointed surgeon-general.

The following is a true copy of the epitaph in full, from the original manuscript written and signed by Dr. Rush.

“Let the patriot, the soldier, and Christian who visits these mansions of the dead, view this monument with respect. Beneath it are interred the remains of John Barry.

“He was born in the County of Wexford, in Ireland. But America was the object of his patriotism and the theater of his usefulness.

“In the Revolutionary War, which established the independence of the United States, he bore an early and active part as a captain in their navy, and afterward became its commander-in-chief.

“He fought often, and once bled in the cause of freedom. His habits of war did not lessen his virtues as a man, nor his piety as a Christian.

“He was gentle, kind, and just in private life, and was not less beloved by his family and friends than by his grateful country. The number and objects of his charities will be known only at the time when his dust shall be reanimated and when He who sees in secret shall reward.

“In full belief in the doctrines of the Gospel, he peacefully resigned his soul into the arms of his Redeemer on September 13, 1803, in the 59th year of his age.

“His affectionate widow hath caused this marble to be erected to perpetuate his name, after the hearts of his fellow-citizens have ceased to be the living records of his public and private virtues.”

As Dr. Rush was a fellow citizen, a warm personal friend of
Barry, and a fellow-patriot in the cause of liberty and freedom, may I venture the suggestion (when Congress elects to have Barry's remains removed to a worthy and appropriate resting place) that the epitaph with certain modifications be reinscribed upon one of the marble slabs of a mausoleum befitting a resting-place for the remains of that true American patriot, Commodore John Barry—the Father of the American Navy.

The present modest tomb where lie the remains of Commodore Barry, is located in a small graveyard which has been abandoned as a burial place and inaccessible to the public for more than one-half of a century, and presents a most gruesome and dilapidated appearance to the sight, and a scene of desolation that is hardly describable. On account of the disintegration and decay of the marble slabs of the old or original tomb, on which the Rush epitaph was inscribed, a new tomb was erected on the same site by friends some years ago; the epitaph, however, has been replaced by another inscription. ...★

Larry Nathan Burns adds this postscript: An article on John Barry by J. Robert Lunney appeared in Flintlock & Powderhorn Vol. 6, No. 2 (June 1988). RADM Lunney was active, both while general president of the Sons of the Revolution and as former national president of the Naval Reserve Association, in having John Barry recognized for his contributions to the United State Navy. As a result of these activities, in October 2002 the United States House of Representatives passed a unanimous resolution (H.J. Res. 6) recognizing Commodore John Barry as the first flag officer of the United States Navy. However, the resolution did not get to the Senate floor before that body adjourned in November 2002, ending the 107th Congress. The resolution will have to be reintroduced in the current (108th) Congress.
It is now more than two years since a small group of U.S. Navy men got involved in the restoration of the American Cemetery at Dartmoor Prison in Devon, England. Many things have happened since Chief Petty Officer Doug Harris got the project underway. The prison—or the British government—had for many years let the cemetery fall into neglect and disrepair. Very few people even knew there was an “American Cemetery” at Dartmoor. The actual work of restoration was long and arduous, due to the distances the men had to drive to the prison from their naval base, and the weather was not always cooperative on the moors. Work had to be scheduled on the men’s “days off” from the base. Then came the famous quarantine because of foot-and-mouth disease, which meant no work was done at the cemetery for about five months. It appeared as though the project would take forever to finish.

One of the original ideas pertaining to the restoration, in addition to cleaning up the paths and monuments already there, was to erect a new monument with the names of those Americans who died at the prison during the War of 1812. There had never been a monument recognizing by name those Americans who died at this prison. The problem with this new monument was the expense involved for the stone and engraving. But there was even a more formidable problem: we did not have a full and correct list of the names of the Americans who died there.

At the beginning of this project Doug Harris pleaded for help over the Internet, especially financial help. I was the only one who volunteered to help him raise the money. But as time wore on, the project was getting bogged down, and it was apparent that it needed direction and coordination. I offered to serve as both fundraiser and project coordinator, an offer that was glad-
ly accepted by the Navy men.

There were three things to be accomplished: (1) finish the restoration of the cemetery, (2) start making plans and designs for the new monument, and (3) compile an accurate list of names of the Americans who died at the prison. It was apparent that the latter two could be done during the quarantine, when no work could be done at the cemetery. I asked the Navy men to visit and consult stone companies, and I went to work on the list of names. Prison officer Mike Chamberlain, my valuable contact person at the prison, suggested I contact American historian and author Ira Dye for help. After a letter explaining the restoration project, Dye supplied me with his list of American dead. We already had former prison historian Ron Joy’s list, but Ron had advised us it was not totally correct and needed further research, additions and corrections. It was my task to make a database with these lists. Ron was able to check all discrepancies in the two lists with the English historical records and confirm the names as accurately as possible, making a new and clearly more accurate master list. Both men wanted to see the new monument with the names, and also wanted to see the new correct list put on the Internet for everyone to be able to use.

Since Ron Joy was the former prison historian at Dartmoor, and has access to the English records, he served as final proof-reader. In case of doubt as to spellings, we used Ron’s spellings, clarifications and interpretations. Both historians have agreed the number of deaths accounted for has changed from 217 to 271. This list of Americans who died at Dartmoor Prison 1813-1815 will appear on the new monument at the American Cemetery when it is completed.

Nothing was done in Cornwall by the Navy men on contacting stone companies or working on designs and costs, so, to keep the monument project alive, Ron Joy and I decided upon a design with four panels containing metal letters of the American names to be placed on a granite block. This is a type of monument that is practical for the Dartmoor weather, and one that we could afford. We secured the approval of the prison governor. We were moving right along, with an end in sight for the project and erection of the monument in May, 2002.

Suddenly, disaster struck: outside forces interfered and choreographed a “coup” of which I knew nothing in advance. The restoration project had become political!

The project had started out with eight navy men doing the work. It was now totally changed. Prison authorities, who hadn’t shown interest in doing any of the work on the cemetery for years, were now intent on finishing the restoration of the monuments and paths and becoming responsible for the upkeep of the cemetery. Everything was now in the hands of a new “joint committee” consisting of the American Air Force, Navy and the prison governor. Our plans for the monument were scuttled—without telling us—even though we had started work on the panels of names. I was told by the Navy restoration “leader” at
the time (via telephone) that the military and prison were going to pay for the expenses of the monument and the remainder of the restoration. That was great news! I felt my role as fundraiser and coordinator had abruptly ended, so I stopped my efforts to raise more money. The Navy boys were very upset with my decision. I wondered, “Do they know something they are not telling me?”

By this time I had collected $1,964 for the cost of the monument and restoration. Later, I was told that there would be no cash grants or gifts from the military; they would hold “fund raisers” to get the money. That could take ages, and I was determined to have this monument for the sake of the Americans who had died at Dartmoor. I collected yet more money and sent it to the project’s account. There was now a total of $5,594 in the account, all from individual private sources.

After working on this for two years, I am no longer involved in this project. It became very apparent after the “coup” on April 17, 2002 that my services as fundraiser or coordinator were no longer needed. I rapidly became an outsider. I guess I could say I saved the project until the new crowd could take over, so it was not all in vain. I feel very strongly that I did many things in this project to honor the memory of the Americans who died at Dartmoor Prison, fulfilling many of the original goals of the Navy men who started the project.

We compiled a new “official” and correct list of the Americans who died at the prison during the period 1813-1815. And, once securing that list, we were able to concentrate on a monument with the names of the Americans. I not only kept my word to Petty Officer Harris that I would help him raise money, but also managed to get two prominent historians who had possession of the names of the Americans to share them with us so we could compile the new and correct (as of March, 2002) list of names for the monument. What’s even more important, we put them on the Internet for scholarly use, a real accomplishment for the academic community and those interested in genealogy.

Two gentlemen deserve special thanks and credit for helping on this project. Mike Chamberlain, a Dartmoor Prison officer who has a great interest in the War of 1812, was tremendously helpful in this project and served as my contact person with the prison and the Navy men. Ron Joy, former prison officer and prison historian, supplied me with the original and the final list of the Americans who died at Dartmoor Prison. I am positive the project would not have been successful without the help of these two men. Of course, we owe special thanks to Chief Petty Officer Doug Harris, who started the project.

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Please note our new e-mail address: eru333@optonline.net

30
In July, 2002 the General Society Sons of the Revolution published the first book-length history of the organization, *Sons of the Revolution: A History, 1875-2001*. This 400-page hard-cover volume provides a very readable narrative from the organization’s beginnings as the New York Society was founded in the patriotic fervor following the nation’s centennial. You’ll read how forward-looking leaders from the New York, Pennsylvania and District of Columbia societies established the General Society in 1890. You’ll have the opportunity to follow the development of both the General Society and its member State Societies against the backdrop of the nation’s tumultuous history. The narrative concludes with the attack on the World Trade Center, just blocks from General Society headquarters at Fraunces Tavern, on September 11, 2001.

The history of the Sons of the Revolution is one of ebb and flow. State Societies blossomed and in some cases faded away. The author of *Sons of the Revolution: A History*, noted historian John D. Kilbourne, has researched in many dusty archives to produce a vibrant narrative that brings to life the seminal events in the organization’s history.

The book contains separate histories of every State Society, including those that no longer exist. The appendices are a treasure-house of vital information, including lists of all General Society officers through the years, winners of the organization’s various awards, the current General Society Constitution and Bylaws and data on every General Society meeting. Sixteen pages of photographs are included.

The patriots who have shaped the work of the Society for more than 125 years are the focus of this volume. Its index lists over 2,000 individuals mentioned in the text. You may find a family member in its pages.

Yes, please send me ____ copies of *Sons of the Revolution: A History* @ $30.00 per copy, which includes shipping and handling (New Jersey residents add 6% sales tax). A check in the amount of $______, made payable to General Society Sons of the Revolution, is enclosed. PLEASE PRINT!

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